EXPLORING INDONESIAN LEARNERS' BELIEFS ABOUT

LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES

THROUGH REFLECTION

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Notice 2

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Dedication

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Dik Eko, Wildan, Farah and Rifda

.......Of whom their prayers I always expect......

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Abstract

This study investigated to what extent learners' beliefs about language learning strategies (LLS) are subject to change as they are taken through a process of reflection. Three research questions were addressed: the profile of language learning strategies of the students, the nature of strategy use and belief about LLS and how the change of belief about LLS occurred.

The study employed a minor quantitative measurement and qualitative analysis of the data. Findings at the beginning of the study are compared with the findings at the end of the study after the reflection procedure was implemented. The reflection was meant to provide time for the students to contemplate, and critically evaluate, their strategy use with regard to their English learning process. Twelve students participated in this study. Three types of data collection techniques were utilized to gather the data: survey, interview, and reflective journal writing. The Strategy Inventory of Language Learning (SILL), developed by Oxford (1990) was used to collect data about the students' current learning strategies. In-depth interviews about their learning experiences with reference to their language learning approaches were also employed not only to compare with the survey results but also to enrich the data needed for deep analysis. The last instrument was the reflective learning journal. Journals were assigned to all the students in all macro-skill subjects to explore their experiences regarding their language learning journey by documenting their success and failure stories. All these data were triangulated for verification and analysed accordingly to respond to the research questions.

The findings indicate that before reflection in general the students were moderate users of the English learning strategies as formulated in the SILL. In terms of categories, metacognitive categories were the most frequently used strategies suggesting that, as adult language learners, the students were familiar with the strategies of planning, monitoring and evaluating their

learning. However, they did not exploit their emotion sufficiently to facilitate their learning, as indicated by their affective strategies being the least frequently used categories. After the intervention of reflection, the frequency use of the strategies increased across categories the with the metacognitive strategy category remaining the most frequently used. Also there was a shift in the least frequently used categories from affective strategies to memory strategies. This finding weakened the popular claim that memory strategies were the most popular strategies` among Asian EFL learners. This finding also serves as evidence that reflection is among the determinants of the improved frequency use of learning strategies.

This study shows that all of the students preferred collaborative learning especially in verbal skills, suggesting that this finding corroborates Vygotsky's theory of cognitive development and social learning. The fact that the students had different levels of English proficiency allowed them to learn from one another through their social interaction in which some students became the learners, and some others became the "More Knowledgeable Others", that is, other than the teachers. This finding was confirmed with data collected from the SILL survey which found a high level of frequency in the use of social strategy categories. Linguistic and non-linguistic problems were also identified, as encountered by the students. The problem of limited vocabularies and limited knowledge of grammar impeded them from active participation in verbal and written practices as these weaknesses made them feel anxious and afraid of making mistakes. Lack of self-confidence and lack of motivation as a result of low English competence were reported. These factors prevented them from active involvement in learning activities as they caused them to feel shy and lazy.

With regard to the learners' beliefs, it was found that the students held strong beliefs about the importance of language practice, the use of learning strategies, the significance of vocabulary and grammar, and error-correction. All of them believe that practice in language

learning is a must suggesting that without language practice learning would not happen. Most of the students also believe in the effectiveness of their use of learning strategies based on their learning experience. Students also claimed that vocabulary and grammar are fundamental in English language learning suggesting that they would give top priority to learning these components. Finally, they had a strong conviction that making errors is normal in language learning and that it is part of the learning process. Therefore, they were happy for any corrections if they made mistakes. In connection with belief change, this study found factors affecting belief change also included: self-esteem, self-confidence, motivation, mindset and conception of language and language learning. In conclusion, this study has implications for EFL pedagogical practices and for further studies in the field of learners' beliefs.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

This study aims to further understand the beliefs of Indonesian adult foreign language learners and their language learning strategies. The reasons I am interested in this study, is because of my concern, as an English language teacher educator, with the English performance of my students. These students will themselves become English as a Foreign Language (EFL) educators in the future. I teach in an English department of a teacher training faculty of one of the Muhammadiyah universities, in Yogyakarta, in which most of the subjects offered are English-related. In the role of an EFL practitioner in this English department for over a decade, I have witnessed many students' lack of competence in both verbal and written proficiency despite English being their major. Many of these students have learned English skill subjects for two or more years in the program. All Indonesian University students learn English as a major subject at secondary schools for six years as it is a compulsory subjects taught in secondary school. Moreover, few of them learnt English when they were in primary schools.

This study will investigate the types of language learning strategies the Indonesian student teacher uses to learn English. The factors which influence their opting for their strategies, and in what way they use those strategies, will also be examined. Then, this study will look into any change in the students' beliefs about language learning strategies and the nature of the change. Finally, this study will investigate the type of reflection which brings about change. This study will be presented in eight chapters.

This chapter contains introductory information to the study comprising six sections. Section One, Background to the Study, discusses the underlying considerations leading to the

significance of this study. This discussion includes the past and present conditions of the English language teaching in the Indonesian context. Section Two, Assumptions, presents several assumptions on which the study is based. The next section, Limitation of the Study, identifies areas not covered in this study. These include both practical and methodological aspects. Then a discussion of both the pedagogical and theoretical significances of the study is presented. This is followed by the key terms. Finally, the chapter ends with an outline of the structure of the thesis.

1.1 Background to the Study

1.1.1 Indonesian educational system. The history of the Indonesian educational system can be traced back long before colonization by the Dutch. *Pesantren* (Islamic boarding school) education is considered to be one of the earliest educational forms existing in the country which later, in 16th century, was called Indonesia (Rosidi, 2006; Srimulyani, 2007). As the Islamic educational institution, the goals of *pesantren* are to produce Muslims who are knowledgeable, skilful and at the same time devoted to God (Raihani, 2010 in Kuswandono, Gandana, Rohani, & Zulfikar, 2011). To reach these goals, *pesantren* developed their "unique" (my term) instruction to empower the *santri's* (students') potential. The instruction model is based on individual and group methods of learning. The individual method includes *sorogan* and *hafalan*. Sorogan, similar to independent learning in modern instructional terminology, is when the *kyai* or *ustadz* (the teachers) give some tasks to the students to complete in a certain mutually agreed period of time. At the due time, the *santri* have to perform the tasks before the *kyai* or *ustadz* who then decide whether they can proceed to the next task or not. The second aspect of the instructional model, *Hafalan* is rote learning or memorization. This task is usually memorization of the *Quran* (the Holy Book for Muslims), *Hadits* (the saying of the Prophet Muhammad PBUH[1]) and other Islamic teaching which is assessed through *sorogan* by their *kyai* or *ustadz*. The group methods of learning

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[1] Peace Be Upon Him

comprise *Bandongan* or *Weton* and *Halaqoh*. *Bandongan* or *Halaqoh* is a general lecture in which the *Kyai* or *Ustadz* reads or explains a certain topic and the *santri* who are from 5 to 500 in number, listen and take notes. *Halaqoh* is an intensive group discussion of 5 to 20 *santri* with the *Kyai* or *Ustadz* as the mentor. These *santri* prepare and discuss a topic which is previously given by the *Kyai* or *Ustadz* and, lastly, they discuss the topic with the the *Kyai* or *Ustadz* (Raihani, 2010, see also Kuswandono, 2011).

Before the 20th century, the only schools established in Dutch East Indies (the name of Indonesia during colonization) were European lower schools which were especially dedicated to give education to the children of the Dutch people living in Indonesia. Very few Indonesian children went to these schools but not only was the number very limited, they were also from aristocratic elites such as *Bupati* or regional authorities and the wealthy (Ricklefs, 1981). None of the common Indonesians had the right to get access to the schools until after the colonial government adopted an Ethical Policy in the form of education reform at the beginning of the twentieth century. This government policy was meant to pay the native people for the loss they had suffered because of the massive exploitation of their natural resources. During this time, the director of education, H.J. Abendanon widened the opportunities for non-aristocratic Indonesians to get access to education, a policy which was opposed by many groups, including the more conservative *bupatis.* The educational system during this era was very complicated. It was like a web due to the political interest of the colonial government to get support from the aristocratic Indonesians, and economically strong ethnic groups such as Chinese and Arabs. According to Djajadiningrat (1942) as cited by Syahril (2012), there were two types of education systems, Oriental (Eastern) and Occidental (Western). In terms of the language of instruction, Oriental education used local languages whereas Occidental education used Dutch. Oriental education was carried out by native Indonesians and, therefore, both the teachers and the students were native Indonesians. There were several types of schools under this Oriental educational system, such as

Village/National schools (the first three grades of elementary school), Continuation School (the next two or three grades of elementary school), Second-Class Native School (for middle/low ranking native officials, which were a combination of national and continuation schools), and Indonesian Higher elementary school (the last four grades of elementary school). In total, elementary education could take 10 years to complete. There was no secondary education made available at that time for the indigenous people of Indonesia.

The Occidental education employed Dutch teachers and used Dutch as the language of instruction and therefore possessing proficient Dutch was a must for anybody who wished to study in these schools. The curriculum implemented in this type of education was similar to that used in the Netherlands at that time. There were two types of schools under Occidental education, the European Elementary School (ELS, 7 years) and the European Secondary School (HBS, 5 years). Due to the tough entrance exam to these schools especially for Dutch proficiency not many non-Europeans could attend these schools. Therefore the colonial government established Dutch-Indonesian schools for aristocrat Indonesians, Dutch-Chinese schools for Chinese and Dutch-Arab schools for Arabs. Although these schools used Dutch as the language of instruction, taught by Dutch teachers, and were equipped with learning facilities similar to European schools, these schools were considered second class (Syahril, 2012).

There were also schools which were established based on the social level of the students *Eerste Klasse*[2] and *Tweed Klasse*. *Eerste Klasse* was established for elite Indonesians such as the sons of *Bupatis* and used Dutch as the language of instruction. *Tweed Klasse* was established for the common Indonesians and used local languages or Malay as the instructional language. Apart from the language of instruction being different, the teaching facilities were also different. *Meer*

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[2]Class (School) number One and School number two
School number one was for children from the rich families and school number two is for children from the average people

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Uitgebreid Lager Onderwijs (MULO) was initiated to accommodate the alumni of the *Eerste Klasse* and *Tweed Klasse* and to change the existing course training for people such as officials, lawyers, and doctors with a formal secondary school education. The language used for the teaching and learning process was again Dutch. The curriculum included Dutch, French, English and German. These language classes took one third of the teaching time. One third of the time was used to study natural sciences and one third was used to study social sciences.

There were two types of higher education during the colonial period which were intentionally designed to meet the demand of local government as well as help the health of the native people. The first one was OSVIA (Opleiding Scholen Voor Inlandsche Ambtenaren), a training school for native officials which prepared the students to be civil servants, and STOVIA (School Tot Opleiding Van Inlandschen Artsen), a school for training native doctors which was previously named 'Dokter-Jawa' school (Ricklefs, 1981; Supriatna, 2006). The establishment of so many schools and the changing names of the schools show that the colonial government did not have a well-designed master plan for education in the Dutch East Indies. They used a trial and error method and kept modifying the schools to meet the demands of the Indonesian people for the equal right of education. They also gave privileges to the Europeans, Chinese, Arabs and high elite Indonesians, by neglecting the majority of the common Indonesian people.

In the modern Indonesian formal educational system there are three levels of education, that is primary, secondary and tertiary education. Primary education provides a six year education starting from six year olds to eleven year olds. It is part of compulsory basic education, meaning that every child between these ages must attend primary schools without exception. Under the new regulations, Permendikbud Nomor 60 Tahun 2011 tentang Larangan Pungutan di SD dan SMP (Regulation of the Minister of Education and Culture No. 60 Year 2011 about Prohibition of Charges in Elementary and Junior High Schools), public primary schools are not permitted to take

any payment from the parents and, consequently, it is expected that there are not any school-age children who do not attend school. As a consequence of this regulation, the government has been allocating a certain amount of money to every student starting from primary school to secondary school to support their study. This money which is called *Biaya Operasional Sekolah* (BOS) (School Operational Fund) is increasing from year to year and is managed by the schools.

There are two levels of secondary education, that is, junior secondary education, providing three-years education starting from 12 years of age to 14 years, which is also part of nine-year compulsory basic education, and senior secondary education starting from 15 years old to 17 years old. The senior secondary education does not belong to the nine-year compulsory basic education although every student registered in this level of education receives BOS from the government. The senior secondary school is of two types, general and vocational. Students attending the first type are expected to continue to the tertiary level whereas those attending the second type are preparing for work. In practice, however, many of the general secondary high school leavers go to the workplace rather than pursuing higher study. On the other hand, many of the vocational secondary school leavers continue their studies to the tertiary level of education.

The other level of formal education is tertiary education which takes place at such educational institutions as universities, academies, colleges, and polytechnics. These have a range of two to four years' time to study depending on the level. In general there are four levels of tertiary education, diploma 3 (3 years) and 4 (4 years), bachelor's degree (4 years), master's degree (2 years) and doctoral degree (4 years).

Table 1.1

Indonesia Education System from pre-colonization to present day

Periods	Educational Institutions	Eligible Students	Language of Instruction	Tuition Fee	Main Subjects taught
Before Colonization	*Pondok Pesantren*	Everyone	Local language	Free	Islam, Arabic agriculture, carpentry, fishery, business
During Colonization	Eerste klasse	Indonesian elites	Dutch	Applied Expensive	Reading, writing, language and computation
	Tweed klasse	Common Indonesia	Malay; local language	Depends	Reading, writing, language and computation
	ELS	European children, higher elite native	Dutch	Applied Expensive	Reading, writing, language and computation
	HBS	European children, higher elite native	Dutch	Applied Expensive	Reading, writing, language and computation
	Dutch-Indonesian Schools	Higher elite native		Applied Expensive	Reading, writing, local language, Dutch, History of Netherlands and computation
	Dutch-Chinese Schools	Chinese	Dutch	Applied Expensive	Reading, writing, computation, French, Chinese, Dutch and English
	Dutch-Arabian Schools	Arabians	Dutch	Applied Expensive	Reading, writing, computation, French, Arabic, Dutch and English
	Meer Uitgebreid Lager Onderwijs (MULO)	Indonesians	Indonesians	Applied Expensive	Dutch, French, English, German, Math, Exact sciences, social sciences.
	Algemeene Middlebare School (AMS)	Indonesians	Dutch	Applied Expensive	A afdeling (arts and culture) B afdeling (natural and exact sciences)

	OSVIA	Native Indonesians	Dutch	Applied	Administrative law; state law
	STOVIA	Native Indonesians	Dutch	Expensive	Medicine
Modern Indonesia	Pre-school playgroup	Indonesians from all ethnic groups	Indonesian	Expensive (mostly run by private sector)	Arts, music, physical exercise
	Kindergarten	Indonesians from all ethnic groups	Indonesian	Expensive (mostly run by private sector)	Arts, music, physical exercise
	Elementary School	Indonesians from all ethnic groups	Indonesian	Not applied- in public schools since 2012	Indonesian, maths, Indonesian history, arts, natural science, social science, etc. (English is optional since grade 4)
	Junior High School	Indonesians regardless the ethnic backgrounds	Indonesian	Not applied- in public schools since 2012	Indonesian, English maths, Indonesian history, arts, natural science, social science, etc.
	Senior High School	Indonesians regardless the ethnic backgrounds	Indonesian	Applied	Indonesian, English maths, Indonesian history, arts, natural science, social science, etc.
	Tertiary level: Diploma 3 / associate degree	Indonesians regardless the ethnic backgrounds	Indonesian	Applied	Depends on the program course
	Diploma 4/ bachelor degree	Indonesians regardless the ethnic backgrounds	Indonesian	Applied	Depends on the program course
	Sarjana 1/ bachelor degree	Indonesians regardless the ethnic backgrounds	Indonesian	Applied	Depends on the program course
	Sarjana 2/ master degree	Indonesians regardless the ethnic backgrounds	Indonesian	Applied	Depends on the program course
	Sarjana 3/ doctoral degree	Indonesians regardless the ethnic backgrounds	Indonesian	Applied	Depends on the program course

Pondok Pesantren as the oldest type of education still exists and is developing to be more modern although it still keeps traditional teaching and learning practices. Some *Pondok Pesantrens* adopt the government curriculum and combine with their traditional curriculum. However, others just focus on their main stream, teaching Islamic religion only. Meanwhile the colonial types of education faded away soon after Indonesia won independence. Colonial types of education were then simplified into four graded types of education with everybody from all ethnic groups including Chinese, Arab, and Europeans having equal access.

1.1.2 **English teaching in Indonesia.** Although some primary schools have introduced English from year four, even in some schools from the first year, officially English is mandated to be offered in the formal educational system of Indonesia only at junior secondary school, with four sessions a week for 45 minutes per session. Similarly, English is also taught at senior secondary schools four times a week for 45 minutes each session. This amount of time is especially for year one and two, whereas year three depends on the course students are taking, social studies, science or language departments. For social and science programs, English is taught four times a week for 45 minutes a session whereas in the language department, English is taught for six sessions a week. At tertiary level, English is also taught but with smaller time allocation, that is, 100 minutes per week with the exception of the English letters or English education departments and the International Relations department. One of the reasons for the reduced time allotted for English subject at tertiary level, is that students have to study more subjects in relation to their major courses.

Given the fact that, in general, Indonesian university students have learned English for more than six years- three years at junior secondary school, three years at senior secondary school and one semester in universities and probably three or more years at primary schools- it makes sense to assume that university students, or university graduates, should possess good English

communication skills. However, the reality is very different from the general expectation. There have been many studies on the English competence of Indonesian students to date. The earliest to be conducted was by Sadtono (1974) who surveyed the functional relationship between English teaching at senior high school and at university. In this study Sadtono revealed that, in general, the university lecturers' perception of their students' reading ability was relatively weak. As many as 63% of lecturer respondents claimed that their students' reading ability was inadequate, 9% of them considered it poor, and only 23% of them stated adequate. After eight years this situation remained unchanged when Djiwandono (1982) carried out a similar study and came to a similar finding. He concluded that the reading competence of the non-English department students at IKIP Malang (Teacher Training College) was very poor. Their reading competence was not sufficient to comprehend the reading books assigned to them.

In general, English teaching in Indonesia cannot be considered a success. The reason for this failure cannot be directed to the students alone but also to the teachers or lecturers: the poor quality of English is not only possessed by the students but, their lecturers have insufficient English competence as well. A study conducted by Danifil (1985) revealed that the lecturers of non-English departments of the University of Riau possessed very poor reading ability in English. Consequently, these lecturers would refer to Indonesian language publications only and not English ones. This situation leads to difficulty in keeping up with advances in science and technology. The failure of English teaching at all levels of education was also reported by Huda (1988). He confirmed that the teaching of English in secondary education failed. Furthermore, he argued that English teaching at undergraduate, graduate and post graduate levels failed to equip the students with sufficient knowledge of English. In relation to the speaking and writing abilities of Indonesian students, Beh (1997) also concludes that these two skills were "less than good". Badib (2000) claimed that English teaching in Indonesia is a total failure or "gagal total". Further he listed reasons for this failure as "unoperational" skills of reading, writing and speaking acquired by students after they

completed senior high school. Setiyadi (2009) confirmed Badib's claim that the English teaching in Indonesia has failed as most high school, university and even master graduates cannot communicate in English properly, even the basic communication. Setiyadi argued that English teachers have just taught the students based on the curriculum but overlooked to make the students competent in English. To find out the reasons for the failure of English language teaching in Indonesia, it is necessary to have a close look at its history as well as how curricula are developed to fit the needs of the nation, the demands of globalization, and international trends in of English teaching approaches and methods.

1.1.3 The history of English language teaching in Indonesia.

The teaching of English in Indonesia can be traced back long before Indonesia won its independence from the colonial government of the Dutch had colonized the country for three and a half centuries. Under the Dutch, English was introduced into the educational system of Dutch East Indies, although only the children of Dutch families and Indonesian noble families could get access to education. However, when Japan colonized the country during World War Two, the teaching of English and Dutch was banned (Thomas, 1968 in Mistar, 2005). Since 1945, after Indonesia became independent, teaching of English was reintroduced into the Indonesian educational system (Komaria & Simatupang, 1998; Lie, 2007 and Sumardi, 1993). The new Indonesian government was aware that to catch up with all other countries in the world, educated Indonesians needed to understand English. Therefore English needed to be taught at secondary schools. However, during the early period of independence, teaching and learning processes, in general, were not effective due to the return of the Dutch government to Indonesia. Most of the students joined Tentara Pelajar (student troops) to fight against the colonial government. Only after the Netherlands government left the country at the end of 1947, did students return to schools.

According to Sadtono (1997) (as cited in Mistar, 2005) the government of Indonesia took a significant action when the Ministry of Education and Culture established the Inspectorate of English Language Instruction in 1949, an institution which managed and supervised English language teaching in the country with Mr. Frits Wachendorff as the head of this body. It was during his administration that English was declared a foreign language and was not and would never be either a social language or a second official language in Indonesia (Mistar, 2005, p. 76). The adoption of English into the curriculum in secondary education raised a serious problem especially regarding the shortage of qualified English teachers available in the country. It happened during the early years after the independence in 1945 until the beginning of the new order in 1966. To solve this problem many education and training programs were launched. These programs included recruiting second-year university students in any program to teach English, the establishment of two year evening courses (B-1 courses) in a number of cities throughout the country with financial support from the Ford Foundation, the establishment of Standard Training Centres (STC) in Yogyakarta and Bukittinggi and formal day classes of Pendidikan Guru Sekolah Lanjutan Pertama (PGSLP) and Pendidikan Guru Sekolah Lanjutan Atas (PGSLA). The former was a teacher education institute to prepare teachers of junior high schools whereas the latter prepared teachers to teach in senior high schools. Besides these, three state teacher training colleges were established in Malang, Bandung and Batusangkar. By 1961 all of these education and training programs were integrated into one faculty of teacher training and education in Malang, Bandung and Batusangkar (see also Lie, 2007).

In 1967 the Ministry of Education and Culture released Decree No. 096/1967, dated 12 December 1967, which regulated the function and objectives of English teaching in secondary schools. This decree covered three main issues (1) English as the first foreign language which is taught at secondary schools, (2) the objective of English teaching is to develop the communication

skills of the students, and (3) the English skills which need to be developed include reading, writing and speaking. This decree is still valid.

1.2   The 1975 English Curriculum

To make sure that the teaching of English would be successful, a number of curricula have been implemented since then. The earliest curriculum was the 1975 curriculum which was a further development of the 1968 curriculum. This later curriculum was very structure-oriented, given that the foreign language teaching method popular around that time was the grammar translation method. This early curriculum consisted of three parts

(1) the curricular aims, instructional goals and topics,

(2) topics and subtopics per semester and

(3) teaching materials

The curricular aims of the English syllabus of the senior secondary schools fall into three types, i.e. knowledge of the system, language macro skills, and attitudes to English and English culture. The details are as follow.

1. Students have the knowledge of English sentence patterns of a higher level with an expanded vocabulary of about 4,000 words;

2. students have a working knowledge of English which can be used to (a) read effectively, (b) understand oral English, (c) write in English, and (d) converse in English;

3. students accurately use sentence pattern of a higher level with an expanded vocabulary of about 4,000 words;

4. students have the skill to use their (reading ability) to understand textbooks and references in English, (b) listening ability to understand lecturers/conversation in

English, (c) writing ability to take notes delivered in English and communicate in written English and (d) speaking ability to communicate in oral English;

5. students appreciate English, in particular, and language, in general, as a system to communicate;

6. students like using English for communication alongside the Indonesian language; and

7. students appreciate English as a means to deepen scientific knowledge and know others (The Ministry of Education and Culture, 1975).

1.3   The 1984 English Curriculum

In 1984, a new curriculum was introduced by the Ministry of Education. This curriculum was significantly different from the earlier one with the primary focus on language use (the use of the language as a means of communication) not language usage (the knowledge about the language) as in the previous curriculum. This shift was influenced by new understandings in language learning that considered that language acquisition was developed through individual's interaction with the environment (Widdowson, 1978). The 1984 curriculum was developed intentionally to be a communicative one which was reflected in the introductory statements. These statements deal with (1) the nature of language as a means of communication; (2) the wrong assumption that learners' English linguistic knowledge will automatically enable them to communicate in English; (3) the importance of meaning and functions; (4) the nature of language use and variations, which should be considered in designing learning activities; and (5) the importance of English linguistic knowledge in supporting the acquisition of language skills. (Department Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan, 1987). Although this curriculum was claimed to be communicative, the structural orientation was still evident.

The components in each unit were also presented in an isolated way and separated from one another showing the absence of integration of the unit as a whole. Given that this curriculum still exhibited the structural characteristics, the teachers were required to be innovative in its implementation to keep to its communicative aims. For this purpose, the government launched a Peningkatan Kualitas Guru (PKG) (Teacher's Quality Improvement) project, a project developed to improve the teaching competence of the teachers – which was intentionally designed in conjunction with the implementation of 1984 curriculum. This project was part of the national project aimed at improving the professional competences of the Indonesian, English, mathematics and science teachers and supported by a World Bank loan (2008).

This project of teacher quality improvement was very successful and many parties felt the benefits. Madya (2008) mentioned four different types of evidence regarding the success of the project. First, the teachers who joined the project admitted that PKG in-service training had enriched them with various teaching techniques which could encourage the students to participate interactively in the teaching and learning process. Second, the students' English performance as well as their increased learning motivation showed that their teaching was successful. Third, the teaching approach they applied increased their use of English which consequently improved their English competence. Finally, foreign experts who came to Indonesia in the 1970s and returned in the early 1990s observed a significant difference in terms of the number of people who could speak English (2008).

1.4. The 1994 English Curriculum

The success of the 1984 curriculum and PKG project had encouraged the government to further develop the curriculum and therefore the 1994 English curriculum was introduced to strengthen the communicative orientation. This curriculum was claimed to be communicative and

emphasized the mastery of the learners' communicative competence based on advances in understanding foreign language acquisition and teaching methods. For this purpose, this curriculum was implemented through a meaning-based approach (2008).

There are six crucial issues regarding this new curriculum. First, themes are deemed more appropriate than linguistic elements in arranging teaching materials into units. Second, linguistics elements of English such as vocabulary, and spelling were presented in linguistic and situational contexts to make the meaning clear. Third, linguistic elements were meant to support the mastery and development of the four English language skills and not to master those elements alone. Fourth, linguistic elements which were anticipated to be difficult were taught systematically under related themes. Fifth, four language skills were taught in an integrated way with the emphasis given to the development of reading skills. Lastly, students were involved in meaningful activities which facilitated them to developing their potential in areas including science and social communication skills.

The problems arising during the implementation of this curriculum included teachers' unfamiliarity with the non-matrix format which presents the curriculum point. Although this format was meant to give opportunities to teachers to be creative and innovative, they found it difficult to adjust to it. This was due to the fact that they were spoilt by the previous-matrix format which provided detailed activities for teachers to employ in the classroom for example, teaching objectives, target materials, grammar points, and target vocabulary. Consequently they were not required to be creative and innovative. Finally, the curriculum content was rearranged and reprinted in matrix format as they got used to it (Madya, 2008).

During the implementation of this curriculum there were significant national political changes as the New Order government of Republic of Indonesia *(Orde Baru)* fell. This marked the rise of the Reform Movement in Indonesia. Resulting from this, Raihani (2007) mentions three

major changes in education. First, redefinition of the national education objectives was formulated. In this new definition there was an additional emphasis on the importance of ensuring the preparation of citizens for living in a democracy. Second, significant changes were implemented in school management. School management was, until that time, highly centralized, but it has been decentralized since then. Decentralization of education was implemented through the implementation of school-based management which allows school leadership to make decisions in relation to their tasks. Under this revised management, innovation of curriculum implementation was enabled (Madya, 2008). The implementation of school-based management had its legal basis in 2003 under the Education Bill which was passed into Law No. 20/2003 on National Education System. Third, the 2004 Curriculum was an important change in the educational paradigm. There were three significant formulations in this curriculum.

1. Setting nationally standardized competences for students to attain.

2. Making a clear link between school graduates and job demands.

3. Accommodating local needs by involving local school stakeholders in the development of their school (Madya, 2008; Raihani, 2010).

In the late 1990s quality and relevance of the education were suspected to be the causes of the high rate of unemployment among the secondary school graduates and degree holders (Madya, 2008). Statistical Assistance to the Government of Indonesia (STAT) Project funded by USAID released a report on national unemployment and claimed that there was a big increase from 1997 (5.4%) to 1998 (6.2%) and 1999 (8.8%) and a slight decline in 2000 (8.2%) (Suhaimi & Jammal, 2001). Feridhanusetiyawan (2003) reported that the highest rate of unemployment was for those whose ages were between 15 to 24 years, the age when secondary schools leavers enter the job market. As a result, the government developed Contextual Teaching and Learning to

implement the existing curriculum to improve the quality of education as well as its relevance to meet community needs. CTL was introduced to change the existing paradigm in education in which teachers were deemed the only knower in the classroom, and students were regarded as pure recipients, thus tending to be passive. This paradigm is criticized by Freire (1970) as being the banking model of education. In the current teaching paradigm which was introduced through a constructivist teaching approach, students are viewed as thinkers with emerging theories about the world; whereas teachers generally behave in an interactive manner, mediating the environment for students (Brooks, 2001). By adopting CTL the government expected teachers would be empowered leading to the achievement of the goal of national education, that is, the development of students as total persons. In addition, empowerment through this approach was expected to develop the students into autonomous, democratic and responsible persons who were intellectually capable, spiritually and physically strong, aesthetically refined, and capable of exemplifying high moral standards (Departemen Pendidikan Nasional 2002). Factors behind the successful implementation of CTL include the implementation of school-based management and an increasing spirit of regional development.

1.5   The 2004 English Curriculum

In the 2004 English curriculum, which was a competency-based curriculum (CBC), the government formulated three objectives regarding English instruction in junior and senior high schools. These objectives dealt with the development of communicative competence, raising awareness of the importance of English, and the development of understanding of the interrelationship between language and culture. In brief, the following are the government's objectives for English teaching in junior and senior high schools.

1. Developing communicative competence in spoken and written English which comprises listening, speaking, and reading.

2. Raising awareness regarding the nature and importance of English as a foreign language and as a major means of learning.

3. Developing understanding of the interrelationship between language and culture as well as cross-cultural understanding.[3]

Classroom practices by teachers, however, were not significantly different from those conducted within the previous curriculum as indicated by Lie (2007). Therefore, there was no claim from the government that the objectives were achieved. An average pass grade of 4.5 out of 10 for Maths, English, and Indonesian, in the national examination, has forced teachers to teach to the test: they drilled their students with the national examination test materials for several months before they sat for the exam. As a result, there was an inconsistency between the government's commitment to competence, and the insistence of the Ministry of Education for the national examination pass grades to be met.

1.6   The 2006 English Curriculum

The development of curriculum is a dynamic process as this is part of the education reform. It includes the changing of the English curriculum to match with the new educational paradigm in the context of decentralization, democratization, and general autonomy to fulfil the mandate of the 2005 Education Law (Madya, 2008). The next development is the 2006 curriculum which is decentralized in the framework of national unity. In the implementation of this curriculum, the government determines the national standards which are formulated in government regulation. These regulations are then used as the bases for ministerial regulations to

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[3] Translated from Indonesian in Depdiknas, 2004.

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guide the operational level decision-making. At the operational level, the school or educational unit develop their own curriculum based on those legal regulations. To help them on remain on the right track, the government provided a guide book and offered school-level curriculum development training at the national level. There are principles which guide the development of the school-level curriculum, i.e. (1) centered on the potentials, development level, needs, and interests of students and their environment; (2) diversified and integrated; (3) responsive to developments of science, technology, and arts; (4) relevant to the living needs; (5) comprehensive and successive; (6) lifelong learning; and (7) balanced national and regional interests (Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan (BSNP), 2006).

1.7 The Causes of the "Failure" of English Teaching in Indonesia

There are many factors causing such failure. Nurkamto (2003) identified seven factors as the causes of students' English incompetence i.e. (1) status of English language as a foreign language, (2) geographical site of Indonesia, (3) traditional values, (4) academic and professional qualification of the teachers (Soenjono Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Nur, 2004), (5) class sizes (Soenjono Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Nur, 2004), (6) learning facilities and (7) evaluation system.

Other factors which are claimed to contribute to the failure of English language teaching in Indonesia include low salary of the teachers, teachers' inadequate competence of English, teachers' unfamiliarity with the curriculum and cultural barriers (Soenjono Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Nur, 2004). Besides such external factors, internal factors are also believed to significantly correlate to the foreign language achievement. These internal factors are the individual differences which are by nature embedded in each individual learner. These individual differences include language learning strategies (Skehan 1989 and Dornyei 2005 in Ellis, 2008) and learner beliefs (Dornyei 2005 in Ellis, 2008).

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1.8   Internal factors: language learning strategies and learner beliefs

Tracing back the internal factors claimed to be parts of the source of such a failure it is necessary to find out more about the characteristics of Indonesian EFL learners, including their language learning strategies. Research studies report that Indonesian students demonstrate characteristics such as being "more passive, compliant and unreflective [as] learners" (Exley, 2005, p. 3). She also describes Indonesian students as "typically passive, shy and/or quiet" (p.3). This finding is based on the responses Exley received from Australian teachers who teach Indonesian students in Australia. These characteristics are not supportive of the acquisition process of a foreign language. Within behaviourist theory, language learning deals with imitation, practice, encouragement and habit formation. Behaviourists believe that to learn a language, a language learner has to be active in language imitation and practice (Demirezen, 1998). Therefore, the characteristics of Indonesian foreign language learners become barriers to the success of language learning and teaching. Reid's (1987) study on the learning style preferences of Indonesian ESL learners studying in the United States of America, found that Indonesian students tended to possess auditory and kinaesthetic learner characteristics as major learning style preferences; visual, tactile and individual learner characteristics as minor learning style preferences; and group learner characteristics as an undesirable style of learning. This last finding is in line with the findings of Lengkanawati (2004). She found that although cooperation is part of the culture of Indonesian people (*gotong royong*), students do not really employ this strategy in language learning. As a means of communication, language and language learning need at least two persons to make the language learned meaningful, and the language learning work effectively. Therefore, cooperative learning styles in language learning are significant to facilitate the process of foreign language acquisition.

As mentioned earlier, parts of the individual differences which belong to the internal factors of the failure of language learning include learners' beliefs and their language learning strategies. It is argued that there is a cyclical relationship between learners' beliefs and their use of language learning strategies (Young, 1999). The choice as well as the frequency of language learning strategy used by language learners, is driven by their beliefs about how to approach language learning (Horwitz, 1985). Riley (2009) argues that students' beliefs which are not consistent with good learning practices will result in negative effects regarding the success of language learning.

1.9   Belief and Strategy Use: an Intertwined Concept

The popularity of research about beliefs in other fields such as psychology and anthropology preceded that in the field of educational linguistics. Rockeah (1968) and Pajares (1992) were two prominent figures whose work on beliefs has motivated many other scholars especially from the field of psychology and education, to undertake research in the area of beliefs. In the field of educational linguistics, the study of belief has attracted the attention of educators and linguists as demonstrated, since the early 1980s, with the work of Horwitz (1985, 1986, 1987, 1988), Holec (1979), Wenden (1986, 1987, 1991, 1998, 1999) and others (Lier, 2003). One reason for this is that beliefs are a central construct in every discipline which deals with human behaviour and learning (Ajzen, 1988; Sakui & Gaies, 1999).

People's beliefs are important influences on the ways they conceptualize tasks and learn from experience (Nespor, 1987). Beliefs, like perceptions, attitudes, and metacognitive knowledge, that learners hold in their learning situations have been claimed to contribute significantly to the learning process as well as to learning success (Breen, 2001). The belief that a person holds about him or herself, and the expected results of their effort, has a powerful influence on the way they behave (Pajares, 1996). Studies conducted by Reid and Hresko (1982, in Victory & Lockhart, 1995)

and Weinert and Kluwe (1987) show that successful learners develop insightful beliefs about language learning processes, their own abilities, and the use of effective learning strategies. Some other studies have identified that poor learners often hold negative or limited beliefs about their ability to accomplish a task, about the nature, the demands and difficulties of learning tasks and about the learning strategies they use. It is also assumed that learners' beliefs about their own ability will influence their goals which later on affect their learning behaviour and use of strategy (Yang, 1999).

Students have preconceived beliefs about how to learn a foreign language effectively. Some students want their teachers to give them more opportunities to have free conversations and always feel reluctant when their teachers drill them with grammar rules and patterns. Horwitz (1985) gives the following example: if a student believes that a person must never pronounce a certain word, unless he can do it correctly, he will most likely avoid trying it most of the time. Inconsistency of instructional activities in conjunction with the students' preconceived beliefs about effective learning strategies can result in a student losing confidence as well as failure or limited success in their ultimate achievement (Horwitz, 1995). Similarly when learners believe that the best way to learn a foreign language is by memorizing component parts of the language, they tend to develop positive attitudes towards vocabulary and grammar learning. These learners will most likely espouse strategies which involve analysis, memorization and practice. If learners believe that the best way to learn a foreign language is through interaction, they tend to have a positive attitude towards natural communication with the native speakers of the language. These types of learners tend to develop social and communication strategies (Benson & Lor, 1999).

Many scholars in the field of beliefs share the same opinion that learners beliefs are manifested in the form of specific strategies that language learners employ to accomplish language tasks as part of their learning process. Meanwhile, all language learners intuitively

employ strategies to make their learning more efficient (Cotterall & Reinders, 2004). The strategies they employ are most likely different from those of others, and sometimes they employ more than one type of language learning strategy (Oxford, 2005). In line with Oxford's claim, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) argue that different learners have different learning strategies and that their strategies vary depending on the tasks they are doing and the level of the language learners proficiency. Oxford (1990) asserts that learning strategies for language learners are essential, as strategies are "tools for active, self-directed involvement" which influence the development of communicative competence. According to Oxford, the selection of appropriate learning strategies will have an impact on improving proficiency and self-confidence.

There are five reasons why learning strategies are important (Cotterall & Reinders, 2004). First, by knowing learning strategies, students will feel responsible for their own progress. Second, students who can choose the appropriate strategies tend to learn more effectively; studies conducted by Ellis (1994) have shown that effective learners use strategies more frequently and know how to choose the appropriate strategies for the right task. Third, students who use correct strategies for the right task will experience success and this will improve their motivation for further learning. Fourth, learning strategies will help make students not just depend on classroom interaction but continue studying outside the school or classroom. In short it also helps them to be more autonomous and independent as learners (Oxford, 2005). Finally, learning strategies will enable students to cope with their learning which leads to boosting their learning autonomy.

1.10 Early Studies of Learners' Beliefs

Since the development of the Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) by Horwitz (1985) research on the role of beliefs in student language learning has mushroomed. Studies on beliefs have been conducted by many scholars from many different perspectives. For example, Horwitz (Horwitz, 1985, 1987), Cotterall (1995) and Sakui & Geies, (1999) have

investigated the nature of beliefs in language learning in general, Peacock (2001), Kern (1995), Sakui and Gaies (1999) and Riley (2009) have studied the changes in beliefs or belief shifts, Kern (1995), Peacock (1999) and Riley (2009) have viewed beliefs from the perspective of students and teachers, and there are also studies which correlate beliefs with other factors such as learning strategies (Park, 1995, 1997; Yang, 1999) and language proficiency (Park, 1997; Peacock, 1999). Other scholars such as Benson and Lor (Benson & Lor, 1999) have tried to classify learner beliefs into several broad domains while Wen and Johnson (1997) have nominated beliefs as one of the learner variables and connected them with English achievement.

Yang (1999) investigated the relationship between foreign/second language learners' beliefs about language learning and learning strategy use. He surveyed 505 college EFL students (194 male and 311 female) who studied English for 6 years in junior and senior high school and at least 1 year in university. In his study he developed a set of questionnaires based on BALLI (Horwitz, 1985) to measure the beliefs about language learning and used Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (Oxford, 1990) to measure the learning strategy choice. He chose items from SILL and combined them with his own designed questions to adjust with the objectives. The findings showed that there was a strong relationship between learners' self-efficacy beliefs about language learning and their use of learning strategies.

Park (1997) investigated the use of language learning strategies and their beliefs about language learning among university students in Korea. He broadened his investigation to explore the relationships among the students' beliefs, strategy use, and second language (L2) proficiency. The subjects of his study were 332 students who were studying in a university in Korea. His study uses a quantitative method and therefore, complicated statistical procedures are employed to analyse the data. He used the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL, ESL/EFL Student Version), the Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI, ESL Student Version), and the Test

of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), as the research instruments. In relation to learning strategy, he found that the Korean university students used more metacognitive and memory strategies than communication-affective and independent and interactive practice strategies. He also found four underlying factors from BALLI: motivational beliefs and beliefs about formal English, self-efficacy and beliefs about social interaction, beliefs about learning spoken English, and beliefs about foreign language aptitude. In addition, the finding shows that students' beliefs, learning strategy use, and L2 proficiency are related generally, although these relationships depend on specific types of beliefs and learning strategies.

Although both of the aforementioned studies (Park, 1997; Young, 1999) focussed on the language learning strategies and learners' beliefs combined with L2 proficiency (Park 1992), the analysis was carried out through quantitative methods. Such analysis showed how language learning strategies correlate with learners' beliefs and L2 proficiency or vice versa. Park (1997) managed to identify four underlying factors from the BALLI but he failed to uncover the beliefs which underpin the language learning strategy use. This current study to reveal learners' beliefs underlying the use of language learning strategies is important because this information can give teachers an understanding of whether their students hold appropriate beliefs or not in relation to the learning strategies.

To date the studies on beliefs have looked at language learning in general, belief shifts, different perspectives of belief holders and the connection with other factors such as learning strategies, proficiency, and achievement but there are other important questions to be explored. Further studies on beliefs about language learning strategies use are important because a learner's beliefs direct actions and behaviours including learning strategies (Horwitz, 1987; Riley, 2009). Barcelos (2003) for instance raises several questions about beliefs that could be investigated further including raising questions such as "how can learners' beliefs be changed?" (p.

18). She suggests that future research should incorporate beliefs and also reflection about the learning process. This suggestion could be understood as students having inappropriate beliefs about language learning which result in unsatisfactory results. Therefore, it is important for English teachers to find ways to change learners' beliefs so that their approach to learning the language is correct. It can be done, among other ways, through reflection.

Despite the many studies on beliefs to date including the one correlating it with language learning strategies (Park, 1995; Yang, 1999), there has not been any study which looks at learners' beliefs about language learning strategy through reflection within the Indonesian context. This current study will focus on learners' beliefs about language learning strategy and the impact of reflection on those beliefs.

The choice of language learning strategies (Horwitz, 1987; Riley, 1997; Vann, 1987; Yang, 1999) and general approach to learning (Richards & Lockhart, 1994) which is influenced by learners' beliefs may not be appropriate with a given language task. Consequently it would lead to limited result. To help students find the more appropriate learning strategies, a reflection can be one of the alternatives. Through reflection, they can think, contemplate and evaluate what they have done to accomplish the language task (Boud, Keogh, & Walker, 1985). This reflection may have a positive influence on their beliefs about the strategies required to perform a language task in the future.

1.11   Some Models of Second (Foreign) Language Learning

To better understand how a second (foreign) language is learned and how the success of this process can be attained, including the factors that contribute to the success of second language learning, different models of second language learning are worth reviewing. Following are three different models of second language learning proposed by different scholars. The first

model was developed by Naiman, Frochlich, Stern, & Todesco (1978), the second was proposed by

Ellis (1985) and the third was advanced by Abraham and Vann (1987).

1. Context

3. Teaching

Classroom Activities

2. Learner

Intelligence
Language aptitude
Past language
experience
Age
Personality
Motivation
Attitude

5. Learning

Unconscious process
Conscious strategies
and techniques
Affective
component

6. Outcome

L1 competence/
L2 proficiency
Errors
Interlanguage
Failure
Affective
Outcome

4. L2 Environment

Opportunities for

second language

Figure 1.1   Naiman et al.'s Model of Second Language Learning (Naiman, et al., 1978, p. 3)

In this model, Naiman et al. (1978) propose six components involved in second language learning which include (1) context, (2) learner, (3) teaching, (4) L2 environment, (5) learning, and (6) outcome. The context is where the teaching and learning process takes place. Learner includes all the attributes which are embodied within the learner such as intelligence, language aptitude, past language experience, age, personality, motivation and attitude. Teaching is concerned with all instructional activities happening in the classroom. L2 environment is the environment which has the potential to provide opportunities for second language contacts and use. All these

components interplay and affect the learning which constitutes an unconscious process, conscious strategies and techniques and affective components. From this model it is clear that the learner's attributes, L2 environment as well as the teaching process contribute to the quality of the learning process which then determines the learning outcomes.
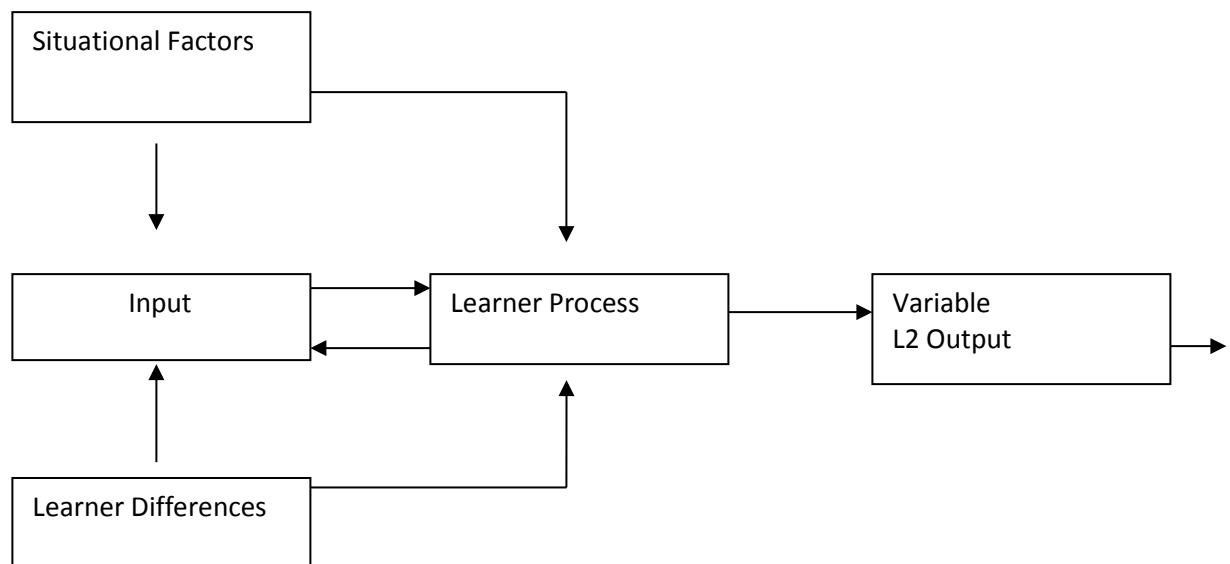
Figure 1.2   Ellis' Framework of Components of Second Language Learning (Ellis, 1994, p. 276)

As can be seen from the above framework, Ellis (1985) proposes a similar framework to Naiman which consists of five components that is, situational factors, input, learner differences, learner process and variable L2 output. From the flow of the arrows, it is obvious that situational factors such as the intensity of use of the target language influence the input as well as the learner process. Likewise, learner differences such as intelligence, language experience, language aptitude, age, personality, motivation, and attitude influence the input and at the same time influence the learner process. There is an interaction between input and learner process meaning that these two components complement each other. For example, the input provides information that the learner process operates, and at the same time, learner process determines the quantity and quality of the input. Therefore, learners who always make use of the opportunities to

communicate with others in the target language will receive more input, with better quality, than those who do not.

These two models of second language learning share a similar flow of reasoning which is that the learning process, which is *learner process* in Ellis' framework and *learning* in Naiman's model (1978), correlate the learner and the outcome. This is in line with Stern's (1983) argument that the learning outcome is significantly influenced by the learning process which is influenced by the learner's internal characteristics and learning conditions. One of the learner's internal characteristics, which is not explicitly shown in the two models above, is a learner's belief. In the model of second language learning proposed by Abraham and Vann (1987) presented below, learner's belief is articulated within philosophy.
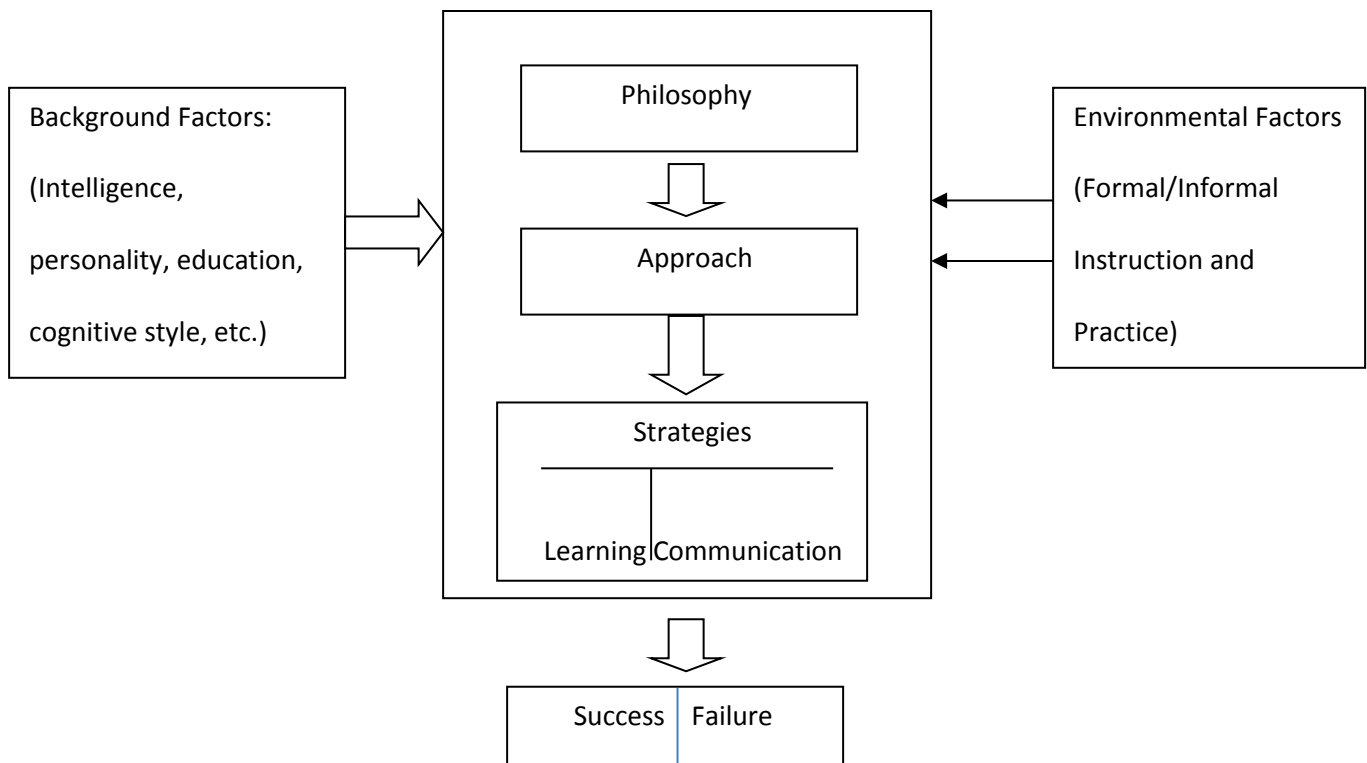
Figure 1.3   Abraham and Vann's Model of Second Language Learning (Abraham & Vann, 1987, p. 97)

In their model, Abraham and Vann (1987) show that the success or failure of second language learning is very much influenced by the learning process and the learning process is affected by a learner's background as well as the environment. As can be seen from the model, learners start learning a new language with philosophy which includes a set of beliefs. Their beliefs influence how they approach language learning which is manifested in their choice of learning as well as communication strategies. Learner's beliefs are not the only factors which guide the operation of language learning; rather, together with other factors such as learner's backgrounds and L2 environment, they interplay influencing the learning process which in turn determines the success of language learning.

As mentioned earlier, there have not been any studies on learners' beliefs that deal with reflection, especially those carried out within the Indonesian context. Consequently, this study is aimed at looking at how Indonesian adult EFL learners' beliefs about language learning strategy respond to intervention in the form of reflection.

1.12 Vygotsky's Theory of Learning and Knowledge Development

Vygotsky was an education psychologist who was born in Russia in 1896 and died in 1934. During his short period of life, he developed a theory which was different from Piaget's theory, a theory which was very popular at that time. Piaget was concerned with the learning potentials of each individual; Vygotsky was more interested in learning and development occurring within socio-historical and sociocultural context (Duchesue, McMaugh, Bochner, & Karause, 2013). However there may be theory adjustment between them as they were indicated to communicate and exchanged ideas for about five years. Some of Vygotsky's criticism of Piaget's theories such as his concept of egocentrism was documented in his first collection of writings of *Thought and Language* (1934).

1.13 Vygotsky's Theory of Cognitive Development

Vygotsky believed that infants are born with an inherited capacity for specific pattern of action. From birth they start to acquire a sequence of skills and competencies which are very important for their development. This process of acquisition or learning is only possible through social interaction and therefore, language becomes the most important skill and tool for this purpose. However, learning will only occur when social interaction occurs with people who have more knowledge or as Vygotsky termed with More Knowledgeable Others (MKO). These people can be parents, teachers, coaches, experts, professionals or friends who help children to socialise, to develop their thinking in ways particular to the culture and society in which they live.

According to Vygotsky, children's thinking is gradually transformed through interaction. He views development as emerging through social interaction which is then internalized by the individuals. Internalization is the transformation of external process into internal process that guides action and thought (Duchesue, et al., 2013). To describe this process Vygotsky stated that

"the true direction of development of thinking is not from the individual to the social, but from the social to the individual" (Vygotsky, 1986, p. 36). Vygotsky also considers social interaction as crucial and thus asserts that "it is in interaction that we learn how to think" (Duchesue, et al., 2013, p. 84). The teaching process that Vygotsky termed as *mediation*, is not the knowledge transfer from an expert to a novice, nor is it a construction of new ideas by the student. It is a co-construction made by both the teacher and the student during the interaction. Interaction never occurs unless the people involved have, understand and use the language effectively and therefore Vygotsky claims language as the most significant mental tool. Although it has a social function initially by allowing the children to use it for interaction with others, as their language skill develops, language has more varieties of function such as an intellectual, problem-solving, and self-regulation tool. In summary, as Dahms et al. (2007) claim, Vygotsky believes in social interaction and language as two primary means of learning. In the classroom context, as posited by Collins, Greeno, and Resnick (1992) participation in social practices plays a significant role in all aspects of learning in and out of school. This observation corroborates with Vygotsky's sociocultural theory of learning.

1.14   Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)

ZPD is one of the crucial concepts within Vygotsky's theory of learning in relation to the social context. Vygotsky defines ZPD as the distance between children's current level of competence on a task and the level they can achieve with support and guidance. In a simple way it is the distance between what children can do by themselves and what they can do with help from other people who are more capable and competent. As previously stated, these kinds of people with whom the children interact and co-construct new ideas are called More Knowledgeable Others (MKO), the other important concept of Vygotsky's learning theory (see Dahms, et al., 2007). Vygotsky's learning theory suggests that cognitive development does not always happen

when children are given assistance by adult, but when they work collaboratively with more competent peers, cognitive growth can possibly occur (see Hogan & Tudge, 1999).

In his theory, Vygotsky claims that teaching should be focussed on the ZPD and thus the assessment should be aimed at finding out what children can do and achieve with assistance from MKOs such as teachers or tutors, and not to evaluate what the children can do independently or what they have already learnt to do (see for example Duchesue, et al., 2013). That is why according to Vygotsky the role of a teacher is to give assistance to children to develop understanding and to regulate their own learning, rather than to tell or demonstrate to them what they are required to know.

The following diagram shows the ZPD within children's world of knowledge.

Level 3 - Beyond Reach

at present

Level 2 - Potential

Level 1 - Current Development
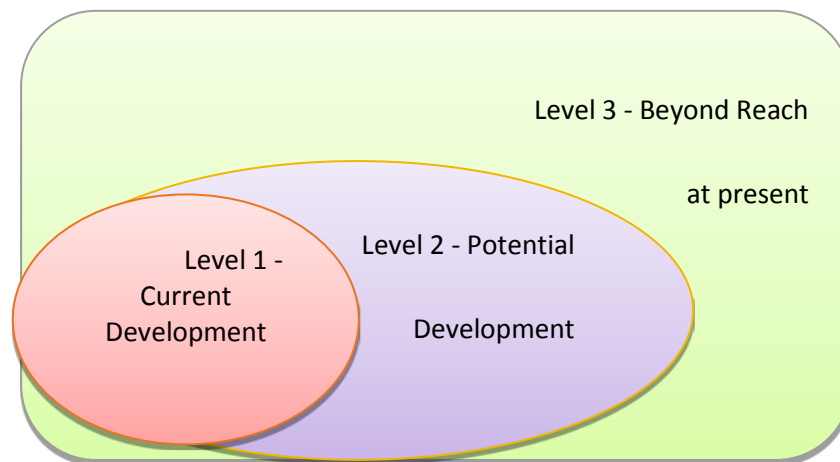
Development

Fig 1.4. Diagram to Demonstrate (ZPD) Zone of Proximal Development

This diagram displays the present level of development which describes what the learners are capable of doing without any assistance from MKO, the potential level of development which shows what the children could possibly be capable of with assistance from the MKO and level 3 which is out of children's reach at present.

The gap between levels 1 and 2 is what Vygotsky refers as Zone of Proximal Development. According to him level 2 is the area where teaching and assessment should be focussed and this is only possible if assistance is provided by MKO including by more competent peers through collaboration. Therefore, Vygotsky believes that in order for learning to happen, instruction should be in advance of the children's current level of development (see Hogan & Tudge, 1999).

In the teaching and learning context, ZPD works with regard to the application of scaffolding. Scaffolding is a learning tool in the form of a "six step approach to assisting learning and development of individuals with their Zone of Proximal Development". The current area of development achieved by the individuals in the form of knowledge, skills and prior experiences create the scaffolding for potential development. Therefore to be able to implement scaffolding effectively there must be shared knowledge and experience in the form of collaborative dialogue between the individuals and a teacher as one of the MKOs which requires the use of effective language. This idea suggests that the ideal role of a teacher is to provide scaffolding to help the students carry out tasks within their ZPD. In this case, with appropriate strategies, the teacher or other MKOs can improve the students' competence through ZPD. The first important step that the teacher should undertake is to raise the interest and engagement of the learners in the task. When the individuals are interested, their motivation to learn will develop and they will voluntarily and actively participate in the learning process. Next, the given task should be simplified by breaking it into smaller subtasks. Then, the teacher should make sure that the learners keep focused on the task and concentrate on the most prominent ideas of the assignment. The next step, which is crucial is that the teacher in developing scaffolding should avoid the learners becoming frustrated because frustration can ruin their interest and motivation. The final step, in regard to scaffolding, involves the teacher modelling possible ways of accomplishing the task which may inspire the learners to imitate and internalize it (see Dahms, et al., 2007).

1.15 Rogoff's Observation of Sociocultural Activity on Three Planes

Rogoff's (1990) interest in the development of personal, interpersonal and community process has inspired her to carry out an observation about these matters using a sociocultural approach. Rogoff refers to the developmental processes of this approach as incorporating three planes: apprenticeship, guided participation and participatory appropriation. The idea behind the application of this sociocultural approach is that an individual is inseparable from his or her environment which includes the community and culture in which he or she lives. Therefore, Rogoff's three planes of analysis deals with how an individual builds knowledge through developmental processes in conjunction with their interaction with their environment. To some extent this idea is in accordance with Vygotsky' sociocultural theory and Dewey's belief about cognitive development (see Dahms, et al., 2007; Duchesue, et al., 2013; Rogoff, 2008). As shown in the previous section, Vygotsky believes in the significant roles of the community and culture in which the children are growing and their involvement in sociocultural activity, in making their cognitive development happen. In regard to this idea, Dewey shares a similar belief that the social environment provides the major contribution to the cognitive development of children. According to Dewey, every individual matures in a social setting in which his involvement shapes his cognitive development and his socialization into the meaning and values of that society (Rogoff, 2008).

Apprenticeship is a metaphor used by Rogoff to refer to the model in the plane of community activity where experienced individuals, who actively participate with other community members in culturally organized activities, provide learning opportunities for the less experienced people through these activities. Therefore, for an individual to develop socially and intellectually, active participation in a culturally organized activity is important. Meanwhile, the principle of guided participation is related to the process and system of involvement between members of the

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community during their interaction to coordinate culturally valued activities. Guidance as implied in the term guided participation refers to the direction provided by cultural and social values as well as social partners, while participation refers to observation and involvement in the sociocultural activity. The notion of participatory appropriation is related to how individuals change through their involvement in an activity to prepare for another involvement in related activities. Through guided participation, this plane is a process of becoming rather than acquisition (Hogan & Tudge, 1999; Rogoff, 1990, 2008).

In relation to the cognitive development of a learner, both Vygotsky's sociocultural theory and Rogoff's cognitive apprenticeship place society as a significant aspect in learning process of an individual. These theories are significant in this study due to the reasons outlined. First, the object of this study is the learners' beliefs about language learning strategy which deals with how the learners approach language learning. The ways how they learn the language, which are also known as strategies are influenced by their beliefs about how to learn the language effectively. Second, the language which is the fundamental means of communication and plays a significant role in mediating learning. Third, the society in which an individual learner lives provides opportunity and guidance to learn and develops his capacity through social interaction with community members. Fourth, the learning experience the learner gains during the learning process as well as those other community members share may enrich the knowledge which then will either strengthen existing belief or modify it.

ELT in Indonesia cannot be considered satisfactory although the governments have continuously updated the curriculum (see section 1.2 – 1.6) which consequently affects the teaching methods. The qualification of English teachers has also been upgraded to ensure that their English language proficiency as well as their teaching skills have improved. To do this, the government has a policy requiring the existing English teachers

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to have at least a bachelor degree. Those who do not have a bachelor qualification have to go back to the university and study for the qualification. All teachers are also required to join a professional upgrading program called certification not only to improve their professional skills but also their subject-related skills. English language has also been included in the curriculum as an option which a school can accommodate and include in a curriculum as a local content. All these policies have been introduced to improve the quality of English language teaching in Indonesia which eventually will affect the English proficiency of the future teacher students. However, Badib (Badib, 2000) Setiyadi (Setiyadi, 2009) claimed the English language teaching in Indonesia is still a failure. There may be other factors which contribute to this failure which do not come from the teachers or the government's policies but from learners. This phenomenon is at the core of this study.

1.16 Research Questions

There is one main research question with three sub questions. The main research question is "To what extent are learners' beliefs subject to change as they are taken through a process of reflection?

Sub questions:

1. What kinds of language learning strategies do the Indonesian students use to learn English?

2. What is the nature of learners' beliefs and their language learning strategy choice?

3. How does the belief change occur?

All the terms used in these chapters are further detailed and explained as part of the literature review in Chapter II.

1.17 Assumptions

The present study is conducted under the following assumptions:

1. Learners are assumed to hold specific beliefs about how to approach English language learning best. These beliefs are then implemented in the form of specific strategies they choose for accomplishing certain language tasks.

2. Learners' beliefs are reflected in their language learning strategies, although difficult to change during adulthood (Frank Pajares, 1992), these are changing over time. This assumption is taken as the samples of this study are adult learners studying in a tertiary level of education.

3. Given the fact that learners' beliefs are not impossible to change, there must be a medium which can be adopted to modify them.

4. Reflection is assumed to be able to influence learners to rethink, assess and evaluate their existing beliefs about language learning strategies. This is the reason for employing reflection as the medium to look at possible changes in learners' beliefs.

5. As generally agreed, learners' beliefs determine how a language learners learn the language through their preferred strategies. It means changing their beliefs will impact on their learning strategies. According to this assumption, changing learners' use of learning strategies can be done through changing their beliefs.

6. One of the ways to get success in learning a language is through the appropriate learning strategies which are adopted by successful language learners. As a corollary to this

assumption, training unsuccessful language learners with the strategies employed by successful language learners may have potential to improve their success.

7. If training effective language learning strategies is possible, training in positive beliefs should be possible, also. Therefore, this possibility needs further consideration.

1.18 Significance of the Study

The findings of this current study will make a theoretical and pedagogical contribution to the field of foreign language learning and teaching, especially in Indonesia. More specifically, this contribution will add new views to the study of learners' beliefs within the context of English as a Foreign Language.

1.18.1   Theoretical significance. This current study is expected to contribute to the discussion and research of learners' beliefs about language learning, especially about language learning strategy.

1. Theoretically this study is an attempt to fill in the gap which exists in the area of belief studies which is still open to investigation. This gap is about how learners' beliefs can be changed (Barcelos, 2003). It is argued that as an intervening process, belief change is not well understood (Tillemas, 1995 and Pajares, 1992 in Tilema, 2000). Although not specifically designed to change learners' beliefs, reflection on beliefs as well as on learning strategies, has the potential to explain whether their beliefs can be modified or not. There is a paucity of literature in this field of study therefore, this current study will contribute tap in the literature.

2. The findings of this study will give a stronger foundation to the existing claims that learners' beliefs promote learners' autonomy (Cotteral, 1995; Wenden, 1998). Beliefs or metacognitive knowledge (Wenden, 1987) refers to the information that learners have about their learning. This metacognitive knowledge complements metacognitive skills-skills which help learners manage, direct, regulate and guide their learning (Wenden, 1999). Thus investigation of learners' beliefs about language learning strategies will reveal the reasons behind such beliefs. This will identify opportunities for educators to place learners' beliefs "on the right track" so that they are ready for autonomy.

1.18.2 Pedagogical significance. This current study is also expected to make a contribution to the improvement of the learning and teaching process of English as a foreign language, particularly by the adult EFL learning within Indonesian context.

1. Understanding belief change is beneficial in education because learner beliefs can be subject to, and manipulated toward, productive/positive changes to further support learning. It is generally believed that learners' behaviours are governed by their beliefs (Barcelos, 2003; Cotteral, 1995). These behaviours refer to students' general approach to learning (Richards & Lockhart, 1994) and their language learning strategies (Horwitz, 1987). Researching learners' beliefs about language learning strategies will provide a space for teachers to consider whether learners need training, not only in language learning strategies but also in learners' beliefs (Park, 1995). The inclusion of learners' reflection as the intervention method in this study can also be an alternative approach if it is later found to be significant in changing learners' beliefs.

2. A further study on learners' beliefs about language learning strategy use is very significant: it will tell teachers that their students may have inappropriate beliefs about the best way

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to approach language learning. Such beliefs could result in the wrong selection of a learning strategy. Investigating learners' beliefs about language learning strategy, and the impact of reflection on their beliefs, may inspire the educators about the importance of reflection in changing learners' beliefs in selecting language learning strategies.

3. Referring to Naiman et al.'s (1978) statement that to improve the quality of language teaching, it is important to have a better understanding of the language learner and of the language learning process itself, it is expected that this current study will make a significant contribution to improving the quality of English language teaching in Indonesia in general.

1.19 Scope of the Study

Since BALLI (Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory) was introduced by Horwitz (1985), the general investigative focus has been directed to the five different aspects as follows: (1) Foreign language aptitude, (2) difficulty of language learning, (3) nature of language learning, (4) learning and communication strategies, and (5) motivation. However, when other scholars such as Wenden and Cotterall gave special attention to the study belief, the area of investigation has broadened to consider beliefs about (1)role of the teacher; (2)role of feedback; (3)learner's sense of self-efficacy; (4)important strategies; (5)dimensions of strategies-related behaviour; and (6)nature of language learning (Cotteral, 1995; Cotterall, 1999). This current study, however, will focus on learners' beliefs about language learning strategies.

Language learning strategies that will be investigated in this study are the strategies that learners employ to learn language (English language) in general. Therefore, this study will cover all language skills which include listening, reading, speaking and writing. Thus, this study

will investigate how the learners respond to language tasks, including the learning strategies they use to deal with the language tasks.

The reflection considered in this study is reflection on how students learn the language, how they do a given language assignment including what kinds of strategies they employ to perform a given language task which is written in the form of journal.

There were not enough tools to measure and assess the learners' beliefs about language learning strategies, therefore the instruments used in this study, especially the list of interview questions, is specifically developed in such a way so that more comprehensive information about their beliefs can be unveiled.

1.20 Organisation of the thesis

This thesis consists of nine chapters. Chapter One describes the background to the study which includes the educational system in Indonesia since independence including English language teaching policies and practices. The changes of curriculum are presented to give an idea about how seriously the government of Indonesia is in keeping up with new international approaches to teaching. The outcomes of English language teaching in Indonesia were submitted to demonstrate why this study is important. Some models of Second/Foreign language teaching and learning theories are discussed, followed by the study's assumptions. Research questions, significance of the study and scope of the study are presented at the end of the chapter.

Chapter Two presents the literature review on beliefs, belief change and reflection. It starts with the definitions of belief offered by some scholars, followed by some terms associated with beliefs and how beliefs are formed. Belief change is then discussed starting with an introduction on belief change, followed by potential factors affecting belief change. These factors

cover self-esteem, motivation, self-confidence, mindsets and conception of language, and language learning. The sources of learners' beliefs are then presented before a conceptual framework of learners' beliefs is offered. Available studies on investigating learners' beliefs about language learning and studies on belief change are discussed after that. Finally, literature on reflective learning is discussed. In this section, discussions about reflections on beliefs, and the model of reflection on beliefs about language learning, are presented. This chapter concludes with literature on reflective journals.

In Chapter Three I present the literature on language learning strategies in the context of Indonesia. I start the chapter with definitions from different scholars and continue with factors affecting language learning strategy use. The discussions on cross-culture language learning and language learning strategies in the Indonesian context are then considered. Chapter Three ends with a review of the cultural constrains of English language teaching in Indonesia.

Chapter Four discusses the research design and methods. It starts with the research designs which are followed by the research methods and the ethical considerations in educational research. Also, in this section, a code of ethics is presented. In the next section triangulation is discussed. Data collection procedures, which include the types and steps of data collection techniques, is explored. The final section of this chapter presents the data analysis procedure.

In chapter Five, I respond to research Question One which enquires about the kinds of learning strategies employed by students. I divide these findings with the presentation of the learning strategies used before reflection, and continue with those used after reflection. To make the presentation more systematic, I offer the learning strategy use by categories, followed by the employment of the individual strategies. The discussion on the finding is then presented before the summary.

Chapter Six responds to research Question Two which asks about the nature of strategy use and learner's belief. The first section of Chapter six describes the findings based on the interview, and the students' reflective learning journals. The next section of Chapter Six presents learners' choices of learning strategies for improving listening skills, reading skills, writing skills and learners' challenges in strategy practice. The finding about learners' beliefs which include learners' beliefs about: learning strategies, vocabulary and grammar, mutual error-correction, and learning strategies use are presented in the next section. The following section of Chapter Six presents the discussion of these finding. The discussion starts with collaborative learning versus individual learning, continues with preferences in language learning approaches, learners' challenges in strategy practice and ends with learners' beliefs about learning strategies.

In Chapter Seven I present the responses to research Question Three asking about the belief change in the process of reflection. I start this chapter with the reflection model and procedure, and continue with reflection guidance and identified changes of beliefs. In addition, in this chapter I discuss the factors which cause belief change. These include which include self-esteem, motivational orientation, self-confidence, and mindsets. The last part of this chapter discusses how learners' beliefs in language learning affect their learning strategy choice and implementation.

The last chapter, Chapter Eight, concludes the thesis. In this chapter I revisit the findings, draw conclusions, discuss implications of the study, and make some recommendations for future research.

1.21. Conclusion

This chapter has explored the background of the study, starting from the Indonesian educational system and English language teaching in Indonesia from time to time including the

changes of curriculum. This chapter also presents the causes of failure of English language teaching in Indonesia. Belief about language learning and strategy use are also explored. Some models of second (foreign) language learning and learning theories as proposed by Vygotsky and Rogoff were also reviewed. Research question, assumption, significance of the study and scope of the study are also presented. The next chapter will review literature on belief, belief change and reflection. It will start with the definition, some terms associated with belief and how beliefs are formed. The next literature will deal with potential factors affecting belief change, the source of learners' beliefs and conceptual framework of learners' beliefs. Investigating learners' beliefs and studies on belief change will also be explored. The next chapter will be ended with the literature on reflective learning and reflective journals.

Chapter II

Beliefs, Belief Change and Reflection

This chapter outlines underlying theories of belief, belief change and reflection. In the presentation of theories of beliefs, I start with ways in which some scholars define beliefs, continue with some associated terms and then discuss how beliefs are formed. The second section deals with belief change. It begins with the concept of beliefs and proceeds with potential factors affecting belief change. These factors include self-esteem, motivation, self-confidence, mindsets and conception of language and language learning. To develop better understanding of the concept of belief, I present the sources of learners' beliefs and a conceptual framework of belief change. In the third section, I offer a literature review on reflective learning, starting with a discussion about reflection on beliefs and advancing model of reflection on beliefs about language learning. Finally, I present a literature review on the subject of reflective journals.

2.1 Belief, a "Messy" Concept

> Teachers' beliefs can and should become an important focus of educational inquiry
> but that this will require clear conceptualizations, careful examination of key
> assumptions, consistent understandings and adherence to precise meanings, and
> proper assessment and investigation of specific belief constructs. (Frank Pajares, 1992,
> p. 307)

Belief, a "messy" concept" is a topic of discussion in this literature review not without reason. This is not only based on Pajares' (1992) claim that belief is a messy construct but also refers to the fact that a number of scholars (e.g., Garner & Alexander, 1994; Goodenough, 1963;

Harvey, 1986; C.S. Peirce, 1877) have tried to define this concept based on their reasoning as well as with reference to a number of often-used terms regarding the concept of belief.

In the discipline of psychology, the study of beliefs is of paramount concern because people's beliefs influence people's behaviour. Pajares (1992) claims that beliefs are "messy". He argues that a belief as a construct does not have a single correct definition, and that it is extremely difficult to define because it "does not lend itself to empirical investigations" (p.308). He also argues that a study of beliefs should involve attending to multiple and sometimes conflicting perspectives.

2.2 Beliefs Defined

Dewey (1993 in Barcelos, 2003, p. 10) defined belief as:

" a form of thought that covers all the matters of which we have no sure knowledge and yet which we are sufficiently confident of to act upon and also the matters that we now accept as certainly true, as knowledge, but which nevertheless may be questioned in the future...".

This definition indicates that beliefs are not only a cognitive concept but are also a social construct in which context plays a significant role. Dewey considered beliefs as being paradoxical calling the concept "the original Mr. Facing both-ways", suggesting that belief expresses an opposing couple, such as doubt and assurance; they "look both ways, towards a person and toward things". They are used "to form or judge, justify or condemn. To believe is to ascribe value, impute meaning, assign importance. James (1889) and Peirce (1877), two prominent philosophers, also shared the same opinion as Dewey's. They also observed the paradoxical nature of beliefs. James argued that beliefs are not free from the interference of experiences. He asserted that

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beliefs and actions or facts were interrelated: beliefs influence actions and actions in turn alter beliefs. According to Peirce (1877), beliefs guide desires and shape actions. Similar to Dewey and James, Peirce also contended that beliefs are self-contradictory "because they can stop doubt and start thought at the same time" (as in Barcelos, 2003).

Garner and Alexander (1994) assert that beliefs may be conceived as mini-theories of the mind, ways of characterizing language and behaviour and ascribing the mental state of people. Further, they argue that beliefs are "a part of social and cultural truth" that people try to hold on in their day to day lives (1994; p. 3). Beliefs are not easy to pinpoint and describe because they are interwoven with other personal philosophies, habits, experiences and social histories. Goodenough (1963) describes beliefs as propositions that are adhered to as true, and are "accepted as guides for accepting the future, are cited in support of the decision, are referred to in passing judgement on the behaviours of others" (p. 151). Whereas Harvey defines belief as

"a set of conceptual representations which signify to its holder a reality or given state of affairs of sufficient validity, truth and/or trustworthiness to warrant reliance upon it as a guide to personal thought and action" (1986, p.660).

Therefore, based on this definition beliefs could be regarded as a set of assertions held by people and realized in the natural language as declarative sentences.

Benson and Lor (1999) present the idea of conception of learning to compare with beliefs. The concept of learning relates to what the learner thinks the objects (in the context of language learning, the object is a language) and the processes of learning are. Beliefs deal with what the learners hold to be true about the objects and processes. In the context of language learning, the object covers two ideas, the language to be learnt and how to learn the language which includes the learning strategies. Wenden (1987) used the term "metacognitive knowledge" to refer to

beliefs and defined metacognitive knowledge as "the stable, statable although sometimes incorrect knowledge that learners have acquired about language, learning, and language learning process" (p. 163).

2.2.1   Some terms associated with beliefs. In the language learning literature learner's beliefs have been expressed in different technical terms such as L2 learners' metacognitive knowledge; mental and social representations; self-beliefs (such as self-concept beliefs and self-efficacy beliefs); control-beliefs (such as self-regulatory beliefs and locus of control-beliefs) and attribution. As there are so many terms deriving from the concept of learner's belief, overlap as well as interchangeable use are unavoidable.

2.2.2   Metacognitive knowledge. In the literature of foreign language or second language learning and teaching metacognitive knowledge is referred to as learners' beliefs (Horwitz, 1987) as there is no clear distinction between knowledge and beliefs (Wenden, 1998) . However, Alexander and Dochy (1994 as in Wenden, 1998) differentiated knowledge from beliefs. They viewed knowledge as factual, objective information, which is acquired through formal learning whereas beliefs are viewed as individual subjective understandings, idiosyncratic truths, often value related and characterized by a commitment which is not present in knowledge. The last two characteristics lead to the tendency that beliefs could be held more tenaciously than knowledge.

In Flavell's (1979) theory of metacognitive, the term metacognitive knowledge deals with an individual's beliefs or knowledge (cognitions) about his or others' cognitive activities. This type of knowledge then gives an individual directions to his or her cognitive activities in the form of attaching to, or abandoning, a particular cognitive activity, it is relatively stable, statable, and acquired formally or informally, deliberately or incidentally (Wenden, 1998). Flavell categorised

three variables of metacognitive knowledge. Person variables, as the term suggests, refer to individual's beliefs about him or herself and about other people. Task variables refer to an individual's knowledge about a task which is assigned to him or her. Strategy variables deal with the appropriate cognitive processes which an individual selects to accomplish a given task.

These three variables are of high value in their endeavour to unpack learners' beliefs about language learning strategy for a number of reasons. First, each individual learner evaluates his or her own capacity in a subject matter and therefore develops a belief about his or her competence or self-esteem. Second, to learn a second or foreign language, a learner needs to perform language tasks which are designed in such a way that guide the learner to acquire the target language. Third, in order to accomplish the language tasks, the learner develops his or her own belief about how to do it effectively to help him acquire the target language which, in this study, is called belief about language learning strategy. These three variables interrelate one to another and require a language learner to respond appropriately to approach language learning effectively.

The earliest study on metacognitive knowledge was probably conducted by Wenden (1986). There were a few studies conducted around a decade later such as those of Wenden (1998, 1999), Young (1999), Sakui and Gaies (1999) etc. Wenden (1999) puts belief under the domain of metacognitive knowledge. Furthermore, she affirms that beliefs are different from metacognitive knowledge. This is in the sense that they are related to value, and are more lasting even though these two terms are often used interchangeably. Among the later studies on this issue which referred to belief studies are those of Alanen (2003) and Dufva (2003).

2.2.3   **Mental & social representation.** The theoretical construct of cognitive science is the source from which the concept of mental representations is developed. There are

two opposing ideas regarding mental representation. The first is based on computational theory of the mind, in which representations are information-bearing units, and are connected to one another to form networks of information which are stored in minds (Gabillon, 2005, p. 236). The second posits that "representations are considered as group ideas which are widely shared and socially forceful because they are collectively created through the interaction of many minds" (Durkheim as cited in Riley, 1997, p. 127). The first concept views representation as an individual construct whereas the second idea regards representation as a collectively shared construct. Regarding the second concept of representation, Gremmo (1995) ponders how society and culture can play roles and asserts that the representations the learners hold about language and language learning shape their language learning culture and give directions to how they learn the target language (as cited in Gabillon, 2005). Therefore, there are positive and negative representations in relation to second or foreign language learning. Positive representations lead to fruitful attitudes which are shown by the learners, during their learning, exhibiting behaviours such as willingness to participate actively in classroom interaction, and being open to others. Whereas negative representations cause learners to show reluctance in participating in language interaction as well as rejection and refusal to being open to others (Zarate et.al as in Gabillon, 2005).

The concept of social representations is closer to the second idea of mental representations. As Moscovici (1997) affirms, social representations reject individuality of human cognition. In this view, it is the society that collaboratively forms and shares representations. Furthermore, Moscovici identifies two functions of which social representations are composed, that is, anchoring and objectification. Anchoring is when the unfamiliar is absorbed into the familiar categories which are shared by the members of the same group whereas objectification is when the representations are transformed into more significant images which are easily comprehensible by the individual (Gabillon, 2005). The second concept of representation considers society as a significant factor in assisting an individual learner, as a member of the

society, develop his belief about how to approach language learning. This idea is in line with Vygotsky's theory of cognitive development, and Rogoff's (1990) cognitive apprenticeship (see section 1.13 and 1.15), which put the role of society as paramount in providing opportunities to learn. This concept is applicable and relevant in this study as the society which serves as the context contributes to the formation and development of learners' beliefs.

2.2.4   Self-beliefs. Self-beliefs can be understood as the beliefs of an individual about him or herself. Such beliefs that learners create, develop, and hold to be true about themselves are believed to play an important role in helping them succeed or fail (F. Pajares & schunk, 2002).The study of self-beliefs in second or foreign language learning is based on social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986) which assumes beliefs comprise of a self-system and that the interaction between this system and external influences determine individual behaviour. These beliefs are then attributed to self-efficacy.

Self-efficacy beliefs are the beliefs that individuals hold about their capabilities and not about what they are actually capable of accomplishing (Bandura, 1986). Pajares and Schunk (2002) assert that these beliefs "revolve around the question of can" (p.20). These perceptions help them determine what they can do with their knowledge and skills.

2.2.5   Self-concept belief. Pajares and Schunk (2002) assert that self-concept belief is "a self-descriptive judgement that includes an evaluation of competence and the feeling of self-worth associated with the judgement in question" (p.20). These beliefs reflect questions of 'being' and 'feeling' (p.20). Self-concept is an individual's representations of all of his or her self-knowledge. Self-concept is made up of the beliefs that one hold to be true about one's experience.

Self-worth belief deals with the opinion of an individual about himself/herself (Gabillon, 2005). Unlike other beliefs, the surroundings of an individual play a crucial role in shaping the

belief of self-worth. It is a context-dependent belief in which society and culture, school environment, and the opinion of others impact on the belief. Although this belief deals with external factors, it is different from control beliefs.

2.2.6   Control-beliefs. According to Ajzen (2002), control beliefs are beliefs about "the presence of factors that may further or hinder performance" (p.1). Meanwhile Dornyei and Otto consider that control-beliefs deal with an individuals' perceived ease and difficulty in performing or learning a certain behaviour (1998). Therefore, individuals who hold a belief that s/he possesses sufficient control over the outcomes tend to make additional endeavours to achieve the requisite behaviour. Control-beliefs are regarded as having a strong influence on the attainment of individual learning outcomes. Dornyei and Otto support this idea by stating that "failure that is ascribed and uncontrollable factors such as low ability, hinders future achievement." (Dornyei & Otto, 1998, p. 61).

As control beliefs and self-efficacy are known to be important factors in enhancing self-regulation during second language learning process, these beliefs are gaining more and more attention from scholars who are doing studies in second and foreign language learning (e.g. Dornyei & Otto, 1998; White, 1999). Therefore these factors are important considerations for this research into learners' belies about language learning strategy.

2.2.7   Attribution. According to Weiner (1986) attributions are the beliefs of an individual about both internal causes and external causes of outcomes. Attributions refer to the interpretation of an individual towards the causes of an event that happen to him/herself and to others. For example, when a student takes an exam and passes but one of his friends fails, he has two different attributions. In response to this outcome, he may assume that his being smart (as an internal cause or attribution) caused him to pass. Meanwhile, his interpretation that his friend's

failure was caused by him spending too much time on TV is considered as an external causes or attribution.

In the study on beliefs about second language learning to date Barcelos (2003) and Bernat and Gvozdenko (2005) identified three different kinds of approaches used to investigate learners' beliefs about language learning, normative, metacognitive and contextual approaches. Each of these approaches proposes different kinds of definitions of the term belief. In a normative approach beliefs are seen as synonymous with preconceived notions, misconceptions, and opinions. Whereas, in a metacognitive approach beliefs are described as metacognitive knowledge: stable but sometimes fallible knowledge learners have about language learning. In contextual studies, beliefs are considered as part of the culture of learning and representations of language learning in a given society (Barcelos, 2003). For this study, I opt for the metacognitive approach and define beliefs as the *relatively stable knowledge that learners hold about the strategies to learn a language effectively*. This definition will act as framework to guide and deal with learners' beliefs about language learning strategies in this research. With this approach I believe I can investigate the learners' beliefs about language learning strategy more effectively. The approach allows me to employ data collecting techniques which give me the opportunity to unpack learners' beliefs more comprehensively through interviews and reflective journal entries.

2.3   How Beliefs are Formed

There is a major debate in the field of beliefs in most literature of social and cognitive psychology which ends with two different claims. The first claim argues that belief construction is social context-based; it also asserts that the context is always attached to belief and ,therefore, discussing beliefs without referring to the context is inaccurate since the social, cultural and environmental contexts shape beliefs. These beliefs are often found in the student teacher's own

past perspectives as a pupil (Sugrue, 1997), and are easily changed depending upon the role models encountered by student teacher in practice teaching (Tilema, 2000). In the field of foreign language learning, such beliefs are often embodied in learners' language learning as a result of one's own experiences or observation towards others' experiences, including their teacher's interventions.

The second claim is proposed by the opponents of the above mentioned scholars who see beliefs from the cognitivist point of view, affirm that beliefs are "well-organized schema" (network of connected ideas) and therefore neglect the roles of context (Gabillon, 2005, p. 239). They contend that belief formation is based on the individual act without context interference. Therefore these scholars rely on the knowledge that the learners develop, memorize from previous experience and not on the knowledge that they acquire due to the influence of the social, cultural and environment context.

These two opposing perspectives about belief formation are now unravelled. I argue the individuality of belief, as viewed from the cognitive perspective, and the social nature of beliefs, as viewed from the social psychological perspectives, are 'justifiable and complementary'.

2.4   Potential Factors affecting Belief Change

Many scholars especially those dealing with the normative study of beliefs (such as Cotterall, 1999; Horwitz, 1985, 1988; Victory, 1999) assert that learners beliefs are stable. Many other researchers in this field who used cognitive psychology framework to study learners beliefs under the subcomponent of metacognitive knowledge (Barcelos, 2003; Wenden, 1998; 1999) also share the same opinion that learners' beliefs are stable, just like other forms of metacognitive knowledge although, Wenden (1999) added the word "relatively" before "stable". This is in line with Kim and Keller's (2010) arguments that, similar to motivation and volition, beliefs are typically

resistant to change with regard to challenging situations. The assumption that beliefs are stable overlooks the fact that learners' beliefs, their external experiences and learning context are interrelated. Thus the normative beliefs are challenged by later scholars such as Amuzie and Winke (2009), and Dewey (as in Barcelos, 2003), who propose that beliefs are not stable but dynamic and change over time under certain contexts. Ellis (2008b)also considers beliefs as being situation specific and dynamic. The later claim that learner beliefs are dynamic confirms the possibility of change in learner beliefs.

According to Richardson (1996), beliefs function as the focus of change in the process of education, confirming that the target of change in the education process is the learners' beliefs. The possibility of belief change is not only due to the individual's voluntary willingness, but is also influenced by external factors such as the message which is contained in the text, and in the verbal communication and learning experience. As Petty and Caciopo (1986) argued, belief change is more likely to occur when individuals possess high motivation and willingness to think seriously about an issue and reflect it. Research has found that belief change is most likely to occur within individuals who read texts with a moderate persuasive message than radical ones compared to their pre-existing beliefs (Milburn, 1991). Social psychologists indicate that belief change can be prompted by more credible communication, and credibility is boosted when the individuals perceive the communication as unbiased and delivered by an expert (Hovland, Janis, & Kelley, 1953; Slater & Rouner 1996). Belief change can also occur from a need to modify one's ideas as a result of confronting experiences (Tilema, 2000).

Pajares (1992) proposed a fundamental assumption that the earlier a belief is incorporated into the belief structure, the more difficult it is to change. According to him belief change during adulthood is a relatively rare phenomenon. Furthermore he argued that learners will not change beliefs that they are unaware they possess, and they will not change their beliefs

they are aware they possess if they do not have good reason to do so (F. Pajares, 1993).

Introducing new beliefs through teacher's interventions very often results in the learners' existing

beliefs remaining unchanged and even becoming stronger (Tillema 1995 as cited in Tilema, 2000).

This outcome gives further support to the idea that a learners' belief is relatively stable over time

(Horwitz, 1985). However, there are some factors that have the potential to alter learners' beliefs

about language learning. These include self-esteem, motivation, self-confidence, mindsets and

conceptions about language, and language learning. These will be discussed below.

2.4.1 Self-esteem. In general, self-esteem deals with the sense of positive self-

regard that develops when individuals consistently meet and exceed the important goals of their

lives (Zeigler-Hill, 2013). Self-esteem is considered to be the evaluative aspect of self-knowledge

that reflects the extent to which people like themselves and believe they are competent (H. D.

Brown, 2007). Coopersmith (1967 as in H. D. Brown, 2007 p. 103) defined self-esteem as "personal

judgment of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes that the individual holds toward

himself". According to Mruk (2006), self-esteem is the lived status of one's competence in dealing

with the challenges of living in a worthy way over time. In a simple way, self-esteem can be

defined as how an individual values himself. It deals with how they feel valued in the world around

him/her and how worthwhile s/he is to the world. Generally, there are two kinds of self-esteem,

high self-esteem and low self-esteem. A high level of self-esteem refers to a highly favourable view

of self, whereas a low level of self-esteem refers to evaluations of the self that are either uncertain

or negative (Campbell et al., 1996). Heatherton, Wyland, and Lopez (2003) assumed having high

self-esteem enables the individual to have a good feeling about themselves, to have the ability to

cope effectively with the challenges and negative feedback, and to have a social world in which

they conceive that people appreciate, value and respect them. On the contrary, people with low

self-esteem see the world through a more negative perspective, and their general dislike of

themselves affects their perception of everything around them. This condition obviously affects

their motivation to take efforts to make improvements. In the learning context, students with low self-esteem will most likely encounter a lot of challenges in order to achieve improvement.

In regard to second or foreign language learning, scholars agree that high self-esteem contribute significantly to the success of language learning (see for example H. D. Brown, 2007; Heatherton, et al., 2003). A number of studies have confirmed the role of self-esteem in improving proficiency among language learners. A study conducted by Soureshjani and Naseri (2011) among pre-university students in Iran has confirmed that there is a strong and significant correlation between proficiency level of language learners and their self-esteem. In a more specific area of language learning, Heyde (1979) asserted that different levels of self-esteem interrelated positively to the performance of oral production. In the Indonesian context, Pramita (2012) concluded that self-esteem positively affected the English proficiency of the learners. Another study in the Indonesian context, conducted among tertiary students reported that higher level of self-esteem contributed to lower level of students' anxiety which then influence their speaking competence. Although all of these studies were conducted quantitatively, all confirm that self-esteem is a significant predictor of the success of language learning.

2.4.2. Motivation. Gardner defines second language motivation as "the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity." (1985, p. 10). In his socio educational model which deals with language learning, Gardner proposes five factors which drive an individual to learn a second language. These factors are: instrumental and integrative motivations, motivational intensity or the effort, desire to learn the language or want and attitudes towards learning the language. The integrative orientation deals with language learners' attitude towards the community of the target language, their desire to interrelate with the members of the community, and their desire to become members of this community. Meanwhile, instrumental motivation reflects a

determination to learn a language to achieve practical goals such as a good job, better salary or social recognition (see for example Clément, Gardner, & Smythe, 1977; R. Gardner, C., 1985). It is necessary for these two motivations to co-exist within an individual: a language learner may have one or both types of motivation to learn a foreign language. Nevertheless, I speculate that having both motivations simultaneously while learning a foreign language will tend to generate more opportunities for success: both motivations create a disposition to learn and a comparatively high level of endurance which are beneficial for learning success.

2.4.3. Self-Confidence.   According to Hong et.al (2014) self-confidence is the beliefs the learner holds about his or her own ability. They look at self-confidence as that of a learner from general point of view. Literature in education does not have enough information about what self-confidence is from the perspective of a teacher whereas psychological literature has very rich references (Stankov and Kleitman 2008 in Maclellan, 2014). Studies in education research characterise confidence as responses to question of, "Are you sure your answer is correct?" Such sentences view self-confidence as an individual "sureness" (Maclellan, 2014, p. 60). Ho (2013) defined self-confidence as our view of our own abilities to do something. In his perspective, self-confidence has something to do with what an individual has done to overcome an obstacle or has worked to improve a particular skill. Thus, self-confidence is not a trait but it is an achievement that makes an individual feel proud and confident about doing something successfully.

Therefore, the problem of confidence to speak in English among the students in Indonesia is a common issue, at all levels of education (see for example, Mayaratri, 2011; Mettasari & Tantra, 2013; Nofriadi & Alicia, 2013; Nurhasanah, Octavia, & Yulizar, 2013; Nurulhayati, 2013; Risa & Sulastri, 2012; Utama, Marhaeni, & Jaya, 2013; Widiati & Cahyono, 2006). This is not only because of their limited verbal skills but also because of the absence of environment conducive to English communication.Their unwillingness to communicate in English as a result of lack of self-confidence confirms Clément, Dörnyei, and Noels (1994) contention that self-confidence

significantly contributes to learners' willingness to communicate in a foreign language. Their passive involvement in communication in the target language as a result of being afraid of making mistakes, indicates that they are suffering from a risk-taking "phobia" (my own term), one of the individual attributes which is essential for a successful language learner (Beebe, 1983; H. D. Brown, 2007; Ehrman & Oxford, 1995; Ely, 1986; Huang & Van Naerssen, 1987).

Lack of self-confidence and the fear of taking risks are common issues among second language learners in general. Investigating teacher's perception of students' reticence, Tsui (1996) found that learners' (low) self-confidence is one of the factors, besides their willingness to take, or not take risks, which affects learners' readiness to respond to the teacher's questions.

2.4.4. Mindsets. Mindsets are beliefs a person holds about the role of talent and effort in one's learning success. In psychology mindsets are called implicit theories (see C. Dweck, 2006; C. S. Dweck, Chiu, & Hong, 1995; S. Ryan & Mercer, 2011). Mindsets deal with the basic perceptions of individuals about their individual attributes such as talent, intelligence and personality, and how these contribute to their success in learning. Some learners assume that such attributes are static, stable, unchangeable or fixed; for example a person may believe that s/he was born intelligent or with a special talent and that these fundamental traits will not change. Other learners may have different beliefs perceiving these traits as being malleable and, as such, are changeable depending on how much effort the learners make to achieve such changes. Reference to definitions from Dweck (2000), Dweck et.al. (1995), Molden and Dweck (2006), Mercer (2011a) redefines mindsets as:The basic beliefs an individual has about the nature of

human attributes, ability or intelligence in a certain domain and are considered to

be a powerful core framework of beliefs, which can influence many aspects of

learner behaviour and related beliefs (p. 65).There are two kinds of mindsets,

fixed mindsets (entity theory) and growth mindsets (incremental theory). Thus, language learning

mindsets refers to the belief that the individual holds that his success in language learning is either attributed to his fixed, natural or innate talent (fixed mindsets) or to the effort and conscious hard work (growth mindsets) that he puts in achieve success (see Mercer, 2012; Mercer & Ryan, 2010). Ericsson, Krampe, and Tesch-Römer (1993) highlight the importance of positive environments in supporting the learners to improve their expertise, motivation, and opportunities to facilitate them to develop their own interest, invest their time, and make use of the opportunity to engage in deliberate practice. They also assert that different individual contexts offering a variety of opportunities can constrain or assist people in their efforts to strive for. Gladwell (2008) supports this assertion also referring to the important role of context and the affordances of culture, family and significant others in the language learning process. He concludes that learning success is not only a product of individual merit but also a product of the world in which a person grows up. This idea is relevant to Vygotsky's sociocultural theory, and Rogoff's cognitive apprenticeship, as discussed in sections 1.12 to 1.15 which contend that society has a significant role in the cognitive development of learners.**2.4.5. Conception of language and language learning.** Conception is the ability to form or understand mental concepts and abstractions. According to Benson and Lor (1999), conceptions of learning cover four areas. First, conceptions of learning are concerned with what the learner thinks the object of their learning is. Second, conceptions of learning characterise learners' thinking at a higher level of abstraction meaning that it is easy to observe and it needs further analysis. Third, conceptions of learning are organised hierarchically and categorised in terms of basic distinction between quantitative and qualitative distinction. Quantitative distinction deals with committing signs to memory such as memorizing words, remembering words and reproducing words but qualitative distinction deals with understanding meaning such as gaining understanding (meaning), having understanding (meaning) and being able to do something. Finally, conceptions of learning are understood as relational and responsive to context. Further they explain that in the context of foreign language learning, conceptions of

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learning can be understood as conceptions of what a foreign language is and of what the process of learning a foreign language consists of. According to Benson and Lor (1999) in most cases, an individual who has a strong belief in the importance of vocabulary would also consider grammatical knowledge significant and therefore need similar treatment which usually is through a memorization learning strategy.

2.5   The Sources of Learners' Beliefs

Learners' beliefs are not inherited but they are shaped by other-than-self factors. In language learning, there are a number of sources that form learners' beliefs. One of these is their past learning experiences in formal schooling or in foreign language learning in particular (Ellis, 2008b; Weiner, 1986; Weinert & Kluwe, 1987). In their study, Little, Singleton and Silvius surveyed students of foreign language of both undergraduate and graduates programs at Trinity College, Dublin. They reported that both past experiences of both levels of education, in general and language learning in particular, played a significant role in shaping learners' attitudes to language learning. For example, students preferred to learn foreign language through production activities which include speaking and writing rather than through the receptive tasks, such as reading and listening. They concluded that this attitude was shaped by their previous instructional experiences in which their teachers put more emphasis on their productive skills rather than their receptive skills (1984 as in Ellis, 2008b). There have been a handful of studies proving this hypothesis. Paris and Byrnes (1989), for example, have asserted that "children's theories of self-regulated learning are formed in the classroom" (p.188). Schommer's (1990) study has managed to identify that 'disabling' beliefs about knowledge and learning that the high school students hold derive from their earlier instructional experiences. Stodolsky (1988) has also found that students' beliefs about the best way to acquire knowledge in particular subjects are related to their classroom experiences including their teachers' use of teaching methods in teaching the subjects.

Sakui and Gaies (2003) in a different setting, however, have come to an interesting conclusion that learning experience is not the only factor which shapes belief. In a case study of a Japanese English teacher, they found that apart from learning experience, such factors as her wide range of life, her multiple social identities as well as different environmental affordances and constrains are closely related to the teacher's belief construction. Sakui and Gaies' conclusion has indicated that the way teachers teach (pedagogy) plays a major role in shaping students' beliefs in approaching language learning. In relation to this, Mori (1999) reminded the teachers that what they do in the classroom, such as the language they use and the teaching methods as well as learning activities they expect the students to do, can possibly influence the development of beliefs the students hold about learning and language learning. Tudor (1996), who found that "the unthinking acceptance of wisdom" contributed in forming learners' beliefs, suggest that training in this area needs to consider such factors as (a) stock-taking and evaluation of learners' existing beliefs, (b)exposure to alternative approaches and options, and (c) providing guidelines to the learners on how to explore these options (p.53).

Ellis (2008b) assumed that learners' beliefs may be culturally determined, suggesting that different cultural backgrounds may affect learners' beliefs about language learning. The role of cultural background in shaping learners' beliefs is widely debated. For example, Horwitz (1999) argued that there was insufficient evidence to prove that learner's beliefs varied systematically according to cultural background. Therefore, the assumption that culture may constitute a dominant factor in shaping learners' beliefs is not robust enough. However, this claim was challenged by Spolsky (1992) who indicated that even though its influence was not as significant as previous learning experience or preferred style, cultural background indeed contributed to shape the belief system of foreign language learners. Further, Ellis predicted that general factors such as personality and cognitive styles of the learners significantly influence their beliefs. However, he agreed that this assumption needs further investigation. Indirectly, this study is going to respond

to Elli's speculation and examine what factors contribute to the shaping of learners' beliefs about LLS and possibly the changing of their beliefs.

Language learning in general inevitably involves the consideration of context in which the learning takes place. This later determines not only the learning process the learners favour but also the potential learning outcomes they will acquire eventually. As part of learners' differences, beliefs have a strong root in the social context of language learning which includes the sociolinguistic environment of home and community and how they perceive the target language (Spolsky, 1992). Given that social context is always present in second language learning, the role of learners' beliefs in the theory of second language acquisition is unquestionably significant.

2.6   Conceptual Framework of Learner Beliefs

There are two prominent figures whose theories underpin the concept of learner beliefs in the field of language learning, Vygotsky and Dewey (in Barcelos & Kalaja, 2003; Hosenfeld, 2003). Vygotsky whose theory is developed into that of sociocultural theory, asserts that learner beliefs are both *polyphonic* and *meditational*. Polyphonic refers to the belief of the learners that may be articulated in many different voices and that the interpretations should be based on those voices. Meditational means that the beliefs the learners hold function as tools in the process of learning a language. In Dewey's theory (1938), learner' beliefs are considered as part of learners' construction of their experience (Paula. Kalaja, 1995). As learners always obtain new experiences during their social interaction, learners' beliefs are regarded as dynamic, socially constructed, and contextual. Based on Dewey's theory it can be concluded that learners' beliefs are not stable, but changing over time. In addition, Hosenfeld (2003) argues that learners' beliefs "vary along many dimensions, including stable/unstable, emerging/fade away, used/unused, new/old; idiosyncratic/universal; evolving/unchanging; recurrent/infrequent" (p. 39).

However, many scholars consider learners' beliefs as stable and based their studies on this view (Barcelos & Kalaja, 2003; Cotterall, 1999; Victory, 1999) and "relatively stable" (Anita Wenden, 1987; A. Wenden, 1991). Wenden (1998) explains the characteristics of beliefs as being "metacognitive knowledge" evident as (1) part of a learner's store of acquired knowledge, (2) relatively stable and statable, (3) early developing, (4) a system of related ideas and (5) an abstract representation of learner's experience (p. 517).

Learner's beliefs influence their behaviour and these beliefs influence how students approach their learning. In other words, how learners "conceptualize learning and how they interpret learning" (Richards & Lockhart, 1994, p.58) and the learning strategies that they employ (Horwitz, 1987) are determined by the beliefs that the learners hold. Wenden (1986) argues that beliefs operate as "a sort of logic" which makes the learners consciously and unconsciously determine what they do to help themselves learn the language.

Riley (2009) summarized sixteen fundamental assumptions that Pajare (1992) proposes regarding the nature, origins, and roles of belief. These fundamental assumptions include the following:

1. Beliefs are formed early, through a process of cultural transmission, and tend to self-perpetuate, persevering even against contradictions caused by reason, time, schooling, or experience.
2. The earlier a belief is incorporated into the belief structure, the more difficult it is to alter. Belief change during adulthood is a relatively rare phenomenon.
3. Beliefs are instrumental in defining tasks and selecting the cognitive tools with which to interpret, plan, and make decisions regarding tasks. Beliefs strongly affect an individuals' behaviour.

Pajare also suggests beliefs could be regarded as 'the single most important construct in educational research' (Frank Pajares, 1992, p. 329). Riley (1997) also argued beliefs are constructed collectively through social interactions in different cultural and historical settings. Further he explain that L2 learners' subscription to certain beliefs about language learning have a direct consequence on the ways they learn. Many studies suggest a significant relationship between a learners' belief and other factors including aptitude and anxiety.

Wenden (1986) asserts that it is very important to understand learners' belief systems because the beliefs that the learners hold can affect their approach to learning in four different aspects:

1. the kind of strategies they use;

2. what they attend to;

3. the criteria they use to evaluate the effectiveness of learning activities and of the social context that gives them the opportunity to use and practice the language; and

4. where they concentrate their use of strategies.

Many scholars agree that beliefs not only influence the language learning approach and acquisition, but also the way they respond to teaching activities. Learners' learning approaches include the selection of learning strategies, the choice of learning activities and the choice of context in which they can practice their language (A. Wenden, 1986). Horwitz (1987) argues that learners' beliefs also influence the way that they acquire the language as well as how they set up ways to learn the language. Further she also asserts that learners would feel displeased and resistant if the way their teacher taught them is different from what they expected. According to Horwitz some learners prefer free conversation to pattern drill, others expect their teachers to correct them. If the teacher cannot meet the students' expectations - which are actually their

beliefs - it is very likely that the learning process will not be successful or even confrontational in some cases. This kind of situation will make the students frustrated and in return they will lose their confidence and their ultimate goal cannot be achieved satisfactorily. Horwitz (1987) also clarifies this asserting that although learners do not express their beliefs explicitly, they actually hold their own beliefs and these beliefs still have a powerful impact on the success of language learning.

2.7 Investigating Learners' Beliefs about Language Learning

After investigating research reports on beliefs, Barcelos (2003) and Bernat and Gvozdenko (2005) classified research on beliefs about language learning into three approaches; normative, metacognitive and contextual. Studies following the normative approach employ Likert-scale questionnaires to investigate learners' beliefs. The most popular instrument used in such studies is the thirty-four item questionnaire developed by Horwitz (1985, 1988) called BALLI (Belief About Language Learning Inventory) which has been used both for large (Kim-Yoon, 2000) and small (Chawhan & Oliver, 2000) scale studies. This inventory leads learners to think about the beliefs that they hold. Very often they do not realize that they believe in something but when they have to agree on the beliefs listed in the questionnaires, they become aware. This instrument is a quantitative self-report questionnaire intentionally developed to investigate thirty-four different learner beliefs. As well as being used as a research instrument to test students' beliefs in language learning, this inventory was also intended for training purposes (Horwitz, 1985). This research instrument is designed to investigate learners' beliefs about (1) foreign language aptitude, (2) difficulty of language learning, (3) nature of language learning, (4) learning and communication strategies, and (5) motivation. There are no "right" or "wrong" answer or responses to the items in this inventory, the students are only required to address their opinions on the basis of "strongly agree", "agree", "neither agree nor disagree", "disagree" and "strongly disagree".

Other instruments utilized for the studies following this approach have been developed by Cotteral (1995, 1999). This instrument focuses on the learners' beliefs about (1) role of the teacher; (2) role of feedback; (3) learner's sense of self-efficacy; (4) important strategies; (5)dimensions of strategies-related behaviour; and (6)nature of language learning. Sakui and Gaies (1999) also developed similar instruments to measure learners' beliefs about language learning.

Different from the normative approach which uses Likert-scale questionnaires, a metacognitive approach employs semi-structured interviews, self-reports to collect the data and uses content analysis to investigate learners' belief. With such data collecting instruments, learners have a chance to express their learning experiences using their own words. Within this approach belief is defined as metacognitive knowledge and, therefore, this approach is considered as a metacognitive approach. The assumption underpinning this approach is that students' actions as well as how they are developing their potential is always influenced by their metacognitive knowledge which also represents their "theories in actions" (Anita Wenden, 1987). Wenden's studies (1986; Anita Wenden, 1987; 1998; 1999, 2001) utilized this approach to examine learner beliefs. Wenden (1987) defined metacognitive knowledge as "the stable, statable although sometimes incorrect knowledge that learners have acquired about language, learning and the language learning process" (p.163). This definition seems to be inconsistent with her further characterization to this knowledge as "relatively stable" which then she acknowledges as possibly changing overtime (1999). What distinguishes this approach from others, apart from the absence of questionnaires is the data collecting instrument "the framework that defines beliefs as metacognitive knowledge and their relationship with autonomy" (Barcelos, 2003, p. 17).

Both normative and metacognitive approaches are criticized by scholars as failing to capture the learners' experience-based nature as they overlooked beliefs in the students' own language. Besides, these two approaches are also criticized as treating learners' beliefs about

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language learning as a fixed a-priori construct and neglecting the social context of belief and their emergent nature (Van Lier as in Barcelos, 2003). According to him, "belief systems are complex and are embedded within sets of beliefs forming a multilayered web of relationships" (p. 26). This is the basic reasoning of the emergence of the contextual approach which takes into account the nature of beliefs based on learners' experience and real-life context.

The other approach classification reported by Bernat and Gvozdenko (2005) is a contextual approach. The emergence of this approach was based on the awareness of scholars to have a better understanding of learners' belief in a more specific context and not aiming at drawing a conclusion through generalization and therefore the investigation of the belief is conducted from the students' context. In this approach, the researcher investigates leaner belief from the point of view of the learners. As the name of this approach suggests, belief in this type of investigation is characterized as contextual, dynamic and social because context is not a static concept by itself but a "socially constituted, interactively sustained, time-bound phenomena" and "each individual move modifies the existing context while creating a new arena for subsequent interaction" (Goodwin & Duranti, 1992, p. 5-6). Therefore, based on this definition of context, the perspectives of the students as well as how they organize their perceptions are considered significant. Barcelos (2003) includs Ellis's (1999) study into this approach category because learners' metaphors that Ellis investigated to reveal learners' beliefs were considered as reflections of their learning experiences. Different from the normative category of which the analysis method is quantitative, this approach uses qualitative method. The data collecting techniques commonly used in this approach include case studies, ethnographic classroom observation, informal discussion and stimulated recall diaries, and discourse analysis (Barcelos, 2003).

Ellis (2008b) added another approach for investigating learner beliefs which he called as metaphor analysis. Different from the other three categories as identified by Barcelos (Barcelos, 2003), this approach is unique as the researcher needs to instruct the learners to describe the foreign language using a metaphor. The metaphor is then analysed to reveal the beliefs the learners are holding. This is one way of identifying learner beliefs through an indirect means. The reasons underlying this approach include the limitation of the existing instruments to uncover learner beliefs (e.g. questionnaire and interviews). There are at least two weaknesses in the data gathered using the existing collecting instruments. First, existing instruments cannot always succeed in revealing learner beliefs accurately, especially when instruments are already prepared. Second, in using the self-report instrument, the researcher assumes that learners are aware of the beliefs they are holding and able to express them. This is not always true as some learners cannot verbalize their beliefs. There have been at least two studies employing this approach, one is conducted by Ellis (1999) and the other one is by (Kramsch, 2003).

This current study uses a metacognitive approach to answer all the aforementioned research questions. Therefore, the beliefs of the learners are not gathered using questionnaire only but also through semi-structured interviews and self-reports which the learners write on their journals. Content analysis method will be employed to analyse the data collected through both semi-structured interviews and self-reports.

2.8   Studies on Belief Change

The following studies have shown that some beliefs that the learners held about language learning were actually susceptible to change over time. Administering Horwitz's (1988) *Beliefs About Language Learning and Instruction* (BALLI) questionnaire, Tanaka and Ellis (2003) investigated the belief change of 166 Japanese students concerning learning English as a foreign

language as a result of 15-week-long study abroad program in the United States. The finding showed statistically significant changes in the students' beliefs, before and after the program, which related to analytic language learning, experiential language learning, self-efficacy and confidence, among which the latter was proved to be the greatest. However, this study failed to show a statistically significant relationship between belief change and English proficiency.

Kern (1995) compared the beliefs about language learning of the students with those of their teachers, and investigated whether the students' beliefs are still consistent over a 15-week course of study. Using BALLI as the instrument he found that more than 50% of all the students' responses changed. What is interesting is that their beliefs changed closer towards their teachers' beliefs. This finding indicates that teacher beliefs may have the potential to influence learner beliefs. Sakui and Gaies (1999) surveyed 1296 students using their Japanese questionnaire. They not only describe the language-learning beliefs of the Japanese students, but also investigated the consistency of student responses to their questionnaire items. Therefore they conducted a number of interviews with students to discuss the experience of responding to the questionnaires and to seek additional information about students' beliefs. In this study they found that some students who gave two different answers in the survey reported that their beliefs had actually changed after the four weeks between the administrations of the two questionnaires. For example, one student who initially preferred to have a teacher who spoke in English, when teaching, found that, after four weeks' time, she would rather have a teacher who could also explain in Japanese. This study also shows the importance of interview as the additional source of data collection method.

Amuzie and Winke (2009) examined the belief of 70 English language learners who were studying English abroad in the United States. These students mostly come from Asian countries such as Korea, China, Saudi Arabia and Vietnam with some from France. The researchers

administered questionnaires to the students about their beliefs before, and during their study-abroad and compared them. This comparison showed that their beliefs changed during their study-abroad. This investigation also revealed that students possessed stronger beliefs in the importance of learner autonomy, and weaker beliefs in the roles of teachers in learning. Based on the finding that, those who studied longer in the United States had more significant changes in their belief systems, the researchers concluded that the length of context exposure and the learning context shape belief change.

By administering a questionnaire to 187 college students who were learning Japanese, Mori (1999) investigated the structure of language learners' beliefs about learning in general and beliefs about language learning specifically and examined the relationship between the two beliefs. He found that the students general epistemological beliefs, and beliefs specifically about language learning are complex. Finally, he concluded that learner beliefs might be modifiable. This conclusion was drawn, firstly from the fact that the beginning and advanced learners possessed different beliefs suggested that the amount of instruction which is delivered to them could influence learners' beliefs. This is in line with Schommer's study which revealed that exposing students to advanced knowledge facilitates a change in their belief system (1990, in Mori, 1999). Secondly, his finding that both epistemological beliefs, and beliefs about language learning, consist of multiple independent constructs indicating that learner beliefs are not just a reflection of general psychological traits easily influenced by instruction. Rather, the finding suggests that learner beliefs are partly a function of experience and learning, confirming that the nature of the learning experience may affect the formulation of student beliefs.

Kardash and Scholes (1995) conducted a study on effects of pre-existing beliefs and repeated readings on belief change, comprehension, and recall of persuasive text and found that belief change could be promoted through a persuasive text which used causal argument. In other

words, a person who reads a text consisting of causal argument repeatedly will most likely modify his or her pre-existing beliefs. The fact that the text used in this study possessed high comprehensibility contributed to the success of this study to portray the belief change apart from the existence of causal arguments in the texts. This finding supported Eagly (1974) who argued that people are more likely to be persuaded by a message if its supporting arguments are easily comprehended.

A more recent study investigating belief change, by Inozu (2011) involved 326 trainee teachers enrolled in four-year education program in English language teaching and methodology at the Cukurova University of Adana, Turkey. This study was intended to find answers to questions of the kind of beliefs the trainee language teachers possess about language learning and whether belief changes occur over four years studying teacher education. Using the Likert-scale questionnaire developed by Lightbrown and Spada (2000) which consisted of twelve statements, he found that although in general their beliefs remained the same during the four-year language teacher education program, there were some changes observed in a small number of beliefs. This study revealed that the first and second year students shared the same belief that learning was a habit formation but the third and fourth year students questioned this view. The first year students also considered intelligence quotient (IQ) as a significant determinant of language learning success but the more senior students did not consider it as a requirement for being a good language learner. Although this study enriches the discussion of the research in learners' beliefs, it could not claim to be a study producing clear evidence of the emergence of belief change. This study would be considered as providing support to the claim of emergence of belief change through the four-year teacher education program if this is a longitudinal study.

A study to thirty American Native English speaker (NES) teachers who teach English in a research-oriented Chinese University by Liu and Wang (Liu & Wang, 2012) investigated, among

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other factors, the kinds of initial beliefs which were changed or modified after a period of time teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and how such changes happened. Among the changes were their perceptions that fluency, pronunciation, appropriateness in communication, and listening comprehension were important to improve learners' verbal English. They also become more aware about their role as an instructor and the importance of the use of pair work to improve learners' oral skill. Also, many of them embraced new beliefs such as that attentive listening facilitates students' EFL learning and that poor pronunciation could hinder their learning progress. In this study they also identified the nature of the NES teachers' belief change as having three characteristics. Changes do not occur in the core beliefs but rather on the peripheral level of beliefs. That is why their belief about the role of American culture in teaching oral English remained unchanged. Belief change does not occur for the NES teachers who have much direct experience in EFL teaching, but rather for those who have little EFL teaching experience. Finally, conflicts often emerge between their initial beliefs, and their new teaching contexts and students, when conceptual changes are likely to happen.

2.9   Reflective Learning

When individuals learn, they will improve their knowledge which later on improve their performance or even transforms them into better or different persons. There are three levels of learning that individuals pass through: improvement, transformation and learning about learning (Brockbank & McGill, 2006). These three levels of learning are sequential in which an individual will first acquire improvement, then transformation, and finally as the consequence of the first two, reflective learning about learning. In the process of learning, reflection is a significant process because learners will be able to "capture their experience, think about it, mull it over and evaluate it" (Boud, Keogh, & Walker, 1985, p. 18). Reflection as Loughran (1996, p. 14) defined it is "the deliberate and purposeful act of thinking which centres on ways of responding to problem

situations in teaching and learning". Brockbank, Mcgill and Beech (in Brockbank & McGill, 2006) define reflective learning as:

An interpersonal process, where social context and experience are acknowledged, in which learners are active individuals, wholly present, engaging with another, open to challenge, and the outcome involves transformation as well as improvement for both individuals and their organization.

Reflective learning requires reflection during the learning process (B. Ho, 1997). In reflective learning social context together with existing experience are important requirements as they will be thought through, contemplated and evaluated. The learners have to be actively engaged in interaction with other learners. Open-mindedness as the consequence of self-evaluation is crucial since this process leads to the improvement and transformation of the individuals.

The purpose of reflection is to unravel a problem, or to make more sense of a difficult situation. Reflection involves working toward understanding the problem more comprehensively and creating alternatives to sort out the problems or enhance efficacy. There are five phases in the process of reflection; suggestions, problems, hypothesis, reasoning and testing (Dewey, 1933 as in Loughran, 1996). The combination of these five phases forms a reflective cycle. Although the objective of any reflection is problem solving, the result of testing as one of the five phases in the reflective cycle, may lead to further reflective action when the result of testing is further reconsidered, evaluated and analysed.

2.9.1 **Reflection on beliefs.** Many experts assert that reflection plays a significant role in helping learners to recognize their beliefs (F. Pajares, 1993). Bandura argued that self-reflection is one of the most distinctively human characteristics and it provides personal

understanding and helps learners evaluate and modify their thinking. Furthermore Pajares emphasizes that reflection that learners do, and the challenges they face can change them from "what it is subjectively reasonable for them to believe, to what it is objectively reasonable for them to believe" (1993; p. 47). This is where the difference between education and training lies. Reflection is a very significant element in the process of education but it does not always exist in training.

Fentermacher, as quoted by Senger (1998) pursued the questions of change in beliefs through the notions of the tendency of the mind. He argued that through dialogue with others, beliefs were exposed, examined and compared with the beliefs of others. This will automatically test the consistency of their beliefs. This process is called "practical argument" (Fenstermacher in Senger, 1998, p. 23) and can be carried out through the use of video reflection and intense dialogue. In my current study, however, the reflection that the participants will do is a self-reflection on their use of language learning strategies that they will have to write in their journal. In other words, it is a reflection on action, a reflection that the students do regarding how they approach language learning, including how they accomplish a language task.

In his investigation in understanding reflection and beliefs in mathematics teaching, Senger (1998) found that collaborative reflective dialogue could assist teachers to find out beliefs which affect their practice; in the process, teachers also changed their practices which were not in line with their true beliefs, and finally, the self-reflective process enabled the teachers to improve their professionalism.

2.9.2 The model of reflection on belief about language learning strategy

Reflective learning process does not only occur through learners' existing experiences but also through learners' beliefs as basically these beliefs are embedded in the experience (Hosenfeld,

2003). This is in line with Dewey's theory which considers beliefs as parts of the learners' construction of experience (Paula. Kalaja, 1995). Therefore, the model of participant reflection on their beliefs about language learning strategy (see figure 2.1), in this study, is modified from the revised reflective learning model as adapted by Ho (Ho, 1996 as in B. Ho, 1997, p. 225).

Based on this model there are two levels of reflection, the metacognition level and the cognition level. Each of these levels has its own focus. The metacognition level focuses on the student's reflection on the metacognition strategies. These strategies include planning, monitoring, or evaluating the success of a learning activity (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Whereas the cognitive level relates to the learning of skills required to perform a given task, such as writing, reading or listening task.

The Model of Reflection on Belief about Language Learning Strategy

CONTEXT

Meta-cognitive Level

```
                        ┌─────────────────────┐
                        │   OVERALL BELIEF    │
                        ├──────────┬──────────┤
                        │   NEW    │   OLD    │
                        └──────────┴──────────┘

  ┌──────────────────┐                          ┌──────────────────┐
  │ EVALUTIVE        │                          │ PLANNING         │
  │ REFLECTION on    │                          │ REFLECTION on    │
  │ skills used      │                          │ how to do the task│
  └──────────────────┘                          └──────────────────┘

                        ┌─────────────────────┐
                        │   EXISTING BELIEF   │
                        ├──────────┬──────────┤
                        │  Task    │ Task given│     Cognitive Level
                        │ Completed│ to be done│
                        └──────────┴──────────┘
    Stage 3                                          Stage 1
  ┌──────────────────┐                          ┌──────────────────┐
  │                  │                          │      INPUT       │
  │  APPLICATION     │                          │ ┌──────────────┐ │
  │                  │                          │ │with different│ │
  │ (of skills to    │                          │ │levels        │ │
  │   task)          │                          │ │of reflectivity│ │
  │                  │                          │ └──────────────┘ │
  │                  │                          │ -Material-guided │
  │                  │                          │  *self-discovery │
  │                  │                          │  *peer-sharing   │
  │                  │                          │ -Material & teacher-│
  │                  │                          │  guided          │
  │                  │                          │ -Teacher-directed│
  └──────────────────┘        Stage 2           └──────────────────┘
                        ┌─────────────────────┐
                        │ CONCEPTUALIZATION   │
                        │   (of skills)       │
                        └─────────────────────┘
```

Figure 2.1   The Model of Reflection on Belief about Language Learning Strategy modified from The

Reflective Learning Model (1996) (Source: B. Ho, 1997)

The cycle of reflection begins from the fact that the students use their "existing belief in language learning strategy" to do a given language task. Stage 1 is the stage in which the students are assigned to do a task and they have to learn the skills they need to accomplish the task. At the metacognitive level, when the students receive a task, they are given a chance to make use of their past experience to reflect and think about how they will use it to deal with that task before they continue to the next level of cognition in which they will pass through the three different stages of learning. In stage one the students obtain input on how a given task should be performed. Stage 2 deals with conceptualization of skills that the students learn through the input obtained. At this stage concepts are formulated. There is a process of selection regarding the skills suitable to perform the given task. In stage 3, the students use the skills they have chosen and conceptualized in stage two to do the task. After the three stages have been performed and the task has been completed, the students do another reflection at the metacognitive level. In this reflection they evaluate how they have done the task. At this level they also work out ways to do the same task in more effective ways in the future. These three stages of learning give the students new beliefs about language learning strategies which later on become part of the "overall belief". This whole process needs to consider the context (B. Ho, 1997; Loughran, 1996). This is the way learners' beliefs about language learning strategies are changed through the medium of reflection becoming new beliefs. These new beliefs about language learning strategies will become existing beliefs, which the learners will recall when they encounter with new language tasks in the future. Context in this reflection process plays a very significant role because beliefs change along with experience and, therefore, learners' beliefs are dynamic, socially constructed and contextual (Hosenfeld, 2003).

This model of reflective learning will be used as the model for the participants of the present study to write learning journals which later on will also be referred for analysis. As mentioned in the research methodology, as the process of the reflective learning activity, the

participants of the present study will write four different reflective journals based on four different language skill tasks i.e. listening skill task, speaking skill task, reading skill task and writing skill task.

2.10 Reflective Journals

One of the tools to record reflection is by the use of written journals (Loughran, 1996). With strong commitment from the teacher to maintain this tool, the use of journals can give a powerful impact for reflection (Dobbins, 1990; Bean & Zulich, 1989; Rodderick, 1986 in Loughran, 1996). Gulwadi argues that reflective journals can promote learners' critical thinking and they have been used in a number of disciplines such as education and nursing (2008). With journals students can document their thinking, about their learning process. In addition, with journals students can also record how they are doing the given tasks or how they are going to do the tasks as well as their feeling when they are doing tasks (Brockbank & McGill, 2006).

Journals can be used to do a reflection in two different ways i.e., internal dialogue and reflective dialogue or dialogue with-another. Internal dialogue or personal reflection is a reflection without dialogue which is limited only to the insights of the learners. In these personal reflections, learners need to detach their parts of self, to look at another part of self within themselves, and therefore it allows self-deception which is dangerous for reflection (Habemas, 1974 in Brockbank & McGill, 2006). In contrast dialogue-with- another requires the presence of another to do a reflection because meaning and new understanding 'come through us and between us' (Bohm, 1996 in Brockbank & McGill, 2006). It reflects a view that learning is not merely an individualistic process but it also is a social process because it takes place in a social context (Jarvis, 1987 in Brockbank & McGill, 2006). In this present study, the students will write their reflections on how they learned the courses on their own and therefore they are also participating in an internal dialogue.

2.11. Conclusion

This chapter has discussed literature regarding beliefs, belief change and reflection. It starts with the definition of beliefs and continues with some terms associated with beliefs and how beliefs are formed. It also presents the potential factors affecting belief change, the source of learners' beliefs and a conceptual framework of learner's beliefs. This chapter also presents theories in relation to investigating learners' beliefs about language learning and studies on belief change. The reflective learning and reflective journals are also explored at the end of the chapter. The next chapter will discuss the literature on language learning strategies. It will start with a definition and investigation of the term. A discussion about the factors influencing language learning strategy is also presented. It also explores language learning strategies across cultures and specifically in the Indonesian context ending with the cultural constrains of English language teaching.

CHAPTER III

LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES IN CONTEXT

This chapter deals with three subtopics: language learning strategies in general, the factors which influence the use of the strategies, and language learning strategies in the context of Indonesia, specifically. The discussion of language learning strategies will start with the definitions of the term by the 'Godfather' of the learning strategy, the 'discovery' of the term, followed by the constructs suggested by prominent researchers in the field. Thus, this discussion will cover the history of the foundation of the term to the presentation of the widely-used constructs of language learning strategies by Oxford (1990). The second part of this chapter will review the factors which influence the use of these language learning strategies supported by studies conducted worldwide. The last section will focus on the language learning strategies used in the Indonesian context and the influence of culture on strategy use.

3.1   Language Learning Strategies Defined

In general learning strategy is defined as "behaviours and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning which are intended to influence the learner's encoding process" (Weinstein & Mayer, 1983, p. 3).This definition includes cognitive aspects and may include metacognitive aspects as thoughts are considered as parts of the strategies. However, in his later definition Mayer (1988) proposed a more specific definition of learning strategy as "behaviours of a learner that are intended to influence how the learner processes information" (p.11). Different from the earlier definition, this later definition covers only the cognitive aspect of the learner. In these two definitions Mayer still used information processing as the key term attached to the learning strategy. As processing information exists in any learning regardless what the content is, and

where it takes place, basically every learner employees learning strategies in every subject s/he studies, consciously or unconsciously, including in learning a language.

In the field of second and foreign language learning, a number of scholars have put forward definitions of language learning strategy. Rigney (1978) defined language learning strategy as operations employed by the learner for acquiring, retaining, retrieving or performing language. This definition has inspired other writers in the field to define language learning strategy in more accurate ways based on the context of their studies. According to Cook (1996), learning strategy is a choice that the learner makes while learning or using the second language that affects learning. According to Mitchell and Myles (1998), learning strategies are procedures undertaken by the learner, in order to make their own language learning as effective as possible. Oxford (1990) defined language learning strategy as specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferable to new situations. Whereas Cohen (1998) defines learning strategies as the processes which are consciously selected by learners and which may result in action being taken to enhance the learning or use of second or foreign language, through the storage, retention, recall, and application of information about that language. Further Cohen argues that, the conscious choice factor is very crucial to the concept of language learning strategy because, he believes, that the emphasis on the term "consciousness" is what distinguishes strategies from other processes that are not strategic (A. D. Cohen, 1998, p. 4). Considering the concepts, definitions and arguments proposed by prominent scholars in this field, the term language learning strategy in this current study is defined as *specific actions which are consciously employed by language learners to make their language learning process more effective*. Therefore, this definition covers every action which is consciously and intentionally done by the language learners to learn the language.

These language learning strategies are the conscious steps and behaviours which are often employed by language learners to make their own learning improve. Oxford (1996) argued that these learning strategies can help language learners receive aspects of the language which may include vocabulary and grammar , store them in long-term memory, and later on use them when they feel they need to use them. The focus of learning strategies is facilitating learning.

Some language learners intuitively employ strategies to make their learning more efficient. The strategies they employ are most likely different from those of others, and sometimes they employ more than one type of language learning strategy (Oxford, 1996).

3.2   Historical Investigation of the Term

There is a theoretical assumption behind the concepts of language learning strategy as proposed by Krashen (1976, 1977) with his Monitor and Acquisition/Learning Hypothesis. Krashen (1977) asserts that language is naturally acquired through real life communication with the environment and, therefore, it cannot be learnt consciously. In his hypothesis, Krashen (1996) assumes that learning a language is different from learning other subjects which can be done consciously. Therefore, he believes that learning a language is an unconscious process and by nature it is the surroundings which influence the process of acquisition or learning. His idea may be correct when it is a mother tongue but not a second or foreign language. This view is opposed by many scholars; among these is McLaughlin (1978). Given the fact that some learners are more successful in learning a language than others, although they have the same treatment and resources, there may be something internal within the learners which helps them progress more than others. The success of learning a language must be at least attributed to the differential learning strategies that a learner employs to accomplish a certain task.

3.2.1. Rubin's the good language learner. The investigation of the history of language learning strategies may be traced back to the research trend in the mid 1970's, when Rubin (1975), conducted a study through the close observation of groups of students in classrooms in California and Hawaii. In this study, he video-taped the students observing how the interaction happened, and how the students learned the language; also, he investigated how their actions were planned and implemented during the teaching and learning process. However, the focus of his attention was more on their cognitive process rather than the metacognitive process. Eventually, Rubin came up with a list of strategies which good language learners employed when learning the second (foreign) language.

1. *The good language learner is a willing and accurate guesser*. With all the clues that can possibly help him to understand better such as the relationship with the speaker, the setting, the event, and the mood, a good language learner is willing to try out guessing. His careful use of those signs leads him to be an accurate guesser. Based on all the clues that he gathers, and the information he stores, he will specify the meaning and the intention of the communication. In short, a good language learner uses all the linguistic and non-linguistic clues to help him guess what the message is that other speakers want to put across.

2. *The good language learner has a strong drive to communicate, or to learn from communication.* A good language learner has a strong motivation to make his counterpart understand what he means. When encountered with a linguistic problem, he will troubleshoot it using his existing knowledge stored in his memory such as using synonyms, paraphrasing, and gestures.

3. *The good language learner is often not inhibited*. He does not mind looking foolish for the sake of communication success. He may make mistakes during communication but manages to learn from it. He does not feel shy of making mistakes when he is involved in

conversation with others. In short, he realizes that he is still learning and, consequently, making mistakes is a common thing.

4. *The good language learner is prepared to attend form*, in addition to focussing in communication. While learning a second (foreign) language, he will constantly analyse, categorize, and synthesize his existing knowledge of his previous language learning experience to construct a new language pattern.

5. *The good language learner practises.* He will look for every opportunity to be able to practise with anyone in the target language, including with his friends, teachers, even with native speakers of the target language. He is willing to start a conversation with them and does not mind repeating, practising pronunciation, or making up sentences.

6. *The good language learners monitor his own and the speech of others.* He constantly assesses his own progress by checking whether others understand what he says or not. He evaluates the level of acceptance of his own speech by others. From this process of self-assessment he also checks whether or not he has met the standard. Therefore, in this process he may still make mistakes but he can learn from them.

7. *The language learner attends to meaning.* A good language learner puts more priorities on meaning than on the surface structure. Although he believes that tolerance should be given to imperfectly structured sentences containing clear meanings, he does not neglect the importance of correct structure of sentences. To reach the correct meaning he will make use of the available clues such as the relationship of participants, rules of speaking and mood of the speech act.

3.2.2 Stern's learning strategies. Another pioneer in this field who places

emphasis on identifying and classifying language learning strategies is Stern (1975). His approach is different from Rubin's who carried out a study before proposing a learning strategy of good language learners. Stern (1975) reflected on his own experience as a teacher, and his review of

literature on language learning and teaching, to put forward the top-ten language learning strategies that a good language learner usually employees. Due to this reason, his top-ten strategies are considered conceptual and speculative. The complete list of his proposed strategies is presented below:

1. *Planning strategy*: acquiring personal learning styles. Good language learners use a trial and error method to find out the best techniques which match with their learning styles. They also monitor how other learners learn the language, and if their strategies are good and successful, they are voluntarily willing to employ those strategies.

2. *Active strategy*: approaching learning tasks actively. Good language learners participate actively in every learning activity. They always set clear goals of learning and know how to reach the goals through their active involvement in each learning process, including in accomplishing the language tasks.

3. *Empathic strategy*: getting to be tolerant of the target language and developing empathy with its speakers. Good language learners are aware learning is a process and they realize that making mistakes during the process of learning is common. Therefore, they feel relaxed when learning but they constantly develop good attitudes towards the target language as well as its native speakers.

4. *Formal strategy*: obtaining the technical know-how about how to tackle a language. Good language learners make use of their understanding of the linguistic system of their own language to analyse the linguistic rules of the target language. They develop this strategy through the constant practice of comparing their first language and their target language.

5. *Experimental strategy*: experimenting and planning with a view to developing the new language into an ordered system. To master the target language, good language learners develop their own hypothesis about linguistic rules of the target language and test them in real communication to find out the correct rules and patterns. They will eventually

construct a well-ordered system of the target language through their accumulated individual rules.

6. *Semantic strategy*: searching for meaning. Good language learners realize that understanding the meaning is a paramount objective of learning a target language. Therefore they will employ every single strategy to reach their objectives including making use of the information in the context of when and where a sentence or an utterance is produced.

7. *Practice strategy*: willing to practise. Good language learners know that learning a language is a relatively long process. To be fluent, they need constant practice. Therefore, they will always make an effort to get the opportunities to practise the target language at any possible time.

8. *Communication strategy*: willing to use the target language in real communication. Good language learners are aware that to be fluent in the target language, they need constant practice in real communication. As they know that the opportunities they have in the classroom are not sufficient to improve their competence optimally, they involve actively themselves in real life communication with their surroundings.

9. *Monitoring strategy*: self-monitoring and being sensitive to target language use. Good language learners monitor their own competence progress. They make use of a communication partner to assess this progress and always learn from their mistakes. In short, they are able to take advantage of their own mistakes as well as from the feedback they get from others.

10. *Internalisation strategy*: developing the target language into a reference system and learning to think in it. Good language learners always strive to identify and analyse the linguistic system of the target language eventually building up their own system of the

target language. To do this, they endeavour to think in the target language and do not let their mastery of the first language distract them from this process.

3.2.3. Naiman's good language learners. Stern's learning strategies inspired a number of scholars. Among others are Naiman, Frochlich, Stern and Todesco (1978) who used Stern's proposed strategies as a reference to formulate similar strategies based on qualitative research. In their study, they involved thirty four adult learners who had studied second/foreign languages in the past. From the results of his study, he managed to identify learning strategies that are crucial in assisting the learners gain success in learning a language. His proposed strategies are as follows.

1. Good language learners actively involve themselves in the language learning task. Good language learners make use of the opportunities they have or even create the opportunities so that they can learn and practise the target language. They always solve learning problems and switch every non-learning activity into a learning activity. For example, when they are watching movies, they take advantage from it considering it a learning source.

2. Good language learners develop or exploit an awareness of a language as a system. They take advantage of their mastery of their first language and make use of it as a reference to develop their understanding of the system of the target language. In so doing, they may compare, analyse and also translate the target language to into their first language or vice versa.

3. Good language learners develop or exploit an awareness of a language as a means of communication. They practise their target language by interacting with others in the new language. In short, they always seek opportunities, or create them, so that they can exploit their language skills in real communication.

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4. Good language learners realize initially, or with time, that they must cope with the affective demands made upon them by language learning and succeed in doing so. They believe that learning covers a process of trial and error and, therefore, making a mistake during this process is normal and they take lessons from the mistakes they make.

5. Good language learners constantly revise their L2 system. They always assess their progress in the target language they are learning. They always find ways to check whether their hypotheses and inferences are correct. If they know that they have constructed a wrong hypothesis or inference, they will revise these immediately.

According to Stern (1983) to understand the language learning process, learners' cognitive, social and affective characteristics should be well understood. Therefore, based on his premise, he renews his former ideas on language learning strategies employed by the good language learners. His revised learning strategies are as follow.

3.2.4. Stern's (1983) learning Strategies

1. *Active planning strategies.* Good language learners set up their strategies to achieve their previously-formulated learning goals very well. They take active part in every single session of the learning process and always evaluate their progress in learning the target language.

2. *Academic learning strategy.* Through this strategy, the good language learners learn the formal features of the language and practice them. They also evaluate their performance to know how well they make progress. They reduce the influence of their first language more and more until they can formulate their own standards of grammatical rules and appropriateness.

3. *Social learning strategy.* The good language learners make attempts to get along with the target language users so that they can practise their language by any means, such as in

person, writing, and media. During their interaction with these factors, they employ communication strategies when encountering ---- communication problems.

4. *Affective strategies.* Through these strategies, good language learners manage their emotions and motivation when they are doing learning tasks. They always try to solve their emotional problems such as language shock or frustration through a positive frame of mind. They develop good perception and attitudes towards the learning tasks, the target language, and the culture as well as the speakers of the target language (native speakers).

In his revised strategy formulation, Stern (1983) proposed more systematic classification compared to his former one. He started from what happens in the learners' mind as planning which, in Oxford's (1990) term, was a metacognitive strategy, one of the indirect strategies. His second proposed formulation refers to information processing or cognitive strategy. His two other strategies, social and affective are similar to those formulated by Oxford later.

Using the framework of Rubin (1981) supplemented by the work of Bialystok (1981) and Tarone (1983), through an experimental study of fourteen Mexican Americans in a bilingual first grade classroom, Chesterfield and Chesterfield (1985) tested and observed eight children who were treated as the experimental group, while the remaining number (six) of the sample were the control group. As with the nature of an experimental study, both groups were tested at the beginning and the end of the treatment. This study revealed twelve strategies most frequently used by the children. These strategies include repetition, memorization, formulaic expression, verbal attention seeking, answering in unison, talking to self, elaboration, anticipatory answers, monitoring, appealing for assistance, requesting clarification and role play.

3.2.5 Ramirez's Categories of Learning Strategy. In the study involving 105 students from two different schools in the state of New York who were learning French, Ramirez (1986) investigated their learning strategies under three categories which included (1) classroom

behaviours, (2) individual study tactics, and (3) social interaction behaviours. The strategies within classroom behaviours were willingness to monitor correction of other students and saying the correct form to oneself; volunteering answers even if the students were not completely sure; the ability to infer or guess the meaning of a sentence from the actions or expression of the speaker; the willingness to ask the teacher for an explanation for an exception to a rule, and showing concern for the linguistic dimensions of language use such as when and by whom an expression can be used.

Classroom behaviours which are related to specific communicative tasks included asking the teacher for clarification of meaning; correcting other students' mistakes which involved monitoring others' language performance and use of the target language; and avoiding using the first language.

Individual study tactics included the ability/willingness to check whether one could describe in the target language the actions being performed or the events/things; practising-saying words/phrases aloud to oneself; categorizing words into groups according to meaning or form, and contrasting target language with the first language.

Social interactional behaviours included noticing lack of congruence between phrase/sentence, the grammatical rules learned in the classroom, thinking first of a sentence already known in the first language, then trying to change/adapt it to fit to a new sociolinguistic situation, making an attempt to use the target language outside the classroom and initiating conversation with others to practice the target language.

There are some similarities in the strategies, as reported, employed by good language learners. First, they pay attention to the forms of the target language. Based on their understanding of the forms of the target language, they compare them with those in their first

language and make their own analysis of the target language. Second, good language learners search for meaning of the target language. However, to be able to succeed in second/foreign language learning, they need to have the ability to switch their focus to attend to both meaning and form. Third, they involve themselves actively in every aspect of language learning. They become critical participants in the classroom and not merely take what their teachers tell them. In short, they do not rely on their teachers only, but use their critical analysis skills to process the information they receive. Fourth, they are aware and thoughtful of the learning process. They always make decisions consciously in every activity during the learning process. They have "well-developed metalanguage" (Ellis, 1994; p. 549) and therefore, they can be effective language learners. Fifth, they develop their metacognitive knowledge and make use of it to monitor their language performance including assessing their needs, evaluating their progress, and directing their language learning (Ellis, 1994).

3.2.6 O'Malley et al.'s categories of learning strategy.

In a study involving 70 high school students enrolled in ESL classes and 22 teachers from three schools located in the Eastern Metropolitan area of the United States O' Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo, & Kupper, (1985a) endeavoured to identify the range, type and frequency use of learning strategy in relation to the language tasks assigned by the teachers. Through comprehensive interviews with all students, as well as teachers, they identified the characteristics of metacognitive and cognitive learning strategies as well as those of social mediation. A detailed description of the strategies is presented below.

Table 3.1

Categories of Learning Strategies proposed by O' Malley et al.(1985a)

Learning Strategies	Description
a. Metacognitive Strategies	
Advanced Organizers	Making a general but comprehensive preview of the organizing concept or principle in an anticipated learning activity
Directed Attention	Deciding in advance to attend in general to a learning task and to ignore irrelevant distracters
Selective Attention	Deciding in advance to attend to specific aspect of input or situational details that will cue the retention of language input
Self-Management	Understanding the conditions that will help one learn and arranging for the presence of those conditions
Functional Planning	Planning for and rehearsing linguistic components necessary to carry out an upcoming language task
Self-Monitoring	Correcting one's speech for accuracy in pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, or for appropriateness related to the setting or to the people who are present
Delayed Production	Consciously deciding to postpone speaking in order to learn initially through listening comprehension
Self-Evaluation	Checking the outcomes of one's own language learning against an internal measure of completeness and accuracy
b. Cognitive Strategies	
Repetition	Imitating a language model, including overt practice and silent rehearsal
Resourcing	Using target language reference materials
Translation	Using the first language as a base for understanding and/or producing the second language
Grouping	Reordering or reclassifying words, and perhaps labelling, the materials to be learned, based on common attributes
Note Taking	Writing down the main ideas, important points, outline or summary of information presented orally or in writing
Deduction	Consciously applying rules to produce or understand the second language
Recombination	Constructing a meaningful sentence or larger language sequence by combining known elements in a new way
Imagery	Relating new information to visual concepts in memory via familiar easily retrievable visualizations, phrases or locations
Auditory Representation	Retention of the sound or a similar sound for a word, phrase or longer language sequence
Keyword	Remembering a new word in the second language by: (1) identifying a familiar word in the first language that sounds like or otherwise resembles the new word, and (2) generating easily recalled images of some relationship between the new word and the familiar word
Contextualization	Placing a word or phrase in a meaningful language sequence
Elaboration	Relating new information to other concepts in memory
Transfer	Using previously acquired linguistic and/or conceptual knowledge to facilitate a new language learning task

Inferencing	Using available information to measure meaning of new items, predict outcomes, or fill in missing information
c. Social Mediation	
Cooperation	Working with one or more peers to obtain feedback, pool information, or model of a language activity
Question for Clarification	Asking a teacher or other native speaker for repetition, paraphrasing, explanation, and/or examples

Source: O'Malley et al. (1985a)

O'Malley's work on identifying language learning strategies has become the model of more specific formulation of future language learning strategies as constructed by Chamot and Kupper (1989) and Oxford (1990). This is understandable as the aforementioned strategies were comprehensive, and cover almost all the strategies formulated later. The only difference between O'Malley's construct and that of Chamot and Kupper is that, in O'Malley's construct 'Social Mediation' is used to cover cooperation and questions for clarification, whereas in Chamot and Kupper's, 'Social and Affective' strategies are used. These strategies are then elaborated into more detailed strategies such as questioning, cooperation, self-talk and self-reinforcement.

3.2. 7 Chamot and Kuper's categories of learning strategies. In a longitudinal study, Chamot and Kuper (1989) recruited 27 effective students and 13 ineffective students who were studying Spanish. However, at the end of the study only 11 effective students and 2 ineffective students continued participating in the study. To these participants, individual interviews as well as typical language learning activities, such as reading a passage, and writing a paragraph were given. They were also required to think aloud while they were doing a language task as well as recount their thoughts while trying to solve task-related problems. At the end of the study, Charmot and Kuper identified and classified the strategies required to learn a language. The complete list of the strategies as well as the definitions is presented below.

Table 3.2

Learning Strategies and Their Definitions by Chamot and Kuper (1989)

Learning Strategies	Definition
Metacognitive strategies:	involve thinking about the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring the learning task, and evaluating how well one has learned.
Planning:	Previewing the organizing concept or principle or an anticipated learning task ("advance organizer"); proposing strategies for handling a recount upcoming task; generating a plan for the parts, sequence, main ideas, or language functions to be used in handling a task.
Directed Attention	Deciding in advance to attend in general to a learning task and to ignore irrelevant distracters; maintaining attention during task execution.
Selective Attention	Deciding in advance to attend to specific aspects of language input or situational details that assist in performance of a task; attending to specific aspects of language input during task execution.
Self-management	Understanding the conditions that help one successfully accomplish language tasks and arranging for the presence of those conditions; controlling one's language performance to maximize use of what is already known.
Self-monitoring	Checking, verifying, or correcting one's comprehension or performance in the course of a language task. This has been coded in the think aloud in the following ways;
Comprehension monitoring	checking, verifying or correcting one's understanding.
Production monitoring	checking, verifying, or correcting one's language production.
Auditory monitoring	using one's "ear" for the language (how something sounds) to make decisions.
Visual monitoring	using one's "eye" for the language (how something looks) to make decisions.
Style monitoring	checking, verifying, or correcting based upon an internal stylistic register.
Strategy monitoring	tracking use of how well a strategy is working.
Plan monitoring	tracking how well a plan is working.
Double Check monitoring	tracking across the task previously undertaken acts or possibilities considered.
Problem Identification	Explicitly identifying the central point needing resolution in a task, or identifying an aspect of the task that hinders its successful completion.
Self-evaluation	Checking the outcomes of one's own language performance against an internal measure of completeness and accuracy; checking one's language repertoire, strategy use or ability to perform the task at hand. This has been coded in the think aloud as:
Production evaluation	checking one's work when the task is finished.
Performance evaluation	judging one's overall execution of the task.

Ability evaluation	Judging one's ability to perform the task.
Strategy evaluation	judging one's strategy use when the task is completed.
Language Repertoire evaluation: judging how much one knows of the L2, at the word, phrase, sentence, or concept level.	
Cognitive strategies:	involve interacting with the material to be learned, manipulating the material mentally or physically, or applying a specific technique to a learning task.
Repetition:	Repeating a chunk of language (a word or phrase) in the course of performing a language task.
Resourcing:	Using available reference sources of information about the target language, including dictionaries, textbooks, and prior work.
Grouping:	Ordering, classifying, or labelling material used in a language task based on common attributes; recalling information based on grouping previously done.
Note-taking:	Writing down key words and concepts in abbreviated verbal, graphic, or numerical form to assist performance of a language task.
Deduction/Induction:	Consciously applying learned or self-developed rules to produce or understand the target language.
Substitution:	Selecting alternative approaches, revised plans, or different words or phrases to accomplish a language task.
Elaboration:	Relating new information to prior knowledge; relating different parts of new information to each other; making meaningful personal associations to information presented. This has been coded in the think aloud data in the following ways:
Personal elaboration:	Making judgments about or reacting personally to the material presented.
World elaboration:	Using knowledge gained from experience in the world.
Academic elaboration:	Using knowledge gained in academic situations.
Between Parts elaboration:	Relating parts of the task to each other.
Questioning elaboration:	Using a combination of questions and world knowledge to brainstorm logical solutions to a task.
Self-evaluative elaboration:	Judging self in relation to materials
Creative elaboration:	Making up a story line, or adopting a clever perspective
Imagery:	Using mental or actual pictures or visuals to represent information; coded as a separate category, but viewed as a form of elaboration.
Summarization:	Making a mental or written summary of language and information presented in a task.
Translation:	Rendering ideas from one language to another in a relatively verbatim manner.
Transfer:	Using previously acquired linguistic knowledge to facilitate a language task.
Inferencing:	Using available information: to guess the meanings or usage of unfamiliar language items associated with a language task; to predict outcomes; or to fill in missing information.

Social and Affective strategies:	involve interacting with another person to assist learning, or using effective control to assist a learning task.
Questioning:	Asking for explanation, verification, rephrasing, or examples about the material; asking for clarification or verification about the task; posing questions to self.
Cooperation:	Working together with peers to solve a problem, pool information, check a learning task, model a language activity, or get feedback on oral or written performance.
Self-talk:	Reducing anxiety by using mental techniques that make one feel competent to do the learning task.
Self-reinforcement:	Providing personal motivation by arranging rewards for oneself when a language learning activity has been successfully completed.

Source: Chamot and Kupper (1989, p. 37)

3.2.8 Oxford's categories of learning strategies.

In her taxonomy, Oxford differentiated between direct and indirect language learning strategies. Direct strategies are those "that directly involve the target language"(1990, p.37) which means these strategies need mental processing of the target language; indirect strategies are those which "do not directly involve the subject matter itself but are essential to language learning nonetheless" (p.71). The latter give indirect support for language learning through factors such as planning, evaluating, and increasing opportunities. Direct strategies were then subdivided into three language learning strategies such as memory strategy, cognitive strategy and compensation strategy. Meanwhile indirect strategies were further divided into metacognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies. These language learning strategies were then sub-divided into more specific operational strategies which resulted in 19 strategy groups and 62 subsets. The detailed categorization of Oxford's language strategies is presented below.

Table 3.3

Categories of Learning Strategies by Oxford

DIRECT STRATEGIES		
1. Memory Strategies	a. Creating mental linkages	Grouping Associating/elaborating Placing new words into a context
	b. Applying images and	Using imagery

		sounds	Semantic mapping
			Using keywords
			Representing sound in memory
		c. Viewing well	Structured reviewing
		d. Employing action	Using physical response or sensation
			Using mechanical techniques
2.	Cognitive strategies	Practicing	Repeating
			Formally practicing with sounds and writing systems
			Recognizing and using formulas and patterns
			Recombining
			Practicing naturalistically
		Receiving and sending messages	Getting the idea quickly
			Using resources for receiving and sending messages
		Analysing and reasoning	Reasoning deductively
			Analysing expressions
			Analysing contrastively (across languages)
			Translating
			Transferring
		Creating structure for input and output	Taking notes
			Summarizing
			Highlighting
3.	Compensation strategies	Guessing intelligently	Using linguistic clues
			Using other clues
		Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing	Switching to the mother tongue
			Getting help
			Using mime or gesture
			Avoiding communication partially and totally
			Selecting the topic
			Adjusting or approximating the message
			Coining words
			Using circumlocution or synonym
INDIRECT STRATEGIES			
1.	Metacognitive strategies	Centering your learning	Overviewing or linking with already known material
			Paying attention
			Delaying speech production to focus on listening
		Arranging and planning your learning	Finding out about language learning
			Organizing
			Setting goals and objectives
			Identifying the purpose of a language task (purposeful/ listening/ reading/speaking/ writing)
			Planning for a language task

			Seeking practice opportunities
		Evaluating your learning	Self-monitoring Self-evaluating
2.	Affective strategies	Lowering your anxiety	Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or meditation Using music Using laughter
		Encouraging yourself	Making positive statements Taking risks wisely Rewarding yourself
		Taking your emotional temperature	Listening to your body Using a checklist Writing a language learning diary Discussing your feeling with someone else
3.	Social Strategies	Asking questions	Asking for clarification or verification Asking for correction
		Cooperating with others	Cooperating with peers Cooperating with proficient users of the new language
		Empathizing with others	Developing cultural understanding Becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings

Source: Oxford (1990, p.136-137, 141, 145)

This scheme has gone through a relatively long revision, starting in 1985 when Oxford developed her first draft until 1990 when she invited language teachers to collaborate in identifying and classifying language learning strategies. She finally managed to offer such a comprehensive list of strategies; the most complete one compared to other previously proposed ones. Then Oxford developed her "'strategy Inventory for Language Learning' (SILL) based on the above taxonomy. Ellis considered this inventory to be "impressive" (1994, p. 539). However, Ellis also suggested out some weaknesses of Oxford's taxonomy. He said that her taxonomy has failed to differentiate clearly direct strategies, that is, strategies directed at using the target language. He also picked up "compensatory strategies" as examples which he considered as "somewhat confusing". (p. 539). Regarding this type of criticism, Oxford had actually anticipated this criticism and claimed that due to such comprehensive categorization, overlap would naturally occur among the strategy groups (Oxford, 1990). She took metacognitive strategies as an example. She

contended that this category helps learners to regulate their own cognition by assessing how they are learning, and planning their learning activities. However, in self-assessment and planning as parts of the metacognitive strategies, they need reasoning and reasoning itself is a cognitive strategy. Similarly, 'guessing' as one of the strategies within the compensation strategy group, also requires reasoning and, therefore, it is also overlaps with the cognitive strategy category.

There are some similarities among three categorizations of language learning strategy, as proposed by O'Malley et al. (1985a), Chamot and Kupper (1989) and Oxford (1990). Three strategy groups as metacognitive strategy, cognitive strategy and social strategy exist in each of their proposed categorizations. Although O'Malley combined social and affective, and Chamot and Kupper used social mediation, instead of social strategy, the characteristics of these strategies are similar. In general, cognitive strategy refers to the steps or operations used in problem-solving that require direct analysis, transformation or synthesis of learning materials (Rubin, 1987). Metacognitive strategies deal with learners' knowledge about cognitive process and constitute an attempt to regulate learning by means of planning, monitoring and evaluating (Ellis, 1994). Meanwhile social/affective strategies refer to the ways that the learners opt to make use of the target language in real communication, including with the native speakers.

There have been some positive claims regarding Oxford's endeavour to categorize learning strategies which were later developed into an inventory of language learning strategies (SILL). Ellis admitted that Oxford's proposed taxonomy was the most extensive compared with the existing ones - 'perhaps the most comprehensive classification of learning strategies to date is that proposed by Oxford' (1990, p. 539). Cook (2009) also acknowledged that Oxford's research on learning strategies as "the most influential" (p.116). He also asserted that the 'Strategy Inventory for Language Learning' (SILL) has been a benchmark for strategy research for many years: it has been applied in various studies around the world with different cultures, settings and subjects.

Based on her taxonomy, Oxford developed two sets of strategy inventories. The first of these is the 'Strategy Inventory for Language Learning' (SILL) Version 5.1 (p. 283-291). This version is for English speakers learning a new language. The second is the 'Strategy Inventory for Language Learning' (SILL) Version 7.0 (p. 293-296). This has been especially developed for speakers of other languages learning English. Both these strategy inventories are Likert-scale questionnaires consisting of 50 statements with 5 options of response which are (1) Never or almost never true of me, (2) Usually not true of me, (3) Somewhat true of me, (4) Usually true of me, and (5) Always or almost always true of me. These two inventories have been subsequently used extensively to measure language learning strategies all over the world. One of the reasons for their popularity might be due to their psychometric qualities such as reliability, validity and utility which have been proved to be dependable meeting the requirements of a to be an effective research instrument (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995).

Although many researchers have acknowledged the benefits of these inventories, others such as LoCastro (1994), asserted that these instruments contained some weaknesses. He claimed that general inventories of language learning, including Oxford's SILL, "were not transferable across sociocultural domains and that their results and conclusions, therefore, might be less valid than claimed." (cited in A. D. Cohen & Macaro, 2011). He further claimed these inventories may be appropriate for the formal classes only and not for informal ones. LoCastro also argued that strategy use is associated with the learning environment and, therefore, strategies employed in a grammar translation method-class are different from those used in a classroom using a communicative approach. This conclusion was reached after they compared students' responses on SILL with the findings of the interviews, observations and group discussion.

All these scholars have tried to put forward their classifications of the language learning strategies as applied by language learners. None of them have argued that any of the learning

strategies are better than the others and therefore they did not suggest any strategies to be implemented by language learners. As Oxford, Cho, Leung, and Kim (2004) argued, language learning strategies are correlated to task type and task difficulty. The selection of a certain language learning strategy depends on the kind of language task as well as how difficult this task is for the learners. Thus there is no intrinsically 'good' language learning strategies as basically learners have to discover it themselves based on the task type and task difficulty. Ikeda and Takeuchi (2000) reported that there is a significant correlation between task type, task difficulty and learners' use of strategies. They concluded that different types of tasks require learners to use different types of strategies. They also identified different use of learning strategies due to different types of tasks across students of different proficiencies.

In regard with this issue, Ellis (1994) wrote that much of the research on language learning strategies has been based on the assumption that there are "good" learning strategies. But this is questionable (see also Barjesteh, Mukundan, & Vaseghi, 2014). In Section 3.2.1 above Rubin (1975) reported the learning strategies that are employed by good language learners but did not claim that any of those strategies are 'good' or 'better' than others. It is good that an individual learns from other people who have used certain strategies which have proven successful to solve problems or to accomplish a language task but claiming that those strategies are the best is incorrect. The strategy of adopting others' strategies may spoil his/her beliefs about language learning strategies. S/he may believe that the adopted strategies are inherently good, useful in absolute terms, without considering the context of use of strategies. Hence, making generalization that a certain learning strategy is good for all language learners is not appropriate as language learning strategy is individual and context-based.

The presentation of various frameworks of language learning strategy classification in this chapter is meant to exhibit the journey of researchers in the field of language learning strategies,

to compare and evaluate them in search of the most appropriate model to be adopted and used in this present study. The consideration is not only based on scholars' reviews on the logic and comprehensiveness of the framework (Ellis, 1994), but also on the studies utilizing their proposed framework (Bremner, 1999; A. L. Brown, Bransford, Ferrata, & Campione, 1983; Ehrman & Oxford, 1995; Griffiths, 2003; Lengkanawati, 2004; Magogwe & Oliver, 2007; Mochizuki, 1999; Nisbet, Tindall, & Arroyo, 2005; Okada, Oxford, & Abo, 1996; Peacock & Ho, 2003; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992; Shmais, 2003; Sugeng, 1997; Victory & Tragant, 2003; Wakamoto, 2000) and also the context in which this current study would be implemented. Due to its comprehensiveness (Oxford, 1990), reliability, validity (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995) and also the popularity of the framework, the classification as proposed by Oxford (1990) would be utilized as one of the instruments to collect the data from the participants.

3.3   Factors Influencing Language Learning Strategy Use

There are many factors that influence the choice of language learning strategy. They include degree of awareness, stage of learning, task requirements, teacher expectations, age, gender, nationality/ethnicity, general learning styles, personality traits, motivation level and purpose for learning the language (Oxford, 1990; Takeuchi, Griffiths, & Coyle, 2011). Learners who are more aware of why they need to learn a new language are believed to use better strategies than those who are not, or who are less aware. Studies conducted to investigate the relationship between these factors, and learning strategies, are presented in the following discussion.

3.3.1 Proficiency. Many studies have been conducted to find out the role of learner's proficiency in determining the strategy use. These studies have shown different outcomes. Studies conducted to investigate the relationship between language proficiency and strategy found that

learners with better proficiency or achievement used better strategies than those with less proficiency (Bialystok & Frohlich, 1978; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Park, 1997; Takeuchi. 1993).

On the other hand, in different contexts such investigations did not always show the same results. Studies conducted by Politzer and McGroarty (1985) on 36 Asian and Hispanic graduate students, who were taking intensive English courses, did not find a positive correlation between proficiency and strategy use. Likewise, Oxford and Ehrman (1995) found low correlations between strategy use and proficiency levels. In a study conducted in Palestine that involved 99 male and female university students majoring in English, Shmais (2003) investigated how gender and proficiency correlate with strategy use. At the end of the study it was found that there was no correlation between gender and English proficiency and strategy use.

In Hongkong, Bremner (1999) investigated the correlation between language and strategy use using Oxford's SILL. The finding shows that metacognitive strategies were the most frequently used, while affective and social strategies were the least frequently used. In his conclusions, Bremner questioned the appropriateness of the SILL to measure the relationship between language learning strategy and language proficiency.

In their study in China, Nisbet, Tindall and Arroyo (2005) reported that only one category of SILL strategies, that is, metacognitive strategies, correlated significantly with proficiency (TOEFL score). One of the reasons for such different results is that other variables such as self-esteem, risk-taking, motivation (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992) influence the strategy use. Another possible explanation for such a low correlation is the type of instrument used to measure the language proficiency.

The latest study investigating whether language learning strategy use can predict the proficiency level of the students, and the other way round, was conducted by Ganjooei and Rahimi

(2008) in an Iranian setting. They recruited 200 students from Shiraz University who were majoring in English. They divided the sample into two groups; one hundred students were treated as an experimental group and exposed to an e-learning program whereas the other group of one hundred students underwent a traditional course. Similar to the study of Bremner (1999) and that of Nisbet, Tindall and Arroyo (2005), Oxford's SILL (1990) was also administered in this study. The findings of this study revealed that the type of education system does not contribute to the use of language learning strategy. This study also proved that the effective use of strategies, and the ways the students go about learning, is significantly influenced by their level of proficiency in both groups. In conclusion, it was found that language learning strategy use is predictable when related to students' level of proficiency, and the other way round. In other words, there is a significant and positive correlation between learning strategy use and proficiency level.

3.3.2 **Age.**   Age is one of the factors that proved to influence the language learning strategy use. However, some studies designed to investigate the relationship between age and language learning strategy uses have presented slightly different results. One of the early studies investigating the relationship between age and learning strategy was conducted by Brown, Bransford, Ferrata, & Campione (1983). In this study it was found that older children performed generalized strategies and could use them in more flexible ways, whereas younger children tended to employ more specific strategies to perform tasks. They also found that younger children's strategies were simpler; meanwhile the strategies employed by older children tended to be more complex. This finding supported Oxford and Ehrman's study (1995) which reported that adult learners used more sophisticated strategies than younger learners.

A later study on language learning strategy and age is that of Peacock and Ho (2003). In their study comparing language learning strategy use among eight different disciplines, they questioned whether learning strategies differ by age. They found out that mature students

employed more of Oxford's strategy categories – memory, metacognitive, affective and social – than their younger counterparts. In term of the individual strategies, the mature students were reported to use 13 individual strategies more often and another seven individual strategies much more frequently than the younger students.

In a study involving 766 students at primary and senior high schools in Spain, Victory and Tragant (2003) found that the older groups of students used cognitively complex strategies significantly more often than the younger learners. However, not all studies involving age as one of the variables have come up with uniform findings. For example, the study conducted in New Zealand involving 348 participants of various ages (14-64), Griffiths (2003) found that age was not significantly related to strategy use.

Magogwe and Oliver (2007) assumed that the age of the learners determined the choice of the learning strategies. This assumption was based on the conclusion of their study confirming that secondary and tertiary students were more likely to choose metacognitive strategies than were their primary school counterparts. This might be due to their level of cognitive development. One of the reasons why these studies reported slightly different findings may be the setting where the studies were conducted. Ellies (1994) asserted that the differences in younger and older learners' strategy use provides the reasons why older learners tend to learn faster, initially, than the younger ones.

3.3.3 Gender. The following definition distinguishes gender from sex.

"Gender is used to describe those characteristics of women and men, which are socially constructed, while sex refers to those which are biologically determined. People are born female or male but learn to be girls and boys who grow into women and men.

This learned behaviour makes up gender identity and determines gender roles". (World Health Organization, 2002, p. 4)

Previously, when language learning strategy was relatively new, there was a dispute about whether or not gender should be included in any study of language learning strategy use (Oxford, 1993, unpublished manuscript as cited in Sugeng (1997). Sugeng (1997) argued that this diversity of views was partly due to the fact that there was no constant relationship between gender and strategy use. In addition, the issue of gender was regarded as being sensitive. Consequently, this dispute emerged among researchers. This view was also based on the fact that teachers tend to treat boys and girls in the same way. They may teach students differently, but not necessarily because of their gender, but because of other variables such as intelligence (Beaman, Wheldall, & Kemp, 2006; Martin & Marsh, 2005; Mullola et al., 2012; Worrall & Tsarna, 1987).

Although there was such dispute, a few researchers made an endeavor to investigate the relationship between gender and strategy use. Different from what was expected, many studies have claimed that gender is significantly correlated to language learning strategy use. Ehrman and Oxford (1989) investigated the strategy use by different kinds of occupational groups. They found that females used four strategy categories; general learning, functional, searching for/communicating meaning, and self-management more frequently than males. On their high-scale study of 1200 US college students, Oxford and Nyikos (1989) reported a greater use of three strategy categories which include formal practice, general study and input elicitation, by female students. These studies proved that female students used social/communicative/interactional strategies significantly more often than the male students. A later study conducted by Dreyer and Oxford (1996) of 170 females and 126 males in South Africa showed that in general, female students used strategies more often than male students. This study also reported a greater use of social and metacognitive strategies.

3.3.4 Motivation. Gardner and Lambert (1972) define motivation in terms of second (foreign) language learning as learners' overall goal or orientation, and attitude shown by the learners to achieve the goals. Furthermore, they argue that attitudes are related to motivation as they provide support to achieve their overall orientation. They also identify two types of motivation which are integrative motivation and instrumental motivation. Integrative motivation deals with learners' identification with the culture of the target language group, whereas the latter is related to the functional orientations of the learners in learning the target language. Brown (1981) classifies motivation using three different types: global motivation, situational motivation and task motivation. Global motivation is related to learners' general orientation of learning the second or foreign language. Situational motivation deals with the situations in which the learning process takes place. Whereas, task motivation helps learners perform a particular language task.

In the field of learning strategy, motivation is also claimed to be one of the factors that is significantly related to language learning strategy use. To date, researchers have come to an agreement that more motivated students use a wider range of learning strategies. In a substantial study involving more than 1200 university students who were studying five different foreign languages, Oxford and Nyikos (1989) reported that highly motivated learners used four categories of strategies relating to formal practice, functional practice, general study and conversation/input elicitation, much more often than did less motivated learners. This study investigated the types of strategies the students were using to study the target languages and to identify the variables affecting the strategy use. They also found that students' motivation was "the single most powerful influence on the choice of language learning strategy" (p.294).

In a more substantial study which involved 2,089 students who were studying five different foreign languages at the University of Hawaii, Schmidt and Watanabe (2001) found a strong correlation between motivation and strategy use. It was reported that motivation "does

indeed affect the strategy use" (p.311). In a more detailed analysis, Schimdt and Watanabe announced that the overall use of learning strategy is correlated significantly with both motivation and the motivational scales of values, motivational strength and cooperativeness.

Another study involving 36 Japanese learners and 36 Spanish learners, Okada, Oxford and Abo (1996) found that there was a very significant relationship between the use metacognitive/cognitive/special strategies and several motivational aspects of both Japanese and Spanish groups. Mochizuki (1999) and Wharton (2000) found similar findings. They found that students who have high motivation used learning strategies more frequently than those who are less motivated in all categories of SILL strategies.

3.3.5 Reason for study/goals.   Most studies investigating the relationship between goals and learning strategies are based on Nicholls's intentional theory (in Nolen, 1996). He argues that it is crucial to be aware of learners' intentions for learning if we want to understand their motivation and action. According to Nicholls, goals or reasons for study are partly determined by learners' general theories or orientations and partly by task specific factors or states (involvement).

Politzer and McGroarty's (1985) study involving 26 engineering students and ten humanities students, who were majoring in English, found that the latter group used individual study strategies more frequently than the engineering students. Mochizuki (1999) in a study of 44 English majors and 113 non-English majors conducted in Japan found that English majors used compensation, social and metacognitive strategies more frequently than the non-English majors.

In a study involving 1006 participants among ESL learners, across eight different disciplines in Hongkong, Peacock and Ho (2003) reported that English majors used the most strategies and computing students used the least. In a more detailed way, they concluded that English students

employed cognitive, metacognitive and social strategies more frequently than did other students from different disciplines; students majoring in computer studies were reported to use metacognitive strategies less frequently; English majors were also reported to use 26 strategies much more often than students majoring in different disciplines. The fact that there is a correlation between goals and strategy use could be simply explained as the strategy of 'asking for clarification' or 'confirming the correct pronunciation of a new word'. It is most likely attributable to students whose objectives are gaining communicative competence and not by the students whose goals are understanding reading text written in the target language. For the latter group, translation is most probably the favored strategy.

3.3.6 Personality types. Personality is the structure of inner activities and relations, a view from which have stemmed his later emphases on "ego-structure" as opposed to "geneticism," on "ego-involvement," and on "the psychology of participation."(Allport, 1937 in McCreary, 1960, p. 108). Some scholars such as Cattell, Eber, and Tatsuoka (1970) and Eysenck (1964 in Ellis, 1994) measure personality by using "a series of dichotomies" (Ellis, 1994, p. 120) such as extrovert/introvert neurotic/stable. Although Ellis claimed that the existing research does not clearly show the correlation between personality and second language acquisition in general, the following studies provide evidence about how personality affects language learning strategy use.

To determine the different use of language learning strategy between extroverted and introverted students, Wakamoto (2000) recruited 254 junior college students who were studying English. In this study he employed SILL (Oxford, 1990), the Japanese translated version, and Myers Briggs Type Indicators (MBTI), an instrument which was specially modified to measure the extroversion versus introversion. The finding shows that there are eight observed language learning strategies favored by the extroverts. The most popular learning strategy among these

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eight strategies belongs to the risk-taking strategies i.e. "encouraging myself to speak English even when being afraid of making a mistake". The extroverted students employed this strategy with only a few inhibitions. On the other hand, Wakamoto could not confirm any language learning strategies which could be associated with introverted students. Therefore, there was no clear introvert-specific language learning strategies which were preferred strategies. In relation to this finding, he questioned the data collection method and suggested that further methods should be added.

Ehrman and Oxford (1989) investigated the relationship between personality types and strategy use on SILL using a survey. They found that extrovert type of students used affective and visualization strategies more often than introvert type students. On the other hand, introvert students were reported to make a greater use of strategies for searching for/communicating meaning than did the extrovert students. They also found that intuitive students used the strategy categories of affective, formal model building, authentic language use, and searching for/communicating meaning more frequently than the sensing students. Feeling-type students were also reported to use general study strategies more often than the thinkers. In another study conducted one year later among Turkish students in the US, Ehrman and Oxford (1989) found that extrovert students preferred social and functional practice strategies, whereas introvert students preferred learning alone best.

3.3.7 **Cultural background.**   Early work on the relationship between nationality/culture and learning strategy use was conducted by Politzer and McGrioarty (1985). They found that students with Hispanic backgrounds used various strategy categories more frequently than Asian students. Nevertheless, in terms of progress, Asian students made better progress than their Hispanic counterparts in learning a second language. In a study involving 353 mainland Chinese EFL students who were studying in universities, Bedell and Oxford (1996) found

that the participants used compensation strategies the most. This was also found among Chinese students who were studying in Taiwan or the US. On the other hand, Puerto Rican and Egyptian students were reported to use compensation strategies moderately. Therefore Politzer and McGrioarty concluded higher use of compensation strategies was typical of Asian students.

Another study dealing with the connection between learning strategy use and culture is that conducted by Lengkanawaty (2004). Her findings indicated Australian students tend to use cognitive, compensation and social strategies more often than the other two strategies. She assumed that the stresses on meaningfulness and communicativeness in language teaching, implemented at very low levels of education, as well as the openness in communication within the family affected how Australian students build strategies in learning a foreign language. This kind of educational habit has become a common thing within formal education system-schools, as well as informal education environment such as families. Consequently, Australian students tend to be willing to take risks in studying and seem to be involved more actively in classroom activities. This kind of behaviour is very important in the process of acquiring second (foreign) language. As Brown (2007) asserted, learners who are willing to take risks in the game of language tend to be more successful than those who are not and will help them improve their speaking competence more easily.

3.4　Language Learning Strategies across Culture

It is generally believed there is a close relationship between cultural background and the choice of language learning strategy (Oxford, 1996). The selection of strategies to learn a second or foreign language is significantly influenced by the culture of the people where the students come from. Reid (1995, 1998) mentioned that many Hispanic ESL/EFL learners prefer certain learning strategies, such as predicting, inferring, avoiding details, working with other students

rather than alone, and making judgments based more on personal relationships than logic. Hispanic students exhibit extroverted learning styles and therefore they use social strategies in language learning. This behaviour is different from the way in which Japanese students approach second/foreign language learning. Many Japanese ESL/EFL students use analytic strategies for the purpose of precision and accuracy, exploring small details, working alone, and making judgments based on logic rather than on personal relationships.

Korean students as well as Arabic-speaking students tend to use concrete-sequential learning styles. These students often employ the use of rote memorization strategies. Students with Arabic-speaking backgrounds are also acknowledged as extrovert in the sense that they employ extroverted learning styles. Meanwhile, students from North America use more flexible strategies and possess a more facilitative view of teachers. Harshbarger, Ross, Tafoya, and Via (1986 in Oxford, 1996) also reported that many Asian students who are introverted tend to employ strategies for working alone.

3.5 Language Learning Strategies in the Indonesian Context

English as a school subject was introduced into Indonesian schools long before the Republic of Indonesia gained its independence. This policy was continued after independence (Sumardi, 1993). The founders of the Republic of Indonesia were aware that to catch up with other countries, educated Indonesians needed to understand English and not Dutch, and therefore English needed to be taught at secondary schools. This was proclaimed in the Ministry of Education and Culture Decree No. 096/1967 dated 12 December 1967 which regulated the function and objectives of English teaching in secondary schools. This decree covered three main issues (1) English as the first foreign language which is taught at secondary schools, (2) the

objective of English teaching is to develop the communication skills of the students and (3) the English skills which need to be developed include reading, writing and speaking.

To reach the above mentioned objectives, the government regularly modified the curriculum, upgraded the quality of the English teachers, and introduced supporting facilities in schools. However, the result of English teaching in secondary schools, as found by Badib (2000), is *gagal total* or a total failure. Furthermore, he listed the reasons for this failure as being 'unoperational' skills of reading, writing and speaking acquired by students at senior high schools. In relation to the speaking and writing abilities of Indonesian students, Beh (1997) concludes that these skills were less than good. To trace the reasons for such failure, it is necessary to find out more about the characteristics of Indonesian EFL learners, including their language learning strategies.

Research indicates that Indonesian students demonstrate such characteristics as being "more passive, compliant and unreflective learners" (Exley, 2005, p. 3). Exley also describes Indonesian students as being 'shy'. These findings are based on the responses received from Australian teachers who teach Indonesian students in Australia. In his study on the learning style preferences of Indonesian ESL learners studying in the United States of America, Reid (1987) found that Indonesian students tended to possess auditory and kinaesthetic learner characteristics as major learning style preferences; visual, tactile and individual learner characteristics as minor learning style preferences; and group learner characteristics as an undesirable style of learning. This last finding is in line with the findings of Lengkanawati (2004) who found that although cooperation is part of the culture of Indonesian people (*gotong royong*), students do not really employ this strategy in language learning.

In relation to language learning strategies, some comparable studies can be reported. One study which deals with this issue was conducted by Sawir (2002). She compared the learning strategies of Adult EFL learners from Vietnam, Japan and Indonesia. Another study dealing with Indonesia adult EFL learners, in relation to English language learning strategies, was carried out by Sugeng (2004). In his study, Sugeng correlated English language learning strategies with students' demographic factors such as gender, age, educational background, and area of knowledge. Lengkanawati (2004) also reported the language learning strategy preference of Indonesian EFL learners when she compared them with those of Australian students who are studying IFL (Indonesian as a Foreign Language).

In her study, Sawir (2002) reported that in learning English, Indonesian EFL learners have a strong preference for regularly repeating and practising a lot. One of the respondents claimed that these strategies are very important to achieve success in English language learning. She also states that besides speaking, which needs consistent practice, writing, reading and listening also need continuous practice. That is why they agree that reading magazines and newspaper, listening to English songs and always looking for occasions to practise their English are useful in order to boost their English competence.

Sugeng (2004) investigated the general learning strategy profile in terms of six categories as proposed by Oxford (1990). He found that, in general, respondents use all the strategies as metacognitive strategy, affective strategy, compensation strategy, memory strategy, and cognitive strategy. Although not precisely the same, this finding is similar to the study of Lengkanawaty (2004). In her study, she reported that Indonesian EFL learners used memory, metacognitive and affective strategies more frequently than the other strategies. Other strategies were also reportedly employed but not as frequently as memory, metacognitive and affective strategies.

Khairul (2004) looked into the kinds of learning strategies employed by Indonesian secondary school students learning English and how gender and field of study affect their choices. In this study three hundred students were selected as the sample. The instrument used to measure the participants' language learning strategies was Oxford's SILL (Oxford, 1990) which includes six categories of strategies. The finding shows that Indonesian secondary school students used the above six categories of strategies within a moderate range: the mean was 3.0and the range of use was from 2.8 to 3.4; the individual strategies were at a medium level of use (62%). This study also found a significant correlation between strategy use, gender and field of study. Female students used language learning strategies significantly more frequently than male students. Khairul (2004) also found that students who were majoring in natural science used language learning strategies significantly more often than those majoring in social science. This study also reveals that, except for affective strategies, the other five categories of strategies significantly correlated with English language achievement.

Vianty (2007) investigated the students' use of metacognitive strategies that included the use of analytic and pragmatic reading strategies when reading texts in two different languages, Bahasa Indonesia and English. One hundred students were involved in this study. The sample group was students who were majoring in English language in a university in Indonesia. She used 'Metacognitive Reading Strategies Questionnaires' (MRSQ) developed by Taraban, Kerr, and Rynearson (2004). This questionnaire measures two constructs; (a) analytic cognition which was designed to measure reading comprehension and (b) pragmatic behaviours aimed at studying and academic performance. Similar to Khairul's study, this study also used statistical computation which included descriptive and comparative analyses and, therefore, a paired sample t-test was utilized in the analysis. The finding of this study shows that students used some of the analytic reading strategies more frequently when they read in Bahasa Indonesia than they did in English.

On the other hand, the students used pragmatic reading strategies more often when they read in English than they did when they read in Bahasa Indonesia.

Subekti and Lawson (2007) examined more specific strategies such as vocabulary acquisition strategies employed by Indonesian postgraduate students during reading. Two groups of main strategies, namely non-elaboration strategies and elaboration strategies were investigated. These strategies were then elaborated into more specific sub-categories: passive, active non-elaboration, simple elaboration, and complex elaboration. In this study 25 participants, between 25 and 40 years of age, were recruited using the convenience sampling method (Creswell, 2007). They were undertaking postgraduate studies at a university in South Australia. Two different tests — word recognition test (WRT) and meaning recall test (MRT) — were distributed to these participants after they were trained in the use of think aloud method, as suggested by Lawson and Hogben (1996). Through statistical analysis, the findings showed that, in general the study's participants were active strategy users, although substantial degrees of elaboration were not involved in most of their strategies. The frequency of strategy use was found to be a significant predictor for both the word recognition test (WRT) and meaning recall test (MRT). The study also revealed that students who used more strategies actively obtained more benefit for recall and acquired better vocabularies.

Lengkanawati (2004) investigated learning strategies of Indonesian EFL learners and compared them with those of IFL (Indonesian as a Foreign Language) learners. This investigation includes frequency of use, differences in the types of strategy use and the learning strategies employed by good language learners in the sample. This study involved 114 EFL students and 56 IFL students studying at two different universities in Melbourne, Australia. The instruments used in this study were the two Oxford's SILLs (1990) inventory for students learning English, and one for students studying a language other than English. This was a descriptive comparative study using

statistical data analysis. The results of this study indicate that Indonesian EFL students used memory strategies and affective strategies more frequently than their Australian counterparts who were studying Bahasa Indonesia. However for cognitive, compensation and social strategies, IFL students demonstrated significantly more frequent use than Indonesian EFL students. Meanwhile, both Indonesian EFL students and Australian IFL students did not show significantly different use of metacognitive strategy. This study also assumes that cultural background has affected the choice of strategies among the students. For example, the strategies of asking for clarification or verification, and asking for correction, were used less frequently by Indonesian students than Australian students. The educational system within the families was predicted to be the factor affecting this significantly different use of strategies. In more traditional Indonesian families, parents are dominant and, therefore, talking back to them or looking at older people's faces, while talking, is considered to be impolite. This norm is evident in the less frequent use of above mentioned strategies. This situation is very different when compared with that in the Australian educational system which reflects the more democratic environment of Australian family life. The characteristic of being shy among most Indonesian students also has an effect on the less frequently used strategy of 'cooperating with peers or with proficient users of the target language' by Indonesian EFL students.

Mattarima and Hamdan (2011) explored learning strategies and the activities in each of the strategy categories of Oxford's taxonomy most frequently employed by the students. This study was aimed at helping teachers develop classroom activities which help improve the quality of the teaching and learning process in the classroom. Fifty six students out of 170 of an accessible population from two different high schools in Makassar were recruited to be participants in this study. An Indonesian version of Oxford's SILL (1990) was administered. The translation of this instrument was conducted professionally, and piloted before it was formally used in the study. The findings of the study reveal that out of the six strategy categories, metacognitive category was

most frequently used by the students. However, the other five strategy categories were used at a medium level of frequency. Among these five moderately used strategy categories, compensation category was found to be the least frequently used. Out of nine individual strategies within the metacognitive strategy category, three individual strategies: 'I pay attention when someone is speaking in English', 'I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better', and 'I try to find out how to be a better learner of English', were used at a significantly high frequency level.

Using the help of statistical computation to analyze his descriptive and correlational quantitative study, Sugeng (1997) studied the use of general strategies and subordinate strategies, as well as how language, gender, and grade affected students' learning strategies. He involved 240 elementary school students and recruited six senior teacher students, who had undergone practice teaching, to be the observers. These student teachers were then specially trained to observe the elementary students while they were studying English in the classroom. These trained students were given a strategy use checklist which was a modified version of Oxford's SILL (1990). This checklist consisted of four strategy categories: metacognitive, cognitive, affective, and social. Sugeng did not include the compensation category strategy. The researcher might have assumed that compensation strategies were only appropriate for adult learners whereas young learners did not have any capability to compensate in different ways. The study found that the cognitive strategy category was the most favoured. He connected this finding with the education trend in Indonesia in which emphasis is always given to the achievement of knowledge and other cognitive potential. He assumed this trend had caused the high load of cognitive activities in the teaching and learning process. The second rank of use was the affective strategy category. Sugeng observed that there was no available explanation for this result but hypothesized that this frequent use of the affective strategy exists because the class is a language lesson. The social strategy category

was the next most frequently used strategy followed by the metacognitive strategy category which was also the least frequently used strategy category of all.

Another finding deals with the factors affecting learning strategies which include language, gender and grade. This study was conducted in two different language classes, *Bahasa Indonesia* class and English class. The finding shows that students employ greater strategies in English classes than they do in Indonesian classes. This finding contradicts what are assumed to be the characteristics of good language learners who are familiar with the language and tend to use more strategies (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989). The finding also shows that gender was found to have no correlation with the use of learning strategies. This finding is in line with the literature that indicates that there is no consensus in terms of the role gender plays in the use of language learning strategies (Brophy, 1985; Ecceles & Blumenfeld, 1985). Level of school grade was found to be a significant determinant of learning strategy use among students. This finding reveals that the more senior the students are the more learning strategies they use.

Table 3.4

Summary of some studies on the use of learning strategies by Indonesian EFL learners

No.	Researcher	Participants	Strategy Framework Used/main instruments	Variables	(Main) Findings
1.	Sawir (2002)	Adult EFL learners from Vietnam, japan and Indonesia	Dyadic conversation and modified BALLI	Communication strategies and Learners' beliefs about learning strategy	The most popular communication strategies were stalling and time gaining strategies. They also believed in the importance of culture and environment.
2.	Sugeng (2004)	Adult EFL learners	Oxford's SILL	Gender, age, educational background and area of knowledge	Metacognitive strategies were the most frequently used and no significant differences were found in strategy use among participants across the four factors.
3.	Lengkanawa	Adult	Oxford's SILL		Indonesian EFL learners

No.	Author	Participants	Instrument	Focus	Findings
	ti (2004)	Indonesian EFL learners and adult Australian *Bahasa Indonesia* learners			used memory and affective strategies more frequently than their counterparts. Cultural backgrounds have affected the choice of strategy use among participants.
4.	Khairul (2004)	Young adult (Secondary high school) EFL students	Oxford's SILL	Gender and field of study	The participants used all strategies in medium frequency. There was a significant correlation between strategy use and gender and field of study. Female students used language learning strategies more frequently than male students. Students of natural science used learning strategies more frequently than those of social science.
5.	Vianty (2007)	Adult EFL learners	Metacognitive Reading Strategy Questionnaires developed by Taraban, Kerr and Rynearson (2004)	Analytic and pragmatic reading strategies	Students used the analytic reading strategies more frequently when they were reading texts in Bahasa Indonesia than they did in English text. On the contrary, they used pragmatic reading strategies more often when they read texts in English than they did when they read Indonesian texts.
6.	Subekti and Lawson (2007)	Adult EFL learners	Word recognition test (WRT) and meaning recall test (MRT) and training using think aloud method as suggested by Lawson and Hogben (1996)	Vocabulary acquisition strategies; non-elaboration strategies and elaboration strategies	The frequency of strategy use was a significant predictor of both WRT and MRT. Students who used more strategies would get more benefit for recall. This study suggests active use of more strategies for better vocabulary acquisition.
7.	Mattarima and Hamdan (2011)	Young adult (High school) EFL learners	Indonesian version of Oxford's SILL	Strategy by categories and individual strategies	Metacognitive strategies were identified to be the most popular strategies and used most frequently. Individual strategies used in significantly high

					frequency include (1) "I pay attention when someone is speaking in English", (2) "I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better", and (3) "I try to find out how to be a better learner of English".
8.	Sugeng (1997)	Young (Elementary school) EFL students	Modified Oxford's SILL (observation guide checklist developed based on SILL)	Language status, gender and grade level	Cognitive strategies were most favoured, followed by affective strategies, social strategies and metacognitive strategies. *compensation strategies were not included in study and the use of memory strategies were not reported.*

Studies on language learning strategy in Indonesia have been conducted in broad settings with different participants and have come up with diverse findings. The studies in this field have been administered to adult learners (Lengkanawati, 2004; Sugeng, 2004), teenagers or secondary school students (Khairul, 2004; Mattarima & Hamdan, 2011) and young learners or elementary school students (Sugeng, 1997). There is no consistency in terms of the favoured strategy used by the students, although the participants of the studies belong to the same level of age. Adult learners who participated in Sugeng's study (2004) preferred metacognitive strategies more than any other categories while those recruited in Lengkanawati's study (2004) favoured memory strategies more than the others. There was no available explanation for this finding. However, there is an interesting finding which both studies share. The participants of both studies employed social category strategies in the least frequency of use. Lengkanawati considers this finding as surprising because culturally Indonesian people are social-oriented and she assumed that there has been a cultural orientation shift among the students. However, Sugeng hypothesised that there being mature has made the participants able to work independently without depending on

others including cooperating with their peers. These two researchers analysed similar findings from two different points of view arriving at different outcomes.

Indonesian high school students do not show the same interest in terms of language learning strategy use. Khairul (2004) found that students who participated in his study employed all learning strategies at the moderate level; there was no single strategy category which they favoured. Meanwhile, Marritama and Hamdan (2011) found that metacognitive strategies became the favourite strategies for his research participants. Inconsistency in the strategy use has occurred in these two studies involving relatively similar group of students. The only study that involved young learners was that of Sugeng (1997). Considering the age of the participants and that it was possibly difficult to convert the compensation and memory strategy categories into a behavioural observation check-list, this category was not included in the observation. The finding of this study revealed that the cognitive strategy was the most favoured strategy of all. The rationale behind this finding was interesting as Sugeng speculated that the education trend in Indonesia, which emphasised the cognitive aspect, was the cause of this finding.

Although the other two studies mentioned earlier (Subekti & Lawson, 2007; Vianty, 2007), focussed on learning strategies for more specific aspects of language, they were concerned with language learning strategies as well. In addition, these studies resulted in new findings. For example, Vianty (2007) concluded that language in which a text is written becomes the determinant of learning strategy use among students. Meanwhile, Subekti's finding illustrates the general assumption that students who use more strategies tend to be more successful, more frequently.

Although most research studies on Indonesian learners' strategies have investigated what learners have done (including strategy use and preferences), they have neglected the role of

beliefs in directing the choice of learning strategies. Besides, they have not 'touched' on other factors such as reflection which have the potential to influence students' beliefs about language learning strategy use. Also, they have not discussed the dynamics of how language learning strategies can change over time. The involvement of beliefs and reflection as intervention is worthy of scholarly concern because it will help explain what learners have not done enough in order to make their learning most effective. This will be a major focus of this current research and is reported in Chapter VI and VII.

3.6   Cultural Constraints of English Language Teaching in Indonesia

Every society has a set of values, norms and cultures that are used to give guidance to the people to live their lives and to maintain their acceptance as a member of the society. This culture is the result of consensus made by their people generations before and inherited from their parents. This culture is not static; it changes slowly through self-adaptation to developments. Therefore, the change in culture usually takes time and is not necessarily well approved by the members of the society. In relation to the failure of English language teaching in Indonesia, some cultural attributes are claimed to be responsible. In many Asian societies, including Indonesia "knowledge is traditionally seen as something to be transmitted down through generations" and that "knowledge is passed down from teachers to students" (Kirkpatrick, 1996, p. 75). These beliefs effect the people's perception towards those more knowledgeable people whose profession is to transfer the knowledge. They will respect them in a different way from the way in which they respect any other profession.

According to Dardjowidjojo (2012), a Javanese linguist with an interest in language teaching, there are some attributes of Javanese culture which do not support the acquisition of second or foreign language learning in Indonesia. Javanese culture which is also adopted by people

from different cultural backgrounds, believes in the philosophy of *"Sabdo Pendito ratu"*, the philosophy originally used within the palace suggesting that a leader should be extremely cautious in what he wants to say or do. This philosophy, similar in many ways to Confucation practice, has in fact affected the teaching and learning process in the classroom and has been interpreted negatively by both the students and teachers. The classroom where the teacher adopts this philosophy will consider him or her as the source of truth and therefore he will not tolerate any students questioning what he teaches. This philosophy also teaches that once a teacher says something, he should never withdraw from it. This however contradicts the Western intellectual tradition. Thus, dialogue between the teacher and students is very rarely found. Within this philosophy, a good class is a class which is quiet and the students sit and listen quietly behind their desk. In this one-way communication, it is unlikely that language learning will be successful as language learning needs regular practice and good modelling by the teacher. This philosophy is intensified with another belief of *manut lan miturut* as well as *ewuh lan pekewuh.*

Manut lan miturut literally means "obey and total obedience". The cultural values embodied in this saying are that children must obey and give total obedience to their parents. This norm is also adopted within the educational system in conjunction with the relationship between students and teachers. To judge the level of 'goodness' of the student is by looking at the degree of their obedience to their teachers-the more obedience is given to the teacher, the better a student s/he is considered. Therefore a teacher in Javanese is equivalent to the **guru**, which is interpreted as *digu**gu** lan diti**ru**, a figure who must be obeyed and taken as the example.* This interpretation implies an understanding that a teacher can make no mistake and therefore must be obeyed and taken as the exemplar role model. From a very young age, Indonesian children have been brought up in a social environment which does not encourage critical and intellectual thinking or democratic thinking and action. This kind of social environment by itself explains why the English language

teaching has not been successful although as a subject, English is taught from primary school level. This philosophical outlook is then accompanied by the belief of *ewuh-pekewuh.*

In social interaction Indonesian people hold the belief of *ewuh-pekewuh*, a feeling of being uncomfortable *(ewuh)* and uneasy *(pekewuh)* discussing something controversial, questioning the words of elders and disagreeing with them. This philosophical outlook deals with the relationship between people with different status, children and parents, young and elders, teacher and principal, student and teacher. Community members with lower status will feel uncomfortable and uneasy holding different opinions with those having higher status. Consequently, those having higher status will expect the same thing from people with lower status.

Unfortunately this philosophical outlook is also adopted within the educational system. In the classroom context, a teacher feels as if he is the one having high status and considers students to have lower status and therefore in a socio-cultural hierarchy like this, it is unlikely that natural and mutual interaction in the classroom can happen under these circumstances. This set of cultural beliefs has acted as a constraint for the success of English language learning and teaching in Indonesia.

3.7 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the literature review on language learning strategy in context. It started with the definitions as proposed by different scholars, continued with investigation of the terms, the factors influencing the language learning strategy use. This chapter also discussed language learning strategies across cultures and language learning strategies in the Indonesian context. It has ended with the presentation of the cultural constrains of English language teaching. The next chapter will present the research design and methods. The next chapter will also explore ethical considerations, code of ethics, triangulation, the participants in the study, data collection and data analysis procedures.

CHAPTER IV

THE RESEARCH DESIGNS AND METHODS

The current study investigates the kinds of language learning strategies Indonesian pre-service EFL students use to learn English, factors which influence their opting for their strategies and in what ways they use those strategies, the change of students' beliefs about language learning strategies and nature of the change. Finally this study will also investigate the kind of reflection which brings about change. In the previous chapters, learner's beliefs as well as their language learning strategies have been explored with rich supporting evidence in the form of scholarly studies. This chapter deals with the designs and methods employed to carry out the study. It begins with the theoretical framework of the research design, ethical consideration followed by practical methodologies which includes the step-by-step procedures for data collection, the types of data and instruments to be used, data collection techniques and finally how the data will be analysed.

4.1   Designs and Methods

This current study utilized phenomenological method for data analysis. Phenomenology deals with the study of experience from the perspectives of individuals and takes into account their assumptions and common ways of perceiving phenomena. Within phenomenological research individuals' knowledge and subjectivity are considered fundamental and they are utilized as the basis of interpretation. This research also perceives personal perspective and interpretation as highly important. This method is identified to be effective to raise the experiences as well as the perceptions of individuals from their own perspectives to the surface and challenge the existing structural and normative assumptions (Lester, 1999).

In addition, phenomenology acknowledges the fact that reality is fundamentally subjective. People experience reality in different ways and therefore their reality is also contextualized, it is based on their own context. This study tried to understand knowledge in relation to the research question "To what extent are learners' beliefs subject to change as they are taken through a process of reflection?" rather than creating knowledge about learners' beliefs in general. Knowledge is not only based on observable phenomena but also on subjective beliefs, values, reasons and understanding (Fahl, 2009). Therefore subjective beliefs of learners are used in this study to understand how their own knowledge about language learning impacts on their strategy use in language learning. Theories are revisable, relative and sensitive to context (Trochim & Donnelly, 2005). So there is the possibility that theories change and develop based on the beliefs of the learners and the context where the research will be carried out.

4.2   Research Methods

As previously mentioned, this study looks into the learners' beliefs about language learning strategies through a medium of reflection. This study is conducted using qualitative methods to answer one main research question: "To what extent are learners' beliefs subject to change as they are taken through a process of reflection?" and three sub questions: (1) What kinds of language learning strategies do the Indonesian pre-service teacher students use to learn English?, (2) What is the nature of the strategy use and their belief about language learning strategy?, and (3) How and why does the belief change occur?

Seliger and Shohamy (1989) argue that qualitative research appears to be more appropriate for describing the social context of second language learning, such as dyadic speech interaction (who says what to whom and when). Qualitative research is purposively designed to describe in detail what is happening in a group, in a conversation, or in a community who spoke to

whom, with what message, with what feelings, with what effects (Bouma, 2000). The definition of qualitative research which is widely accepted and also adopted in this current study is that proposed by Denzin and Lincoln (1994):

Qualitative research is multi-method in its focus, involving interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter. This means that qualitative research study things in the natural setting, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, and phenomena in terms of meanings people bring to them (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, p. 2).

Interpretative research is the study of immediate and local meanings of social actions for the actors involved in them (Erickson, 1986). This term is therefore similar to qualitative research (see Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007). Watson-Gegeo (1988) adds there are several studies that can be included as qualitative: ethnography, case study, analytic induction, content analysis, hermeneutics, and life histories. Case study will be utilized in this current research. Case study is a qualitative approach in which the investigator explores a bounded system (a case) or multiple bounded system (cases) over time, through detailed, in depth data collection involving multiple sources of information (e.g. observations, interviews, audio-visual material, and documents and reports), and reports a case description and case-based themes (Creswell, 2007).

In this definition Creswell uses a bounded system to refer to a case (s), in similar term as used by Stake in his definition of a case study "whatever bounded system (to use Louis Smith's term) is of interest" (Stake, 1978, p. 7). According to Flyvbjerg (2011) based on Stake's definition of a case study, what Stake means by bounded system or functioning unit is that a case study focuses on the individual unit. In this current study, each individual student teacher participating in this study is unique with his or her own specific characteristics. The language learning strategies that each participating student used has also unique, specific, and relatively consistent activities in

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dealing with the language learning tasks. Flybjerg further explains such definition requires intensive investigation toward a phenomenon under study. Therefore a case study produces output which is rich, thick, detailed, and deep. Also, a case study puts more emphasis on "developmental factors" (Flyvbjerg, 2011, p.301) evolving in a specific time and a specific place .In addition, a case study considers the relationship to setting or environment as significant. Thus, context becomes very fundamental and unavoidable in a case study research.

As Yin (2002) argues, case study research generally provides answers to such questions of "how" and "why" because these types of questions deal with operational links which need to be traced overtime, rather than their frequencies or incidences (quantitative research). Merriam (1998, p. 16) defines a qualitative case study as "an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a single entity, phenomenon or social unit. They are particularistic, descriptive, and heuristic and rely heavily on inductive reasoning". In regard to these characteristics, she explains further that case study work is particularistic because it focuses on a specific phenomenon; in this instance the learners' beliefs about language learning strategies which are investigated in depth to produce comprehensive output. What she means by descriptive is that the end product of the study is a rich or thick description of the phenomenon under study (p.11). Meanwhile heuristic refers to the power of the study to *illuminate* or highlight the readers' understanding of the phenomenon under study (p.13). Furthermore, Yin (2002) adds that in case study research, the researcher cannot manipulate the behaviours of the participants involved in the study. In this type of research, there is always the possibility to cover contextual conditions because of their relevance to the phenomenon under study. As the phenomenon cannot be separated from the context, therefore, the boundaries between them are not so clear.

According to Yin, a case study as a research method is "scholarly inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the boundaries between

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phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used" (1994, p. 33). Moreover Yin confirms that a case study not only relies on multiple sources of data to account for triangulation, which will be described further in the next section of this chapter, but also benefits from previous development of a theoretical framework to collect and analyse the data.

Qualitative case study research approaches a phenomenon from a holistic perspective in order to achieve in-depth understanding of the situation and its meaning for the benefits of those parties involved. Merriam (1998) argues that case study research as research focusing on discovery, insight and understanding from the perspectives of the participants being observed, offers the greatest potential to give significant contributions to the knowledge base and practice of education. In regard to the position of case study research with statistical methods, Flyvbjerg (2011) argues that these two methods are not "conflicting but complementary" (p. 313). Furthermore he presents the strengths and weaknesses of case studies. The strengths of case studies include depth, high conceptual validity, understanding of context and process, understanding of what causes a phenomenon, linking causes and outcomes and fostering new hypotheses and new research questions. Meanwhile the weaknesses of case studies are that selection bias may overstate and/or understate relationships, have a weak understanding of occurrence (extrapolation and generisability) in a selected population and the phenomena under study and statistical significance are often unknown or unclear.

According to Hodkinson and Hodkinson (2001) case studies have a number of strengths that make this type of study worth considering. They can help us understand complex inter-relationships. Case studies facilitate understanding what is to be studied in detail and in depth. Due to the possibility of understanding the case in depth, case studies can engage with complexity.

Case studies are grounded in "lived reality". Compared to social research conducted within other type of studies, case studies can simplify the phenomena under investigation in ways that strongly relate to the experience of individuals, groups or organizations. They can put aside the "noise" of real life of many other types of research (p.3). Although it is good to refrain from such noise in research, sometimes the excluded noise may contain highly significant information.

Case studies facilitate the exploration of the unexpected and unusual. As a consequence of the previous strengths, case studies can show significant issues that the researcher did not expect when he or she started the research project. This may then produce important residual findings worthy of further exploration. Case studies can show the process involved in causal relationships. Similar to most conventional types of correlational studies which are based upon statistical computation, through the depth and complexity analysis of data, case studies can throw up how correlated factors influence each other.

Finally, case studies can facilitate rich conceptual/theoretical development. In a case study research, existing theories and knowledge are fundamental to look at complex realities and very rich available data can help bring up new thinking and new ideas. In this way, knowledge and theories are more likely to develop.

There are three different kinds of case study research; intrinsic case study, single instrumental case study and the collective or multiple case studies (Stake, 2008). The intrinsic case study focuses on the case itself due to its uniqueness or uncommon circumstance. In the instrumental case study, the researcher has to focus on an issue of concern and decide which one bounded case s/he thinks appropriate to illustrate the issue. Whereas the collective or multiple cases study requires the researcher to select the issue of concern and to use multiple cases study to illustrate the issue.

This study applied a single case study although there are three different groups of students: high achievers, medium achievers and low achievers to answer the research questions. The selection of single case study to understand the phenomenon is due to the fact that the three groups of students come from the same universities, the same department, studying in the same semester (semester four) and the same class, and consequently receive relatively similar language tasks from their lecturers. The only difference may be the learning strategies they used to accomplish the language tasks assigned to them.

4.3   Ethical Considerations in Educational Research

This study is aimed at unpacking the learners' beliefs about language learning strategy with the objectives of understanding their currently applied learning strategies and the possible change of strategy use after reflection. The research participants of this study are the pre-service teacher students who have become a significant concern among researchers in educational field. Due to this concern, each of the major scholarly associations have released guidelines in the form of National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (National Statement) which is intended to be used by the researchers, participants and all parties involved in the study involving human beings (Committee, 2007). Educational research dealing with human beings has potential ethical issues. According to Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2007) potential ethical problems may occur in every stage in the research sequence starting from the nature of the research itself, the context for the research, the procedure taken, methods of collecting data, the nature of the participants, the type of data collected and what should be done with the collected data.

4.3.1   Code of ethics. According to Christians (2007) there are four kinds of codes which scholarly associations came to agreement to protect the research participants and to ensure the neutrality of the research process.

1. Informed consent. The idea of releasing this code is the respect that the scholars want to give to the research participants with regard to their involvement in the research process. This code covers "rights" (my term) that the researchers have to grant to participants. Firstly, agreement of participants to be involved in the research process must be made voluntarily without any physical or psychological pressure. Secondly, agreement of participants must be based on full and open information, which is inspired by the articles of the Nuremberg Tribunal and the Declaration of Helsinki in which the information on the duration, methods, possible risks and the purpose of research must be given to potential participants (Soble, 1978).

2. Deception. As a consequence of the informed consent, the idea of deception in any stage of the research must be opposed and avoided. Any deceptive practices are against moral principles which respect the participants and therefore "deliberate misinterpretation is not ethically justified" (p. 65).

3. Privacy and confidentiality. This code of ethics emphasizes the right of the research participants to be protected from being exposed, both their identities and research locations. All participants' personal data must be made safe and secured and the only way to reveal this information is through anonymity. Professional etiquette holds that research participants must not be harmed and embarrassed as a result of insensitive research practices. Therefore, giving pseudonyms to the research participants as well as the location where the research is conducted is strongly recommended. As Anderson and Arsenault (1998, p. 21)argue "it is the duty of the researcher to protect the identity of individuals, there is a distinction between one's public role and private life".

4. Accuracy. This code deals with the ability of the researcher to record and interpret the data or information from the research participants with high level of accuracy. The failure to record the information and interpret accurately will lead to invalid findings. Therefore, making up data to lead to the previously formulated finding is both non-scientific and unethical and thus unacceptable in scholarly domain (or elsewhere).

Monash Research Graduate School, the responsible organization overseeing this research, has set up a special committee consisting of dedicated scholars from multiple disciplines to work with applications for ethical approval of a project involving humans who will deal with research permission which will be granted to the research students. The Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee (MUHREC) never approves any application without ensuring that all the codes of ethics are met. I sent the application to MUHREC together with the consent form, explanatory statement, information on target participants, data collecting technique, schedule for data collection and the instruments for assessment. Before this application was sent, I needed to get permission first to collect the data from the target institution in the form of a formal letter on letter head which had to be attached to the application. MUHREC ensured that I as the researcher was aware about the rights of research participants as well as code of conduct in doing research involving human beings. As my target participants belong to low risk groups (adults), the process of assessment was relatively short. I had to revise the application in response to a number of queries before finally they released the permission letter. The MUHREC permission letter can be found on Appendix 4 page 345.

In addition to codes of conduct as elaborated above, researchers have to be aware of the three fundamental ethical principles regarding research involving human participants. These principles include respect for persons, beneficence and justice (Christians, 2007). The principle of

respecting the research participants restates the code of conduct that the participants join the research on voluntary basis without any physical or psychological coercion and that they are supplied with adequate information about the research project. Under the principle of beneficence, researchers are to ensure the well-being of research participants. It includes awareness of the researcher that participants should be prevented from any possible harm and if risks cannot be avoided to gain substantial benefits, researchers have to minimize harm as much as possible. The principle of justice requires researchers to treat participants fairly and avoid any exploitation of any participant or any groups of participants regardless of their easy access or availability.

In this research those three principals have been met. Before the approval from the target institution was given, I had sent the application attached with brief information about the research plan as well as consent forms for prospective participating students. The head of the English education study program of Laskar Pelangi University in Indonesia had well considered these documents and therefore provided the permission letter. Before any data collection was carried out, I explained the research project to the participants in detail and mentioned their rights during this research. I confirmed they could withdraw their participation from this research if they found it uncomfortable. I also distributed consent forms to them and let them read them before they voluntarily signed them. The suggestion from the Monash doctoral confirmation panel corroborated the third fundamental ethical principal. I had planned to include focus group discussions from the same participants to make the data rich but the panel said that it was too demanding and this data collection technique was cancelled. Therefore, I confirm that the principle of justice has been met and no exploitation has been done during this research.

4.3.2. Power Relation in Qualitative Research. Power relation is a sensitive issue in the sense that it may influence the validity of the findings. The researcher and the

interviewee both have roles and responsibilities and legal rights that need to be shared and negotiated for the construction or development of knowledge. Therefore the relationship between researcher and participants should approach the maximum professionalism level to maintain the validity of the results which leads to trustworthiness of the findings. Both parties have significant contribution to make in a research study. Participants, for example, are the sources of the knowledge. Only from their stories, experiences and information can the researcher finally construct and develop new knowledge and or understanding. Similarly, the researchers' involvement in the examination of the raw data from the participants and any further in-depth study and analysis of both previous and similar studies as well as existing theories may eventually lead to the emergence of "new" knowledge.

According to Karnieli-Miller, Strier, and Pessach (2009) the relationship between the researcher and participants has become more complex due to their significant and sometimes conflicting roles. The participants who may be clients, patients, or students are the primary providers of data which can be in the form of experience, stories, perception etc.; the researcher then analyses the data, links the analysis with previous research and pre-existing theories.

Karnieli-Miller, et al (2009) identified five stages where power relation can be a crucial issue between the researcher and research participants. These stages include:

1.   Initial stage of subject/participant recruitment

2.   Data collection

3.   Data analysis and production of the report

4.   Validation and

5.   Additional publication from the same source material

1.   *Initial stage of subject/participant recruitment*. In this stage, the researcher

possesses the control over the research process. S/he has the right and power to

decide how to introduce the study to prospective research participants, how to describe the goals of the research and how to notify the institution to acquire maximum advantage. The goal of this stage is to persuade potential participants to take part in the research project and share their personal experience and knowledge. The dependence of the researcher on the participants should increase the bargaining position of the participants. The researcher who has the information about the research project and the participants who have the experience and knowledge can negotiate their respective power positions to negotiate the level of information provided about the study. In this study, I realized that the personal experience and knowledge of the participants regarding their beliefs about language learning strategies is so valuable to make this study successful and able to contribute to the development of the knowledge. Therefore sufficient information about the study was provided to the potential participants before they signed the consent forms. Further and more detailed information was also given to those who wanted to know more about the research project anytime by contacting me at [my](#) university email address.

2. *Data collection*. In this stage the researcher is obviously dependent upon the participants. The willingness of the participants to give the information as well as the quality of the information needed for the research to determine the success of the research. Therefore, the relationship between the researcher and the research participants is crucial because it affects the quality as well as the quantity of information given by the participants. One indicator of the researcher's success is when s/he can retrieve and receive the participants' information and permission to use it in the research and publication. This success is partly dependent upon the rapport building between the researcher and the participants. I realize the fact

that the willingness of participants to share their personal experience and knowledge about their language learning beliefs and strategies would determine the success as well as the quality of this research. To achieve this goal, since beginning the research project I have built up an open and trusting rapport with participants. The rapport was so good that they allowed me to get further data from them any time it was needed. I completed another round of data collection fifteen months after the first data collection to make the available data richer and they happily gave me their available time for this process.

3. *Data analysis and production of the report*. After the data collection was completed, the next stage is data analysis and production of a report which is in the hands of the researcher. As the researcher, I have the absolute power to manipulate the data as I "want" based on the literature reviewed and methodological framework determined. In the previous stage, it was participants who shared the stories, but now it was the researcher who became the new storyteller of the participants' stories. Due to this exclusive right to "manage" data from participants, ethical considerations became of upmost important. I have the right to share or not to share the data analysis process with the participants or to involve or not to involve them in the final stage of writing. In this current study I am the person who is responsible in interpreting all information provided by the participants. I have the right to share the data analysis with third parties including with participants as agreed in the Consent Form. To date, I have been open with the participants regarding the result of the analysis and I am willing to share it with them.

4. *Validation*. After data collection and analysis is completed, some researchers involve the participants in the process of validation. The involvement of

participants in this process can be in the form of allowing them to transcribe the interview, letting them edit the transcript, presenting them with emerging themes up to presenting them with the draft of the final draft. The objective of this process is actually to strengthen trustworthiness, accuracy and validity of the findings and to empower participants. In this study, the participants were involved in the process of transcribing the interviews and thus they did not need to edit the transcript because self-transcription by the participants is also one of the ways in validation process.

4.4 Triangulation

Good research practice obliges the researcher to triangulate, that is, to use multiple methods, and data sources, to enhance the validity of research findings (Mathison, 1988).

In social sciences the use of triangulation is widely accepted as this approach can assist in providing validity of the investigation. Triangulation is understood as a way of understanding and analysing research from many different standpoints through employment of mixed data and methods (Olsen, 2004). It is also a methodological concept that has been applied in ethnographic studies to reach the maximum level of validity possible in such circumstances (Watson-Gegeo, 1988). According to Flick [triangulation] "is used to name the combination of different methods, study groups, local and temporal settings, and different theoretical perspectives in dealing with phenomenon" (Flick, 2002, p. 229). Qualitative research is by nature multi-method in focus (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Flick, 2002, 2007), meaning that an issue is approached from different points of views. Use of multi-method or triangulation in qualitative research is a common practice not as a strategy of validation but more as an alternative to maximize its validity. In regard to this validation, Mathison (1988) and Gall, Gall and Brog (2007) assume that as a strategy, triangulation

can improve the validity of the research or evaluation findings. Considering that a phenomenon is viewed from different points of view within this paradigm, an in-depth understanding of the issues under investigation is more tenable (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). Denzin developed the concept of triangulation to include multiple theories, researchers and methodologies. Denzin proposed four basic categories of triangulation namely data triangulation, investigator triangulation, theory triangulation and methodological triangulation.

1. Data triangulation refers to the use of different sources of data and not the use of varied methods to produce data. It has three subtypes: (a) time, (b) space, and (c) person. The researcher collects data about the phenomena at different points of time, and in more than one place. Whereas person analysis also has three levels: (a) aggregate, (b) interactive, and (c) collectivity. With data triangulation, findings can be made stronger and strengths of other data can be used to support any weak data if they exist (Rugg, 2010).

2. Investigator triangulation comprises employing multiple rather than single observers of the same object. Employment of different observers or interviewers can minimize biases resulting from the researcher as a person.

3. Theory triangulation involves making use of multiple rather than simple perspectives in relation to the same set of objects. The aim of employing this type of triangulation is to make the possibilities of producing new knowledge even greater.

4. Methodological triangulation comprises two subtypes: *within method* and *between method* triangulation. The first strategy is for example utilising different subscales to measure an item in a questionnaire whereas the second subtype deals with employing more than one method or technique of data collection such as survey, interviews, and or observation (Denzin, 1989).

The Global Fund, World Health Organisation and USAIDS have released guidelines on how to perform triangulation research. It is explained in the guideline that triangulation is practised as an iterative process and therefore returning to previous steps is common when new information or interpretation emerges. The explanation of this understanding is presented in the following figure.

Source: http://www.who.int/hiv/pub/surveillance/triangulation/en/
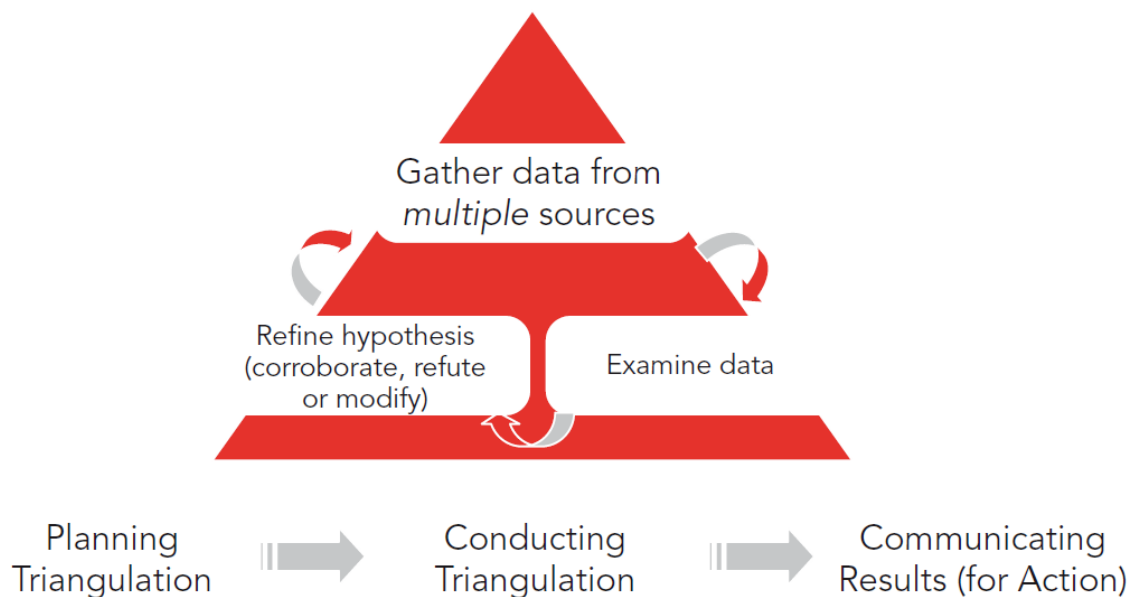
Figure 4.1: A Visual Representation of the Triangulation Process

This diagram is further explained as twelve steps of triangulation process. Although these steps show a step-by-step process of triangulation in a linear fashion, triangulation actually opens possibilities to return to the previous steps – as a process of interaction (see above). When new data, new findings, or new interpretations are identified, it often requires that the process cycle back through some of the steps. The 12 steps are presented below.

Table 4.1 Triangulation Process

Which parts of the process?	What steps are involved?
Planning Triangulation	1.Identify key questions 2.Ensure that question(s) are important, actionable, answerable, and appropriate for triangulation
	3.Identify data sources and gather background information 4.Refine research question
Conducting Triangulation	5.Gather data/reports 6.Make observations from each data set 7.Note trends across datasets and hypothesize
	8.Check (corroborate, refute, modify) hypotheses 9.If necessary, identify additional data and return to step 5 10.Summarize findings and draw conclusions
Communicating Triangulation	11.Communicate results and recommendations 12. Outline next steps based on findings.

(Source: http://www.who.int/hiv/pub/surveillance/triangulation/en/

In this current study, all these steps were implemented in sequential order and that due to the inability of the data collected to answer the research questions which were previously formulated, the process returned to step 5. The data collection was carried out again to ensure that the data was sufficiently rich, and thereby, able to answer all the research questions. This process is also suggested by Creswell (2008), which confirms that the phases of research are iterative; meaning that going back and forth between data collection and analysis is possible when necessary. Each time the information from the participants is considered insufficient, unclear, ambiguous or multi-interpretative, another data collection for further confirmation should be carried out.

As the nature of triangulation is about verifying the data through different kinds of viewpoints, the use of repeated questions, discussion, and observation to search for the same information or information on the same topic is a common practice in qualitative research

(LeCompete & Schensul, 1999). Yin (1994) argues that more convincing and more accurate findings can be obtained by using multiple sources of evidence or data.

The present study employed data triangulation as a key source of data collection to answer the research questions. The following sources of evidence are utilized at different times as a way of both enriching the data and verifying them.

1. A questionnaire on strategy inventory of language learning with the background information on their language learning experience.

2. A learning journal in which the research participants record their learning experiences including the problems they encounter during the learning process and how they deal with those problems.

3. Interviews in which the participants express verbally their beliefs about language learning in general and language learning strategies in particular.

4.5   Recruitment of participants in the study

Participants in the study are pre-service teacher education students of an English education study program of Laskar Pelangi University, Yogyakarta, Indonesia who were active and studying in semester 4 when the data were taken. There are two kinds of subjects offered in the study program, English-related subjects and non-English-related subjects. The number of students in English-related subjects varies from 25 to 30 students per class but for non-English-related subjects, the number of students per class reaches up to 60 students. The researcher saw students from what have been defined on the basis of semester results as high achievers, medium achievers and low achievers. The group consists of twelve (12) participants and were taken from

the same class. Selection of appropriate participants was assisted through the recommendation of the head of English education study program by making use of the academic records of the potential participants.

These students have completed sixty credits in general and undergoing more or less twenty credits in their current semester. Normally each student is entitled to take twenty credits in a semester. Only exceptional students are allowed to take more credits. Students with Grade Point Average (G.P.A) of 2.5-2.99 out of 4 can take up to 20 credits, students whose G.P.A. 3.0-3.49 can take up to 22 credits whereas students with G.P.A. of 3.5-4.00 are permitted to take up to 24 credits. Meanwhile students with the G.P.A below 2.5 can only take 18 credits. Participants of this study have completed three levels of four skill classes, reading I-III, listening I-III, writing I-III and speaking I-III classes. In the semester this study was conducted, they were taking reading IV, listening IV, writing IV and Speaking IV. I discussed choosing participants with the head of the English Education Study Program, who was familiar with the academic performance of the students. He recommended some names for me to contact that met the criteria of proportional sampling consisting of different levels of English proficiency, high achievers, medium achievers and low achievers. After I had the list of the potential participants, I contacted them personally and asked for their agreement and availability. If any of them did not want to participate in this current study, for any reason, I contacted the head of the study program to suggest another student who had similar academic performance. When I approached potential participants, I always provided a brief description of my project and my contact details. Ethical principles in conducting research were also taken into account in all stages and phases of this project, during the recruitment of research participants, data collection, writing up, and conducting this research project as described in the previous section.

Students' academic performance in their English subjects became the main consideration in deciding which participants belonged to the high achieving group, medium achieving group or lower achieving group. Academic performance of non-English subjects was not taken into consideration because the focus of this study was not learning strategy in general but more specifically related to language learning strategy. After I acquired the complete list of the potential participants, I contacted them personally and asked for their agreement and availability. If any of them did not want to be a participant for this current study, for any reason, I contacted another student who had been nominated and was listed on the potential volunteer participant list. Subsequently, I then provided a brief description of this project and my contact details to all participants. To make sure they participated in this study voluntarily and not under pressure, I made them aware that they could withdraw themselves anytime during this project. If for one reason or another any of them wanted to cancel their participation at the beginning of the project, they could do it. Similarly, if any of them felt that they did not want to continue their involvement in this project in the middle of the project, they could just simply let me know. Until the end of the research, none of the participants who had signed the consent forms withdrew from their participation in this research.

4.6 Data Collection Procedure

Qualitative case study research does not claim any specific methods of data collection or data analysis. Any methods or techniques of data collection as well as data analysis can be utilized in this type of research depending on the appropriateness as well as the effectiveness of the method to gather the "desired" data from the participants. Therefore case study research can employ various data collection procedures such as surveys, questionnaires, document analysis, interviews, focus-group discussion and others (Dooley, 2002).

There were five stages in the process of collecting data from the participants. The five stages were conducted in the order of sequence: initial survey, initial interview, reflective learning journal writing, second survey, and second interview. In detail these five steps are now outlined.

4.6.1 **Survey 1**.This survey was conducted using the questionnaire of Strategy Inventory of Language Learning (SILL) Version for Speakers of Other Languages Learning English Version 7.0 (ESL/EFL) © R. Oxford, 1989 (appendix 1). The reason for selecting this inventory was because this questionnaire met psychometric qualities-which deal with utility, reliability and validity to be a good instrument (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). In short, utility is the usefulness of an instrument in the real world. SILL is claimed to have utility. Reliability-the degree of precision or accuracy of scores on an instrument- which is measured using the Alpha Cronbach of this inventory varies depending on the versions of the SILL. When it is administered in English and not in the native language of the learners reliability is slightly lower but still acceptable. It ranges from 0.85 up to 0.91. The validity degree to which an instrument measures what it purports to measure of this instrument is 0.99. This is a content-validity. This measurement is based on the professional judgement of two strategy experts (Rebecca L. Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). Apart from psychometric qualities, this inventory is well accepted and has been used worldwide. Since development in 1990 until 1995, there had been between 40-50 major studies including a dozen doctoral theses (dissertations) and master theses employing the SILL.

The SILL questionnaire was distributed to all participants to get a quick idea of what kinds of learning strategies students employed in their English language learning. This survey was then analysed promptly and the results were then used as the basis for further data collection process that was an in-depth interview.

The questionnaire (see Appendix 1 for full details on page 338) of Strategy Inventory of Language Learning (SILL) set version for speakers of other languages learning English version 7.0 (ESL/EFL) © consists of five (5) parts; Background questionnaire, the inventory, worksheet for answering and scoring SILL, profile of results on the SILL and Key to Understand Your Awareness. The background questionnaire is a form that should be filled in by participants before they complete the inventory. This questionnaire covers such things as personal identity, mother tongue, language spoken at home, target language, length of time already spent learning the target language, current proficiency level, motivation of learning the target language, and the favourite experience in language learning.

The inventory consists of six (6) parts; introductory information, part A, part B, part C, part D, part E and part F. Introductory gives information about the inventory and how it should be used by participants. Participants need only to select 1, 2, 3, 4 or 5 as part of Likert Scale. Number 1 is "Never or almost never true of me". Number 2, which is "Generally not true of me" means that the statement is usually not true. Number 3, "Somewhat true of me", means that the statement is true half the time. Number 4, "Generally true of me" means that the statement is usually true. Number 5 is "Always and almost always true of me".

Part A consists of 15 statements of strategies on "remembering more effectively". This part includes grouping, making association, placing new words into a context to remember them, using imagery, sounds, sound-and-image combination, actions in order to remember new expressions.

Part B consists of 24 statements of strategies dealing with "Using mental process". This part confirms learners' behaviour on such strategies as repeating, practising with sounds and writing systems, using formulae and patterns; recombining familiar items in new ways; practising

the new language in a variety of authentic situations involving the four language skills of speaking, reading, listening and writing; skimming and scanning to get the idea quickly.

Part C starts from statement number eight statements that deal with strategies of "Compensating for Missing Knowledge". These statements verify learners' behaviour as using all possible clues to guess the meaning of what is heard or read in the language, trying to understand the overall meaning, but not necessarily every single word; finding ways to get the message across via speaking or writing despite limited knowledge of the new language.

Part D comprise of sixteen statements of learners' strategies of "Organizing and Evaluating Learning". Strategies covered in this part include over viewing and linking with the material already known, deciding in general to pay attention; deciding to pay attention on specific details; finding out how language learning works; arranging to learn; setting goals and objectives.

Part E consists of eight statements confirming the use of strategy of "Managing Emotions". The statements within this part deal with such strategies as lowering anxiety; encouraging oneself through positive statements; taking risks wisely; rewarding oneself; noting physical stress; keeping a language learning diary and talking with someone about one's feeling and/or attitudes.

Part F consists of nine statements dealing with the strategy of "Learning with Others". These strategies include asking questions for clarification or verification; asking for correction; cooperating with peers; cooperating with proficient users of new language; developing cultural awareness; becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings. In total, this inventory consists of 80 statements comprising of all strategies as formulated by Oxford (1989).

The worksheet for answering and scoring the SILL is the answer sheet that participants need to use to respond to the statements of the inventory. It starts with personal identity as

name, date when the inventory is filled in and language learned now and most recently. Then information on how the participants should use the worksheet is presented. It also provides information for teachers, trainers or researchers on how to calculate the overall average. The answer sheet consists of six (6) parts as part A, B, C, D, E and F with the space under each part that matches with the number of the inventory. Worksheets also provide space to sum up the score for every part and show the way to get the overall average of the strategy score.

The next sheet is the profile of results on the SILL version 7.0. It consists of such information as name, the date when the inventory is taken, information to the survey taker that he or she would receive this profile after completing the worksheet. Information on how to complete this profile is also provided. The next part is information on what strategies are covered and space to record the average on each part of the strategies. Finally, space to write down the overall average is presented.

The other part of this SILL Profile of Result explains the key to understand the average. *High* is of two parts, always or almost always used with the means ranges from 4.5 to 5.0 and *Usually* used with the means ranges from 3.5 to 4.4. *Medium* consists only one part which is "sometimes used" with the means ranges from 2.5 to 3.4. *Low* consists of two parts, "generally not used" and "never or almost never used" with the means ranges from 1.5 to 2.4 and 1.0 to 1.4 respectively. The next part is a graph form on which the survey taker, teacher, trainer or researcher can draw the graph. Finally information on what the averages mean to the survey taker is presented.

4.6.2   In-depth interview 1. One of the important methods to collect the data in qualitative research is through in-depth interviews. In-depth interviews can be varied and described as focused interviews, unstructured interviews, non-directive interviews, open-ended

interviews, active interviews, and semi-structured interviews (Gillham, 2000; Gabrium & Holstein 2002; Holstein & Gabrium, 2003; Rapley, 2004 in Liamputtong & Ezzy, 2007). In–depth interviews can be used to investigate the complexity and in-process nature of meanings and interpretation. In doing the in-depth interview, an interviewer needs to acquire a special skill so that the interview can run naturally and does not sound like an interrogation but conducted like a real conversation which flows naturally and smoothly. Liamputtong and Ezzy (2007) have suggested there are a number of advantages in using this method: (1) This method is an excellent way to discover the subjective meanings and interpretation that people give to their experience, (2) In-depth interviews open the possibilities for aspects of social life, such as social processes and negotiated interactions, to be explored (Daly, McDonald, & Willis, 1992), (3) In-depth-interviews allow new understanding and theories to be built up during the research process so this method works well with inductive theoretical approach and with grounded theory, (4) Responses gathered tend to be free from influence of other peers because it is conducted on a one-on–one basis, and therefore participants are usually better-prepared to discuss something that may be very sensitive, (5) In general, the interviewees find this process to be a rewarding experience. In this stage I used the semi-structured interview questions (Appendix 2 page 342) which were developed from Sawir's (2002) list of interview questions to ask participants about their beliefs in their language learning strategy use. This interview was conducted one-to-one on the campus. Although there was a guideline for this interview it was possible that further questions were raised if I believed that deeper information regarding participants' responses was needed. Interviews were carried out in Bahasa Indonesian to make participants relaxed and find it easy to answer all questions although their major is English education.

Table 4.2   Interview I Schedule

No.	Interviewee (Names are Pseudonymous)	In-depth Interview I	In-depth Interview II
1.	Septi	12/4/2011	24/5/2011
2.	Dwi	12/4/2011	24/5/2011
3.	Febriatmanto	12/4/2011	24/5/2011
4.	Ririn	13/4/2011	25/5/2011
5.	Rena	13/4/2011	25/5/2011
6.	Zendy	13/4/2011	25/5/2011
7.	Jeffry	14/4/2011	26/5/2011
8.	Tri	14/4/2011	26/5/2011
9.	Sartika	14/4/2011	26/5/2011
10.	Novie	15/4/2011	27/5/2011
11.	Tesa	15/4/2011	27/5/2011
12.	Febriana	15/4/2011	27/5/2011

4.6.3   Reflective learning journals. Reflection is a process of gaining a better understanding about a problem encountered by a student through deep thinking and evaluation of the causes of any problems and the production of some possible solutions. Although reflection is a self-action process and can be carried out anytime, it needs a special intention to start with to make the process pass through in-depth thought and eventually produce critical and constructive results. Students may have different learning strategies to deal with a language task specified by their lecturers. Logically they must have a positive belief in their chosen learning strategies that by using their believed-to-be-effective learning strategies, they would be able to accomplish the language task successfully.

The learning process and the interaction with their peer students as well as with their lecturers may have contributed to their beliefs in the effectiveness of the learning strategies. As Brockbank, Mcgill and Beech (in Brockbank & McGill, 2006) argue social context and experience which allow the students to engage with one another will give opportunities to them to be an active and critical evaluator to their applied learning strategies. Therefore, the 'external influence' (my own term) resulting from their interaction with the language task and learning community will

enrich their experience and eventually will contribute to their existing beliefs, whether they become stronger or weaker which may lead to the quest for new and more appropriate learning strategies.

A reflective learning journal was implemented to collect data in this study as an internal dialogue or personal reflection (Habermas, 1974 in Brockbank & McGill, 2006). In this reflective journal, participants were required to write their reflection on how they cope with language tasks assigned by their lecturer. Every week they were to write four different journal entries based on different language skills i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing. They were instructed to include their reflections on their learning experience in implementing their learning strategies in accomplishing the language tasks.

What they had to write included the language tasks they had to complete, how they accomplished this including the steps, effectiveness of the steps (according to them), and why they believed the steps they had taken would work effectively to accomplish the task. Participants were required to write their journals in Bahasa Indonesian so that they would not have any language barrier. The guideline for this reflective journal is provided below (Appendix 3 page 344).

4.6.4   Survey 2. In this stage, the same SILL survey was administered to collect data from the same participants. This stage was conducted after participants finished classes and after they completed their reflective learning journals. Data were then compared with their responses on the first survey.

4.6.5   In-depth interview 2. Fifth stage is in-depth interview which was conducted to determine if participants' views were still consistent with their beliefs as expressed in their surveys and learning journal entries. In this stage the questions raised to participants are not only limited to the same semi-structured interview as used in stage 2 but also based on their response

to the SILL questionnaire. The semi-structured interview questions (see Appendix 2 on page 342) were just a guideline as questions may develop based on the response of participants.

4.7   Data Analysis Procedure

To answer the research questions, the data collected were analysed through several procedures suggested by Creswell (2007). This procedure included data management as the initial process in which data were organized and converted and translated where necessary. In this very early phase, data were organized into file folders in the computer files. Files were named based on the type of data collection, name of the participants and when the data were collected. This was intended to make it easy for me to locate data for further analysis. The second phase was reading and making notes in which I repeatedly read the transcription of the interview carefully and thoroughly until I felt completely immersed in the details of the interview to get a sense of it as a whole before it was broken into parts. I did this process by hand on the printed transcription and used colour pens. I wrote the notes on the right side of the transcription with different colour pens which represent different themes. As suggested by Ryan and Bernard (2003), I proofread the data several times and used my prior theoretical understanding of the phenomenon under study that is learners' beliefs about language learning strategy. Therefore, I related my theme investigation with the literature review.

The next procedure was describing, classifying and interpreting data. This process was conducted through in-depth description of the data then classifying them based on the themes/categories/dimensions and then interpreted. Before presenting data in the forms of categories or themes, the recorded interview was transcribed to make further process of data analysis easy. This transcription process was carried out two times as data collection was conducted twice. The first transcription was relatively demanding as I did it manually. I played the

soft file in the form of MP3 on the computer and typed the transcription. This process took quite a long time as I had to play and pause all the time to make sure that there was nothing missing from the interview. The second transcription process was done using an Olympus transcriber which allowed me to listen to the recording more clearly because it has complete features such as fast forward, rewind, slowing down and play. This allowed me to transcribe much faster as both my hands could be used only for typing and the stop control was done by either my left foot or my right foot. All transcriptions were recorded in the form of MS word.

To avoid or minimize the coding problem, I used the NVIVO9 software which was freely downloadable from Monash IT centre. This facility was provided by Monash University to support the High Degree Research students to do their research. This software allowed more flexibility of coding or recording without losing the coding from its context. Every coded idea or theme from the data had its reference that was easily traceable. To refer back to the original text of the interview to find out what the context was like could easily be done by clicking the reference button. This software also provides a search facility which is very helpful for the researchers, especially when he or she has a large amount of data with so many themes or categories, simply by typing the keyword on the search space. Finally, this result was represented and visualized through tables, charts and figures. Further analysis and interpretation was based on this data presentation and visualization.

The flow of the research process in this current study can be outlined as in the figure below following the data analysis spiral as suggested by Creswell (2007).
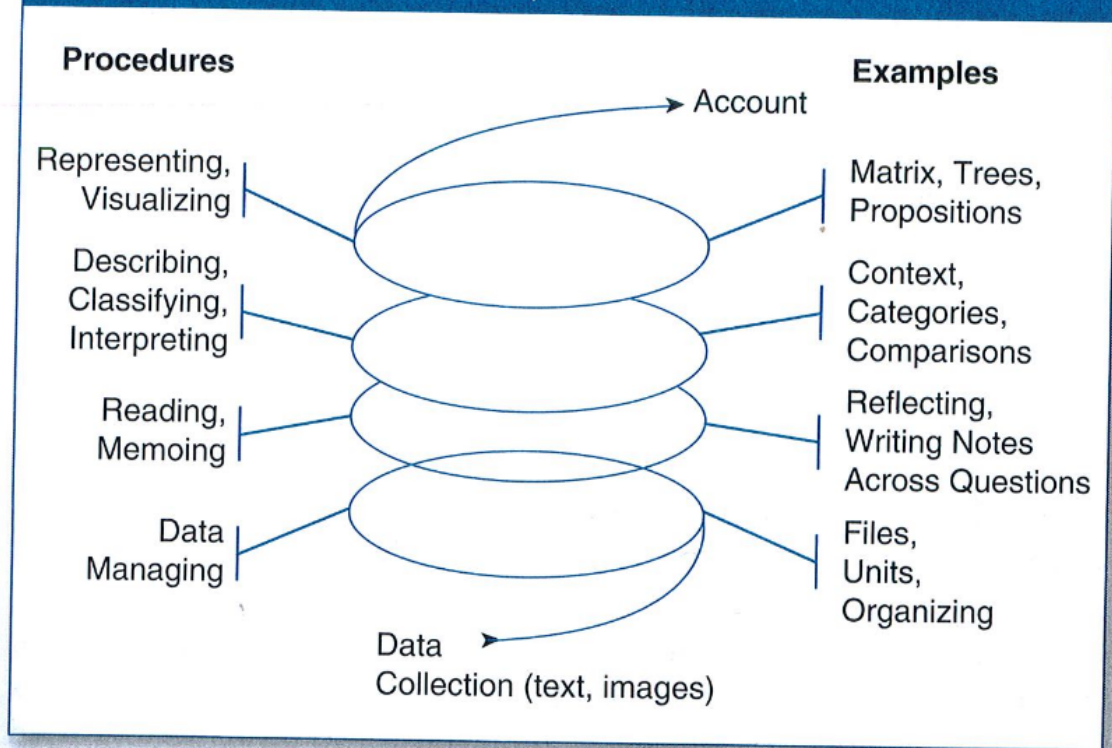
Figure 4.2. The Data Analysis Spiral (Source: Creswell, 2007)

4.8   Conclusion

This chapter has presented the research design and method used in this study. The ethics

consideration and the code of ethics are also explored to avoid any possibility of power abuse. The

concept of triangulation was discussed to give guide line to achieve the validity of the data. This

chapter has also presented the data collection procedure which includes survey 1, in-depth

interview 1, reflective learning journal, survey 2 and in-depth interview 2. This chapter ended with

the data analysis procedure. The next chapter will present the responses to research question

number one enquiring about the language learning strategies employed by the students.

CHAPTER V

Language Learning Strategy Profiles of Indonesian Learners

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of descriptive statistical analyses in response to research question one, as stated in Chapter One, which deals with the language learning strategies employed by students of Laskar Pelangi University. It illustrates the profile of language learning strategies employed by these students with different kinds of English proficiency levels described as high, medium and low achievers. The data utilized in this analysis were taken from the Strategy Inventory of Language Learning questionnaires distributed to the students before and after they carried out personal reflections in their journals. The presentation of the findings is in two sequential stages, in the first the extent of the use of strategy categories as described in Chapter III, that is, memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social strategies is reported in this stage. In the second, the extent of the use of individual strategies within each strategy category is presented to provide a more detailed profile of strategy use. The Chapter starts with the presentation of the findings of the students' pre-reflection use of the language learning strategies with reference to their individual categories or sub-categories. This is then followed by a thorough analysis of the findings, based on the student responses after reflection in relation to the literature.

The profile of language learning strategy use will be reported based on mean use which is divided into three different levels of the mean of the Likert Scale used, as suggested by Oxford (1990), that is, low (mean between 1.00 and 2.44), medium (mean between 2.45 and 3.44), and

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high (mean between 3.45 and 5.00). Also, the comparison of strategies utilized by students with different levels of English proficiency will be presented and analysed in detail.

5.2. Employment of Learning Strategies in Categories before Reflection

5.2.1. Use of six learning categories of strategies

This part presents the category of the learning strategies employed by students at the beginning of the semester before any reflection was carried out. There were six categories of language learning strategies as proposed by Oxford (1990), that is, memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies.

The answers to research question number one about the extent to which Indonesian University students used language learning strategies in learning English are summarized in Table 5.1. below.

Table 5.1

Frequency of Use of Learning Strategy Categories before Reflection

No.	Strategy Categories	High Achievers		Medium Achievers		Low Achievers		Overall	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1.	Memory Strategies	3.305	1.005	3.361	0.745	3.259	0.921	3.313	0.889
2.	Cognitive Strategies	3.472	1.169	3.444	1.019	3.305	0.869	3.407	0.980
3.	Compensation Strategies	3.496	1.350	3.577	1.236	3.061	0.881	3.347	1.219
4.	Metacognitive Strategies	4.305	0.667	3.442	1.037	3.666	0.987	3.805	0.975
5.	Affective Strategies	3.506	0.848	2.966	0.901	3.435	0.855	3.083	1.007
6.	Social Strategies	2.861	0.873	2.607	0.962	3.742	1.086	3.236	1.102
7.	Overall Strategies	3.565	0.963	3.280	0.962	3.461	0.924	3.436	1.009

As presented in table 5.1, students' overall use of strategies in learning English was 3.436, suggesting a medium range of use. Reference to Table 5.1 indicates that the most frequently used strategy was metacognitive with a mean of 3.805 (s.d. = 0.975), with the other five categories being used at a medium level of frequency. As discussed in Chapter Three, Section 3.2.8, metacognitive strategies cover setting clear goals in learning, making study plans, noticing mistakes and learning from them, and thinking about the progress already made. Therefore, this finding suggests that the majority of students mostly employed the strategies of organizing, monitoring and evaluating their English learning activities before they performed the reflective learning journal tasks.

Cognitive strategies ranked second with a mean of 3.407 (s.d. = 0.980). These strategies deal with mental activities to enhance learning; they include using synonyms, finding patterns, taking notes, translating into the first language, scanning, skimming, and dividing words into parts to understand meaning. This finding suggests students used their mental skills critically to understand the meaning of English texts both in spoken and written forms.

With mean of 3.34 (s.d. = 1.219), compensation strategies ranked third most used; these strategies deal with actions which help learners to keep communication continuing when they encounter a communication breakdown caused by a lack of knowledge. These strategies include such actions as guessing, using gestures and making-up new words. This finding indicates that students are familiar with the strategies to maintain communication even when they have problems with unfamiliar English words.

The moderately used strategy which ranked fourth was memory strategies with a mean of 3.313 (s.d. = 0.889). These strategies deal with actions students take to increase their English learning memory. Within these moderately used strategies are processes such as connecting words to mental pictures of situations, and physically acting out new words.

Less moderately used strategies were social strategies with mean of 3.236 (s.d. = 1.102). Included in this category are strategies to ask questions in English, practising English with peers, asking speakers to slow their talking speed or repeat utterances, and developing cultural understanding. The participants of this study have used English in real communication with their peers although not in high intensity.

Finally, the strategies with lowest ranking but also used at a medium level of frequency were the affective strategies with a mean of 3.083 (s.d. = 1.007). These strategies deal with how learners manage their emotion, motivation, and attitude towards the task of learning, for example, use of laughter to lower anxiety, and self-encouragement to take risks in using the language being learned. This finding shows that the participants have not maximized the use of internal qualities such as emotion in their learning process and are detailed pages 188 – 208.

5.2.2. Impact of proficiency level on strategies

In relation to the use of the strategies by students with different levels of English proficiency, the high achievers employed a wider range of strategies, four of which were used at high frequency levels, while the remaining two strategies were used at medium range levels. Among the four most frequently used strategies, metacognitive strategies ranked the highest (mean 4.305), followed by affective strategy (mean 3.506), compensation strategies (mean 3.496), and cognitive strategy with a mean score of 3.472. The high achievers utilized memory strategy less frequently than these four strategies with a mean of 3.305. Social strategy was the least frequently employed strategy with a mean of 2.861. In general, the high achievers recorded the highest use of learning strategies (3.565) compared with the other two groups.

Among the three ability levels of students, the medium achievers ranked third with a mean of 3.280 demonstrating a medium range of strategy use. Compensation strategy was the

strategy they employed most frequently with a mean of 3.577. The other strategies were in the medium range of frequency of use. Of these moderately used strategies, cognitive strategy was first with mean of 3.444. Second was metacognitive strategy with mean 3.442, slightly lower than that of cognitive strategy. Memory strategies were next with a mean of 3.361. Another learning strategy in the medium range of use was affective strategy with an average of 2.966. The last learning strategy was the social strategy of which the student average was 2.607 suggesting only a medium range of use.

Disregarding the strategy category, the overall use of learning strategies by lower achievers was 3.461 suggesting a high frequency level of use. Lower achievers who ranked second employed two strategies, social strategies and metacognitive most frequently; other strategies ranged across the medium frequency level. Of the two most frequently used strategies, social strategy ranked first with a mean of 3.742 followed by metacognitive strategy with a mean of 3.666, suggesting a high range of use. Among the strategy categories employed by lower achievers in the medium frequency range, affective strategies ranked first with an average of 3.435 which is close to the high level category. Cognitive strategies, with an average of 3.305 were second, followed by memory strategies with a mean of 3.259. Finally, compensation strategies were last with an average score of 3.061.

In addition to reporting the frequency of the employment of the six strategy categories, the frequency of use of individual strategies of each category is presented. This presentation follows the order of the strategies based on the categories, beginning with memory strategy, cognitive strategy, compensation strategy, metacognitive strategy, affective strategy and ending with social strategy.

5.2.3.   The use of memory strategies before reflection

As explained in Section 3.2.8, memory strategies are employed to improve memorization so that new information remains in a learner's short and long term memory for easy retrieval. Table 5.2 presents the employment of individual strategies within the memory strategy category by groups of students with different levels of English proficiency.

Table 5.2 The Use of Individual Language Learning Strategies within Memory Strategy Category before Reflection

No.	Individual Strategies within Memory Strategy Category	High Achievers		Medium Achievers		Low Achievers		Overall	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1	I think of the relationship between what I already know and new things I learn in English.	2.500	0.577	2.750	0.957	3.250	0.957	2.833	0.835
2.	I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.	4.250	0.500	4.000	0.000	4.250	0.500	4.167	0.389
3.	I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.	3.250	1.258	4.250	0.957	3.750	1.258	3.750	1.138
4.	I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.	3.250	0.957	3.500	1.291	3.000	0.816	3.250	0.965
5.	I use rhymes to remember English words.	2.500	1.291	3.000	0.816	2.500	0.577	2.667	0.888
6.	I use flashcards to remember new English words.	2.500	1.915	2.250	0.957	2.750	1.258	2.500	1.314
7.	I physically act out new English words.	3.000	0.816	3.500	0.577	3.000	0.816	3.167	0.718
8.	I review English lessons often.	4.000	1.155	3.500	0.577	3.500	0.577	3.667	0.778
9.	I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.	4.500	0.577	3.500	0.577	3.333	0.528	3.818	0.982

There were nine individual strategies within the memory strategy category. Out of nine individual strategies, *"I use new English words in a sentence so that I can remember them"* ranked first with a mean of 4.167. In this individual strategy, both high achievers and low achievers ranked the same with a mean of 4.250. Low achievers ranked last with an average mean of 4.000. With a

mean of 3.818 *"I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, the board, or a street sign"* ranked second. High achievers ranked first, followed by medium achievers and low achievers with means of 4.500, 3.500 and 3.333 respectively using this strategy.

"I use flashcards to remember new English words" was the individual strategy within this category with the least frequency of use, indicated by a mean of 2.500; this mean was within the medium frequency of use as suggested by Oxford (1990). In regard to the employment of this individual strategy, low achievers ranked first with a mean of 2.750 followed by high achievers with an average of 2.500, and medium achievers with a mean of 2.250. These means are within low and medium levels indicating that the use of flashcards was not popular anymore among the participants in this study.

5.2.4.   The use of cognitive strategies before reflection

Cognitive strategies are related to learners' internal mental activities which enable them to comprehend linguistic input and produce linguistic output. As was seen from the questionnaires, the strategies deal with how learners practice the language, receive and send messages, analyse and reason, and create input and output patterns.

Table 5.3 The Use of Individual Language Learning Strategies within Cognitive Strategy Category before Reflection

No.	Individual Strategies within Cognitive Strategy Category	High Achievers		Medium Achievers		Low Achievers		Overall	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
10.	I say or write new English words several times.	4.500	0.577	3.750	0.500	4.000	0.816	4.083	0.669
11.	I try to talk like native English speakers.	4.750	0.500	3.750	0.500	3.500	1.291	4.000	0.953
12.	I practise the sound of English.	4.750	0.500	3.750	0.500	4.250	0.957	4.250	0.754
13.	I use the English words I know in different ways.	4.000	1.155	2.500	1.000	4.000	0.000	3.500	1.087
14.	I start conversation in	3.000	0.816	3.500	1.291	3.250	1.500	3.250	1.138

	English.							
15.	I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.	3.500	1.291	3.750	0.500	3.250	0.500	3.500	0.798
16.	I read for pleasure in English.	3.500	1.732	3.000	1.414	3.250	0.500	3.250	1.215
17.	I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.	3.250	0.957	0.250	0.957	3.000	0.816	3.167	0.835
18.	I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.	3.750	0.957	3.250	0.957	3.000	0.414	3.333	1.073
19.	I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.	3.250	1.258	4.000	0.816	4.000	1.155	3.750	1.055
20.	I try to find patterns in English.	3.500	1.291	3.250	0.957	3.500	0.577	3.417	0.900
21.	I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.	3.500	0.577	3.000	0.816	3.500	0.577	3.333	0.651
22.	I try not to translate word-by-word.	4.250	0.957	3.750	1.500	2.750	1.708	3.583	1.443
23.	I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.	2.750	1.500	3.750	1.258	3.500	0.577	3.333	1.155

There were fourteen individual strategies within the cognitive strategy category. Among the fourteen individual strategies *"practicing the sound of English"* was the most used strategy with a mean of 4.250. High achievers were the group with the highest frequency of use of this strategy with an average of 4.750. Low achievers were second with a mean of 4.250 followed by medium achievers with a mean of 3.750. The second most highly used individual strategy within this category was "*saying or writing new English words several times"* with an average of 4.083. Among the three groups of students, high achievers used this strategy most frequently with a mean of 4.500 followed by low achievers with a mean of 4.000 and medium achievers with a mean of 3.750.

The individual strategy within the cognitive strategy category least frequently used was *"I write notes, messages, letters or reports in English"* with a mean of 3.176; this mean belongs to the medium use category, as Oxford proposed (1990). With a mean of 3.000, low achievers were the group employing this strategy least frequently. Both medium and high achievers had the same levels of frequency, with a mean of 3.250. This suggests that the three groups of students employed this individual strategy moderately.

5.2.5. The use of compensation strategies before reflection

Compensation strategies are related to any action that the students take when faced with problems of communication. These problems may appear during conversation or during the writing process. As can be seen in the survey list, the actions include guessing, using gestures, and making up new words.

Table 5.4 The Use of Individual Language Learning Strategies within Compensation Strategy Category before Reflection

No.	Individual Strategies within Compensation Strategy Category	High Achievers		Medium Achievers		Low Achievers		Overall	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1.	To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.	3.750	1.258	4.000	1.155	4.000	0.000	3.917	0.900
2.	When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gesture.	2.750	2.062	3.750	0.500	3.500	1.000	3.333	1.303
3.	I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.	3.750	1.500	3.500	1.915	2.750	0.957	3.333	1.435
4.	I read English without looking up every new word.	3.500	1.000	3.500	0.577	2.500	1.291	3.167	1.030
5.	I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.	2.750	1.708	3.250	1.708	2.500	0.577	2.833	1.337

6.	If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.	4.500	1.000	3.250	1.500	2.750	0.957	3.500	1.314

Compensation strategy category includes six individual strategies. Out of six individual strategies *"To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses"* was the most highly used strategy with a mean of 3.917. Both medium achievers and low achievers used this strategy most frequently with a mean of 4.000. Students with the highest English proficiency ranked third with a mean of 3.750. With a mean of 3.500, *"I use a word or phrase that means the same thing if I cannot think of an English word"*, was the second most frequently employed individual strategy within the compensation strategy category. In relation to the use of this strategy, high achievers ranked first with a mean of 4.500, followed by medium achievers with an average of 3.250 and Low achievers with a mean of 2.750. This finding suggests that the higher the English proficiency of students, the more often students employ this strategy.

"*I try to guess what the other person will say next in English*" was the least frequently used individual strategy within the compensation strategy category with a mean of 2.8333. Low achievers employed this strategy least frequently with a mean of 2.500. Students with the highest level of English proficiency ranked second with a mean of 2.750 whereas medium achievers ranked first with an average of 3.250.

5.2.6.   The use of metacognitive strategies before reflection

Metacognitive strategies are strategies that the students use to manage their learning activities so that the learning process can be effective and improved. Planning to learn, monitoring as well as evaluating learning progress are just few examples of the strategies within this category. As can be seen in Table 5.5, these strategies are among the students' favourites.

Table 5.5

The Use of Individual Language Learning Strategies within Metacognitive Strategy Category before Reflection

No.	Individual Strategies within Metacognitive Strategy Category	High Achievers		Medium Achievers		Low Achievers		Overall	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1.	I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.	4.000	0.816	3.750	0.957	4.000	1.414	3.917	0.996
2.	I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.	4.750	0.500	2.750	1.500	4.000	1.155	3.833	1.337
3.	I pay attention when someone is speaking English.	4.750	0.500	4.250	0.957	4.250	0.500	4.417	0.669
4.	I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.	5.000	0.000	3.750	1.258	4.000	1.414	4.250	1.138
5.	I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.	4.750	0.500	3.500	0.577	3.750	0.957	4.000	0.853
6.	I look for people I can talk in English.	3.000	1.414	2.750	1.500	3.000	1.414	2.917	1.311
7.	I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.	4.000	0.816	3.250	0.957	3.250	0.957	3.500	0.905
8.	I have clear goals for improving my English skills.	3.750	0.957	3.000	0.816	3.250	0.500	3.333	0.778
9.	I think about my progress in learning English.	4.750	0.500	4.000	0.816	3.500	0.577	4.083	0.793

There are nine individual strategies included in the metacognitive strategy category. Among the nine individual strategies, *"I pay attention when someone is speaking English"*, was the most frequently used strategy with a mean of 4.417. All three groups of students employed this strategy toa high level of frequency with high achievers ranked first (mean of 4.750) followed by both medium and low achievers with means of 4.250. Second was, *"I try to find out how to be a better learner of English"*, with a mean of 4.250; in terms of this strategy use, high achievers

ranked first with a mean of 5.000 followed by low achievers whose average was 4.000 and medium achievers with a mean of 3.750.

Out of the nine individual strategies within this category, *"I look for people I can talk to in English"*, was the individual strategy least frequently used with a mean of 2.917. Among the three groups of students, medium achievers used this strategy least frequently with an average of 2.750, whereas both high achievers and low achievers had means of 3.000 suggesting a medium level of frequency use.

5.2.7.   The use of affective strategies before reflection

Affective strategies deal with how the students manage their feelings of being anxious, apprehensive or nervous during the learning process. Examples of strategies within this category include: how the students control their feelings when they feel afraid of making mistakes, or are nervous when they have to speak in English, and how they encourage themselves to speak.

Table 5.6

The Use of Individual Language Learning Strategies within Affective Category before Reflection

No.	Individual Strategies within Affective Strategy Category	High Achievers		Medium Achievers		Low Achievers		Overall	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1.	I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.	3.250	0.500	4.000	0.816	3.500	1.000	3.583	0.793
2.	I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.	4.500	0.577	3.750	0.957	3.750	0.500	4.000	0.739
3.	I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.	3.500	1.291	2.250	0.957	3.250	0.500	3.000	1.044
4.	I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using	3.000	1.155	2.750	1.258	3.250	0.957	3.000	1.044

	English.								
5.	I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.	2.000	1.414	1.250	0.500	3.000	1.414	2.083	1.311
6.	I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.	2.500	0.577	2.250	0.957	3.750	1.258	2.833	1.115

Similar to the compensation strategy category, there are six individual strategies within the affective strategy category with, *"I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake"*, identified as the most frequently used individual strategy (mean 4.000). High achievers employed this individual strategy at the highest level of frequency with a mean of 4.500. Low achievers ranked second with a mean of 3.750 followed by medium achievers with a mean of 3.750. *"I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English"* was the individual strategy within this category which ranked second with an average of 3.583. In relation to the employment of this individual strategy, medium achievers demonstrated the highest level of frequency use with a mean of 4.000 followed by low achievers with an average of 3.500.

The individual strategy within the affective strategy which was used least frequently was, *"I write down my feelings in a language learning diary"*, with a mean of 2.083. Among the three groups of students, medium achievers employed this strategy least often with a mean of 1.250; high achievers used this strategy more often with an average of 2.500 and low achievers employed this strategy more frequently with a mean of 3.000, suggesting a moderate level of use.

5.2.8. The use of social strategies before reflection

Social strategies are concerned with the strategies students employ to enhance their communicative interactions with other people, both native speakers and non-native speakers of English — learning the culture of native speakers of English is one of the examples. As can be seen

from the list in Table 5.7, these strategies deal with how the students make use of their learned

language in real communication.

Table 5.7

The Use of Individual Language Learning Strategies within Social Category before Reflection

No.	Individual Strategies within Social Strategy Category	High Achievers		Medium Achievers		Low Achievers		Overall	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1.	If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.	3.750	0.957	4.250	0.957	4.500	0.577	4.167	0.835
2.	I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.	2.500	1.732	2.250	1.500	4.000	0.816	2.917	1.505
3.	I practise English with other students.	2.750	1.258	3.250	0.957	4.000	1.155	3.667	1.073
4.	I ask for help from English speakers.	2.250	0.500	2.250	1.258	4.000	1.414	2.833	1.337
5.	I ask questions in English.	3.500	0.577	3.000	0.816	3.500	1.000	3.333	0.778
6.	I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.	2.000	0.000	2.000	0.816	3.500	1.291	2.500	1.087

The social strategy category includes six individual strategies similar to affective and

compensation strategy categories. Among the six individual strategies, *"I ask the other person to*

slow down or say again when I do not understand something in English", was the most frequently

used individual strategy within the social strategy category with a mean of 4.167. Low achievers

used this strategy most often with an average of 4.500 followed by medium achievers with a mean

of 4.250. Meanwhile, high achievers employed this strategy least often with average of 3.750. This

finding suggests that the higher the English proficiency of students, the less often they use this

strategy. The second most frequently used individual strategy was, *"I practice English with other*

students", with a mean of 3.667. Low achievers used this strategy mostly with a mean of 4.000

followed by high achievers with an average of 3.750, and medium achievers whose mean was 3.250.

The individual strategy within this category which was used least frequently used was, *"I try to learn about the culture of English speakers"*, with a mean of 2.500. Both medium and high achievers used this strategy least often with means of 2.000; low achievers employed this strategy most often with a mean of 3.500.

There were three individual strategies students used at a high level of frequency. The first was, *"I pay attention when someone is speaking in English"*, with a mean of 4.417; this individual strategy is within the metacognitive strategies. The high achievers mean for this strategy was 4.750, followed by both low and medium achievers with a mean of 4.250. The second most highly used individual strategy was, *"I practise the sound of English"*, with an average of 4.250; this individual strategy was one of fourteen strategies under the category of cognitive strategy. High achievers demonstrated a higher level of use of this individual strategy with a mean of 4.750, compared with the low achievers mean of 4.250 and the medium achievers mean of 3.750. The third most highly used individual strategy was, *"I try to find out how to be a better learner of English"*, with an average of 4.250; it is also within metacognitive strategy category. High achievers ranked first with a mean of 5.000, followed by the low achievers with an average of 4.000 and medium achievers with a mean of 3.750.

The results also showed that there were three individual strategies students rarely used. The least frequently used individual strategy was, *"Writing one's feelings in a language learning diary"'* with a mean of 2.083; this individual strategy is within the affective strategy category. Low achievers used this strategy most frequently with a mean of 3.000 followed by high achievers with an average of 2.000 and medium achievers with a mean of 1.250. *"I try to learn about the culture*

of English speakers", was another individual strategy rarely used by students with a mean of 2.500; this individual strategy was under the social strategy category. Regarding this individual strategy, low achievers were the highest users with a mean of 3.500, followed by both high achievers and medium achievers each with a mean score of 2.000. The third rarely used strategy was, "I *use flashcards to remember new English words",* with mean of 2.500. It is one of the nine individual strategies within the memory strategy category. Again, students with the lowest level of English proficiency used this individual strategy at the highest frequency level with a mean 2.750 followed by high achievers with an average of 2.500 and medium achievers with a mean of 2.250. This finding also suggests that there is no correlation between the levels of English proficiency of the students with the use of flashcards in language learning.

5.3. Employment of Learning Strategies after Reflection in Categories

This section deals with the learning strategies employed by students after reflection. The section includes the learning strategies' profile after reflection, which learning strategies were most frequently used and which of them were used the least. It also shows how students with different levels of proficiency employed the strategies.

Table 5.8

Frequency of Use of Learning Strategy Categories after Reflection

No.	Strategy Category	High Achievers		Medium Achievers		Low Achievers		Overall	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1.	Memory Strategies	3.222	1.246	3.361	0.527	3.472	0.767	3.351	0.932
2.	Cognitive Strategies	3.803	0.976	3.428	0.878	3.357	0.851	3.529	0.946
3.	Compensation Strategies	3.291	0.830	3.291	0.694	3.541	0.839	3.708	0.994
4.	Metacognitive	4.388	0.801	3.694	0.878	3.777	0.839	3.953	0.903

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	Strategies								
5.	Affective Strategies	4.291	0.985	3.250	1.133	3.583	0.934	3.375	1.050
6.	Social Strategies	3.958	0.900	2.958	1.092	3.750	1.041	3.555	1.054
7.	Overall Strategies	3.826	0.956	3.330	0.867	3.580	0.879	3.579	0.980

As presented in Table 5.8, the overall learning strategies averaged 3.579, suggesting a relatively high frequency level of use. The high achievers and the low achievers' averaged 3.826 and 3.580 respectively which are in the high frequency of use, whereas the mean for medium achievers was 3.330, suggesting a medium range of use. This is consistent with the findings before reflection in which high achievers averaged the highest score followed by low achievers then medium achievers. There was an improvement in the use of language learning strategies after students conducted reflection. As can be seen from table 5.1 and 5.8, the means of high achievers increased significantly from 3.565 to 3.826, and the means of medium achievers increased from 3.280 to 3.330. Meanwhile the mean of low achievers improved from 3.461 to 3.580.

After reflection was carried out almost all learning strategies, with the exception of the affective and memory strategies, demonstrated a higher level of use. Of the four most highly used strategies, the mean for metacognitive strategies was the highest being 3.953. The second most highly used learning strategy were compensation strategies with a mean of 3.708. Next were social strategies with an average of 3.555 and last were the cognitive strategies with an average of 3.529. The second least used were affective strategies with a mean of 3.375 and the least frequently used were memory strategies with an average 3.351 suggesting a medium level of use.

Table 5.8 also shows that high achievers employed most of the strategies at the high frequency level as indicated by their mean score of 3.826, the highest among the three groups. They used four strategy categories in the high frequency range and two in the medium frequency range. Among the four most highly employed strategy categories the metacognitive strategy

category ranked first with a mean of 4.388; this was also the highest mean of the three groups. The second most highly employed strategy category were affective strategies with a mean of 4.291, followed by social strategy category with a mean of 3.958 and the cognitive strategy category with a mean of 3.803. In terms of the overall mean for all strategy categories, the high achieving group ranked first but in terms of the number of strategy categories employed at a high level of frequency, they ranked second.

Consistent with the result before reflection, medium achieving students ranked the third with mean of 3.330 suggesting moderate use of all strategy categories. The only strategy category they employed in the high frequency range was the metacognitive strategy with a mean of 3.694; this figure was the lowest for the three groups. The other strategy categories were used in medium frequency range with the cognitive strategy category ranked the first with a mean of 3.428. The second strategy category in this range were the memory strategies with a mean of 3.361, followed by the compensation strategy category with a mean of 3.291, then the affective strategy category with a mean of 3.250, and finally the social strategy category with a mean of 2.958. This finding shows that medium achievers did not make any significant improvement in the use of language learning strategy following reflection.

Regarding the employment of overall strategies after reflection, low achievers ranked second with a mean of 3.579, suggesting a relatively high level of use. This group of students employed the most number of strategies in the high frequency range with a mean ranging from 3.472 to 3.777. The most frequently used strategies were metacognitive strategies with a mean of 3.777. The second most frequently employed category was social strategy with a mean of 3.750, followed by the affective strategy category with a mean of 3.583, then compensation strategies with a mean of 3.541. For low achieving students, the least most frequently used strategies were memory strategies with a mean of 3.572. The only strategy category employed in the medium

frequency range was the cognitive strategy category with a mean of 3.357 suggesting moderate use. Low achievers were the most active users of the strategies, before and after reflection, as indicated by the overall means for before and after reflection that were3.461 and 3.580, respectively.

5.3.1.   The use of memory strategies after reflection

Although not significant, there was an improvement in the use of memory strategies after reflection. The increase in mean does not suggest any change in the employment of this strategy category; thus the use of these strategies by the students remained in the medium frequency range. Table 5.9 below shows the employment of these strategies in detail.

Table 5.9

The Use of Individual Language Learning Strategies within Memory Category after Reflection

No.	Individual Strategies within Memory Strategy	High Achievers		Medium Achievers		Low Achievers		Overall	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1.	I think of the relationship between what I already know and new things I learn in English.	3.500	0.577	3.500	0.577	3.500	1.000	3.500	0.674
2.	I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.	4.250	0.957	3.250	0.500	4.500	0.577	4.000	0.853
3.	I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.	3.250	1.708	3.250	0.957	4.000	0.816	3.500	1.168
4.	I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.	3.250	1.708	3.000	0.816	3.500	0.577	3.250	1.055
5.	I use rhymes to remember English words.	2.250	0.957	3.000	0.000	3.000	0.816	2.750	0.754
6.	I use flashcards to remember new English words.	2.750	1.708	3.500	0.577	3.000	0.816	3.083	1.084
7.	I physically act out new English words.	3.000	1.826	3.000	0.000	3.250	0.957	3.083	1.084
8.	I review English lessons often.	3.750	0.957	4.000	0.816	3.500	0.577	3.750	0.754

| 9. | I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign. | 3.000 | 0.816 | 3.750 | 0.500 | 3.000 | 1.414 | 3.250 | 0.965 |

As mentioned earlier there were nine individual strategies within this category. Among these nine strategies, *"I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them"*, was the most frequently used individual strategy in this category with an average of 4.000. Low achievers employed this strategy most with a mean of 4.500, followed by high achievers with a mean of 4.250. Meanwhile, medium achievers used this strategy with moderate frequency as indicated by a mean of 3.250. *"I review English lessons often"* was the second most frequently used strategy with a mean of 3.750. All three groups of students used this strategy at a high level of frequency with medium achievers positioned first followed by high achievers then low achievers. With a mean of 3.500, the individual strategy *"I think of the relationship between what I have already known and new things I learn in English"*, was third. High achievers, medium and low achievers averaged the same mean of 3.500 suggesting a high frequency level of use.

The individual strategy within this category which was used least frequently by the students was *"I use rhymes to remember English words"*. Its mean of 2.750 suggested a medium range of use. Both medium and low achievers used this strategy most often with means of 3.000 suggesting moderate use. Meanwhile, high achievers employed this strategy the least with a mean of 2.250 showing a low range of use.

5.3.2.   The use of cognitive strategies after reflection

There was a significant increase in the mean for the students' use of cognitive strategies after reflection. The results of the SILL survey showed that the students employed the cognitive strategies in the high frequency after reflection with a mean of 3.529. Before reflection they used

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these strategies at a moderate level with a mean of 3.407. In general, reflection contributed to the more frequent use of the strategies by the students. The details of the employment of the cognitive strategies are provided in table 5.10.

Table 5.10

The Use of Individual Language Learning Strategies within Cognitive Category after Reflection

No.	Individual Strategies within Cognitive Strategy	High Achievers		Medium Achievers		Low Achievers		Overall	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1.	I say or write new English words several times.	3.750	0.957	3.750	0.500	3.750	0.500	3.750	0.622
2.	I try to talk like native English speakers.	3.500	0.577	3.500	1.291	3.750	1.258	3.583	0.996
3.	I practise the sound of English.	4.250	0.500	3.250	0.500	4.000	0.816	3.833	0.718
4.	I use the English words I know in different ways.	3.750	0.957	3.250	0.957	3.000	0.816	3.333	0.888
5.	I start conversation in English.	3.750	0.500	3.500	1.291	3.250	0.957	3.500	0.905
6.	I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.	4.000	1.414	3.250	0.500	3.500	0.577	3.583	0.900
7.	I read for pleasure in English.	4.250	0.500	3.250	0.957	2.750	0.957	3.417	0.996
8.	I write notes, massages, letters, or reports in English.	4.000	1.414	3.000	0.816	3.500	0.577	3.500	1.000
9.	I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.	4.500	0.577	3.750	0.500	2.500	1.000	3.583	1.084
10	I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.	3.500	1.291	3.750	0.957	3.250	0.957	3.500	1.000
11	I try to find pattern in English.	3.250	1.500	3.500	1.291	3.500	0.577	3.417	1.084
12	I find the meaning of an	3.750	1.258	3.250	0.957	4.000	0.816	3.667	0.985

	English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.							
13	I try not to translate word-by-word.							
		4.000	0.816	3.250	0.957	3.000	1.155	3.417	0.996
14	I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.	3.000	1.414	3.750	0.957	3.250	0.957	3.333	1.073

Out of the fourteen individual strategies within the cognitive strategy category, *"I practise the sound of English"*, was the strategy students used most often exhibiting a mean of 3.833. High achievers and low achievers used this strategy with a high level of frequency, the means being 4.250 and 4.000 respectively. With a mean of 3.250, suggesting a medium range of use for this strategy, medium achievers demonstrated the lowest level of use of the three student groups. The second most highly used strategy was *"I say or write new English words several times"*, with a mean of 3.750 which is in the high range of use. Low, medium and high achievers obtained the same mean which was 3.750. With a mean of 3.667, *"I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that learners understand"*, was third most used individual strategy. Among the three groups, low achievers used this strategy most frequently with a mean of 4.000, followed by high achievers with a mean of 3.750, indicating a high level of use. Medium achievers used this strategy less frequently than the other two groups but their level of frequency of use was in the moderate scoring range.

The least frequently used strategy within the cognitive category was *"I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English"*, with a mean of 3.333. Of the three groups of students, medium achievers used this strategy most frequently exhibiting a mean of 3.750. Both low achievers and high achievers employed this strategy less frequently their means of 3.250 and 3.000, respectively, falling within the moderate scoring range,.

5.3.3. The use of compensation strategies after reflection

After reflection, the study's participants demonstrated a significant increase in their level of frequency of use regarding compensation strategies, with a mean of 3.708, compared with their pre-reflection mean of 3.407. Table 5.11 below presents the details of the employment of compensation strategies after reflection.

Table 5.11

The Use of Individual Language Learning Strategies within Compensation Category after Reflection

No.	Individual Strategies within Compensation Strategy	High Achievers		Medium Achievers		Low Achievers		Overall	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1.	To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.	4.250	0.957	4.000	0.816	3.500	1.291	3.917	0.996
2.	When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gesture.	4.750	0.500	3.750	0.500	4.000	0.816	4.167	0.718
3.	I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.	4.750	0.500	3.250	0.500	3.500	0.577	3.833	0.835
4.	I read English without looking up every new word.	3.500	1.732	3.500	0.577	3.000	0.816	3.333	1.073
5.	I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.	3.500	1.291	3.250	0.957	3.500	0.577	3.417	0.900
6.	If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.	5.000	0.000	2.000	0.816	3.750	0.957	3.583	1.443

Amongst the six individual strategies within the compensation strategies *"I use gesture when I cannot think of a word in English"*, was the most highly used as indicated by the overall mean of 4.167. High achievers used this strategy most frequently with average of 4.750, followed by medium achievers with a mean of 4.167, and low achievers with a mean of 4.000. With an average of 3.917, the strategy, *"To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses"* was the

second most frequently used strategy. All three groups of students used this strategy at a high level of frequency: high achievers were ranked first with a mean of 4.250, medium achievers were second with a mean of 4.000 and low achievers third with a mean of 3.500. The three means were in the highest scoring range. With a mean of 3.833, *"I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English"*, was the third individual strategy most favoured by the students. The means for high and low achievers regarding the frequency of usage of this strategy were 4.750 and 3.500 respectively. The mean for medium achievers was 3.250 suggesting a slightly less frequent level of use for this category.

The individual strategy within this category students used least was, *"I read English without looking up every new word"*, with a mean of 3.333 suggesting a medium level of frequency use. Both high and medium achievers demonstrated a mean of 3.500 suggesting a high range of usage. The mean for low achievers was 3.000 indicating a medium level of frequency of use.

5.3.4. The use of metacognitive strategies after reflection

There was an increase in the use of metacognitive strategies by the students after reflection: the post-reflection mean was 3.953, while the pre-reflection mean was 3.805. Both means are in the high range of frequency use. The following table explains the use of metacognitive students after reflection in more detail.

Table 5.12

The Use of Individual Language Learning Strategies within Metacognitive Category after Reflection

No.	Individual Strategies within Metacognitive Strategy	High Achievers		Medium Achievers		Low Achievers		Overall	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1.	I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.	4.750	0.500	3.500	0.577	3.750	1.258	4.000	0.953
2.	I notice my English mistakes	4.250	1.500	3.500	0.577	3.250	0.957	3.667	1.073

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and use that information to
help me do better.

3. I pay attention when someone
is speaking English.

4.250	1.500	3.750	1.258	3.750	0.500	3.917	1.084

4. I try to find out how to be a
better learner of English.

4.750	0.500	4.250	0.500	4.000	0.816	4.333	0.651

5. I plan my schedule so I will
have enough time to study
English.

6. I look for people I can talk to in
English.

4.000	0.816	4.250	0.957	3.500	1.291	3.917	0.996

4.000	0.816	2.750	1.258	4.000	1.414	3.583	1.240

7. I look for opportunities to read
as much as possible in English.

4.500	0.577	3.750	0.957	4.000	0.816	4.083	0.793

8. I have clear goals for improving
my English skills.

4.250	0.500	3.500	1.000	3.750	0.500	3.833	0.718

9. I think about my progress in
learning English.

4.750	0.500	4.000	0.816	4.000	0.000	4.250	0.622

After reflection all nine individual strategies within metacognitive strategy category were found to be highly used. *"I try to find out how to be a better learner of English"*, was the most favoured strategy out of all the individual strategies in this category with a mean of 4.333. In terms of frequency of use, high achievers ranked first with a mean of 4.750, followed by medium achievers with a mean of 4.250, and low achievers were third with a mean of 4.000. Each result demonstrated a comparatively high level of frequency of use. This finding suggests the higher the English proficiency of the students, the more frequently the students employed this strategy. The second most favoured individual strategy in the metacognitive category was, *"I think about my progress in learning English"*, with a mean of 4.250. Among the three groups of students, high achievers ranked first with a mean of 4.750, followed by both medium and low achievers each with a mean of 4.000. The third most favoured individual strategy in the metacognitive category was, *"I was looking for opportunities to read as much as possible"*, with an overall mean of 4.083.

With a mean of 4.500, high achievers were the most frequent users of this strategy, followed by low achievers with a mean of 4.000. The group of students that used this strategy the least was the medium achievers with a mean of 3.750. Given the comparatively high level of frequency of usage of the three preceding individual strategies, this suggests that these were the students' most favoured strategies in the metacognitive category.

Within this category the individual strategy, *"I look for people I can talk to in English"* was the least frequently used with an overall mean of 3.583. Of the three student groups, both high and low achievers used this strategy most often each with a mean of 4.000, showing a comparatively high range of use. Nevertheless, with a mean of 2.750, medium achievers employed this strategy less frequently.

5.3.5.   The use of affective strategies after reflection

There was a significant increase in the use of affective strategies by the students after reflection although from a medium use frequency: the pre-reflection overall mean was 3.083 with a post-reflection overall mean of 3.375. Both means were in the medium range of frequency. Detailed information about the employment of individual strategies within the affective strategy category is provided in Table 5.13.

Table 5.13

The Use of Individual Language Learning Strategies within Affective Category after Reflection

No.	Individual Strategies within Affective Strategy	High Achievers		Medium Achievers		Low Achievers		Overall	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1.	I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.	4.750	0.500	4.000	0.816	4.250	0.500	4.333	0.651
2.	I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.	4.500	0.577	3.500	0.577	3.500	0.577	3.833	0.718

3. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.	2.750	1.708	2.750	1.708	3.750	1.258	3.083	1.505
4. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.	3.750	1.258	3.000	1.414	2.750	0.957	3.167	1.193
5. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.	1.500	0.577	3.500	0.577	3.250	1.500	2.750	1.288
6. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.	2.500	1.291	2.750	1.708	4.000	0.816	3.083	1.379

As mentioned earlier, there were six individual strategies within affective strategy category. After reflection, out of the six strategies, *"I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English"*, was most favoured among students across different levels of English proficiency with an overall mean of 4.333 suggesting a high range of use. High achievers used this strategy most frequently with an average of 4.750, followed by low achievers with a mean 4.250, then medium achievers with a mean of 4.000. The strategy of, *"I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake"*, was the students second most favoured individual strategy with a mean of 3.833 falling within the higher level of frequency usage. With an average of 4.500, high achievers ranked first followed by both medium and low achievers each with the same mean of 3.500. These two strategies were those most favoured by the students after reflection.

The strategy of, *"I write down my feelings in a language learning diary"*, was the least frequently used strategy within this category with an overall mean of 2.750 falling within the medium range of frequency usage. As indicated by a mean of 3.500, medium achievers used this strategy with a comparatively high frequency rate compared with the other two groups of students. The mean for low achievers was 3.250, indicating a moderate level of frequency use. High achievers used this strategy less frequently with a mean of 1.500 indicating a low level of frequency use. It indicates that writing diary as a language learning strategy is popular among the

participants with low and medium levels of English proficiency but not well accepted among the participants with high English proficiency.

5.3.6.   The use of social strategies after reflection

After reflection there was an observable increase in the students overall level of employment of social strategies when compared with their pre-reflection overall level of use: the means were 3.555 and 3.236 respectively, in high frequency, suggested by the mean the students achieved (mean 3.555). Table 5.14 below provides detailed information about the employment of social strategies after reflection.

Table 5.14

The Use of Individual Language Learning Strategies within Social Category after Reflection

No.	Individual Strategies within Social Strategy	High Achievers		Medium Achievers		Low Achievers		Overall	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1.	If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.	4.750	0.500	3.750	0.957	4.250	0.957	4.250	0.866
2.	I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.	4.250	1.500	2.500	1.291	3.750	1.258	3.500	1.446
3.	I practise English with other students.	4.500	0.577	3.250	0.500	4.000	0.816	3.917	0.793
4.	I ask for help from English speakers.	3.500	1.291	2.500	1.732	3.750	1.258	3.250	1.422
5.	I ask questions in English.	3.250	0.957	3.000	0.816	3.250	0.957	3.167	0.835
6.	I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.	3.500	0.577	2.750	1.258	3.500	1.000	3.250	0.965
	Overall	3.820	0.968	3.370	0.852	3.550	0.879	3.580	0.976

Among the six individual strategies included in this category, the strategy of, *"If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again"*, was the students' most favoured strategy with an average of 4.250 suggesting a high range of use. High achievers used this strategy most frequently with a mean of 4.750, followed by low achievers with a mean of 4.250, then medium achievers with an average of 3.750. *"I practise English with other students"* with an overall mean of 3.917 was the students' second most favoured strategy, also suggesting a comparatively high level of frequency usage. High achievers recorded a high level of frequency with a mean of 4.500, followed by low achievers with a mean of 4.000 also suggesting a comparatively a high level of use. With an average of 3.250 medium achievers registered a lower level compared with the other two groups. The strategy of, *"I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk"*, was the third most favoured individual strategy in the social category with an overall mean of 3.500. The mean for high achievers was 4.250, followed by low achievers with a mean of 3.750. Medium achievers used this strategy least frequently with a mean of 2.500 indicating a medium level of use.

Out of the six individual strategies within this category, *"I ask questions in English"*, was the least used strategy with an overall mean of 3.167 suggesting a medium level of use. High achievers and low achievers recorded the same level of frequency of use, each with a mean of 3.250 while medium achievers showed a lower level of use for this strategy with a mean of 3.000.

Out of the fifty individual strategies across different categories, six strategies were highly used. Two of these strategies were within the metacognitive strategy category: these strategies were , *"I try to find out how to be a better learner of English"* with a mean of 4.333 (sd = 0.651), and *"I think about my progress in learning English"* with a mean of 4.250 (sd = 0.622). There were two individual strategies, in the affective strategy category, which registered comparatively high levels of usage both having a mean of 4.333: these two strategies were, *"I try to relax whenever I*

am afraid of using English", and *"I try to find out how to be a better learner of English"*. In the social strategy category, the individual strategy, "*I ask the other person to slow down or say it again when I do not understand something in English*", with an average of 4.250 was another strategy with a high level of frequency usage. The last individual strategy showing a high level of frequency usage was, *"I use a gesture when I cannot think of a word during conversation in English"*; the mean for this strategy was 4.167. All three groups of students, high, medium and low proficiency, used all of these strategies at a high level of frequency. However, comparisons between the three groups of students show that, high achievers employed these strategies most frequently (m=3.826), followed by low achievers (m=3.580) and then the middle achievers (m=3.330).

5.4   Discussion

Some interesting findings are worth being discussed resulting from the above analysis in this chapter. These findings deal with the students' employment of English learning strategies before and after reflection.

5.4.1.   Students' favourite learning strategies

In general, students with high English proficiency levels used a wider range of English learning strategies at higher levels of frequency. This finding is in line with a number studies (Bialystok and Frohlich, 1978; Takeuchi, 1993; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Park 1997; Rohani, 2011) which reveal that students with high levels of proficiency employ more strategies, and use these more often. Bialystok and Frohlich (1978) found that the factors of aptitude, strategy, attitude and field independence correlated with achievement, but strategy use and aptitude proved to be significant in predicting performance. They also discovered learning strategy use functioned as an important way to increase proficiency. In his study, Park (1997) investigated three groups of students with different levels of English proficiency and their learning strategies,

and correlated them. He found that students with the lowest proficiency levels (TOEFL score of 435 out of 610) averaged the lowest mean of learning strategy use at 2.76, suggesting a low frequency of strategy use. Students with medium levels of English proficiency (TOEFL score of 453) recorded a medium mean of 3.20, showing moderate use of strategies, and students with the highest levels of English proficiency (TOEFL score 474) used learning strategies most frequently, with an averaged mean of 3.70. Meanwhile, Rohani (2011) reported that high achieving students employed strategies for coping with speaking problems at a high frequency with a mean of 3.693, followed by medium achievers who used the strategies less frequently registering a mean of 3.620, and low achievers who scored a mean of 3.541. Referring to Oxford's criteria, as presented at the beginning of this chapter, these means suggest a high frequency of language learning strategies use.

Students in the present study not only used English language learning strategies more numerously, and more frequently than these researchers found, before they carried out reflection but also after reflection. However, students with low English proficiency levels used more strategies, and used these more frequently than students with a medium level of English proficiency. This finding is interesting as there is no general tendency in terms of English proficiency level of the learners with the number of strategies being employed, and the frequency of use. This contradicts Rohani's (2011) conclusion which contended that the higher the level of student proficiency, the higher the level of strategy use and the more often the strategies are employed. Nevertheless, the finding corroborates with Politzer and MacGroarty (1985) who found no correlation between proficiency and strategy use. In addition, the finding supports the research outcomes of Oxford and Ehrman (1995) which found low correlations between strategy use and proficiency level. This result is also in line with Shmais (2003) who investigated how gender and proficiency correlated with strategy use. At the end of the study, she found there was no correlation between gender and English proficiency and strategy use. The outcome that this

present study, and the studies of Politzer and MacGroarty, Oxford and Ehrman and Shmains do not show any correlation, or exhibit low correlation between strategy use and proficiency, indicates that factors other than learning strategy might have contributed positively to the students' proficiency.

A more granular analysis of the categories of learning strategies considered by the students before reflection, shows that the metacognitive strategy category was used at a high frequency level with a mean of 3.805. The other categories were utilised at a medium range of frequency with means ranging from 3.083–3.407 (SD ranging from 0.889 to 1.219). This finding is quite surprising as the metacognitive strategy is within the indirect types of strategies, whereas students participating in this study are those majoring in English. As explained in Chapter Four, the participants of this study are in an English education study program, and are preparing themselves to be English teachers after they finish their study. Therefore, logically they have to learn to be proficient English teachers. Indirect strategies including metacognitive, affective and social strategies are supportive in nature. It means these strategies do not directly affect the improvement of the competence of learners but rather they "provide indirect support for language learning through focussing, planning, evaluating, seeking opportunities, controlling anxiety, increasing cooperation and empathy and other means" (Oxford 1990, p. 151). As students majoring in English language, the research literature suggests that direct strategies should have been exercised more extensively than the indirect types. The direct strategies unequivocally involve the target language requiring mental processing of the language. Furthermore, each of the direct strategies does this processing differently, and for different purposes (Oxford 1990).

There are several reasons why direct strategies like memory, cognitive and compensation strategies were not favoured highly by these participants. Among others are class size, unconducive learning environments, and unit load per semester. The number of students in non-

skill classes such as the research methodology class was around 60 students whereas skill classes like listening and speaking was around 25 to 30 students. Twenty five students in a skill class especially for one focussed on speaking skills in a foreign language is far too large for this to happen effectively; students would not have sufficient time to implement their cognitive strategies, like practising their English in class with their friends or the teacher. The tight schedule to rush from one class to another due to the number of credits taken did not allow them to have ample time to communicate in English with their friends. Non-native English students and lecturers who preferred speaking in Indonesian languages in campus would also have served to discourage them from speaking in the target language. Their fellow students, in particular could develop negative perceptions towards students who speak in English, not only because they could not speak English but also they were apprehensive about being considered boastful (S. Dardjowidjojo, 2012). The absence of a public space where students could get together to practise their English without distraction and disturbance from others might have become a serious challenge for these EFL students. Consequently the English students would hesitate and feel reluctant to practise their English for real communication purposes.

Their career orientation to be an English teacher might be one of the reasons why they favoured metacognitive strategies best. As English teachers they would be expected to be able to teach English professionally and teach their students how to best learn English. Therefore, they had to know how to plan effective English learning, how to monitor it and how to increase opportunities to facilitate learning. This knowledge is not only important for them but also for their future students. This is not taught as part of their EFL education program by their educators at Laskar Pelangi University.

After their reflections in their journals a significant change was observed. In general, all strategy categories increased in terms of frequency use as mirrored in the improved means of all

categories ranging from a low of 0.072 to a high of 0.485. After reflection, two direct strategy categories, compensation and cognitive strategies, improved as shown by increased means of 0.708 and 0.529 respectively, suggesting a higher level of frequency use. Two of the indirect strategies, metacognitive and social strategies, also improved as indicated by the increased means of 0.148 and 0.316 respectively, suggesting a higher level of frequency of use.

As has been explained in Chapter 2 (Section 2.9) of the literature review, the reflection that the students carried out provided them with the opportunity to take over experience, contemplate it over and over again, and assess it (Boud, Keogh et al. 1985). What the students in this study did was that they joined English skill classes and followed the teaching and learning process in a normal way. During this process, they might have encountered problems possibly due to their own capabilities, their lecturers' methods of teaching, or distraction from their friends. Obviously, these students built up strategies to solve the problems which might have ended successfully or unsuccessfully. Reflection was the time when they purposefully thought over processes and problems, evaluated them and formulated constructive solutions for future similar situations (Loughran, 1996). Reflection is believed to have a significant power in assisting learners to recognize their beliefs and then provide them with an opportunity to evaluate and possibly modify these beliefs. These beliefs include their presumed knowledge about how to learn a new language best (Pajares, 1993). This study has shown that the implementation of reflection has managed to strengthen learners' beliefs about the importance of strategy use in approaching English language learning and therefore, the frequency use of the strategies improved.

Before reflection, the metacognitive category was the only category for which the students demonstrated a high level of frequency. However, after reflection compensation, cognitive, and social strategies also recorded high frequency levels of utilisation. The finding that the metacognitive strategy category was the most favoured category before, and after, reflection

supports previous studies (Sugeng 2004; Lengkanawati,2004; Mattarima & Hamdan,2011; Judge,2012). Sugeng (2004) reported that the metacognitive category was the most favoured category for Indonesian learners (mean=3.4430). In Sugeng's study, although this mean belonged to the medium range of frequency of use, it was the highest among the other strategy categories which ranged from 2.8571 for social strategy category to 3.3026 for the affective strategy category. In her study aiming at finding out the differences between the learning strategies employed by Indonesian EFL learners and Australian IFL (Indonesian as a Foreign Language) learners, Lengkanawati (2004) identified the metacognitive strategy category as being the most favoured category not only for Indonesian learners who studied English, but also for Australian learners who studied Indonesian. Meanwhile, Mattarima and Hamdan (2011) demonstrated that students participating in their study favoured the metacognitive category using it most frequently when compared with the other strategy categories. Judge (2012) discovered that the metacognitive strategy category was also one of the strategies favoured by Spanish business people who used English for business communication. In this study, Judge reported that the social, cognitive and metacognitive strategy categories were employed by the participants whereas other categories such as memory, affective and compensation strategy categories were not employed.

Participants in this study are university students as were the participants in Lengkanawati's study. Sugeng's participants were university students in Bachelor, Masters and Post-graduate programs. These participants could be categorized as adult learners. Therefore, this finding also supports Sugeng's (2004) study which found that adult learners preferred the metacognitive strategies. By comparison, Mattarima and Hamdan's participants were senior high school students and belonged to a teenagers' group. This group of students could be categorized as young adults thus their preference for metacognitive strategies is understandable as these strategies require mental processing which can be committed by adult learners. Thus, it can be concluded that metacognitive strategies were very popular among adult language learners. Being

matured learners, they had more capabilities to set their learning goals, manage their learning and employ learning strategies which fit with their interest. Furthermore, adult learners who were expecting to be professional English teachers were aware that they had to possess both English competence and teaching competence and be able to guide their students how to approach language learning effectively. The choice of metacognitive strategies as their preferred strategy reflects their awareness of the need to prepare for their future career.

Among the six English learning strategy categories, metacognitive strategy was most preferred before reflection and this was maintained after reflection. Students seemed to be consistent in using this strategy at a high frequency level. The high frequency use of metacognitive strategies among Indonesian learners is similar to that observed among students from other Asian and non-Western countries like Japan, China, Taiwan and Palestine as reported in some of the studies on Asian students (e.g. Oxford 1990; Shmais 2003).

The comparatively high use of compensation strategies after reflection seems to relate to the learners being students majoring in English education. These students are expected to be competent and professional English teachers to teach English from primary school to university levels of education; therefore, their level of English competence is their first priority. Oxford (1990) asserts that compensation strategies deal with the ways students find to overcome knowledge limitations in all language skills. Compensation strategy is one of the direct strategies which require mental processing of the language. This strategy, which includes individual strategies such as guessing or using synonyms, gives learners the chance to use the language although they may have an inadequate knowledge of the target language. Some of the characteristics of a good language learner, as Rubin (1975) observes are that the learner is willing to guess, has a strong motivation to communicate, and to learn from this communication. As a result, when confronted by a linguistic problem a learner will make use of their existing knowledge

to solve it (Rubin 1975). This process of problem solving of 'knowledge shortage' through individually developed ways exercises the mental process of language learning which eventually leads to the learners augmenting their language competence.

The overall mean for the compensation strategies after reflection was 3.708 which was 0.329 higher than that before reflection. Before reflection this strategy was in a medium range of use whereas after reflection it was in the high frequency range. This finding, which places this strategy category second, appears to contradict Shmais' (2003) observation which found this strategy category to be at the second lowest rank (out of six). It could be argued that the increasing frequency of use of the compensation strategy resulted from the students recalling their main goal for being in the English education program after reflection. Their goal is as explained above to be English teachers. Therefore, being competent in English was a high priority in order to be successful in their future careers. As a consequence this strategy category became more favoured after reflection.

5.4.2. Socializing and its challenges

Another strategy which was also employed by the students at a high frequency level after reflection was the social strategy. Although this strategy belongs to the indirect strategy group, it provides very strong support for the development of language competence. This strategy category encourages learners to be more exposed to English speaking communities by asking their conversation partner to slow down or repeat what he or she has said, to correct him or her when making mistakes, asking for help, asking questions, and learning about the target culture (Oxford 1990). In short, this strategy category allows the learners to make use of language they have learned in real communication and in real settings. This finding supports the study of Samad, Singh et al. (2010) who found that the social strategy category was the strategy category regularly employed by the students participating in their study. Stern (1975) identified some of the

strategies commonly adopted by a good language learner relevant to this finding. These strategies include: a practice strategy by which learners realize that learning a language is a relatively long process, and that being fluent requires constant practice.

Communication strategy deals with the willingness of the learner to make use of the language s/he has learnt in real communication with people who can speak the language. Before reflection, the overall mean of this strategy category was 3.007 but after reflection it was 3.555. Students made the biggest change in this strategy category with an increased mean of 0.485. Before reflection this category was last (sixth) with a medium frequency of use but after reflection, it was third and belonged to one of the most highly used strategy categories. Another interpretation can be made about this finding is that reflection has managed to make the students realize the importance of practice in real communication to boost their levels of English proficiency. Most of the students in this study believe that practice is very important, and that learning English without real practice is useless, and will not be successful. The data taken from interviews with Sartika (See Section 6.1.1.2) and Febriatmanto, for example, confirmed this claim.

"Practice is very important, it is more important than theory because practice

will form a habit." (Interview/Febriatmanto)

Sartika believed that practice was important because if a student understood (for example grammar) however did not practise, s/he would forget. With practice, she explained that a language learner would be more capable and fluent in English. Febriatmanto shared this belief and added that practice was more important than theory because it forms good habits. These students, and others like Jeffry, Novie and Febriana (See Section 6.1.1.2), believe that practice facilitates language learning and that it gradually enhances their competence and proficiency in

the language they are learning. This is in line with one of the characteristics of a good language learner, as identified by Rubin (1975), that the good language learners practise.

Before reflection, the social strategy category was the least frequently used strategy. This finding corroborates with the results of Lengkanawaty's (2004) investigation that Indonesian learners lack this strategy. She assumed that the cultural and social backgrounds of the Indonesian learners contributed to this finding. She hypothesised that the cultural environment within the family in which parents are very dominant, causes children to be hesitant in speaking. In some traditional and conservative families, looking at their parents' face is even considered impolite let alone talking back to them. To some extent, Lengkanawaty's assumption might be right. However, there are other reasons why this strategy may be considered unpopular. Among other reasons, there is an unsupportive learning environment in their University. Some students do not want to practise with other students because they are afraid that people might consider them boastful. Septi, one of the high achievers, for example, confessed she did not feel comfortable practising English with her friends. She added that the environment where she lived (her boarding house) did not provide enough support for her to keep speaking English. She was certain about her feeling that her friends would consider her arrogant if she spoke English. In other word there was always a stigma attached to a person who spoke English in non-English environment as a boastful person. Being boastful in an Indonesian context is definitely seen as cultural inappropriate (citation needed for this claim). This labelling would have served to discourage her from practising her English and therefore hindering her learning progress.

The above phenomenon indicates that English may be considered as the language of 'smart' people and that it is only 'smart' people who speak this language 'worth showing off' (my own term). Septi was not comfortable with the negative attitude of her housemates in regard with her speaking English in the house and therefore she preferred not to speak English with them.

Although she was aware that such decision would not facilitate her English learning process, but it would keep the harmonious relationship between her and her friends. This seems to contradict with her beliefs about the importance of practice in learning English.

"Practice is so important. Theory without practice is nonsense." (Interview/Septi)

She believed that practice through English conversation was very significant as it could enhance her English learning progress however this was a challenge that impeded her efforts. In this case there should be a possibility of a negotiation between what she really wanted as reflected in her belief with the current situation. As the data revealed, the absence of English learning awareness among her housemates did not allow her to speak in English and consequently she had to find this opportunity in campus and among her friends who have similar commitment for English proficiency improvement. Therefore it can be concluded that while a belief is one thing how this is put into practice is another.

The majority of the students shared their beliefs that practice in learning English made a significant contribution to enhancing their English proficiency. They argued that practice was the key to success in learning English. As one of the strategies within the social category, practice with friends was favoured by students. In the interview, however, not all students confirmed what they had stated in the survey. From data collected through interviews it was found that there were reasons why some students were hesitant to practise while others were not. Feeling apprehensive of making mistakes and insufficient knowledge of English were often claimed as reasons. For example, Febriatmanto, one of the medium achievers, acknowledged that he was anxious when speaking in English because he was worried that he would make grammatical mistakes when he said "Since semester one until now I am afraid of speaking in English. Actually, I want to speak, but I am afraid of making mistakes ". Novie, another medium achiever, also stated she was hesitant to

practise writing in English because she was concerned about making grammatical mistakes "I do not practise writing because I am afraid of making grammatical mistakes".

Their acknowledgments of this hesitation regarding practice, due to being apprehensive about making mistakes was supported by their beliefs about the importance of grammar. All students in this study believed that grammar and vocabulary were very important. They considered these two components so crucial that without sufficient knowledge of grammar and vocabulary, they would not be able to communicate in English. What was even more difficult for them was that they were worried that people would laugh at them if they made mistakes.

This finding is in line with Malik's (2012) conclusion in his study that grammar and vocabulary are two components that influence students' lack of proficiency leading to a lack of fluency. He found that insufficient knowledge of grammar rules, and their application in verbal speech, contributed to the students being unable to speak fluently. Lack of vocabulary was found to be the second factor causing hesitation to speak as they had to repeat the same word or phrases they had uttered before.

5.4.3. Students' perceptions on English speaking context

Stern argues that the social context of language learning, in which the environment is included, exerts a "powerful influence" on the success of language learning (1983, p.269). Therefore, students should be encouraged to make use of the environment to boost their English proficiency. When asked about the idea of learning English in English speaking countries, almost all the students in this study agreed and argued that this way of learning English would be most beneficial. One participant in this current study, for example, confessed that the environment in which she lived did not support her in speaking English. She was convinced that if she was in an English speaking environment, like it or not, she must speak English. She also believed that in such

an environment the 'no English, no service' rule would apply. Another participant argued that it might be better to study English in English speaking countries. She added that language learners could mingle with native speakers and sooner or later they would get used to speaking in the target language. They believed that such total immersion would provide a powerful force to the learners to make use of the target language for practice in real communication. This is the consequence of being isolated in an English speaking community in which speaking in the target language is not a choice but s a necessity, otherwise they cannot survive.

The students' belief about the significance of an English environment in facilitating language learning is in line with Rogoff's (1990) theory of guided participation based on Vygotsky's (1978) earlier work on the Zone of Proximal Development as well as Lave and Wenger's (1998) community of practice model. As has been explored in Section 1.13 about guided participation theory, learners actively acquire new skills and problem solving capabilities through their participation in meaningful activities alongside more experienced community members. In an English speaking environment each member of the community will perform as resourceful and meaningful learning partners assisting others to acquire intellectual development. The community members will give verbal and non-verbal guidance, as well as more subtle direction, through the arrangement and organization of their interaction with the environment. The active role of the learners, in learning through their social interaction, enables them to acquire language skills in relatively shorter periods of time compared with being in a non-English speaking community.

5.4.4.   Students' employment of direct strategies

Cognitive strategy category, which was used in medium frequency before reflection, was also used at a high level of proficiency after reflection. Before reflection, the finding was similar to that observed by Mistar (2002) and Shmais (2003). Mistar found that the mean of this strategy category was 3.24 and belonged to the medium level of frequency. What Shmais (2003)

discovered was also similar to findings from this current research. He found that the cognitive strategy category was at the fifth order of frequency use with a mean of 3.24, suggesting medium frequency of use. The unpopularity of this strategy category, as found in Mistar's study, can be traced back to the characteristics of the students participating in the study who were not only those taking English as a major, but also those who took majors other than English in a similar proportion. However, students participating in this current study, and in Shmais' study, were those taking English as a major course only. This finding is quite interesting as it is similar to that of mixed major students. It indicates that by nature, in learning English, students employ mental processes through such strategies as saying or writing English words several times, trying to talk like native English speakers, practising the sounds of English, using English words, starting conversations, watching English TV programs or English movies, and reading for pleasure. Another interesting finding is that reflection has managed to improve students' preference in using this strategy. The increased mean of 0.250 has moved this strategy category from a medium frequency of use to a high level of frequency of use. It shows that the reflection the students performed may have increased their awareness of the role of this direct strategy in enhancing their English competence. As Thorpe (2004) argued, when students are engaged in critical thinking, they tend to develop insights, not only into the concepts but also the learning process as well.

Memory strategy category was found to be the least popular after reflection with a mean of 3.352, suggesting a medium use of frequency. This mean had increased by 0.043 when compared with the pre-reflection mean. This increase was also found to be the lowest increase for all of the categories after reflection. This finding disagrees with Politzer and McGroarty's (1985) findings regarding this strategy category: they found that this strategy category is a strongly preferred strategy among Asian students. LoCastro (1994) who investigated learning strategies among Japanese learners also found similar results, for example, memorization became the main learning strategy employed by Japanese students. The result of this current study supports

Lengkanawati's (1997) finding that this strategy category ranked second lowest in relation to its level of use by students who were also majoring in English. Another study confirming similar results was conducted by Lunt (2000) who found memory strategies to be used at the lowest frequency level by students with different nationality backgrounds including Chinese, Khmer and Vietnamese who represented half of the study's sample. In an investigation of learning strategies among Palestinian students, Shmais (2003) also found memory strategy to be unpopular with a mean of 3.20 taking the second lowest position of all strategy categories. Another investigation in relation to learning strategies conducted amongst Indonesian students by Mistar (2002) also found the memory strategy category to be unpopular with a mean of 3.13, positioning it at the second lowest level of use.

5.4.5. Impact of reflection on individual strategies

Among individual strategies which increased most significantly in terms of frequency use is the strategy, *"When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gesture"*, one of the strategies within compensation strategy category. This strategy was used at a medium level of frequency with a mean of 3.333 before reflection and was used at a higher level of frequency after reflection with a mean of 4.167. The increased mean was 0.834, the highest increase among individual strategies of all categories. These figures were higher than those found by Mistar (2002) for which the mean was 3.11 and for those resulting from the research of Heo, et al. (2012), for which the mean was 3.74.

These findings are self-explanatory as participants of this current study were English majors, meanwhile those participating in Mistar's study were undertaking mixed study programs. But, when the mean for the current study (4.167) is compared with the mean of 3.74, for the same strategy in the study conducted by Heo, Stoffa, and Kush (2012), the self-explanatory argument is not acceptable. The participants in Hoe's study were mostly ESL learners. The majority (49%) of

these participants identified themselves as advanced ESL students, 19.2% intermediate, 9.6% beginners and 22.1% did not identify their ESL status. The fact that Hoe's participants were Korean immigrants who came to USA as teenagers might explain this phenomenon. The students in Heo's study moved to the USA to live, not specifically to study English. These students may have felt that they would acquire English language skills as they lived in an English speaking community (see above in relation to immersion). The participants of the current study were majoring in English for the purpose of becoming English teachers. Consequently, it is assumed that the latter group of students would be more motivated to learn English, and therefore, utilized this strategy more frequently leading to a higher mean after reflection.

Gesturing is a natural and integral component of normal spoken expression (Efron, 1941; Birdwhistell, 1952; Kendon, 1972; Argyle, 1975 as cited in Orton 2007). It seemed students were aware that the impact of gesture in language learning was significant. It helped learners to communicate with other people, not only when they had a linguistic problem, but also to make the delivery of message more convincing. Orton (2007) reported that as a result of years of close observation of the use of gesture by human beings, using the technologies of video, computers, and neurological scanning, a new understanding of gesture was formed. Spontaneous use of gesture plays a significant role in a natural learning process, assisting the learner to grasp concepts, develop skills, and store new knowledge—including new language—in any field. As students who are majoring in English education, and preparing themselves to be English language teachers, these students realized that using gestures in communication could solve communication breakdowns, assist in the achievement of communication objectives, and improve their English competence. Again, reflection shifted their preference for the use of this strategy from medium frequency to high frequency.

The second highest increase in a mean is in response to the statement, *"I think of the relationship between what I already know and new things I learn in English"*, one of the individual strategies within the memory strategy category. The increase in the mean was 0.667 representing the difference between the before and after reflection means of 2.833 and 3.500, respectively. Before reflection, students used this strategy within the medium frequency range while after reflection it recorded a high level frequency of use. The after reflection mean is a little higher than that observed by Mistar (2002) whose study registered a mean of 3.43 for this strategy. However, the findings for both the current study and Mistar's work are below that observed by Heo, et.al. (2012) which was 3.59 suggesting a high level of use. This strategy exercises memory capacity as well as the analysis competence of the learners and is within the direct strategy category. By employing this strategy more often, learners develop the potential to exploit the language they study, in their memory through making mental linkages (Oxford 1990).

The strategy, *"I look for people I can talk to in English"*, is within the metacognitive strategy category. After reflection, this strategy became more favoured by the students, as indicated by an increased mean of 0.666 after reflection. Before reflection, this strategy was employed at the medium frequency level of use with a mean of 2.917. After reflection, it was used at a higher frequency rate with a mean of 3.583. After reflection, the mean was also a marginally higher than that observed by Mistar (2002) who found the mean to be 3.54. Compared to that observed by Heo, et al. (2012), before reflection the mean in the current study was a little lower but the mean after reflection was much higher. Heo et.al. (2012) found that Korean immigrants who identified as ESL learners employed this strategy at a medium level of frequency resulting in a mean of 2.97. This strategy suggests learners' efforts to find opportunities for real English practice. The data from the interviews confirms that all the students consider English speaking practice as a paramount factor in improving their language competence. The increase in the mean also suggests that reflection prompted the students to rethink their ideas about the importance of practising

English with other people and to acknowledge that using this strategy could improve their levels of English proficiency.

The individual strategy with the fourth highest increase in the mean was, *"I try to guess what the other person will say next in English"*, the increase being 0.584. Before reflection, the mean was 2.833; after reflection it was 3.417. Both means signal a medium frequency of use although after reflection, the mean was closer to the high level of use and showed a significant change. These findings correlate with the studies conducted by Mistar (2002) and Heo et.al. (2012) which found that this particular strategy was used at a medium level of frequency. The mean registered by Mistar was 3.11 whereas that of Heo's study was 3.23. The use of this strategy sharpens the students' listening skills and increases awareness of their intuitive potentials. It would appear that reflection has encouraged students to evaluate their previous performance leading to the application of a better strategy.

Another individual strategy with an increased mean of 0.583 is *"I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English"*. This strategy is within the metacognitive strategy category which is reported to be the most favoured favourite strategy in many studies (for example, Mistar, 2002; Sugeng, 1997). Before reflection, the mean was 3.500 and after reflection, it was 4.083 a significant change. These means belong to the high level frequency of use with the mean positioned at the lower end of the scale. Data from the interviews also supports this finding with most students from all ranges of proficiency liking reading both paper-based and internet-based materials. Can you cite a few examples here of their words.

Exposure to English texts is beneficial for students in areas such as improving their vocabularies, developing analytical thinking, and cultivating their memories and writing skills. The

mean for this finding is much higher than the means recorded by Mistar (2002) and Heo et.al. (2012) which were 3.41 and 3.09 respectively.

5.5   Conclusion

In conclusion, both before and after reflection, students with high English proficiency levels used a wider range of English learning strategies, and at higher levels of frequency, when compared with students with medium and low levels of English language proficiency as reflected or not by previous studies. Furthermore, students with low levels of English proficiency used a greater number of language learning strategies, and applied them more frequently, than students with medium levels of English proficiency. So at least in this study there is no general tendency in terms of English proficiency level with the number of strategies being employed and the frequency of use. The wider range of SDs as found in many of the students' responses on language learning strategies indicate that some students favoured particular strategies while others did not.

Reflection is believed to have significant power in helping learners recognize their beliefs, and then providing them with the opportunity to evaluate and possibly modify such beliefs (Loughran, 1996). These beliefs include the learners' presumed knowledge about the best methods for learning a new language (Pajares 1993). Before reflection, only one of the six strategy categories, metacognitive was used at the high frequency level. Meanwhile, after reflection students used four of the strategy categories at the high frequency level. These four strategies were the metacognitive, compensation, cognitive, and social strategies. Consequently, it can be suggested that reflection contributed to changes in learners' beliefs leading to them employing more strategies, and using these strategies more frequently. Regarding the employment of strategies before reflection, high achievers used four of the strategy categories in high frequency, medium achievers used only one strategy category and low achievers employed two strategy

categories in high frequency. After reflection low achievers used six strategy categories at the high rate of frequency whereas high achievers used four strategy categories in high frequency. Meanwhile, medium achievers only used one in high rate of frequency. Therefore this study also confirms that there is no relationship between the proficiency level of the students with the frequency use of the learning strategies. Although not all strategy categories were employed in high frequency after reflection, the means of all the strategy categories increased, suggesting more frequent use. Further research with a larger sample would be required to confirm these results.

Among the six English learning strategy categories, the metacognitive strategy was most preferred before reflection out and it was maintained after reflection. Students seemed to be consistent in using this strategy in high frequency. Although this strategy category was highly used before and after reflection, the students employed the strategies within this category more frequently after reflection. Further research with a larger sample would be required to confirm these results.

In term of individual strategy use, the strategy of *"I pay attention when someone is speaking English"* was most favoured before reflection. However, after reflection students preferred strategies of *"I try to find out how to be a better learner of English"* and *"I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English"*. The first two individual strategies above were within metacognitive strategy category whereas the other belongs to affective strategy category. Therefore there was a change in the preference of individual strategy before and after reflection although one of the new strategies was still within the same strategy category. Reflection may have led them to rethink of their existing strategies and eventually it managed to make the students realized that as English teachers to be they need to know more about how to be better

learners of English. Further research with a larger sample would be required to confirm these results.

This chapter has explored the response to research question number one which deals with the students' language learning strategies based on the list of fifty strategies, as formulated by Oxford (1990). This profile compares the strategy use before and after reflection. The chapter commenced with the employment of the learning strategies by categories and continues with a discussion of the use of the individual strategies in each category. The next chapter will deal with the response to research question number two which is concerned with the nature of the learners' belief about, and choice of, language learning strategies.

CHAPTER VI

Learners' Beliefs and their Choice of Language

Learning Strategies

This chapter provides answers to research question Number Two which is concerned with the nature of learners' beliefs about language learning strategies, and learners' choices of language learning strategies. Each of these issues will be discussed based on data collected through interviews, and supported by data from the students' learning journals and survey. All of the data will be triangulated to ensure validity before interpretation and discussion are carried out. The first section of the chapter presents the data from each of the research sources. A comprehensive discussion of the issues arising from the data constitutes the chapter's second section.

6.1. Learners Beliefs about Language Learning Strategies

6.1.1 Learners beliefs about practice. The data presented and analysed in this section shows that learners' beliefs about practice are dominated by three themes which are prioritizing practice over theory, practice as a means to improve fluency, and practice as a way to assess proficiency.

6.1.1.1 *Prioritizing practice over theory.*

Most students dichotomised practice and theory and thus believed that every kind of knowledge could be considered as either practice-related, or theory-based. The subjects offered in the English Education Study Program are both theory-based subjects such as vocabulary, grammar

and textbook and curriculum analysis, and practice-related subjects such as speaking and writing. The majority of the students emphasized that practice was more important than theory.

Jeffry and Septi expressed more interest in language practice over theoretical knowledge. Here are their words:

> Practice is more important than theory because people who are good at theory are not necessarily fluent (in speaking) or successful in English. So there should be a balance (between them). Theory first, and then practice! (The words in brackets are added by the writer to explain more fully what the student really means). (Interview /Jeffry)

As pointed out previously (p. 198) Septi commented that practice is very important. For her, theory without practice is just useless.

Zendy, for example, compared practice and theory and contended that practice was more crucial than theory. However, he also felt that they should be studied one after the other to achieve success in learning. Meanwhile Septi was very confident with her belief that practice was very significant in language learning. To show that she held this perception strongly, she argued that learning English without practice was a waste of time. Similar to Septi, Ririn stressed the importance of practice in learning English. She argued that putting effort into receptive skills such as reading and listening only, without exercising productive skills, would not help achieve learning success.

> If you just learn, read books and do not practice in daily life, it is nonsense, useless! (Interview/Ririn)

The significance of practicing English skills according to them seemed to vary. For example, Jeffry highlighted the 'balance' between theory and practice, Septi stressed the 'useless theory'

without practice, while Ririn gave prominence to regular use of the target language for daily communication.

It is interesting to note that almost all students contrasted practice with theory. They assumed that these two domains were positioned at two different extremes of meaning and that one cannot be substituted for the other. However, they shared the belief that these domains were sequential and complementary.

6.1.1.2 Practice as a means to improve fluency. Sartika compared the importance of practice with that of vocabulary and grammar and she asserted that they were all the same. She argued that practice was the logical consequence of learning new words and language rules. She believed that practice leads to a number of outcomes such as proficiency, fluency and memorization.

> Practice is just as important as vocabulary and grammar because although you understand (many new words and language rules) but you do not practice them, sooner or later you will forget them. Practice will help you get used to it, and make you more fluent in (speaking) English. (Interview/Sartika)

6.1.1.3 Practice as a way to assess proficiency. Jeffry assumed that practice could assist English learners by increasing their sensitivity in recognizing mistakes they may make when speaking or writing. He believed that practice allows judgment and that learning English needed to be done comprehensively, that is, by learning the theories and practicing them regularly. Only through this method, could learners' proficiency be enhanced and assessed.

> English is not only a theory on how to write, and how to speak but you must also practice directly to exercise your speaking and writing skills so that you know which one is right and which one is not right. If you only rely on theory, you may not know your mistakes in practice. (Interview/Jeffry)

Febriana conceived that practice was a significant strategy in improving proficiency and assumed that theory only was not enough as it could not show the level of proficiency reached by the student; therefore, she suggested that practice should be carried out, not only to improve language learning, but also to assess learning progress and proficiency.

Practice in learning English is very important. This is because if you only know the theory, it does not prove that you are capable. [However], if you practice it, you will know how much capable you are. (Interview/Febriana)

Novie shared the same belief as most students that practice was unquestionably important. She believed regular practice could contribute to an individual communicating fluently with other people. By practice, learners could monitor their learning progress as well as their proficiency including whether or not other people could understand their pronunciation and get their ideas.

I believe practice is very important because if you are good at English, then you want to communicate with foreign people. If you do not practice directly, it is very difficult. You will never know how capable you are, for example, whether or not they understand your pronunciation and what you mean. So, it is very important. (Interview/Novie)

Many participants including Jeffry, Febriana and Novie believed in the ultimate significance of language rehearsal over declarative knowledge. For example, Jeffry believed that practice allows judgment; Febriana and Novie considered that rehearsal provides self-assessment skill which enable them to assess their learning progress.

Carlson defines practice in a simple way observing that it is the "repeated performance of the same (or closely) routines" (DeKeyser, 2007, p. 2). According to Ellis (as in DeKeyser, 2007), practice involves an attempt to supply the learners with plentiful opportunities for producing

targeted structures of controlled and free language use, in order to develop fully proceduralised implicit knowledge. Language practice in this study follows the definition as proposed by DeKeyser (2007) in which the language activities that the students do are intentionally targeted to improve their knowledge and skills in the target language. Regarding language practice, all the students believed that practice was very significant in the success of language learning. For them, learning English without practice would be impossible (See e.g., section 6.1.1.1).

It seems clear that they believed the ultimate objective of language learning was the ability to communicate in the target language. It is in line with Allwright's (1984) idea that classroom communication practice is pedagogically useful as it is one of the learning stages which transfer the classroom learning to the outside world. Furthermore, he argues that classroom interaction, which inevitably requires the students to practice, is crucial because interaction is the *"sine qua non"* of classroom pedagogy (p.159). Without any interaction between students in the classroom, it cannot be claimed that learning has taken place. There was a criticism that classroom interaction is not a real communication as usually the students do not practice their language naturally. Therefore, students need to make a big a leap from classroom drill to genuine communication. What the participants in this current study believe is that real life communication using the target language is important. They were confident that only through practice could they develop their language proficiency meaning that other language skills would be improved. Their belief corroborates Allwright's claim that communication practice leads to the development of linguistic skills (R. Allwright, 1976).

All participants in the study held strong beliefs about the importance of practice in language learning. This finding supports Sawir's (2002) finding which confirms that Indonesian learners in her study adopted this strategy as part of their beliefs regarding approaches to language learning. In the discussion of form-focused instruction, Lyster, Saito and Sato (2013)

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divide practice into guided practice and communicative practice which parallels Ellis's (2003) focused-production tasks and unfocused-production tasks. The former is designed to raise learners' awareness of rule-based representation which is useful for circumventing their over-reliance on communication strategy and affecting change in the interlanguage (Ranta & Lyster, 2007). The latter is designed to engage the learners in more open-ended and meaning-focused communication. With fewer constraints, this practice ensures language accuracy while, at the same time, promoting confidence and motivation to use the target language in real communication. At this stage, learners are encouraged to do a contextual practice and want to take risks by testing their hypotheses during verbal communication.

6.1.2   Learners Beliefs about Vocabulary and Grammar Development. There were two categories evident in the data: vocabulary as the foundation of proficiency, and grammar sensitivity as developed through constant practice. In the following section these two categories will be elaborated on, and supporting data will be provided to gain a better understanding about the learners' beliefs.

*6.1.2.1   Vocabulary as the foundation of **proficiency.***

All students held the same belief about the importance of vocabulary in language learning. For example, Febriatmanto believed that vocabulary was the most important language element to learn. For him, the more vocabulary a person learns the more proficient his or her English is. Students who shared this type of belief tended to consider that learning English was only a matter of memorizing English words. This type of learning was once very popular in Indonesia as English teachers always assigned students the task of memorizing a certain number of new words each week. They did not consider whether or not the words were used frequently. Febriatmanto confessed that his vocabulary mastery was not good and caused him frustration. This problem caused him to lack the motivation to practice his speaking skills.

Vocabulary is most fundamental because if you do not know the vocabulary, you'll be stressed and will not know what to say. My vocabulary is weak. This lack of vocabulary causes me to be reluctant about speaking [in English]. (Interview/Febriatmanto)

A number of the students shared this belief that acquiring a good vocabulary is fundamental to boosting English language proficiency. Examples of these beliefs are expressed in the following quotes.

If you do not know the vocabulary, how can you speak? As you know, every time we talk, we must use the English vocabulary. (Interview /Tessa)

Grammar is important. But vocabulary is more important than anything else; we'll never be able to speak in English unless we understand the words. (Interview/Ririn)

For these students, communication is only a matter of ordering words in a sentence, or utterances, to convey meaning. They believed that as long as they knew a sufficiently large number of English words, they would be able to converse in English. As a result, they always made an effort to memorize as many English words as possible.

6.1.2.2   *Grammar sensitivity as developed through constant practice.*   Grammar is always considered the most difficult part of English due to its complexity. In general, most students find it hard to understand English language grammar rules. Therefore, in an Indonesian context it is common practice for teachers to teach grammar in most of their English classes. This occurs regardless of the language aspect a teacher is supposed to teach, or the teaching method used. The following example illustrates the role of grammar in English teaching routines in Indonesian schools, "For me, understanding the structure [of English] is very hard. I graduated from a vocational school, where I only studied the 16 tenses". This practice is continued to the next phase with the structure or grammar type of evaluation as the assessment.

Nevertheless, there are other beliefs about grammar which are different from the common belief held by Indonesian EFL learners. One of the study's students believed that she did not need to allocate a certain amount of time to study grammar only, out of context, to learn English. She reasoned that the knowledge of grammar would follow along the way as she learned, and practised regularly, other aspects of English such as reading, listening and writing. This student observed that:

> Later, if we keep reading, listening and writing, the knowledge of grammar will
> follow automatically. For me, it is not so important to learn grammar. If we have
> a good vocabulary and are able to use it, our grammar will also be good.
> (Interview/Novie)

Sentence patterns and tense patterns are some of the common patterns of English structure which often concern Indonesian EFL learners. Some teachers assign their students the task of memorizing these components hoping that they will automatically pick up an appropriate pattern to use in an appropriate context. Many students spend hours and hours memorizing

grammatical rules including patterns of sentences and tenses, before examination, as most of the test items are based on these factors.

However, there are exceptions to this belief about language learning strategies. For example, one of the students did not agree with rote memorization of formulas or patterns. She asserted that these would not stay in the memory for very long. Rather, she suggested that learners practice speaking regularly to acquire an automatic awareness of English language structures. In this way, she believed that the learners would acquire a knowledge of grammar rules automatically.

> If (you) want to study grammar, don't memorize the formula because you will
> quickly forget it. It's better to speak directly. Later, you will know that if you
> want to talk about past events, it should be in past tense. In this way, we learn
> right away. We do not use the Indonesian pattern of thinking any more, but
> the English pattern of thinking instead. (Interview/Novie)

Some of the learners' beliefs are realistic while others are not. For example, learners who believe that vocabulary is the most important aspects of language (see Section 6.1.2.1) to master a target language tend to consider that learning English is only a matter of learning vocabulary and grammar rules.

In fact, language learning requires more than just learning vocabulary and grammar; it also requires all the language skills which will enable learners to use the language in a real-life contexts such as for pleasure and communication. Wenden (1987) argues that learners who hold such beliefs may emphasize the importance of learning about the language, rather than using it. They give higher priority to language forms and accuracy over fluency (Anita Wenden, 1987). In Indonesian English classes, this phenomenon is common as the teachers place more stress on grammar rather than encouraging their students to use the language for communication. This

happens even when the teachers claim to have applied the Communicative Language Teaching approach. The type of test which is used nation-wide is dominated by form-focussed questions and presented in a multiple-choice format. Eventually, it has the potential for learners develop the misconception that acquiring good grammar is the only way for them to become communicatively competent individuals (Musthafa, 2001). Therefore, it is common that students may achieve high test scores in grammar, but cannot communicate well, verbally.

Such unrealistic beliefs can be traced back to the students' previous language learning experiences. Data from the interviews and the learners' backgrounds indicated that English learning, especially during their secondary education, placed a top priority on grammar accuracy and vocabulary acquisition. For example, Febriatmanto said:

> For me, to understand structure is very hard. I graduated from a vocational school, I only studied the sixteen tenses, there was no discussion of nouns, and the discussion of pronouns was not in much detail. That is why I was stressed when I learned that the English language is difficult. It is hard sir. (Interview /Febriatmanto)

The teachers did not engage them enough in communication activities. As previously mentioned, this situation can be understood as most of the English examinations were grammar-based although it is claimed that the Communicative Language Teaching approach has been implemented (Musthafa, 2001). Consequently, the ultimate aim of language learning, which is enabling learners to communicate, is overlooked.

6.1.3   Beliefs about mutual error-correction. There are two main themes in this belief. These themes are that correction can be perceived as negative feedback, and the value of correction in developing accuracy.

6.1.3.1 *Correction as a form of negative feedback.* From the interview with Septi it is noticeable that direct correction to her mistakes makes her lose confidence and she feels unhappy. She commented that it could be so discouraging to her as she already feels inferior. She acknowledged that, although correction is good for a language learner, and that it might improve proficiency, she felt that it could disturb concentration, and therefore, should be done in a wise way.

> Actually I am a type of inferior person. So, if I make a mistake when speaking, then someone corrects me, sometimes I mumble, "Why did he do it?" I will feel inferior and think that he or she must be smarter than me. (Interview/Septi)

Her beliefs about correction and the way it should be conducted are in line with Zendy's beliefs. He believes that direct correction might make people feel uncomfortable. They feel embarrassed about making a mistake or may be afraid that other people might find out about it. In other words, exposing someone's mistakes in public would make him or her feel insecure and embarrassed.

> I just do not feel comfortable with direct correction. It is better if the teacher waits until the person finishes speaking. (Interview/Zendy)

In his second interview Zendy kept this belief about best way to correct the students. He still recognised that although correction was a constructive learning process, it should be carried out in a non-concentration-breaking manner.

> In my opinion correction is alright as long as it is not done in public and while the student is speaking. (Interview/Zendi)

6.1.3.2   *The value of correction in developing accuracy.*   Novie did not have any problem with correction being addressed to her because she believed correction could assist her in improving. This conviction was based on her experience as reflected in the following quote.

> For me, it is better to be corrected because it helps me to develop and to be a better speaker in the future. So, I am happy with correction. (Interview/Novie)

Similarly, Jeffry also felt delighted with correction and believed that it could be a reminder that he should not make the same mistakes in the future. In other words, correction provided him with an opportunity to recognise the correct ways of using language and identifying those areas in which he needed to improve.

> I would be grateful indeed, and it will always remind me of the mistakes. I am the type of person who always remembers the mistakes I make especially when they are corrected while I am speaking. (Interview/Jeffry)

Likewise, Febriana felt alright with correction and believed that correction which was delivered right after a mistake was made, would stay longer in her memory. She thought that this was the prime time when she could learn from other people and assess her own progress based on others' feedback on her performance.

> I guess I am happy with correction. For example, if I make a mistake while I am speaking and someone corrects it or reminds me about it, I will know what is wrong and the ways in which to correct it. I will know my mistakes. (Interview/Febriana)

All these students agreed that correction would increase their knowledge of English Therefore, they would not mind if their errors were corrected. They all demonstrated confidence in the notion that corrections would function as reminders for the betterment of their English language skills

In the second language learning and teaching process, there are different views regarding errors. Behaviourists consider errors as a result of ineffective teaching or a failure and when students commit ones, the teacher has to do some remedies through intensive drilling or over-teaching. Another view considers that making errors is a sign of progress. This belief is called the error-as-progress concept and is based on Chomsky's idea that a child generates language through innate universal structures. This idea asserts that language learners form hypotheses about the rules to be applied in the target language and test them out against input data and modify them accordingly. This process is called trial and error. This is how error promotes progress and improvement in language learning. The third view considers error as the result of social-cognitive interaction. This idea means that the errors that the learners make implicitly carry social and cultural norms as well as cognitive norms which is context sensitive (Maicusi, Maicusí, & López, 1999).

The finding in this study shows that direct error-correction is not well accepted. The students argued that it could distract their concentration, and make them feel uncomfortable and inferior. Nevertheless, almost all of the students accepted being corrected believing they could learn from it. However, they argued that it should be done in a proper way and in a proper place. All the participants are Javanese coming from Javanese families and from the cities around Yogyakarta, the centre of Javanese culture. In Javanese culture there are general principles of communication that people follow. These principles include *sumanak* (friendly) and *tanggap* (responsive), *tepo seliro (*considerate) and *andhap asor* (modest, humble), *empan papan* (proper for the setting and situation), *nuju prana* (suit the heart, try to please), *cekak aos* (brief but clear), *wijang* (distinct) and *terwaca* (easily understood) (Poedjosoedarmo, 2009).Consequently, given their Javanese cultural behavioural traditions, some of the students were uncomfortable about having their errors identified and corrected publicly. It left them with a feeling of *ewuh lan*

pekewuh (discomfort or unease) which tended to impede progress with their language learning (S. Dardjowidjojo, 2012).

In Javanese culture, to build up good relationship between individuals in a conversation needs to follow Javanese conversational norms. Firstly an individual must be friendly and responsive. Secondly, he must be wise in choosing the speech level of the language, because it reflects the status of the interlocutor in the society. He should be considerate and modest and humble. Thirdly, in choosing the topic of the conversation, the setting and the speech event, he must consider the principle of *empan papan.* Fourthly, he should suit the heart and try to please the interlocutor. Next in talking, he must not go around the bush but brief and clear instead. Finally his speech utterance must be distinct and easily understood. For them the people who give direct correction to the interlocutor do not follow the principle of *unggah ungguh or respect levels*. In Javanese culture this norm is very important in a verbal communication and it is regarded as both a problem and a marker of the superiority of the Javanese language (Damani 2002 in Sutarto, 2006). In other word, they do not *nguwongke* or respect and appreciate the interlocutors (see Rahyono, 2011).

Some other students in this study considered that direct correction was appropriate; they did not perceive it to be a serious issue. For them, any corrections would be useful facilitating language learning although this seemed to contradict Javanese cultural communication norms. Nonetheless, these students consider themselves to be 'learning victims', the victims of other people who openly exhibit their mistakes while they are learning. In this case, the students also adopt the principle of *ewuh pekewuh* (S. Dardjowidjojo, 2012) or being uncomfortable and uneasy to express their actual feeling of being offended. In addition, these students may consider that the acquisition of new knowledge, as a result of their mistakes, is more important than their feelings of losing face due to direct correction from others (see section 6.1.3.2). This finding agrees with

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the outcomes of Trinder's research (2013) which found that, the study's participants expressed positive attitudes towards their mistakes, corrected publicly by their teacher, as they considered this practice an 'effective way of learning'.

6.1.4   Beliefs about their learning strategies.   From the data collected from the participants through the different data collection techniques, two themes were found: confidence in one's learning strategies, and strategy choice as connected to learner differences.

6.1.4.1   Confidence in one's own strategy choice.   Most of the students believed in their learning strategies as an effective way to approach language learning. The strongest reason for the maintenance of their beliefs was their learning experiences. They argued that the implementation of their learning strategies had yielded and improved their proficiency.

Jeffry, for example, claimed that his ability to communicate verbally with other people had progressed due to his regular speaking practice which was one of his learning strategies. He also argued that his habit of speaking practice prevented him from making critical mistakes and increased his awareness of the need for corrections.

> In my opinion, my learning strategies are effective. First, my speaking skill is improving. It happens because I practice speaking every day, as well as in the organization (Debate Community/DECO). It helps me get used to speaking. With such a habit, I know I will be able to do it and will not make any critical mistakes because I have practised as usual, and I will be able to correct it myself. (Interview/Jeffry)

Another student, Septi, believed the strategies she had implemented so far were effective. She argued that to find out whether or not the strategies were effective was by referring to the result of the evaluation; when it was good, it was successful or the other way round. She also

added that so far she had made significant improvements such as being able to understand spoken English more accurately, speak with a native speaker accent, and write more clearly. Her learning experiences convinced her to have a strong belief in the effectiveness of her current learning strategies.

> If we want to know whether those strategies are successful or not, just see the marks we get. It means, if I follow that process, there may be good impact on me in class. For listening, I feel I can catch the ideas more accurately. For speaking too, I can use the native speakers' accents and for writing, it is a good influence on my writing. (Interview/Septi)

In further conversation with her, she shared what her friend had done in relation to her learning strategies. "Actually there is one friend who follows the way I learn and I see a positive progress in her English language learning." Septi's success, and that of her friend, had strengthened her belief in the effectiveness of her language learning strategies.

6.1.4.2   Strategy choice as connected to learner differences.

Experts on second and foreign language learning and teaching share the idea that individual learner differences play significant roles in the success of language learning. There is a consensus among them that the ultimate level of attainment in second/foreign language learning depends substantially on individual variations in areas such as the cognitive, affective and social variables (Pawlak, 2012). This consensus might explain why a particular language learner may be more successful than another learner under the same type of instruction and length of learning time. Similarly, a particular learning strategy, which works successfully for one individual, may not work in the same way when implemented by different learners. The following quotes represent the beliefs of the participants regarding their individual strategy choices and how they conceive these might work if implemented by others.

When asked whether or not they - the students - believe that, if other people use their learning strategies as they have been using them, these people would be successful, many of them were in doubt. The students argued that different people had their own ways of learning English. Zendy, for example, argued that each individual has his/her own strategies for learning English. Some people might adopt collaborative learning strategies; some others may enjoy independent learning strategies. So, learning strategies which work successfully for one student might not necessarily work well when applied by other students. In other words, learning strategies should be developed or adopted in accordance with individual learning styles. As Zendy observed:

> Not necessarily because each individual has his/her own ways of learning. Some may use a mirror and talk while listening to music or some others may just do it independently. So my learning strategies do not necessarily work when applied by other people. (Interview/Zendy)

Septi shared the same belief regarding this issue. For her, the type of person, including personalities and learning styles, contributed to the choice of learning strategies.

> Yes, but it depends on the person because each person has different ways of learning. This is suitable for people who enjoy dynamic ways of learning, not only from books. (Interview/Septi)

Another student, Triwidiati, confirmed the beliefs of these two students by saying "each person has his/her own styles or ways of how to learn English more easily". Therefore, it is contended that there is no person who has exactly the same learning strategies as another individual.

Most students reported that they were happy and satisfied with their learning strategies and claimed they have managed to make significant improvements in language learning. They

believed in the effectiveness of their learning strategies in approaching language learning. The most important reason for their satisfaction is their own learning experience. Learning experience has been identified as one of the factors influencing learners' belief (see for example Ellis, 2008b; Little, Singleton, & Silvius, 1984; Mori, 1999; Stodolsky, 1988; Weiner, 1986; Weinert & Kluwe, 1987). As noted earlier in the data presentation (Section 6.1.4.1) Jeffry, for example, was very confident that his learning strategy proved successful in improving his English proficiency. Septi confidently showed that her experience in implementing her learning strategies had enabled her to avoid critical mistakes. This finding not only correlates with earlier studies, but also confirms the findings of this study that successful learning experiences strengthen existing beliefs about learning strategies.

Additionally, although many students believe that their successful learning strategies can work equally as successfully for other students, others doubted this belief. These later students believe that each individual has his or her own learning strategies. Therefore, forcing students to adopt and apply learning strategies which have been successful for other students may not be successful for them.

6.2   Learners Choice of Language Learning Strategies

Learners' choices of language learning strategies in this section are different from those presented in Chapter Five in several ways. First, those strategies presented and discussed in the previous chapter were based solely on the Strategy of Inventory of Language Learning (SILL) as developed by Oxford (1990). In this chapter, the strategies are based on the participants' interview responses and their entries in their learning journals. In the interviews participants were expected to give information of their experiences in using their learning strategies based on their reflection. Second, learning strategies in Chapter Five were not always carried out by participants as they

responded to a ready-to-use questionnaire only while, in this chapter, data from their interview responses is based on their learning experiences. In other words, they had implemented the strategies they shared during the interview and knew how they worked. Another source of data used in this chapter is the participants' learning journals. These journals reflect what participants really experienced and how they felt, as well as what they believed regarding the nature of their strategy use. Three, learning strategies in this chapter take into account the context, which is absent in that of Oxford's SILL. Participants' responses are based on the learning context which framed the subject they learned and when and how often they learned.

6.2.1   Learners' strategies to improve speaking skills.   Based on the data it was found that there were two themes regarding how students learn to improve their speaking skills. These were through a collaborative practice which includes practice with friends, lecturers, international visitors and family members, and practice alone or individual practice.

6.2.1.1 *Collaborative practice.* Collaborative practice is a term used to refer to activities in which learners are involved in collaboration with peers during English practice. Such activities are both form-focused and communication-focused. There are several criteria which determine whether or not a particular learning activity is collaborative. These criteria are: interactivity, synchronicity and negotiability. Theoretically, a collaborative situation should be as interactive as possible. However, the degree of interactivity is determined more by the extent to which the interactions affect the peers' cognitive processes rather than by the frequency of interaction. The second criterion is 'doing something together' which implies synchronous communication. The last criterion is negotiability in which an individual does not enforce his ideas onto others but provides arguments, justification, and negotiation for his point of view (Dillenbourg, 1999).

For example, in the following interview, Novie used English to communicate with her aunty especially when discussing something they did not want other people to know. Her aunty, who graduated from an English department, was her speaking partner as well as her mentor. Also, by helping her brother to do his English exercises, Novie was improving her English proficiency.

> When I am at home especially, I practice with my aunty generally each day, for example, we chat and share something secretly, in English, so that other people cannot understand. Sometimes, I teach my younger brother who is still in High School English. I help him do the English exercises. (Interview/Novie)

Rena's strategies to improve her speaking skills included speaking in English with her college friends, and sending short text messages and talking on her mobile phone. Another strategy she used to boost her speaking skills was singing English songs for which she usually played music and followed the lyrics of the songs. With this strategy she was able to improve her pronunciation and fluency at the same time.

I usually talk to my friends, send text messages, and make phone calls to my friends who also study English language at LPU (Laskar Pelangi University). Then, I often sing English songs and follow the lyrics. (Interview /Rena)

Sartika was affirmed with her belief about practice in language learning.

Practice with others will help you remember it and you will be more fluent in speaking English. (Interview /Sartika)

Febriatmanto, the medium achiever, was a quiet student who felt inferior due to his insufficient knowledge of English. He had graduated from a vocational high school at which students were not prepared for higher education. Therefore, the English he had learned was relatively lower when compared with the English taught at a non-vocational high school. This situation was reflected in his responses, confirming that he was afraid of making mistakes, a feeling which became a significant hindrance to improving his English proficiency. The restricted environment at the university that did not allow him to be exposed to English as his lecturers did not speak English worsened his motivation although he still kept a good intention to improve. The strategy he implemented was looking for English speaking tourists to practice his English. However, his limited English knowledge, his feeling of apprehension as well as his poor learning experiences, did not allow him to get the maximum benefit out of his strategy.

From Semester One until now I have been afraid to speak. In Semester One I spoke with the lecturer. It was not bad actually; but in Semesters Three and Four the lecturers were not used to speaking English, so it is difficult. Actually, I want to speak but I am afraid of making mistakes and grammatical errors. (Interview/Febriatmanto)

Since he started secondary school, Jeffry had been using student organizations as a forum for improving his English proficiency. In these forums his English was really exercised; he was trained to speak English only, and to think quickly in English as practice for an effective English

debate. The environment of the student organizations, in which he was involved actively, offered opportunities for Jeffry to make use of his English for real communication. This strategy placed him amongst the most active high achievers in the English education study program.

> Well … I started to improve my speaking skills when I was at senior high school. At that time I joined the English speaking club. Then I joined the English debating competition and until now I have been active in the Debate Community (DeCo). I keep practising in this unit. I always have a partner to practise with. In this unit we always try to speak in English on all occasions. (Interview/Jeffry)

In practising collaboratively, participants used English language to communicate with people around them including family members, and friends of English and non-English backgrounds. The practice of English speaking was conducted via short text messages and telephone conversations. These modes of communication were hampered mainly by feelings of making mistakes perhaps due to a limited knowledge of English, unsupportive environments, and insufficient awareness of cross-cultural understanding which affected communication with people from different backgrounds.

6.2.1.2 *Individual practice.* Individual practice is defined as the practice that an individual learner initiates involving effort and risk to develop his or her own language proficiency (Holec, 1979). The practice an individual learner initiates may be both the productive skills, which include speaking and writing skills, and receptive skills such as reading, listening grammar acquisition and vocabulary development. Learners' ability to take control over their own learning is a crucial asset; it enables them to develop learning autonomy (Holec, 1979). One of the important components of learner autonomy is the ability to experiment with language and to take risks (Schwienhorst, 2012). Interview excerpts presented in this section provide data about individual practices, initiated by the participants to improve their language learning because of a lack of social support. These initiatives are exhibited in the following data.

> I find myself weakest in speaking. When I want to speak in English but there is one word that I do not know I will get stuck, I go blank right away and cannot do anything. For me, the best way to learn to speak in English is through listening; you can speak because you can listen. Speaking in a room alone is alright, but to speak with lecturers or English native speakers makes me *gelagepan* (cannot control the idea, unstructured thoughts and influent due to psychological condition). When I am watching movies, I sometimes imitate the accents. In speaking, actually, the most necessary item is vocabulary. Not enough vocabulary may be my main problem. (Interview/Septi)

Septi, one of the high achievers, indicated that speaking was her weakest skill. She believed that communication could only be effective when there was not a problem with vocabulary. In other words, she perceived that the larger the vocabulary a person had mastered, the more fluent and proficient his or her English would be. Thus, she always had problems when she forgot an English word for a particular local term. It appears this situation was a psychological hindrance for her because, she kept thinking about the forgotten word, making speaking difficult. The only place in which she could speak confidently was in her bedroom where she could speak

freely without being watched. Based on her beliefs, emanating from her learning experiences, Septi formulated her theory that the most important factor in learning the English language was the vocabulary.

Dwi had the good intention of practising English with her friends. Initially, she believed that practising English with friends was the best way to improve her English language proficiency. However, because the environment was not supportive, she found another way to practise. She did her best by practising alone in her room. Although this it was not as good as a collaborative strategy, it was still better than not practising.

> I try to practise my English with friends. But, very often they do not respond, so
> I practise by myself in my boarding house. (Interview/Dwi)

The choice of independent practice to improve their speaking skills is not a 'genuine' decision by participants. They chose this strategy because they encountered problems when they wanted to practise collaboratively with others. The problems which confronted the participants included limited vocabularies which break fluency in speaking resulting in communication breakdowns, and unsupportive friends who are not willing to be practice counterparts. These issues compelled the students to choose to practise their English language independently.

Almost all twelve participants in this study stated that collaborative practice was important and they adopted it as part of their strategies, although they also practised individually. Their strategy use took an authentic social nature, rehearsing not only L2 form but also serving the everyday communication. The concept of collaborative language practice, which formed part of the participants' beliefs regarding language learning strategies, is in line with the latest trend in second language acquisition. This trend proposes classroom activities that promote both communicative interaction and attention to form in second or foreign language classrooms (Ellis,

2003, 2005; Long, 2006). Regarding this collaborative practice, one of the participants suggested that by:

> By working together with friends, we are able to discuss and understand the material before doing the assignments so that there won't be any difficulties. (Interview /Zendy)

Research on learning in the last decades emphasizes the important role that collaborative learning plays in the learning process (Yadin & Or-Bach, 2010). One of the ways to promote such opportunities is through pedagogical language tasks that encourage negotiation of meaning and offer opportunities for feedback and attention to form (Ellis, 2003; Pica, 2005; Pica, Kang, & Sauro, 2006; Samuda & Bygate, 2008; Van den Branden, 2006; Yuan & Ellis, 2003). Classroom tasks that require learners to work together and produce output collaboratively are believed to offer effective opportunities for peer feedback and scaffolding (Lapkin, Swain, & Smith, 2002; Swain, 2005; Swain, Brooks, & Tocalli-Beller, 2002; Swain & Lapkin, 2000).

Research on collaborative learning shows that to ensure successful collaborative learning, students need to exhibit a high degree of motivation and involvement, as well as both interdependence and autonomy (Hansford & Wylie, 2002; Wylie & Hansford, 2001). Collaborative practice, as undertaken by most participants in this study, has strong theoretical grounds in literature. The participants were aware that collaborative practice both improved their fluency and was a source of constructive feedback from peers. They believed collaborative practice to be effective in developing their language proficiency. The public image of English university students being able to communicate effectively in English may had encouraged the participants to adopt this strategy. Also, the fact that they were learning to be English teachers in schools might have contributed to their choice of collaborative practice as a strategy for excelling in English. The adoption of a collaborative practice as their strategy is in line with Park's study (2000) which

confirms that Southeast Asian students prefer group learning more than individual learning. Furthermore, Park explains that this preference may be attributable to Javanese cultural characteristics that respect cooperation among people.

The students' preference to work in groups when practising English may indicate a collectivist-oriented learning style. In countries with a low individualism index (Hofstede, 2010), such as Indonesia, this collectivist style of learning is popular. In this study, the participants demonstrated that a collectivist style of learning made them more comfortable—it was both easier and less stressful.

As observed in a number of previous studies (Lee, 2004; Plough & Gass, 1993; Rohani, 2012) it appears the opportunity to practise English with friends, with whom the participants were familiar produced benefits such as fluency in interaction and made the learning process easier. Interlocutors who are familiar to each other are more ready and willing to signal non-understanding and negotiate. Besides, practising English in dialogues or groups may also reduce the students' levels of anxiety (Mustapha, Ismail, Singh, & Elias, 2010). Another benefit of practising English with interlocutors is that it can improve communication skills (Hewitt & Stephenson, 2012; Rohani, 2012; Woodrow, 2006). Trust may be one of the reasons why working with familiar interlocutors is so beneficial. Trust is related to the predictability of the other's behaviour (DeVito, 2013). Working with familiar friends may raise trust levels among the students, and at the same time increase their confidence to take risks (DeVito, 2013). Therefore, practising English with friends, the ones that they know well can create a situation in which the learners feel secure when expressing their lack of understanding, decrease their levels of anxiety and encourage them to be confident about taking risk (M. Gardner & Steinberg, 2005; Kurihara, 2006; Rohani, 2012).

In Indonesian culture teachers have a high social status (Basikin, 2007). There is a a common belief among Indonesian people regarding the profession of a teacher. A teacher in Indonesian language is a *'guru'* which is an acronym for '*di**gu**gu'* (the person that the students have to obey) '*lan diti**ru'*** (and become the model). Therefore, generally, people have a high level of respect, not only for a teacher but also his wife and family. In a Javanese community where Javanese language is spoken, people speak with a teacher in high level of Javanese, *kromo* or *kromo inggil*, (soft Javanese) and the teacher speak with them in lower level of Javanese, *ngoko,* or the same level of Javanese depending on the social status of the interlocutor. This situation happened in my family. My late father was a teacher but my mother was *only* a housewife. In a Javanese culture it is common to put the word *only* before a housewife because it is not considered a profession. It is only an embedded status given to a married woman who does not have a *productive* profession or a profession from which a woman can earn money. As a teacher my father deserved to be called *'Pak Guru'* or '*Mr. Teacher'* because he was a teacher. The '*nama panggilan'* or a call name [a name used by people to call somebody] was attached to my father from the time he became a teacher until he passed away. However, to show respect to my father, the people also gave this call name to my mother although she was not one. People still call her *'Bu Guru'* or '*Mrs. Teacher'* until now.

The above description is presented to convey the idea that a teacher has a significant role as a model for his or her students. Students always respect (Charlesworth, 2008; Novera, 2004), appreciate and take him or her as an example, not only in the classroom but also outside the school. In other words, a teacher is always 'monitored' and 'watched' by the public including the students. In any situation a teacher should not be seen to be making any mistakes. Once he makes a mistake, the public will withdraw their trust. Although this image is declining due to the misbehaviour of a few teachers, people still want them to be examples for their children (Nurzaman, 2005; Shein & Chiou, 2011). Therefore, students still hold teachers in high respect

because they believe that they have knowledge and skills to transfer to them; they want the teachers to be the role models for learning. The teacher's position as a model encourages EFL teachers in EFL settings, as in Indonesia, where the use of the target language is very limited (Chaudron, 1988) and exposure to target language interaction is restricted to classroom activities (Hall & Walsh, 2002), to improve their professionalism (Panggabean, 2012). In English classes teachers are the most significant source of linguistic input (Tulung, 2004). This situation can be understood as teacher-talk serves as the essential input in language learning (Kennedy, 1996).

At the least, a good English teacher should have adequate subject knowledge/language competence, pedagogical competence, socio-cultural competence and personal qualities such as patience (Anugerahwati, 2010). Collaborative practice is one of the ways English language students acquire adequate and acceptable language competence; they are developing themselves to be good English models, for their prospective students, in their future careers as teachers. Although group dynamics is an important aspect of collaborative practice, the importance of individual learning should not be underestimated (Yadin & Or-Bach, 2010). There is an implicit assumption, when dealing with collaborative learning processes, that students are accustomed to learning as individuals and will know how to cope with peers in collaborative learning situations. Nonetheless, in this current study the data revealed that using the strategy of individual practice to improve proficiency is not by choice, the students do not have any other option (see Septi in Section 6.2.1.2).

This finding concurs with Park's (2000) conclusion that among the five ethnic groups of Southeast Asian, none has a major preference for individual learning. Learners are aware that to be able to boost their verbal proficiency, collaborative practice offers more benefits than an individual approach. This is exemplified in Sartika's view regarding how practice is connected to fluency (Section 6.2.1.1).

One of the findings in this study also revealed that language tasks which encourage learners to work collaboratively, especially in exercising their verbal skills, are believed to be more effective in offering peer feedback. Reference to Vygotsky's theory regarding collaborative activities suggests that for peer feedback to occur, participants need to have different levels of language competence. Although participants in this study come from the same semester, their English competence may vary. Some students may have better English competence than others and therefore through collaborative practice, the participants with less competence will learn and improve their English competence (Dahms, et al., 2007; Tudge, 1992).

This finding also affirms that limited knowledge of the target language rule, limited stock of vocabulary as well as the unsupportive environment are among the factors which lead the learners to the choice of individual practice. Vygotsky confirmed that the two primary means of learning occur through social interaction and language (see section 1.12 and 1.13). It implies that to make language learning happen, the language the participants have learned has to be used in practice through social interaction. Only by this interaction will development in language learning happen (Dahms, et al., 2007; Tudge, 1992). Therefore unsupportive environment which is represented through discouraging feedback, uncooperative interlocutors or less competent partners will not contribute the language development of the learners.

6.2.2   Learners' Strategies for Improving Listening Skills. Two main themes emerged from the participants' responses regarding the strategies they used to improve their listening skills. They incorporated their hobby of listening to English songs and integrated their hobby of watching movies as a way to enhance their listening skills.

6.2.2.1   *Listening to English songs.*   Much of the literature about English learning suggests that one way to improve English is by exposure to an English language environment as often as possible and one of the ways to do this is by listening to English songs. Almost all of the participants favoured this strategy to facilitate English learning, and it can be understood as this strategy gave them joy, entertainment and peaceful minds rather than creating stress.

Regarding this strategy, Dwi admitted that she used the audio player to play English songs as her strategy to improve her listening skills. As she listened to the lyrics and sang she matched the words to her hard copies of the lyrics. This way she could identify the correct pronunciation of words used in the songs and was able to imitate it. When asked if she sometimes guessed words, she replied in the affirmative but added that sometimes this did not work as expected.

> I improve my listening skills through English songs but it is still difficult as I have to find the song, then find the text (lyrics), then listen to the song and check … (matching what she hears with what she reads in the lyrics). (Interview/Dwi)

Zendy's strategy to improve his listening skills was also through listening to English songs. He not only listened to the songs but guessed the words in the song and attempted to understand the lyrics through translation.

> I like listening to western (English) songs and singing them. I listen to the songs first and then guess the English words. Then I also try to understand the songs by translating the words. (Interview/Zendy)

Febriana, one of the low achievers made use of her hobby of listening to music of (English songs) to help her improve her listening skills. She not only entertained herself by listening to the music but also learned the language (lyrics) used in the songs. By so doing, she learnt both the correct pronunciation and the meanings of the words used in the songs.

> My hobby is listening to English music (songs) to entertain myself. I learn the language and the lyrics; for example, when a certain word is interesting I write it down and find the meaning. (Interview/Febriana)

The hobby of listening to music would seem to be beneficial in improving the English proficiency of the participants. They listened to the correct pronunciation of the words, practised their pronunciation by singing the lyrics, and checked the meanings of unfamiliar words. This language learning strategy was full of joy for them.

6.2.2.2   *Watching English movies.*   Many experts argue that watching English movies can facilitate English language learning. The reasons why this form of learning is popular, and recommended, is because watching movies in English improves the students' listening skills and pronunciation, increases their understanding of the patterns of spoken English, provides opportunities to expand their vocabularies and it is enjoyable to watch movies in their original language of English. Many students in this study also adopt this strategy to help improve their listening skills.

Febriatmanto, whose hobbies include watching movies and listening to music, found his hobbies facilitated his language learning especially in listening skills. Nevertheless, sometimes he was confused by English words which were pronounced the same but spelt differently and had different meanings. To enhance his attempts to understand the story and not rely on subtitles, he covered the subtitles and followed the story by listening to the dialogues.

> Every day I listen to English music (songs). That is why I find the listening subject easier than any other subject. But the hardest thing is that some words sound the same, the pronunciation is the same but the spelling and meaning are different like … (cannot find the answer). I also watch English movies by covering the subtitles. (Interview/Febriamanto)

Similar to Febriatmanto, Ririn used the strategies of listening to English songs and watching English movies to improve her listening skills. If she found a word she did not understand, she wrote it down and checked it in the dictionary. Then she repeated the word a few times.

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> I usually listen to English songs. If I find difficult words, I write them down
>
> but if I can't, I repeat the words again and again. (Interview/Ririn)

Jeffry was aware that he was not good at listening, and he had been using strategies to improve his skills. These included listening to English songs and watching English movies. He mostly watched the videos of famous people speaking, for example, Tony Blair, and found this strategy interesting. This choice of strategy reflects his interest in debating. As previously mentioned, Jeffry had joined the Debate Community, a student unit to develop debating talents in the English language. He not only listened to the debate in the video?? But also imitated the way the speaker was speaking including the accent.

> Well, to be honest, I am weak at listening sir. I recognized my weakness and, as I
> like listening to English songs, I used this as a strategy to improve my listening
> skills. I also download video speeches in English such as Tony Blair's. Then I
> listen, and imitate the accent, and listen and write. (Interview/Jeffry)

Watching movies was one of the participants' hobbies which helped them improve their listening skills; this strategy was entertaining, and there was not any pressure in it. The participants devised their own ways of maximizing the benefits of this hobby to enhance their English language skills: some of them covered the movie subtitles so that these would not distract them; others replayed movies to gain a better understanding of English, and some imitated the language they heard in the movies.

6.2.2.3 *Incorporating hobby into a learning strategy.* Listening comprehension is an active process of meaning construction in which listeners attend to, and process aural and visual input automatically, in real time, in order to understand the message (Buck, 2001). Although listening is a significant skill in English learning, generally speaking, it is the weakest skill of language learners. One of the reasons may be that listening is a complex cognitive skill which requires instant processing in real time (Vandergrift, 2013). Most of the participants in this study seemed to enjoy listening to music, and made use of this hobby as a strategy to improve their listening skills.

Language experts agree that listening to songs can help improve learners' listening skills (Hugo & Horn, 2013; Millington, 2011; Tina, 2013). The Language Centre of The Hong Kong University of Science and Technology distributed an English advice sheet which is designed for anyone who wishes to improve their English by listening to songs. In the Centre's online page, links are provided for language learners to access to improve their listening skills by listening to songs.

An experimental study about the use of video in language learning has shown satisfying results. The members of the experimental group, who were exposed to videos during the experiment, improved their listening comprehension by 50 per cent as compared with those exposed to the video during the pre- and post-tests only (Thompson & Rubin, 1996).

6.2.3   Learners' Strategies to Improve Reading Skills. There are three themes drawn from the collected data. These themes are: improving reading skills through reading printed materials, improving reading skills through reading online materials, and improving reading through the use of a dictionary. None of the participants employed a single strategy but rather they combined these strategies for improving their reading comprehension competence.

6.2.3.1 *Reading printed materials.* Almost all of the students used more than one kind of printed materials such as novels and short stories. Different printed materials offered different language styles. Therefore, the more reading materials the participants read, the richer their knowledge about texts.

To improve her reading skills, Dwi borrowed books from the library which included short stories and textbooks that she needed for classes. When encountering difficult words or new words, she would guess the meaning, initially, but if this strategy was unsuccessful then she would use a dictionary. She employed the guessing strategy by making use of the context to help her understand the meaning of the word.

> To improve my reading skills, I read a lot. I read short stories, go to the library
> borrow books and read. If I find difficult words, I guess, but sometimes I open a
> dictionary. (Interview/Dwi)

Jeffry was aware his reading comprehension skill was not good. His strategy to improve his comprehension was by reading story books from different genres. He had a special technique to help him understand the books: he reads more easily by identifying the characters before he started reading.

> My reading skill is alright but it is under average. I improve my reading skill by
> reading novels and short stories, especially the ones I like. When I read, first of
> all I analyse the characters, after that I read the whole story. (Interview/Jeffry)

In the English education study programs, most teaching-related subjects use English textbooks. Subjects such as English for specific purposes and English for children use textbooks published in the English language. Tessa read these textbooks to improve her reading comprehension skills, and referred to a dictionary if she found difficult words.

> Well, I read English books like … textbooks. Those books are written in English. If
> I find words that I do not know, I open a dictionary. (Interview/Tessa)

All participants read printed materials, especially English textbooks, for all the subjects they studied. To entertain themselves, and also to have fun, they read fiction books such as short stories and novels. The only issue they encountered during reading was vocabulary and, as a result, they always consulted dictionaries.

6.2.3.2   Reading online material.   Reading online material including e-books is different from reading printed material. Reading online material requires sophisticated equipment such as a computer, CD-ROM, modem, internet network and power sources or battery. Without equipment, the activity of reading cannot be carried out. However, reading online also offers several advantages such as, searchable, modifiable, and enhanceable (Inman & Horney; 1997). Searchable means the reader can locate a certain word or phrase simply by typing the desired words in the find box or search box, and find out how many occurrences there are in the text. He can also learn quickly the context in which the word or phrase is used in the text. Modifiable means the reader can modify the text as he needs, for example he can choose the type of fonts and the size to give him the best size for reading — this is very useful for people with vision problems. Enhanceable means the teacher or developer can embed additional resources in the lesson to enhance the students' understanding and comprehension of the text. These materials can be in the form of additional information and the definitions of words used in the text or background information about the text.

Novie was a student with access to a computer and the internet and always used these facilities to help her learn English. Similar to other students, when she opened a website, she was selective and only read those which matched with her interest and level of knowledge. When she found difficult words in the text, she hand-wrote them and then checked them in the dictionary. It was obvious that she did not know she could do this online.

> To improve my reading skills … Well, sometimes when I browse the internet and
> I find English text which is interesting, I try to read it. When I find difficult words,

I try to record them and sometimes I memorize them and look them in the dictionary. (Interview/Novie)

Sartika read both printed and online reading resources. She believed there were so many reading resources available on the internet and that was why she made use of this facility to help her learn English. To help her better understand the text she was reading, she employed a translating strategy while reading.

I read texts in English and use the internet because there are a lot of English texts available. I also read novels but I rarely do this because the language is too high. When I read, I try to translate the text to help me understand. (Interview/Sartika)

Zendy was a more economically-privileged student as he had a laptop and always brought it to campus. Not many students had laptops and only few brought them to campus. There was wifi internet access throughout the campus and Zendy made use of it to help him find texts for reading. Although he did not understand all the words in the texts, he did not worry or open a dictionary to understand the meaning. It seems that he employed a strong guessing technique to help him comprehend the texts.

I bring my laptop to campus and I browse the Jakarta Post, and the English newspaper and I read it. I try to understand it although I do not know the whole vocabulary. (Interview/Zendy)

Reading online material was mostly done by students with advantaged economic backgrounds. The strategies used by online readers were similar to those of students reading printed materials. The major difference was that the online readers could choose the materials they liked to read easily. When they found difficult words, they took two actions, either they consulted a dictionary or simply guessed.

6.2.3.3 *Extensive reading for improving proficiency.* All students reported that they made efforts to read extensively choosing reading materials, both online and printed, based on their interests (See Section 6.2.3.1 and Section 6.2.3.2). In the reading classes, the lecturer provided students with a set of articles comprising a few pages for the students to read before attending the class. These articles were discussed in the class with all the students

Extensive reading strategy has been acknowledged for its effectiveness (Bell, 2001). Coady and Huckin (1997) also claim that by reading English passages in their areas of interest, learners receive more comprehensible input, especially in relation to vocabulary knowledge. The implementation of of an extensive reading strategy, assists in improving learners' levels of reading comprehension ability and their vocabulary mastery. This is congruent with the findings of earlier studies which revealed that reading activities offer more opportunities for language learners to engage in English, and to enrich their vocabulary (Kweldju, 1997; Rohani, 2012).

From the point of view of Vygotsky's theory (see Section 1.12.) it is interpreted that social interaction is not only person to person contact but also person to 'knowledgeable resources' (my own term) which can be in the form of resourceful reading materials. To get an optimum result from this interaction, the involvement of More Knowledgable Others (MKO) such as a lecturer or peer with higher levels of English proficiency will be more beneficial. This person can give guidance and ensure that the reading materials are within the learners' ZDP.

6.2.4 Learners' Strategies to Improve Writing Skills. For some students writing can be a complex and time consuming task, but for others it can be a simple one. Writing can be an easy task if students know the correct strategies. In this study there are two main themes arising from the gathered data, namely improving writing skills by developing others' ideas and enhancing writing skills by developing one's own ideas.

6.2.4.1   ***Improving writing skills by developing others' ideas.***   Writing using others' ideas means the ideas the participants express in written form are not their own; rather they are modified versions from other sources. They may get ideas from sharing thoughts and experiences with other people or through reading books. The ideas they write may not be the same as the original sources; the participants may modify or develop them.

Jeffry started to explore his writing skills when he was at high school by writing short stories and poems. Although he failed to get his writing published, he did not give up; now that he is at university, he is learning to write essays. It was true that very often students got confused to start writing an essay; they could not write smoothly due to limited language knowledge such as structure and vocabulary. Although they had good ideas to write, they could not write them down well and caused the readers to misunderstand them. Many of them had problems with their ability to discuss and evaluate ideas critically within a limited number or words. In essay writing the focus is developing an argument and analyse ideas rather than on description. He seemed to understand it well and he considered that ideas were more important than language structure.

> To improve my writing skills? Well…. The first time I like writing, well I wrote short stories and poems. I did that when I was at high school. At that time I sent my writing to "Lampung Post" to publish but failed. Not lucky yet. Now Alhamdulillah EDSA publishes my writings on the wall magazine. Now at campus I start to write essays. I start to write a good argument but to be honest I cannot write with the correct structure yet, for example introduction, body and the conclusion (paragraph). How to improve it? Well, I browse the internet and find an article on how to write well and practise it. I write bit by bit to avoid any mistakes.

> In writing I stress more on ideas, but in speaking (I stress more on) structure. Sorry, in writing ideas and structures. In my experience, I give priority to ideas. For example, I write the idea after the introduction. So sometimes I get

confused where to put the ideas. It is not clear. For me, I consider ideas as the most important. (Interview/Jeffry)

When asked about how to improve her writing skills, Sartika hypothesized the way to improve writing skills was similar to the way to improve reading skills. She did not elaborate it but then she explained that she needed a certain pattern as an example to write.

It may be like reading, firstly I read a novel then if I find difficult words I look up dictionary. After that I try to imitate and practise writing by following the pattern. (Interview/Sartika)

Another student, Septi, found writing her favourite subject. She was a quiet student and enjoyed the writing subjects better than speaking because she believed that in writing she had longer time to prepare. She had time to think about ideas, grammar, checked and recheck and wrote the final draft. She considered all these procedures as a process. In her opinion, the ideas to write came from exposure to reading texts and therefore she believed that the more a person read texts the more ideas he had to develop into essays. She also adopted the idea that to make a person fluent in speaking, he or she must not worry about grammar. She applied this idea in writing subject and consequently she prioritized ideas more than grammar.

One thing that I like very much is writing because writing is not like speaking which needs spontaneity. In writing you have time to think first; you can use it to think about the grammar, to choose the diction and writing is my favourite subject. In speaking you have to listen first, similarly in writing you have to read first. Later on in my thought there will be ideas about what the type of good writing is like which suits me. Writing is a process so you have to elaborate your ideas first, read it, and then check the grammar. (Interview/Septi)

For these students, writing was a developing process which needed patience and exercise. The more students practised writing the better their writing would be. For them, although grammar was important, it should not disturb them from developing their own ideas and that is

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why they needed longer time to complete an essay as they had to think also about the proper diction to use as well as the structure. To help them develop and organize ideas into writing they referred to the resources such as internet, books etc.

6.2.4.2 *Enhancing writing skills by developing own ideas.* Writing their own ideas is writing the ideas that originally belong to them and not adopted or modified ones. These ideas may come from their own reflection, thought and experiences. In the quote below Febriana shared her own strategy in improving writing skills. She kept a diary to record her daily experiences including where and how she spent the days and how she felt about it. Although she did not tell how it helped improve her writing skill, she seemed to enjoy this strategy.

> Well in writing, I write notes more often, such as daily notes. If I travel I write down my experiences during the travel in English or if there is an interesting event, I write it in English too. I write all of them in my diary. (Interview/Febriana)

Febriana did not say anything about grammar but Novie seemed worried much about grammar. This attitude made her unable to explore ideas in writing as she was always concerned that she would make mistakes especially because she believed in the idea that a good writing should be free from grammatical mistakes. Although she did not write very often, she still practised writing and asked for a friend's help to check the grammar.

> …….. writing? Well sometimes I find grammar very hard. Very often, if I want to write something, I am afraid of making mistakes. I don't get used to writing but I sometimes write. I write in diary in English. Sometimes I also write and ask a friend to check. (Interview/Novie)

Most participants used diary writing as a strategy to improve writing skills although they could not write smoothly as grammar seemed to be a hindrance for them. However to improve their writing skills they kept implementing this strategy. The finding also shows that none of the

participants mentioned advance beyond knowledge of lexis and syntax such as cohesion, coherence, structure of genre and organization of ideas.

Situating this finding in Vygotsky's theory (see sections 1.12 and 1.13) in regard with the participants' strategies in improving their writing skills through both writing their own ideas and developing other's ideas suggests that the involvement of individuals who have better English proficiency such as their lecturers is strongly recommended. Their involvement in giving guidance to them is significant especially in developing the writing materials in such a way that it goes in stages beginning from the lowest level of complexity to the highest one, such as from a sentence writing, paragraph writing, to essay writing etc. The lecturers should also make sure that the materials given to the students are within the zone of proximal development otherwise the learning process would not happen as the material is too difficult for the students. Therefore the lecturers need to utilize scaffolding as a tactic for helping the students in which they provide hints and prompts at different levels.

The participants in this study have demonstrated their strategies to improve their English proficiency in four macro skills, speaking, listening, reading and writing. To develop their verbal skills, all of them preferred collaborative practice as this strategy enabled them to use their English language in real communication and allowed them to evaluate their learning progress based on the feedback from their peers. Few of them also picked up individual practice but it was only a way out when collaborative practice was not possible. To improve their listening skills, most of the participants favoured incorporating their hobbies of listening to music and watching videos as their strategy due to its strengths, such as relaxing and fun. In regard to their reading skills, all of the participants selected extensive reading style. Those who had facilities to access to online reading materials made use of this technology to improve their reading skills; meanwhile, those who did not have access preferred to read printed books such as novels and textbooks to enhance their reading comprehension skills. To develop their writing skills, a majority of the participants

employed a free writing strategy such as writing a diary to document their experiences, text messages-to communicate with others, etc. Some of them also wrote essays, short stories and poems and used the patterns and they found from reading articles into their writing. All these strategies were employed to improve their English language proficiency.

6.2.5 **Challenges to Learners' Strategy Practice.** Based on the data collected from the participants, three main themes emerge which are relevant to the learners' strategy practice. The themes are: internal, external and proficiency problems. Within each of these themes there are a number of categories each having sub-sections, as appropriate. The three main themes, each with its categories and their sub-sets of issues, are explored in the following sections of this chapter.

6.2.5.1 *Internal problems.* Internal problems are problems related to personality, condition and the learners' feelings. Within internal problems, there are three specific categories namely, lack of confidence, feelings of anxiety and low motivation.

6.2.5.1.1 **Lack of confidence.** Confidence is a concept familiar to educators and psychologists which refers to the certainty of one's own abilities and about having trust in people, plans or the future. Thus confidence is not only about the feeling that things will go well, but it is also a judgement about one's or others' abilities to ensure that those things will go as well as expected.

When asked about which part of English she felt she needed to practice more, Febriana stated that she was not only weak in grammar but that she also lacked confidence. She realized that her learning difficulties needed a solution otherwise she would not make any progress in

learning the English language, such as, in her views chatting with friends and presenting things more often in front of the class.

> Well, I feel I am weaker in grammar. Also, I lack confidence. That is why I want to learn grammar more seriously and I want to improve my confidence by chatting to friends more often, and presenting in front of the class. (Interview/Febriana)

Sartika was a student who evaluated her ways of learning English and found that they were not very effective due to a lack of confidence. Her reluctance in practicing English with other people had hindered her from making progress; she was aware of this weakness but she did not seem willing to take action to sort out her problems.

> I need somebody to practise my strategies with. But I am very afraid to interact with people smarter than me. (Interview/Sartika)

Lack of confidence seems to be a serious problem for the participants and had affected their approach to language learning. Actually, they knew that communicating with friends would improve their proficiency but due to lack of confidence, the strategy was not optimized.

6.2.5.1.2. Anxiety. Anxiety in general is "the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system" (Horwitz, 1986, p. 125). Horwitz (1986) shares the idea with MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) that language learning anxiety is different from general anxiety. A certain amount of anxiety is normal but it becomes a problem when it starts to distract mind, concentration and daily activities. This feeling can overwhelm and cause people to feel out of control. Nervousness involves the feeling of self-doubt, insecurity and fear. The level of nervousness varies from one person to another. For some people, it can be too powerful to deal with while, for others, it is normal.

There are two possible causes of nervousness, stress and anxiety. Stress is the normal reaction of a person as a response towards a change of a major life event. Every situation brings some level of stress to people; however, the level is different from one individual to another. Although stress can be helpful and drives people to achieve goals such as when they have to meet a deadline, more often it upsets and threatens people. When this happens they cannot concentrate and lose control of himself. Anxiety is an emotional feeling which is linked with stress. It is defined as a state of apprehension, uncertainty and fear resulting from expecting a threatening event or situation. These threats are not always real; sometimes they are just imaginary but can cause an individual to lose concentration and feel worried. The feeling of anxiety not only affects the physical condition but also the psychological condition.

Septi confessed that in a conversation, every time she did not know a word and she felt she had to know it, she panicked; she could not concentrate on the rest of the conversation until she knew it. She was a kind of learner who believed that to be able to understand a message, she had to know every single word. Her being nervous not only happened when she did not know all words in a sentence but also when she had to interact with people who had an English speaking background. This situation caused her to be unable to think calmly, and she lost her control over the language because of an imaginary threat. Septi describes this situation I the following statement.

> I feel weakest in speaking. When I am speaking and I find a word that I do not know, I get stuck, my mind goes blank and I give up. I learn to speak through listening. We can speak because we listen. I practise speaking in (my own bed) room, it's alright. But I panic when I have to speak with foreign teachers. (Interview/Septi)

6.2.5.1.3 *Low motivation.* Low motivation is concerned with the loss of

desire to work or to take action to do something. It may appear as an indifference of emotional,

social and physical life. This kind of emotional, psychological and physical disorder may result as a consequence of stress when it manifests as learned helplessness. Low motivation in study may be a reaction to overloaded work a student has to study, emotional and psychological tiredness etc.

The quote below explains about a student who had too many words he did not understand and consequently he did not want to consult dictionary. As a result his understanding of the text is very limited and therefore he could not grab the message accurately. This situation led to the disadvantaged psychological condition of being low motivated.

> I study English, firstly through reading. In the past I often read English texts but I
> found difficult vocabulary. Usually when we lack of vocabulary, it's very hard,
> makes us reluctant and lazy to read the English texts. (Interview/Febrianto)

In short, low motivation is learner's problem of being unmotivated, unambitious and irresolute. In other words, motivation and ambition to learn is decreasing which eventually discourage a learner to work, study and or to take action to make progress.

Among the three internal problems the participants in this study had lack of self-confidence was the most serious one. One of the students claimed that her poor proficiency in grammar was the cause of the challenge (see section 6.1.2). In my observation this student seemed to experience extreme shyness when it came to expressing herself in English. Literature has confirmed that self-confidence would affect sufferers to feel shy (for example Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999; Truitt, 1995), resulting in the lack of enthusiasm in English practice. In other words, he suffered from timidity.

There are many possible reasons for timidity. According to Tumposky (1991) lack of practice and lack of supportive environments are responsible for the existence of timidity. In a structure or grammar class, for example, learners were not exposed to group work activity or class work activity but were rather engaged in solving the grammatical problems. They tended to

concentrate on sentence patterns or other language rules. This behaviour made learners more passive in using the language for real communication. As a result, they might be good at reading or writing but in speaking or conversation they might be weak. Although they might have strong beliefs about the importance of practice with other people in improving their verbal proficiency, lack of self-confidence might prevent them from doing so. Furthermore, in a class where a lecturer was using a communicative approach, learners who lacked self-confidence may feel shy and anxious as in most classes they were extensively engaged in communicative activities. Thus, lack of self-confidence which may result in timidity restrains their effort to take part in active communication.

Regarding this issue of timidity, participants of this study had their own beliefs. Although they did not share the same beliefs about how to overcome timidity, almost all of them conceived that self-confidence was the panacea to the difficulty. One of participants stated that '…to make the lesson more interesting and success in learning we have to possess high self-confidence and not feeling shy'.

Participants were aware that one of the reasons for their feeling shy was their weak competence of the target language which led to making mistakes. Language experts share their beliefs that making mistakes is a part of learning process and that it is normal for language learners to make one. Even the experience of making mistakes can improve deep understanding of the problems, offer critical approach to language learning and promote independent learning (Harland, 2003). Courage to take risk plays very important role as it can elevate their self-confidence. Not being afraid of losing face when making mistakes means improving self-esteem which is highly correlated with self-confidence level (Lai, 1994). Seyhan (2000) discovers that there is positive correlation between self-esteem and willingness to speak in English and participation in the lesson. The higher their self-esteem, the higher their levels of willingness to speak in English

and the more participation the learners show in the lesson. The feeling of not being afraid of making mistakes is an indicator of improving their risk-taking behaviour which elevates their self-confidence. The courage to take risks leads to the improvement in classroom active participation which may eventually promote their progress in verbal communication (Ely, 1986). In other words, when the self-confidence improves, their self-esteem increases too which affect their courage to take risk. When their risk-taking behaviour develops, their participation in the classroom activity will improve as well.

Motivation plays a significant role in the success of language learning (Chang, 2005; R. C. Gardner & Lambert, 1972). Dutttweiler (1986) argues that motivation is the factor that arouses, directs, and sustains increased performance. Therefore, if there is a problem with a learner's motivation, the learning process as well as the learning outcomes will be affected. One of the medium achievers in this study complained about his poor vocabulary which leads to him feeling unmotivated (see Febriatmanto in Section 6.1.2).

Researchers have found out that one contributor to low motivation is a learner's poor self-regulatory skills (Newman, 1994; Schunk, 1994). Self-regulation includes the process of monitoring, controlling and regulating one's cognitive activities and behaviours (Garcia & Pintrich, 1994). Cognition deals with factors related to the way in which the brain works. These factors include memory, and the ability to process new information. Therefore, it is possible that due to poor vocabulary test results, learners may lose their motivation to use, and their interest in their language learning strategies.

Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory of the mind posits that internal motivation can be fostered through the sharing of similar intentions and purposes, as opposed to the imposition of such factors on individuals by others, such as parents or teachers. Vygotsky also postulates that

motivation develops through social participation and interaction (Ushioda, 2008). According to Rueda and Moll (1994), motivation is not solely within the individual but it is socially distributed, and that it is created within socio-cultural systems of activities involving the mediation of others. Gardner and Lambert's studies (1972) confirm that there is a relationship between a student's degree of motivation and successful language learning. In this study, it would seem that the students' low levels of language proficiency affected their levels of motivation.

6.2.5.2   *External problems.*   External problems deal with the problems arising from factors other than the learners themselves. These may come from the students' surroundings which include human, physical and regulatory factors. Data available revealed two categories of these external problems: an unsupportive environment and a lack of facilities.

6.2.5.2.1 Unsupportive environment.   For some students, an unsupportive environment was characterised by friends who failed to support the process of learning to improve the learners' proficiency. Negative responses from some of the students' friends may have affected them adversely, contributing to a decline in their motivation. The following quotes explain this situation.

> I haven't practised speaking [English], although I use English in text messages and Facebook. I rarely speak English because my friends are not supportive.

> The environment is not supportive for me to keep speaking English because I am the only one who is studying English. If I speak English, the others will consider me a show off, arrogant. This does happen. But for listening, reading and writing, they [my strategies] are effective. (Interview/Septi)

As previously mentioned, this student claimed the environment where she lived was not supportive at all; it did not encourage her to speak in English. It was understandable as other

students who lived in the house were not English students; she was the only one who studied in the English education department. She was worried that her friends would consider her as being arrogant if she spoke in English. Although she did not mention the evidence, she could feel it and was able to anticipate it; therefore consequently, her verbal English did not improve well.

In a further interview Septi confirmed her environment was not supportive at all. She complained about the place where she lived and studied which did not allow her to use English as the medium of communication. She compared it with the English speaking environment and argued that in English environment she would have to speak English to survive which would eventually improve her English competence.

> Yes of course, because here the environment does not support me to speak (English). If (I were) there (in English speaking countries) like it or not, I have to speak English. For example, I want to have a meal, (if I) cannot speak English, (I) can't eat. So no English no service. (Interview/Septi)

6.2.5.2.2 **Lack of facilities.** A lack of facilities refers to the unavailability of facilities to support the learning process. This may mean that the learners do not have access to the facilities because they are not able to afford them or because the institution does not provide them.

Triwidiawati came from a low socio-economic family and could not afford an MP3 player to help with her listening skills. Consequently, to improve her listening skills, she made use of the language laboratory on the listening class session which was only once a week. When reporting on her listening skills, Triwidiawati said:

> So far I haven't improved my listening skills very much because of two reasons. First, I do not have the media [cassette player, MP3 player]. Therefore, I just rely on the language laboratory at campus. (Interview/Triwidiawati)

As clearly indicated, one of the factors limiting Triwidiawati's progress with her English language studies, particularly her listening skills, was the lack of facilities and equipment to practise. Without an MP3 player she was unable to practise privately. Her access to the language laboratory was limited because of its constant use for listening classes, and laboratory staff were not assigned to supervise students out of formal listening classes.

Among the external problems, the unsupportive environment was the most crucial one. The absence of social involvement which enabled the learners to make use of their learned language in the authentic communication had caused them to reduce the frequency of language practice. The fact that other learners did not speak the language they were learning justified the absence of social support in enhancing their proficiency. Social support plays an important part in self-study and strategy practice because social support influence students' perceived opportunities to possess a particular orientation and, in turn, the value placed on that orientation" (MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, & Conrod, 2001, p. 374). In classroom setting, social support is also considered to be one of the most important factors which may stimulate learners' academic achievement, physical and psychological health and constructive management of stress (Ghaith, 2002). The excerpt below tells that the participant's endeavour to practise their target language was impeded by the absence of social support (*I rarely speak English because my friends are not supportive too … the environment is not supportive for me to keep speaking English because I am the only one who study English*)(Interview).

One of the participants confessed that she could not speak English freely and as often as she wanted because her friends would consider her as showing off and arrogant if she spoke in English. It seemed that this student was holding the cultural principles of being a Javanese. This student was applying the principle of *andap asor, ewuh lan prekewuh,* and *empan papan* which culturally did not allow her to speak in English (S. Dardjowidjojo, 2012; Poedjosoedarmo, 2009).

The principle of *andap asor* has 'forced' her to be modest, humble and low profile and therefore to keep her knowledge of English unexposed. *Ewuh lan prekewuh* principle made her feel uncomfortable and uneasy to speak English among those who did not understand English. Consequently, this student would never use her English when she was among them. Meanwhile the principle of *empan papan* would only allow the student to practice her English in a certain area, an area which was specifically provided to speak English or an environment in which everybody spoke English or was allowed or supposed to speak English, such as speaking classes. Therefore the environment holding the Javanese cultural principles would not facilitate language learning well. Meanwhile, as what has been discussed in section 1.12 to 1.15, both Vygotsky and Rogoff agree that social environment plays very significant role in boosting language acquisition. Vygotsky (1978) asserted about the importance of the learning environment's social features in optimizing L2 acquisition.

Referring to sections 1.12 and 1.13 it was noticeable that Vygotsky's idea on a social context is pivotal in the area of second and/or foreign language learning. It is a fact that in a group of learners, like in this study, their competences vary, some belong to "more knowledgeable others" (MKO) (Vygotsky's term) and some belong to less knowledgeable. In this idea, a more competent learner would be paired with a less competent one so that the later can learn from the former and consequently his language competence would be elevated (Jaramillo, 1996). According to him, learners who have different competencies need to work together and teach each other in a socio-cultural environment to construct learning. This thought is in accordance with Rogoff's concept of apprenticeship as in her three planes of learning (see section 1.15). In this concept, there is a mutual relationship between individual and the social community from which the individual can learn. The individual and the community members need to be involved actively in arranging activities and support to reach the goal collaboratively (Rogoff, 2008). In this mutual relationship, each individual in the community of practice improve his or her skill and

understanding through active participation with others in culturally organized activities (Dewey, 1916; John-Steiner, 1985; Rogoff, 1990). A study by Dixon, Zhao et al.(2012) has confirmed that learning environment is a positive predictor of L2 performance. Supportive environment can encourage learners to be more independent through its flexibility in terms of learning. It means that the learners have the opportunity to choose or change options such as objectives, contents and process of learning based on their interest and needs. With voluntariness, learner choice, teacher support and peer support, supportive environment which offers flexibility becomes a significant factor to develop autonomy (I. Lee, 1998).

One of the high achieving participants reported one reason why she did not improve much in listening comprehension skills is because she did not have cassette player or MP3 and therefore she only relied on the language laboratory which was not always available (see section 6.2.5.2.2). For her, possessing such facilities would make her easy to learn independently and not always depend on her teacher or campus facilities which were not always free for her. "Technology can be a very powerful and empowering tool" (Spigel & Tranza, 2009, p. 249). This student believed in the power of both media player to assist her to learn optimally. With such technology she assumed that she would be able to make use of her leisure time to improve her listening skill by listening through such media. The absence of such media has inhibited her from the possibility of improving her listening skills. Kuksenok, Brooks, Wang, & Lee (2013) argue that there are many opportunities for technology to support foreign language learners. What the student in this study articulated was evidence that the absence of access to technology had hindered her from independent learning.

6.2.5.3 *Lack of proficiency.* In simple terms, proficiency in language learning can be defined as how well an individual has mastered a language. Proficiency can be measured through factors such as productive and receptive language skills, syntax, vocabulary and semantics that can demonstrate the language abilities of the individual. Lack of proficiency means that the individual is not proficient enough to understand the target language accurately due to a limited knowledge of language rules, and limited productive and receptive language skills.

6.2.5.3.1 Lack of vocabulary. Lack of vocabulary in this context means participants do not acquire sufficient vocabulary to help them understand the target language well. The following excerpts explain this issue.

> When I am watching a film, sometimes I imitate the accent. To speak well, I
> need a good vocabulary. And this may be my main problem. (Interview/Septi)

Septi seemed attentive to what she was learning and came to the conclusion that vocabulary was the most important aspect in speaking. She realized that vocabulary was her main problem. She used the term "may be" which implies uncertainty, reflecting her lack of confidence in her vocabulary.

In different occasions Septi admitted that this problem always disturbed her during speaking because every time she did not understand a certain English word she had to use, she got stuck, blank, and could not think of anything. This caused her to forget the rest of the ideas that she had to deliver; it also happened when she was listening. When she did not know a new word, she got stuck and could not concentrate to listen to the rest of the message.

Febriatmanto shared his experience in learning English which was similar to Septi. When he was reading a text and found so many difficult words, he lost interest to continue reading. This

situation affected his mood and motivation and therefore he became lazy to read English books. This problem influenced his learning progress which leads to unsatisfactory proficiency.

> First time I studied English I read English stuffs including books. When I read, I have problems with vocabulary. Usually when we lack of vocabulary, it makes us lazy to read English things. (Interview/Febriatmanto)

When asked more detail about strategies to overcome this problem he replied "at the beginning I opened dictionary, but if I have to open the dictionary too often then I became reluctant and lazy. Therefore I just guessed and did not translate every single word." This further explanation clarified that his strategy of guessing unknown words was a way out to avoid from consulting dictionary. However he did not confirm if his strategy helped him or not.

     6.2.5.3.2   *Lack of grammatical knowledge and skills.*   Grammar refers to rules about the structure of a language; the way words combine, the order they come in, the way they change according to their relationship with other words, and how they unite to form units of language such as sentences. A lack of grammar suggests that participants do not have enough knowledge of language rules to understand, and to use, both verbal and written language.

Febriana believed that to be a proficient English learner, students must be able to memorize grammar as well as English tenses and English sentence patterns. This belief was common among Indonesian students because most of the materials their teachers used in English classes dealt with grammar and structure. Some teachers even asked students to memorize the patterns regardless of whether or not they knew how to use them in context. This emphasis was intensified because the English tests evaluated the students' knowledge of language structure and grammar. For most teachers, this type test was much easier to construct and to assess. As a result, no matter which approaches were used to teach English subjects, the assessment was usually

grammar-based. This explains why the teaching and learning methods do not affect the English proficiency levels of the students.

> The most difficult one is grammar because English uses (many) formulas and it is very difficult to memorize them. My memorization is very bad too. Too many formulas! (Interview/Febriana)

Another interview with the same student added this explanation as shown in the data recorded in Section 6.2.5.1. When asked about which part of English she needed to learn more, Febriana replied, "I have more weaknesses in grammar and I lack self-confidence. So I want to be better at grammar and improve my self-confidence by chatting with friends more often, and presenting in front of the class more regularly". Her limited knowledge of grammar has prevented her from acquiring confidence in using the language for communication.

Febriatmanto found English structural knowledge a quite demanding area as he did not experience sufficient input during high school. As previously stated, he only learned the sixteen English tenses, and some other grammar elements, but these were not taught in detail. When joining the structure class at university for the first time, he was stressed initially because the discussion, unlike the lessons at high school, was very deep and detailed. It was different from that at the vocational high school. His poor understanding of English structure became a hindrance for him in relation to speaking in English. He lacked the confidence to speak because he was afraid of making mistakes and felt that people would underestimate him. Febriatmanto observed that:

> For me, the most difficult areas are understanding structure and speaking. I am afraid to speak. Actually, I am willing to speak but I am afraid of making mistakes thinking that people will laugh at me. For me, understanding structure is very hard. I graduated from a vocational school where I only studied the sixteen tenses. There was no discussion of nouns, and the discussion of pronouns was not in detail. That is why I was stressed when I learned that the

structure of English is very detailed. So, it is hard Sir. I started from zero, so it's

very hard. (Interview/Febriatmanto)

Both linguistic issues affected most learners at all levels of proficiency — high achievers,

medium achievers and low achievers. These common linguistic issues were in fact in line with what

Nation and Nation (1990) claim as two possible reasons encountered by language learners which

prevent them from being able to communicate in the target language. Specifically, it appears that

the participant learners did not have a sufficient stock of vocabulary and also they did not know

how to use the words productively in verbal communication. The root cause of these two linguistic

challenges could be as a result of limited vocabularies, as observed by Gebhard (2006), Hilton

(2008) and Nunan (1999). This claim buttresses one of the learners' beliefs about the importance

of vocabulary in language learning (see Section 6.1.2). This notwithstanding, the finding appears to

be in parallel with the views of Rivers (1981) and Widdowson (1978) who claim that

communication is seldom successful without an adequate vocabulary. In their view, in order to

improve learners' fluency in verbal communication, learners from all levels of proficiency need to

improve their lexicons.

Learning vocabulary in a second or foreign language is not 'just learning a word once and

for all but learning the range of information that goes with it' (Vivian Cook, 2001, p. 71). Therefore,

the possible solution for these linguistic problems, as encountered by the learners, includes

continuous vocabulary improvement through contextual application.

A number studies (Dickinson & Tabors, 2001; Hart & Risley, 1995; Malatesha Joshi, 2005)

have confirmed learners' beliefs about the importance of vocabulary. For instance, Joshi (2005)

finds that students with poor vocabulary knowledge read less and acquire fewer new words, while

students with better vocabulary knowledge read more and improve their comprehension.

Dickinson and Tabors (2001) and Hart and Risley (1995) further indicate that poor vocabulary

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development in early years negatively affects students' levels of reading comprehension in later years. Consequently, even though reading is a major source of vocabulary development, poor readers learn fewer words from reading than good readers. Compared with good readers, poorer readers tend to read simpler materials and fewer books(Jenkins, Stein, & Wysocki, 1984) constraining their levels of vocabulary acquisition. A number of studies focussing on vocabulary and reading comprehension conducted by Madden, Slavin, Karweit, Dolan, and Wasik (1993) and Pinnell, Lyons, Deford, Bryk, and Seltzer (1994), show that even though children make progress in reading at early grade levels, poor vocabulary impedes their levels of reading. In addition, Biemiller and Slonim (2001) posit that students with poor vocabularies find it hard to catch up with average readers. All these findings are congruent with the learners' belief, in this current study, that vocabulary is very important.

In relation to the difficulty of grammar in language learning, as experienced by participants in the present study, Sawir (2005) reveals a similar finding in her research on the language difficulties of international students in Australia, and the effects of prior learning experience. Her research participants originated from Asian countries such as Vietnam, Japan, and Indonesia, They also shared the belief that grammar is the most important aspect of English language learning. They believed that if they mastered the grammatical aspects, it would be easy for them to learn other language skills. This belief would seem to be a reflection of what was happening in their English classes in which the teaching of grammar became the focus of attention for the teacher. Unfortunately, this belief was accompanied by other beliefs, including the perception that they should not make any grammatical mistakes. This conviction has led them to being afraid of making grammatical mistakes. Also, this strong belief that they should avoid grammatical mistakes, has inhibited improvements in the levels of their language learning which reflects Sawir's findings (2005).

This chapter has produced significant findings in relation to the participants' belief about and choice of language learning strategy. They believed in the significance of language practice; for them, verbal and oral practice was more important than 'knowledge-based subjects or they call them "theory". They conceived that practice could be used to both improve and assess language proficiency. The participants held strong belief in the role of vocabulary and grammar in language learning; vocabulary was believed to be fundamental in developing proficiency and that regular practice could help improve grammar acquisition. In relation to their belief about error-correction, some believed that the way to deliver the correction determined the effectiveness of it. While some others considered that it would help develop the language accuracy regardless of the delivery. They also believed that each student was unique and therefore s/he had her and his special learning strategies; they reported that they were assertive with their existing learning strategies.

Another interesting finding was also revealed in this study which dealt with how they improved their macro language skills. First, they picked up collaborative practice to enhance their verbal skill and found that this strategy was very effective. Second, they incorporated hobby into a learning strategy especially in improving their listening skill by exposing themselves to English songs. Third, to improve their reading skill, they adopted extensive reading strategies by making use of online and printed reading materials. Fourth, it was found that the participants developed creative writing strategy by writing their own ideas as well as others' ideas. Finally, this study also uncovered challenges to learners' strategy practice which include the internal problems such as lack of confidence, anxiety and low motivation, external problems such as unsupportive environment and lack of learning facilities and lack of proficiency due to their limited vocabulary and grammatical knowledge.

6.3. Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the response to research question Number Two which deals with the nature of learners' beliefs and their choices of language learning strategy. It has explored learners' beliefs about language learning strategies, vocabulary and grammar development, mutual error-correction and language learning strategies. In regard to the nature of choices of language learning strategies, this chapter discussed participants' strategy choices to develop their language macro skills, and learners' challenges in strategy practice which covers their internal problems, external problems and linguistic problems. The next chapter provides answers to research question Number Three which deals with belief change as a result of reflection. The chapter starts with the reflection model, procedures and guidance, and then continues on to factors affecting belief change. The last section explains how learners' beliefs about language learning affect their strategy choices and their implementation. Then the chapter presents a summary displaying the interrelationships between the factors.

CHAPTER VII

# BELIEF CHANGE AS A RESULT OF REFLECTION

7.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the answers to research question Number Three which is investigated how changes in learners' beliefs occurred after the process of reflection. The data used for this analysis are mainly taken from the interviews, and verified with the data taken from the participants' learning journals, as appropriate. The interview data were taken from two interviews: one conducted at the beginning of the semester before the reflection procedure was implemented; the second conducted ten weeks later, after reflection. This analysis yields five themes which are: self-esteem, motivational orientation, self-confidence, mindsets and conception of language, and language learning. Before the finding and discussion are explored, guidance on the reflection procedure is presented.

7.2. Reflection Model and Procedure

The following chart (Figure 7.1), shows the process of reflection which the participants used to evaluate their learning strategies. This process was adapted from the three-step guiding reflective framework as proposed by Hegarty (2009, 2014).
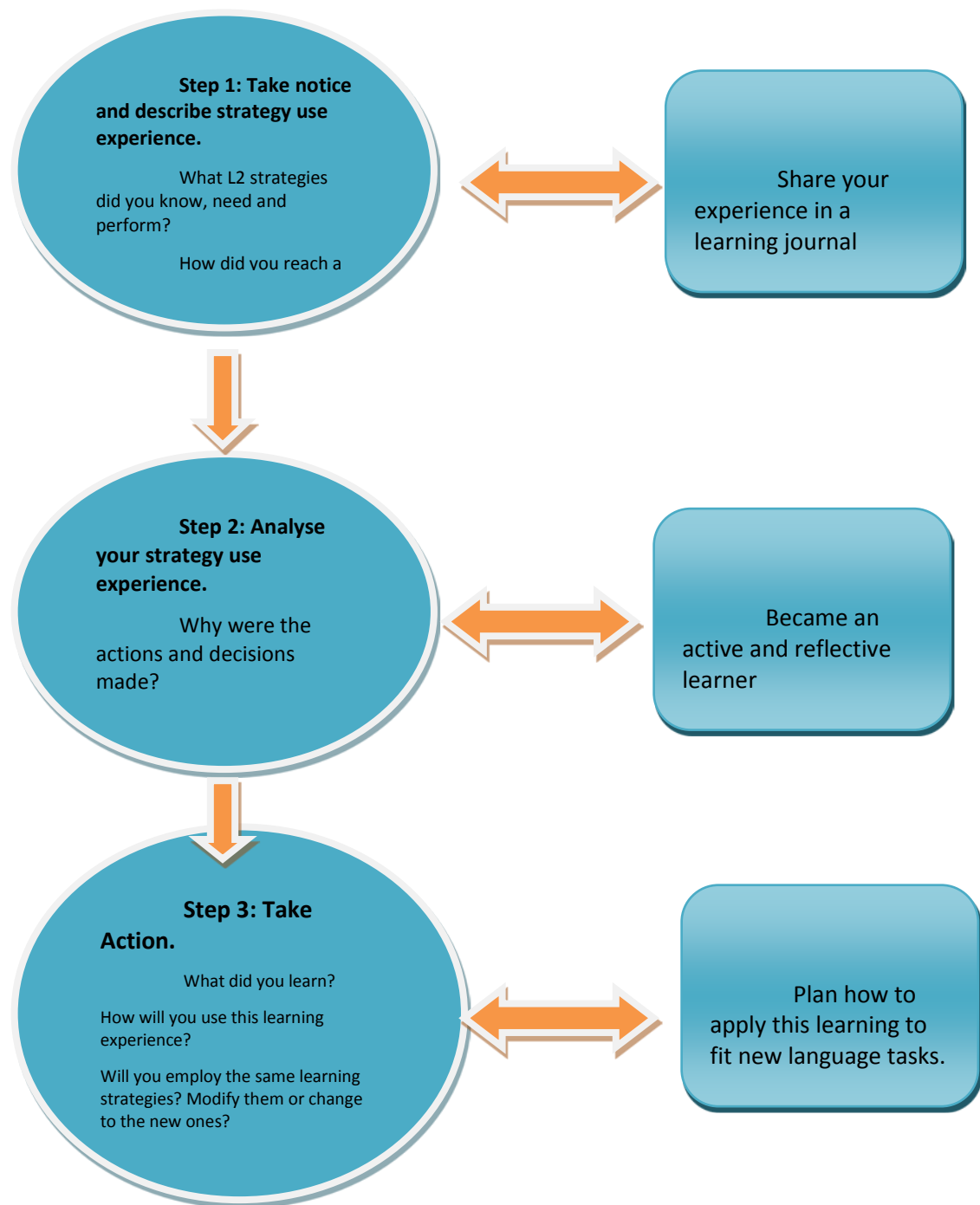
Figure 7.1 A Learning Strategy Investigation Chart

The process of reflection, as shown in the above chart, requires participants to follow

three steps to investigate and evaluate their learning strategies. These steps are:

1. Take notice and describe strategy use experience.

2. Analyse your strategy use experience.

3. Take Action.

      The first step, taking notice and describing strategy use experience, draws the attention of the participants to their recent activities, and records a basic description of their experiences. This purpose is covered in the questions that the participants were required to respond to:

      What strategies did you take in response to the language tasks assigned by your lecturer?

      What did you know about the strategies?

      What did you feel when you were carrying out the strategies?

      What did you think about them?

      What did you need to do to make the strategies more effective?

      Within this step participants were expected to describe the steps or actions they had taken, and the decisions they made, to arrive at their current levels of ability/knowledge of the English language. The purpose of the second step, analysing the experience, is to evaluate the experience including exploring the benefits the students gain from the experience, and what is missing in the experience. To achieve these objectives, the students were given a number of questions which included: why the actions were executed; why the decisions were made; what the reactions of the students were; and a question about factors such as whether or not they liked and/or enjoyed it the experience. In this step participants were encouraged to be critical about their choices of learning strategies through their own experience, that is, to become reflective and active learners.

      Meanwhile, the third step, taking action, has the objective of enabling participants to learn from their experience, and to use this knowledge and awareness when constructing their next approach to language learning. To achieve this objective the participants responded to two questions the first asking what they had learned, and the second focussing on how they would use

this reflective knowledge in their future learning strategies. When recording what they had learned, the students were required to include a critique of their immediate practice. Then, focusing on this reflective knowledge and its application to improve their learning practices, the students were obligated to set the language learning goals for their next period of learning. Second question, in relation to the third step, sought information about the participants' plans on how they might apply what they had learned to their practice and how they set goals. This process was designed to reinforce what the students had learned.

First, during the introduction to the project, all the plans were communicated including (a) the objectives of the project, (b) what they had to do as the participants of this project, (c) their right to withdraw anytime they wanted, and (d) their obligation to sign the consent form. Then, before they answered the interview questions, the students were reminded about the reflective process and the importance of providing information based on their reflections on their learning experiences.

During the explanation on how to do the reflection, the participants were attentive and enthusiastic. They talked to each other asking and clarifying what they knew and then asking me if they were not sure about their friends' answers. Most questions related to what they should write, if they had already forgotten some of the activities, and if they could write the reflective journal not in a chronological order but as the ideas occurred. They also asked how many pages they should write, and whether or not they had to reflect on all subjects of English they were currently taking, or if they could choose only the subjects they enjoyed.

The responses from the participants were not as rich as expected because most of them were just concerned with the prompts provided. Most responded to the questions briefly. They did not explore their experiences in detail, and sometime**s** the experiences were not in a logical

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order. The reason for these weaknesses may be due to the limited time they perceived they had to write their reflections. Actually, they were given freedom to write anywhere they wanted, on campus or at home. Unfortunately, many of them preferred writing their journals on campus where there were many distractions, and where there was a tight learning schedule which took most of their time. Consequently, they wrote the journals in between classes and during breaks. This type of time allocation was not long enough to be able to write a comprehensive journal. However, what they wrote was sufficient to unpack their feelings, and ideas, as well as their beliefs in relation to the implementation of language learning strategies.

7.3. Reflection guidance

This section reports on the process of reflection guidance that was provided to the participants of this study. The participants were reminded about what they were doing to uncover their experience in approaching language learning, how they were doing it and why they were doing it. In addition, throughout the process of journal writing and the interviews, the participants were reminded again about the purpose of the activities and encouraged to reflect deeply on their learning strategies. This emphasis was accompanied by hints and tips to maximise the effectiveness of the process.

First, participants were given the explanation that this reflection process obliges the learners to look back and think critically about their experiences in approaching language learning. In this process, they interpret and analyse what happened, how they felt and how they acted during the experience in order to take lessons from it. They should ask themselves how successful they found the experience and what they would do differently next time. Such reflection allows the awareness of their own strengths and weaknesses. At the end of the reflection, the

participants write about their experiences with their learning strategies including what has succeeded and failed as well as how they prefer to change strategies

Second, hints and tips were given to the participants on how to write a helpful reflection journal. To do this, they needed to be true to themselves, both critically and complementary, and immerse themselves in the reflective process. The participants were reminded to always link their experiences with their behaviour in general, and how they could use this knowledge to their advantage. The last hint was that when reflecting, the participants needed to concentrate on 'how' and 'why' as opposed to 'what', 'where', and 'when'.

7.4. Identified Changes of Beliefs about Language Learning Strategy

Figure 7.2 as presented below, shows the process of belief change. It shows the various steps required to secure such changes.
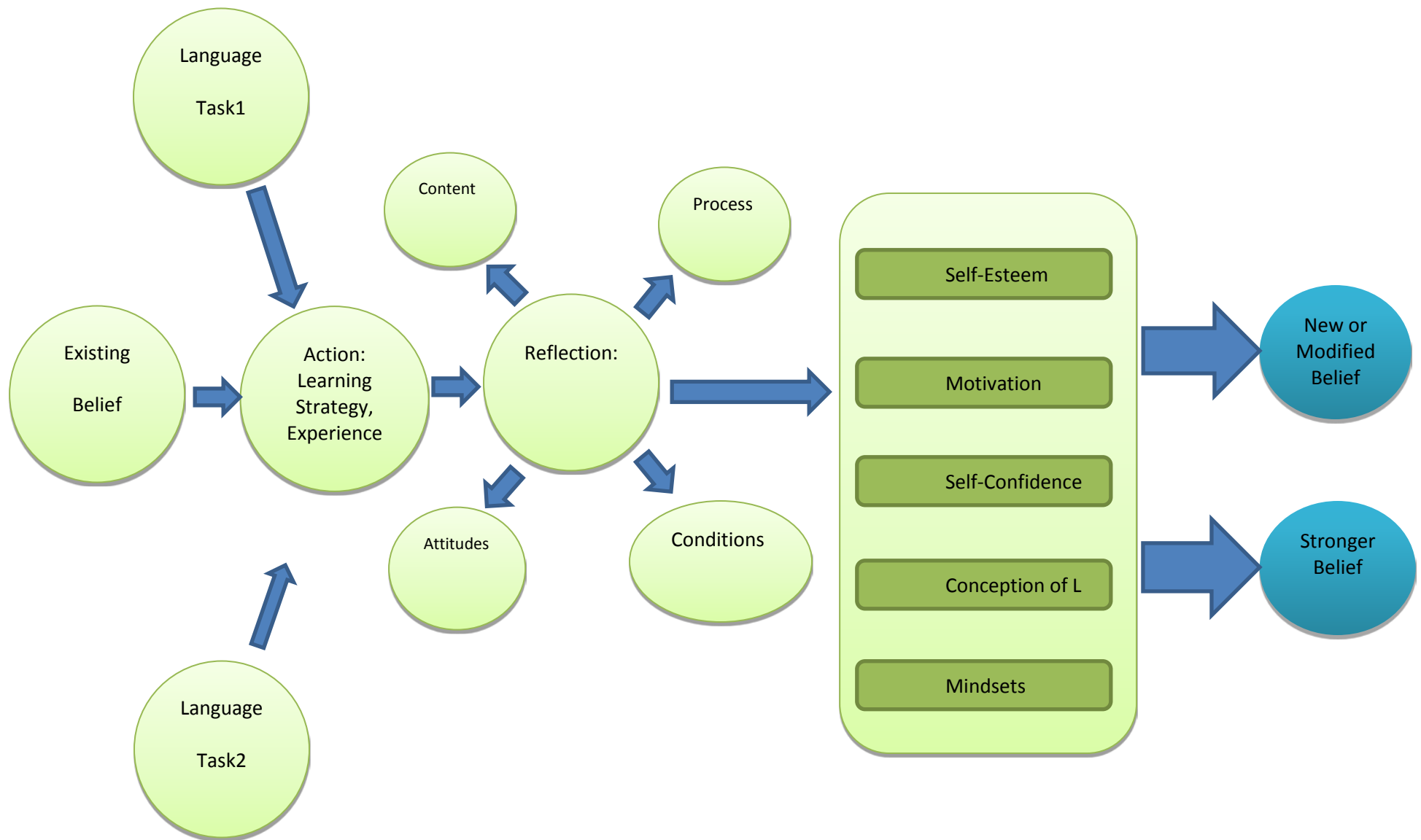
Figure 7.2   The Process of Changing of Beliefs about Language Learning Strategies

As most literature in language learning asserts, every learner develops his/her beliefs about language learning, regardless of whether these are explicitly articulated or not. These beliefs influence their ways of approaching language learning. As shown in Figure 7.2, students use their existing beliefs to cope with every single language task as assigned by their instructors or as initiated by themselves. All learning strategies they use give them experiences which they review during the reflection. The experiences may be a success story, a failure or a story with a rich plan for improvement.

In the process of reflection, the students were asked to process four factors which include process, content, attitudes and conditions. Process refers to how the learner performs strategies to undertake the language tasks by checking if this process has worked successfully, failed or needs development. Content deals with what the language task is mainly about to determine the learning strategy to be used to ensure its effectiveness. In the reflection process, the learners examine the learning strategies they have implemented and match them with the content of the language tasks. Attitude is another aspect the students evaluate to decide whether the learning strategies they adopted were effectual or not. During the reflection process, the learners recall their memories of using the strategies to uncover their attitudes and feelings towards these activities and find the reasons of these behaviours and emotions. These findings together, with their assessments of the effectiveness of the strategies, form a critical evaluation of their selection and implementation of their language learning strategies. The students' reflections about their language learning strategies found some factors which contributed to changes in their beliefs. These factors are: self-esteem, self-confidence, mindset and conception of language, and language learning. These factors are discussed in Sections 7.5 to 7.9 as follows. The four factors are used as section headings.

7.5. Self-esteem

The following section describes Jeffry's backgrounds based on his reflective journals and my interview with him. This datum has been translated from the Indonesian language, the language used in the reflective journals and during the interview. The participants selected as examples of the following categories include Jeffry and Novie.

7.5.1. Jeffry's story

Jeffry is from an educated family. His father is an Indonesian language teacher who is ambitious for his son's education. Jeffry's father introduced English language to him when he was young. He liked it and learned the language on his own for very long time every day. He did not know how to learn it effectively so what he did was just reading and memorizing vocabularies. His father always checked the progress of his vocabulary acquisition. He maintained this learning strategy until he entered senior high school where he found that he became more and more interested in English. When he was at the senior high school he was very active in the English Speaking Club. He practiced his English with his friends and, as previously mentioned, he joined the English debating competition. He really enjoys this activity and he is still active in Debate Community (DeCo) at his campus. In this organization he has an opportunity to exercise his English speaking skills as much as he wants because the language used in this community is English. He has become more and more confident regarding his speaking skills. Jeffry's active involvement in DeCo not only helps improve his speaking skills but also his writing skills. This is because he prepares his speeches in writing using an essay format and argumentative style. Although he feels that his grammar is weak, he keeps writing prioritizing ideas more than grammar. He often writes articles and sends them to English Department Student Association to be reviewed, and put on the wall magazine on campus. Jeffry stands-out amongst his classmates. Many students admire him, not only because he is good at speaking English, but also because of his determination to practice speaking in English whenever an opportunity arises.

This is a real-life example of self-esteem. As explained in literature review Section 2.4.1, self-esteem deals with an individual's positive evaluation of themselves (Campbell, et al., 1996;

Zeigler-Hill, 2013), a belief that he is competent in dealing with challenges (H. D. Brown, 2007; Mruk, 2006)and that in his personal judgment he is worthy (Coopersmith, 1967 as in H. D. Brown, 2007).

In this story, Jeffry's self-esteem developed his motivation and encouraged him to keep improving his speaking skills through his favourite learning strategy, speaking in English. He felt he was good at this skill, showing that he had a positive self-regard. This positive self-regard increased as he realized that his involvement in Deco (Zeigler-Hill, 2013) was improving his English language skills. Consequently, he became very confident about speaking in the target language. His pride in being able to speak well in English indicated that he held a belief in his personal judgment of worthiness (Coopersmith, 1967 as in H. D. Brown, 2007, pp., p.103). Although Jeffry had some weaknesses, especially in grammar, these did not stop him from making attempting to solve the problem. His constant pursuit of opportunities for writing practice, demonstrates his competence and determination to deal with such challenges (Mruk, 2006).

7.5.2. Novie's story

Novie felt that she was a lucky student as she had a strong motivation to learn English language not only within herself but also supported by her closest relatives: they provided opportunities for her to practise her English. She placed credit on her speaking ability too as she received the benefit of being able to use the target language in communication with her colleagues. Novie possessed a relatively positive sense of self-esteem as a language learner, in general. In the interview she observed that:

> After I did the reflection on how I learned English at LPU, I felt I have a lot of advantages. Not only that I really want to learn English myself, but also my family supports me. It is because they like English too. My auntie even graduated from the English department. Now, with my speaking ability I can talk in English with her and also with my other friends. I really enjoy it. (Interview/Novie)

In the classroom context, she encountered some negative feedback indicating that one of her areas of weakness was her listening skills. Nevertheless, Novie established a strategy to overcome her weakness in listening. She carefully selected, and listened to, audio recordings practising the sounds of English words, correcting her grammar and studying the sentence structures. Through this medium, she was confident about increasing the proficiency of her listening skills and correcting her grammar.

> I feel that I have some difficulty in listening because, sometimes, the native speaker's pronunciation is very hard to understand. So I prefer listening to the English songs, especially the old English songs because they still use the correct grammar, not like the new ones. (Interview/Novie)

Unlike her confidence in her speaking ability, Novie was worried about her grammatical competence. Her weakness in grammar, and especially her feeling of being scared of making mistakes, had hindered her writing. This feeling had become a mental block which did not allow her to develop.

> I don't like writing in English because I am scared of making mistakes. I always think about the grammar. What is the grammar like? Is it right? That is my difficulty when I want to write. (Interview/Novie)

Overall, Novie's EFL self-esteem fluctuated little across the language skill domain. Her statement that she enjoyed talking in English, and her acknowledgement that she was weak in listening and writing, perhaps due to her insufficient knowledge of grammar, confirmed that she made distinctions between the skills. She argued that she could solve her weakness in understanding the pronunciation of a native speaker through listening to an audio device. This was her strategy that she consciously selected to catch-up with the academic requirements.

The data shows that the participant possessed an affective quality of positive self-esteem which helped her approach language learning more effectively. Her positive feelings towards her speaking skills, as well as her social support, encouraged her to make use of the target language for authentic communication with her friends and her family members. This high sense of self-esteem, to some extent had helped her develop confidence in the ways she learned the language, especially through her verbal communication. As explained in Chapter Two Section 2.4.1 individuals who have high self-esteem tend to possess positive perceptions about themselves and the ability to deal with challenges. Her perception towards her environment was also positive as she saw people acknowledging her through appreciation and respect. In Novie's case, feeling positive about herself was exhibited through her internal motivation which drove her to authentically use the language. Her weakness in understanding the verbal communication from a native speaker did not stop her from finding ways to sort it out. With her confidence, she could cope with this negative feedback by making up her own strategy to learn authentic verbal English through listening to audio media devices. Novie's experiences reflect the theories of Heatherton, Wyland and Lopez who argue that an individual with high self-esteem has the ability to cope with challenges effectively (Heatherton, et al., 2003).

Novie's being afraid of making grammatical mistakes looks like an indication that she also has low self-esteem. According to Heatherton et al. (2003), people who suffer from low self-esteem tend to see the world from a negative point of view leading to their view of themselves and everything around them declining. Her low motivation to write in English as a result of her being afraid of making grammatical mistakes was proof that she faced some challenges on her language learning journey. However, her effort to keep writing in close consultation with someone with better English proficiency was evidence that she was trying to cope effectively with the challenges (Mruk, 2006).

Well, actually I keep writing, like a paragraph or just any writing and usually I give it to a friend who is cleverer than me to see if the grammar is correct or not. We sometime also discuss about the content. It is really helping me, *Alhamdulillaah*. (Interview/Novie)

The data from both Jeffry and Novie displayed that although they had high levels of self-esteem, there were still some obstacles to their study. However, their high self-esteem enabled them to develop confidence to find ways of dealing with their learning issues. These findings correlate with the arguments of Brown (2007) and Heatherton (2003) and Heyde (1979), Pramita (2012) and Soureshjani & Naseri (2011) about the strong links between high levels of self-esteem and success in language learning.

7.6. Motivational orientation

The quote presented below shows that Zendy was motivated to succeed in his English language program because his aim was to become a competent teacher of English who would be a good example for his students. Zendy realised that he was not fluent in English. Nonetheless, he persisted in speaking in English indicating that he gave a high priority to his verbal skills, indicating his belief that verbal competence was an indicator of an individual's language competence. Zendy asserted that:

Well, to be honest I want to be a good model for my future students. Although I realise that my English is not good, I believe I can improve it. That's why I always speak in English although I know that I cannot speak [English] fluently. Although sometimes I do not know about the grammar but I just speak it. Sometimes I don't care whether my friends understand me or not. When I want to use an English word but I do not know, I go around it or use different words to make someone I'm talking to understand me. I hope by doing all of these things I can improve my English and later become a good English teacher for my students. (Interview/Zendy)

Motivation in second language learning deals with the effort an individual makes to learn the language due to his or her intention to do so, and the feeling of satisfaction when the learning process happen (R. Gardner, C., 1985). The above quote clearly displays two factors which are indicators of motivation, that is, the extent to which the individual, in this case Zendy, worked and the reasons underpinning his actions in learning the language, as mentioned in the paragraph which precedes the quote.

The following extract illustrates Tesa's concern about her English competence. She aimed to speak like a native English speaker. In pursuing her aim, she worked assiduously. Her professional goal was to be a competent English teacher. She realised that although she could not acquire the language proficiency of a native English speaker, she kept working towards this goal.

> I want my English competence to be close to that of an English native speaker. I work hard to be like a native speaker. What I mean is that while learning I enjoy [English] music. I may not be like the singer of the songs or a native speaker but I will try to learn hard to be like a native speaker. (Interview/Tesa)

Novie showed her strong motivation to learn grammar more seriously than other components of English. She was confident that a good English teacher was a teacher who had a comprehensive and correct understanding of grammar. She explicitly stated her ambition of becoming an English teacher.

> Personally I really want to learn grammar more seriously because I know I will be an English teacher after I graduate from this university. I have to teach my students correct English, which follows standard grammar. If my grammar is not good, I will not be a competent English teacher. (Interview/Novie)

Septi's mother, as a significant other (Williams & Burden, 2004), is the source of her motivation for studying English. In addition, Septi observed that she was also motivated by her

unfortunate socio/economic background and her feeling of responsibility to compensate her mother for her sacrifices.

> My motivation is my mother. I do not come from a wealthy family. My mother has to work very hard to send me to this university and I feel I have to pay back what she has done to me although I know I will never be able to do it. But I am sure, if I can make them proud, at least to make them smile, I will be very happy. So I really want to be good and fluent in English. My ambition is to be an English lecturer and I am sure my parent will be very happy. (Interview/Septi)

All these excerpts are rooted in what Gardner claims as being instrumental motivation (Clément, et al., 1977; R. Gardner, C., 1985), a motive owned by an individual which drives him or her for pragmatic reasons. The fact that participants were studying to be English teachers partly explains their motivation but the accompanying factors are equally important motivators.

As mentioned at the beginning of this section, all the participants in this study were aware that they would be qualified to become English teachers after they completed their studies. Regardless of their level of competence, this awareness motivated them to prepare themselves, in their own ways, for entry into the profession of English teachers.

Zendy showed his concern that he must be a good example for his future students in terms of English proficiency. This awareness drove him to take action and strategies to make sure that his level of English proficiency improved, for example, he kept talking in English although he was aware that his grammar was not perfect and that he could not do it fluently. He showed his serious effort to make improvements. According to Ames (1992), this student was adopting a mastery orientation approach because he believed that by working seriously he would eventually achieve success, and that the emphasis of this orientation is on one's own improvement and growth. Ames argues that performance goals are superior to mastery goals, as students with performance goals usually like

challenging work better, have intrinsic interest in learning activities and positive attitudes towards learning.

Zendy's confession that he wanted to be a good model for his future students, and Tesa's anticipation that she would meet her students eventually, and Novie's conviction that she would become an English teacher after she graduated from university displayed their strong sense of responsibility as future English teachers. The feeling of responsibility is a factor which comes from the consciousness of the learners confirming that these learners are holding intrinsic motivation, the type of motivation which is important in the second language learning(see H Douglas Brown, 1990; H Douglas Brown, 1994; H. D. Brown, 2007). With this type of motivation, learners set up their own strategies to improve their competence. The participants' actions demonstrate intrinsic motivation towards achievement, engaging in an activity for the satisfaction of surpassing oneself, coping with challenges for the satisfaction, and accomplishing or creating something (Vallerand, 1997).

Septi's conviction about her true motivation to learn English was her mother, surprised me. The type of motivation is very rare, at least as far as I am aware. In the framework of motivation in language learning, William and Burden (2004) include parents under significant others, as external factors. They explicitly claim that parents can possibly be a source of motivation for learners to learn a second or foreign language. Referring to Septi's explanation, it seemed that she was very emotional in recalling how hard her mother worked to enable her to study. As Döring (2007) affirms, emotions have a motivational force which can justify actions. It was clear that Septi felt she had to repay her mother for what she had done for her. Then, she could enjoy her status as a university student, a position that not everybody could achieve. It explains what William and Burden refer to as the nature and amount of appropriate praise within the nature of interaction with significant others. Therefore, what Septi had achieved in language learning was a way of ameliorating her feeling of indebtedness to her mother. William and Burden's definition of motivation as a construct of cognitive and emotional arousal which leads to a conscious decision to act, is clarified by Septi's

action in relation to her motivation and achievement. That Septi achieved well and became one of the high achieving students could be attributed to a form of motivation involving an emotional bond with the potential to drive an individual to learn and achieve at a higher level.

7.7. Self-confidence

In the following discussion, for the purpose of analysis and clarification, self-confidence is classified into two categories: these are high and low self-confidence. High self-confidence, in this study, refers to a positive belief that a learner holds about his or her ability which will benefit their learning, whereas low self-confidence refers to a negative belief that a learner holds about his or her ability which inhibits learning. There are four sets or quotes below which reflect both kinds of self-confidence. The following data describes Septi's background based on her reflective journals and my interview with her.

Septi's story is as follows:

The subject that I like best is writing because it is different from speaking which needs spontaneity. In writing you have time to think about the grammar and to choose the best words. Writing is my favourite subject. In my opinion writing is just like speaking. In speaking you need to listen first before you speak. Similarly, in writing you have to read first before you can write. When I read I already have ideas on what kind of writing that I will have to write which suits my type. I like reading novels, the thick ones, and I just guess if I do not know the words. I do not hold the novel in the left hand and dictionary in the right hand. I can just guess.

When I write, I always think about the ideas first and I think about the grammar later. I can reread my writing and correct my grammar later. Once I heard from a native speaker of English that we should not think about the grammar if we want to speak fluently. We should think about what we are going to say. Similarly, we should not think about grammar too much when we write, but we have to think

about what we are going to write, I mean the ideas. I like writing essays, poems, … all in English.

I believe the learning strategies I use are very effective because I like them. They really suit me. I like them better than having to read books every night or every day. I believe it will bring positive effects to my studies. If we want to know whether our learning strategies are successful or not, it is easy, just look at the marks we get. What I mean is if I implement the strategy continually, there will be good results for my studies.

It was noticeable that Septi held a strong degree of confidence in what she had been doing; she showed her confidence in a few aspects of learning. First, she showed her confidence when declaring that writing was her favourite aspect of language learning; she did not demonstrate any hesitation when saying that her best subject was writing. Second, she showed her level of confidence when she stated that she read novels written in English by using her guessing strategy to understand difficult words. Finally, she claimed that her learning strategies worked very well. She added that the marks she got could indicate whether or not the learning strategies she had been using were successful.

7.7.1 High self-confidence

From the following excerpt it is clear that Jeffry maintained his interest in English for a relatively long period of time, since he was at senior high school until he was at the University. He managed to maintain his curiosity in English by joining English clubs where he could make use of his English for communication. He argued that his regular practice of using English in his organization had made him used to communicating in English. Even he was very confident that speaking in English routinely could prevent him from making unnecessary mistakes, and equipped him with the sense of self-correction when he made mistakes. While the following quote has been cited, in different style, to show Jeffry's self-esteem (see Section 7.5.1), these would be used again to highlight his self-confidence.

When we practice our speaking skill every day, especially in an organization like English speaking club, we get used to it. With regular practice, we will be able to speak English fluently and will not make any critical mistakes because we are accustomed to doing so and we will be able to correct any mistakes ourselves. (Interview/Jeffry)

His belief in the importance of practice as one way to improve his proficiency was consistent with how he suggested other people to learn English as he said in the quote below. He argued that joining an English speaking club would provide opportunities for them to learn from others and to be open-minded. He mentioned some advantages that they would get if they learned English with others, such as feeling more motivated to, and being open-minded in accepting feedback from others. He believed that in learning English the presence of a learning partner was of importance as he or she could give constructive feedback.

Learn with friends, in groups or join an English club. It will open your mind and you will get a lot of knowledge from your friends. Ask them to correct you and you can correct them. For example, if we learn to do oral presentation and there is nobody listening to us, we do not know our weaknesses. But when we have friend listening tour presentation let alone they are better than us, they will know which part of our presentation need improvement. So basically we need to have a partner to practise and to correct. (Interview/Jeffry)

Zendy had a strong belief about the importance of practice in English language learning. He claimed that practice was a "must" in order to learn English. Consistently he made up his own ways to be able to practise his English. With confidence he asserted that he practised his English more often than before. He also stated that, at this point, he had reached a level where his English could be considered fluent although he was aware that he still made grammatical mistakes. However, he was very confident and his grammatical mistakes made did not worry him at all.

I always think that learning English is impossible without practice. So I try my own ways so that I can practise my English, and at the same time learn independently.

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Now I practise my English more often. I also listen to English songs and read more. Now I realize that my speaking skill is fluent although I still make mistakes in grammar and diction. (Interview/Zendy)

Zendy's belief in the significance of practising English for real communication was identified when he was asked about the best way to learn English. He suggested that a learner join a good English course as it would provide with opportunities to practise his English. If the learner failed to join a private English course, he suggested that he learned independently but still put practice as the top priority. He was also confident about saying that the learner had to speak in English although he might still make mistakes. Mistakes should not let him feel apprehensive of practising his English for real communication.

It is better to study English in private English courses that are proven to have high quality factors such as teachers, materials, teaching methods and environment. We can practise our skills there, and we can also study independently. If you study independently, practise more and read more. Speak with your friends confidently although you make mistakes. (Interview/Zendy)

Both Jeffry and Zendy showed their high self-confidence in learning English, especially by using their English for real communication with their friends. They both realized that their English was not perfect, but with regular practice their English would be better and fluent.

7.7.2 Low self-confidence

Septi was one of the high achieving students but at times she also suffered from low self–confidence. She stated that she was an inferior type of student. She said that this feeling increased especially when other people exposed her weakness in public, for example, pointing out her mistakes. Although she realized that she could learn from being corrected by other people when she made she would avoid this if possible.

Actually I am an inferior type of person. So, if I am talking and I make mistakes, and then suddenly someone is correcting me, I mumble "Why is that guy doing this to me?" I become more inferior and think that the person must be smarter than me and at the same time I feel bad. I know what he is doing is good but I just don't like it. (Interview/Septi)

When asked whether the learning strategies she had applied were effective or not, Sartika replied that they were not yet effective. She lacked confidence even when having to talk about whether or not her strategies worked well. She also showed her concern about her fear of talking to people and making mistakes during the interaction. She was critical of her learning strategies and suggested that they would be effective in improving her English if she voluntarily took the initiative to converse with people.

However, my weakness is that I am afraid to ask and interact with people who are smarter than me. In my opinion, these strategies would be effective if I could interact with people. (Interview/Sartika)

The following quote explains more about her level of confidence (the information below was her response to an interview asking about which part of English she found difficult).

In my opinion all [aspects of English] are difficult because they are all interrelated. English is difficult. But the most difficult aspect is speaking and I know that speaking is the main aspect of English. Grammar is also very difficult and it affects other aspects in English. When we want to speak we need grammar; in translation we also deal with grammar. (Interview/Sartika)

Sartika built up a negative belief about English - that this language is difficult. This belief led her to being unmotivated to improve herself. She also claimed that speaking skills and grammar knowledge were the most challenging factors for her. She believed that being weak in grammar hindered her from improving her English because she believed that weakness in grammar affected all aspects of English. Therefore, she concluded that English was difficult.

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Based on her learning experience, Ririn concluded that English grammar was too complicated. She also stated that her speaking skills were weak. Ririn said that she suffered from feelings of fear in using her English for communication, as well as the fear of taking risks and making mistakes. On other occasions she said that she needed more practice in speaking because she felt speaking was so difficult. This seemed contradictory when compared with what she believed about language learning practice. She thought that practice was the most important aspect of learning English as evident in her following response to an interview question: Ririn observed

Interviewer: How about speaking?
Ririn   : Well, as I said, I am afraid of talking in English and I am afraid of making mistakes.
Interviewer: Why are you afraid?
Ririn   : I am just not confident.   **(**Interview/Ririn)

The data shows how significant self-confidence was in affecting the dynamics of learners in approaching language learning. There is no dispute among scholars about the importance of self-confidence in language learning (see for example Clément, et al., 1994; Hong, et al., 2014)**.** Hong et al. asserts that among other factors which might contribute to the success of language learning, self-confidence is 'the most significant' (Hong, et al., 2014, p. 315). Furthermore, the theorists contend that self-confidence also provides positive vigour to learners to master the language learned, enjoy the process of learning and experience real communication. Both Jeffry and Zendy showed how high levels of self-confidence shaped their approaches to language learning. The constant interest in English, and the regular practice that Jeffry maintained, contributed to the development of his verbal skills and his comparatively high level self-confidence. In addition, Jeffry knew that he maintained his high level of confidence he needed to involve himself in communities that used English as the medium of communication. By participating actively in such clubs he was not only keeping his self-confidence but also improving his motivation at the same time (see for

example Hong, et al., 2014). This correlates with Radwan's (2014) and Dörnyei's and Ushioda's (2013) ideas that external factors play important roles in the maintenance of self-confidence.

Likewise, Zendy was demonstrating his high level of self-confidence when he claimed that his English had reached a certain degree of fluency. This kind of belief had stabilised his confidence which strengthened as Zendy experienced the results of his hard work in practising over the years. It verifies Ho's (2013) argument that self-confidence partly is the result of hard work to improve skills. Zendy was not only confident in his claim that his English was fluent, but also in the situation when, for example he made grammatical mistakes during conversation. His awareness that such mistakes might appear in his articulation of English did not change his confidence level. On the contrary, he felt that making mistakes was a natural part of the process of learning and that it could function as another source of learning (see for example Richard Schmidt, 1995; Witley, 2014). Zendy had reached a critical stage in the process of language learning in which he was alert when he unintentionally made mistakes. As what Witley (2014) explains there are different stages in language learning. The first stage is when a learner wants to be able to say what he means so that other people can understand him in the way he wants others to understand. The next stage is how the learner tries to speak in a similar way to a native speaker, if not the same. Mistakes may occur in both stages and sensitivity towards mistakes will help learners make progress. Nonetheless, to derive benefits from such mistakes one needs a high level of self-confidence to learn from them(Hong, et al., 2014).

It should be clarified that, in the Indonesian context, English language serves as the first foreign language after a local language like Javanese, or Sudanese as the first language or a mother tongue, and Indonesian language which functions as the second language or a national language which all the people speak. Thus English is rarely spoken in offices or in public places; it is used in tourist locations where there are many English-speaking visitors. In schools or in universities English is only spoken in English classes when the teachers or lecturers have confidence to speak. There is a

limited number of English classes whose teachers or lecturers have the confidence to speak in English, and even fewer of these teachers speak English fluently. Some excerpts from the data can be taken as examples to support this phenomenon. When asked to write about how he learned English in Senior High School, Febriyanto wrote, *"My English teacher in Senior High School never speaks in English, he teaches us tenses all the time, so we don't speak English at all."* (Febriyanto's journal entry). Febriyanto also wrote, *"In Semester One, some lecturers often spoke in English and I felt happy with it but now they don't speak English anymore"*. This issue is common in the Indonesian educational system throughout the country. Consequently, the government is always trying to find ways to improve the quality of English education through introducing new teaching methods and new curriculum. This situation means that the students have limited exposure to English and this hinders their progress in English language acquisition particularly in spoken English.

Lack of self-confidence and the fear of taking risks are common issues among language learners, in general. Tsui (1996), when investigating teacher perceptions of student reticence, found that learners' low levels of self-confidence and lack of willingness to take risks are factors which affect learners' readiness to respond to teachers' questions. Tsui's findings are reflected in this study contributing to the students being passive learners.

The inconsistency between Sartika's beliefs, and her actions regarding her learning strategies, and how to improve them, provides an example of action not always being guided by belief. Sartika realized that her learning strategies needed improvement through regular interaction, in the target language, with other people. Nevertheless, because of her limited knowledge of grammar and her comparatively low level of language competence, Sartika lacked the confidence to implement this strategy. This finding is an exception in relation to the established theory which asserts that belief guides desires and shapes actions (Charles Sanders Peirce, 1977). It suggests that in a situation where learners do not have high levels of self-confidence, it is unlikely that their

actions will be directed by their beliefs that is, belief, without a substantial level of self-confidence, may be insufficient to direct a learner's actions.

The data on Ririn's belief that she was weak in grammar, speaking and her approach to language learning provides another example of the relationship between beliefs and actions. James (1889), argues that beliefs and actions are interrelated: beliefs influence actions and in turn actions change beliefs. Ririn believed that English grammar was complicated and that it was not easy for her to cope with it. Likewise, her acknowledgment that she was weak both in grammar and speaking implies that she had a low level of self-confidence. The combination of these factors suggests that Ririn had a negative self-concept which appeared to be domain-specific-dependent. This example supports the theory that beliefs and actions are interrelated (Charles Sanders Peirce, 1977 as in Barcelos, 2003).

7.8. Learner's beliefs about talent and effort (mindsets)

The following excerpt from Jeffry's journal, illustrates his mindset in relation to his language learning strategies.

> In my opinion the learning strategies that I have used are effective. I can see this in my speaking ability. When we practice speaking every day, especially in an organization, we get used to it; we are less likely to make critical mistakes because we practise regularly and we are able to correct ourselves. For me, the most difficult subject is listening because it is related to the sensitivity of our hearing. Each person has a different level of sensitivity in listening. I admit that my listening is still weak, let alone when I have to listen to a native English speaker. I just can't do it yet. My environment, for example, I have friends who like talking in English, is significant to helping people to learn English. Friends can motivate us. That is why learning English in an English speaking country like England, for example, is much better because we can speak English directly to native speakers. We can learn the correct pronunciation from them. If we learn English here [in Indonesia], we still make mistakes in pronunciation. (Journal entry/Jeffry)

This excerpt explains that Jeffry believed in the power of his effort and hard work to impact significantly on his success in language learning. It is clear that he believed his acquisition of good speaking skills was attributable to his regular practice of the English language. In the terminology of learners' beliefs, Jeffry held a growth mindset. In addition, Jeffry also believed that his English language hearing insensitivity could be improved by conversing with fellow English students or living in an English speaking country.

Ririn also displayed a growth mindset. Ririn believed that an individual's motivation and conscious effort would lead to finding effective ways of learning to improve their English language learning skills. She also believed that these language skills would be enhanced by the constant improvement of these learning strategies. Ririn observed that:

> In my opinion the factor which helps us gain success in language learning is ourselves. For example, if we want to master English language but we do not put any effort into finding out how to improve our English, nothing will change. So, motivation and effort should be encouraged. For me, practice is very important because the most important thing in learning English is practice. (Interview/Ririn)

Similarly, Febriatmanto believed in the role of effort in language learning. Together with other factors such as spirit or motivation, tolerance towards time and persistence, Febriatmanto believed effort or hard work would lead to success in language learning.

> If you want to be successful in learning English you have to have spirit, study hard and have a belief in success because if you have such a belief there must be a way. Everybody who works hard will find their way. If we have the spirit and work very hard, and believe that we will succeed, we will be successful one day for sure. Although it may be hard, we will achieve it. (Interview/Febriatmanto)

Zendy shared Ririn and Febriatmanto's beliefs in the importance of effort and hard work to succeed in language learning. He tried various strategies to help him acquire English language skills.

As demonstrated in the following quote, Zendy exhibited a growth mindset characterised by his strong belief in the value of hard work and persistence.

> As I think that mastering English is impossible without practice, I try to find my own ways of learning so that I can learn independently. I practice more and more, for example, I listen to English songs and read English articles. (Interview/Zendy)

In the following example Zendy displays more of a fixed mindset. He proposes that effective methods of learning English include conversing with other people in English, and living in an English speaking country.

> The best way to learn English is by interacting with the people who are using English. For example, a four-year old child who joins his father overseas, living in an English speaking country will acquire the language more easily. He will understand the language more easily and learn the original English. (Interview/Zendy)

Zendy's belief in the role of environment as one of the important factors in shaping success in language learning, is confirmed in the following quote in which he mentions the presence of "expert language learners" (Mercer, 2011a) helping the interaction process. Zendy refers to people with extroverted personalities as being well-suited to language learning. He posits that the confidence, curiosity and determination of such people contributes positively to their interaction with other language learners and substantially improves their levels of language acquisition. All of these factors are clearly indicative of fixed mindsets. Thus, Zendy accredits the success of language learning to both external factors such as the environment or friends, and to the internal attitudes and behaviours of the learners.

> Environment is important in helping people gain success in learning English, for example he has friends who are expert and very good in speaking English. People who are extrovert, who like interacting with other people, who are curious and

confident to ask questions and people who are determined are often successful language learners. (Interview/Zendy)

Although Zendy showed more of a fixed mindset about language learning, in general, in relation to speaking skills, in particular, he believed in the effectiveness of conscious effort and hard work. Meanwhile, Ririn and Febriatmanto confidently displayed their strong beliefs in the power of growth mindsets as the factor which significantly determines the success of language learning.

It is understood that all of the participants in this study were taking formal education as their path way to success in language learning. A few of them had taken non-formal education in English such as at a private English course. They participants had studied English, at least, since they were at the secondary college. This suggests they had studied English for more than seven years. During this time, they had been taught by different English teachers, with different teaching methods, made friends with different types of students, studied in different environments and had met a variety of challenges. Consequently, each student had formed his/her beliefs about language learning strategy within different environments. The findings establish that all of the participants held strong beliefs in the power of growth mindsets, and the significance of fixed mindsets, in pursuing language learning success. Not one of the participants' beliefs were confined to a particular mindset. The only difference in their beliefs was the degree to which one mindset was favoured more than the other.

Although none of the participants had implemented the same language learning strategies, all of them acknowledged the importance of practice as a learning strategy. Some participants even believed that practice in language learning was compulsory to master the English language. Each participant was firmly convinced about the positive role of a growth mindset in successful language learning. They perceived that two of the major characteristics of a growth mindset were the power of practice as a conscious effort, and hard work. They recognised that the amount of time an

individual invested in these strategies varied among the participants. As attested by Ericson et.al., "differences in expert performance are attributable primarily to deliberate practice over an extended period of time more than their sense of innate gift" (as in Mercer, 2012p. 25).

All participants also shared the belief that the environment was an important factor in successful language learning. Their individual approaches to the environment reflected differences. These differences included: the degree of effort they made to find a supportive environment, how they made use of their chosen environment, and how they perceived its challenges. All of the participants agreed that learning English in an English-speaking country was beneficial as it offered more opportunities to use the language voluntarily for communication. However, they were also aware that this type of environment was beyond their reach. Therefore, they had to rely on the available support systems in their environment to improve their efforts to learn the English language. The participants' support systems included relatives and friends who provided encouragement in varying degrees and with diverse motivations.

There was an interesting finding about Zendy in relation to his belief in the importance of environment to excel in his proficiency. The literature suggests that language learners who hold a fixed belief are more likely to avoid challenges who are not prepared to take risks themselves if they perhaps will fail, set lower goals, and tend to be demotivated (for example, Mercer, 2012). Various studies have also shown that, learners with strong fixed mindsets, for example believing that intelligence is a fixed trait tend to blame their intellectual ability when they encounter failure (for example Mercer & Ryan, 2010). On the one hand, Zendy believed that to get the best result of English language acquisition a learner needed to be part of the community who were using the language for real communication, and thus, suggests that he was holding a fixed mindset. However he also believed that to get an optimum result in language learning, communication practice in the target language was inevitable, an activity which obviously required the learner to make serious effort to use the learned language for communication. These data appear to challenge the above

mentioned literature. In other words, the literature suggesting that a learner with fixed mindset tends to avoid challenges was not found in this study. I assume that the nature of the data contribute to this split finding. The data of this study are mostly interviews which are asking about the participants' beliefs about language learning strategy. The participants can answer anything to respond to the interview which sometimes did not reflect what they were really doing. Data from observation, to see what they actually were doing in the process of language learning would have had more validity and may have confronted their beliefs.

The data showed that all of the participants from all ranges of proficiency held both fixed mindsets and growth mindsets. The difference existed in which area and which mindsets existed more. This finding needs further study to investigate which mindsets developing in which area contribute to the success of language learning more. This aligns with what Mercer and Ryan (2010) argue that some domains within fixed mindsets do not seem to correspond with growth mindsets and therefore further research on the area of mindsets is suggested in pursuit of the nature of relationship between these two sets of beliefs. This is important as it can be a guide for both language learners and instructors to further develop their potential to gain the success in language learning. Learners also need to develop their growth mindsets more as various studies have shown that this kind of mindsets helps the learner to set challenging goals, attribute their success or failure within their control and that they would take risks to make sure they make progress in their learning (see Mercer, 2012). Therefore developing growth mindsets will benefit the learners as it will encourage them to make effort and conscious hard work to facilitate their language learning. Suggested to be deleted

7.9. How learners' beliefs in language learning affects their learning strategy choice and implementation

Learners' beliefs in language learning affects their learning strategy choice and implementation in four ways: embracing one's conception of language and language learning; prioritizing one's aspect of language to another; developing supporting factors, and, being sensitive to feedback.

7.9.1. Embracing one's conception of language and language learning

To help understand the idea of conception, the following excerpt from Septi's response to an interview question is presented. The question asked Septi about her opinion regarding vocabularies and grammar in language learning.

> The most important thing in English language is vocabulary. If we keep reading, listening and writing, sooner or later the grammar will follow. So for me, it is not so important to learn grammar. If we have applied the vocabulary that we have, our grammar knowledge will improve. So do not memorize the grammar patterns, it is better that we just speak. Without a vocabulary, we will not be able to speak because we will not know the words. (Interview 2/Septi)

The above data excerpt displayed what Septi believed about the role of vocabulary in language learning; she believed that learning English would not be so complicated if the learner had acquired sufficient vocabulary. According to her by using vocabulary for everyday use such as reading, listening and writing, the learner could acquire the knowledge of grammar automatically. In other words, she had a strong conception that to be able to learn English well, a learner must possess a sufficient number of vocabularies and use them on a regular basis. Meanwhile, the acquisition of grammar knowledge would come as the learner used the vocabulary regularly and therefore he or she did not need to spend special time to learn the grammar. This conception implied that she had a belief that language was a collection of things to be learned and she

pinpointed that vocabulary possessed the top priority to be learned in order to acquire the language faster; other language components came after the vocabulary. Another implication was that regular use of vocabulary in reading, listening, and speaking activities would enable a language learner to unconsciously acquire the knowledge of grammar.

Two issues remain to be discussed are the conception of language and the conception of language learning. The former deals with how the participants of this study conceptualize the language and the latter is related to how the participants conceptualize language learning. These two conceptions are obviously related as the latter is actually the consequence of the former. The participant's belief that vocabulary formed the most important aspect of language and would improve the understanding of grammar when it was applied in everyday use through all skill domains, reflected the strong quantitative conception of the language. The following excerpt showed that she really applied her understanding of vocabulary in other skill domains.

> I always do [writing] exercises. At my boarding house in my spare time, I try to write anything which comes into my head. (Journal entry/Septi).

In the mind of the participant, English language consisted of a few aspects of language and some skills which had to be learned to master the language. This conception eventually affected her conception of language learning or how she approached the language learning. If a language learner believes that vocabulary is the most important thing to learn the language, it is most likely that he or she has a strong attitude towards vocabulary building or in other words, she will rely on word memorization (Phil Benson & Winnie Lor, 1999). They also argue that an individual who has a strong belief in the importance of vocabulary would consider grammatical knowledge significant and s/he would use memorization learning strategy to learn the grammar. In the case of Septi, however, this commonality did not work as she conceived that the knowledge of grammar would come along with the application of vocabulary in everyday use through all skill domains.

7.9.2 Prioritizing one aspect over another

This means that an individual may assume that one aspect of a language is more significant than another and believe that if he or she masters the aspect well, it might help their understanding of the other factors more easily. Tri's conception of foreign language learning, especially about her decreasing frequency of speaking English like a native speaker of English, included her understanding about the English accent of the speakers, the delivery of the message and the accuracy of the information. She was aware that it is unlikely that an adult learner of a foreign language would be as fluent as a native speaker of the language. Therefore, she believed that in communication, the delivery of the message as well as the accuracy of the information were more important than exhibiting an English accent which was close to that of a native speaker. As long as the accent was understandable, communication could still occur among the speakers. It implied that Tri's conception of language learning dealt with the delivery of the message without any distortions. Therefore, a learner should not always force himself or herself to be able to speak English using the English native speaker's accent which may frustrate him or her. In other words, as long as the pronunciation was clear, understandable and did not cause any misunderstanding among the speakers, an English accent was not a compulsory. When asked why she did not try to talk like a native speaker anymore, Tri replied:

> As I explained before, the accent of English native speaker is different from that of non-native speakers. I still consider that speaking English without using the accent of the English native speaker is alright, as long as the people who listen can understand what the speaker means. I am happy if I can understand other people speaking in English with their own accent. In the end, the accuracy of the information is more important. (Interview /Tri)

It seemed clear that she held a belief that speaking English with English native speaker accent should not be considered as an obligation. This belief implied a conception that in a verbal communication, the most important thing was the delivery of the message and not the perfect

language through which the message was delivered. She believed that as an adult learner, it was most unlikely that she could achieve a native-like accent. Her belief was in line with a study which investigated foreign language acquisition and how a native-like accent could be acquired (Flege, Munro, & MacKay, 1995). This quantitative conception indicated that apart from an English accent, there were other components of the language which needed mastering. For her it did not make sense for an adult learner to speak English using an English accent. What made sense for Tri, was that when interlocutors understood what the speakers meant without any message distortion. That is why the accuracy of the message is more important than the English accent. This conception of language affected how Tri conceptualized language learning. She would not spend too much time acquiring a native-speaker-type accent but she would make sure that she understood the message although the speaker did not speak with an English accent.

7.9.3. Developing supporting factors

The majority of the participants in this study shared the same belief that each individual had the potential to develop his or her own competence to be successful in language learning. They were aware that unless they made use of their potential, they would not make significant progress in their study. Most of them believed that motivation was not the only factor which could enhance their learning progress but that there are also other factors such as friends and mood which made a contribution.

In exploring factors that she believed were supportive of language learners' success in language learning language, Febriana referred to factors which were under a learner's control and those which were out of a learner's control. The factors under the learner's control included motivation, mood and finance, whereas the ones beyond his/her control were talent, and environment. All of these factors formed her conception of language learning. She was convinced that all of these factors could assist a language learner succeeding in learning a language.

There are some factors that help a language learner gain success in learning a language. He should have shown a talent for language learning since he was young, be self-motivated, be in the right mood, be part of a good environment which provides support for example, parents, and finance. (Interview / Febriana)

Febriana clearly showed her conception about language learning; she does not discriminate between quantitative and qualitative conceptions of learning. All look similar except the financial factor that she believed to be significant to language learning success. In regard to this factor, she did not give reasons why finance was included in this list nor why it was important. She might assume that learning English would be more efficient and faster if a learner studied it through formal education systems such as schools or private English courses which require payment for enrolment and facilities.

Her beliefs that motivation, mood, talent and environment play roles in guiding the language learner to success reflect her qualitative conception of language learning. She seemed to mix internal factors such as talent, motivation and mood with external factors such as environment which is beyond the control of the learner. Motivation plays a significant role in language learning success (see for example R. Gardner, C., 1985). Motivation has the potential to trigger moods appropriate for positive language learning, it may nurture talent to avoid its dissipation and environment provides opportunities for enhancing communication in language learning as well as constructive feedback.

Febriana, who was one of the low achievers, might feel that one of the factors hindering her language development is that she lacks innate talent in this area. Febriana struggled with her language learning. Perhaps she assumed that the reason for her struggle was because she was not born with the relevant talent. Therefore, her belief that talent functioned as a significant factor in language learning success might reflect her rationalisation for her insignificant progress in language learning. However, this assumption is contradicted by Andrew (2011) who posits that every learner

has a talent to learn a language, to believe otherwise is a myth (Andrew, 2011; Howe, Davidson, & Sloboda, 1998). As Andrew (2011) argues, motivation is actually a combination of motivation and effort. Consequently, Febriana's comparatively low level of English proficiency may be attributed to insufficient motivation and lack of effort rather than an absence of talent.

7.9.4. Being sensitive to feedback

All of the participants in this study believed that feedback was significant to the learners' learning progress, and that any feedback needed to be taken into account. Feedback in this context is defined as information provided by an agent such as a teacher, peer, and/or parent concerning a student's performance or understanding. Although feedback could be provided in the form of alternative strategies or corrective information, in this study, it was mainly shown in the form of correction to one's English, written and spoken.

In relation to making mistakes, Novita believed that it was part of the learning process. The participants felt that to make a mistake as a source of learning, the correction should be made immediately, otherwise it would be considered correct and learning would not happen. A mistake which was left uncorrected or a problem which was left unsolved was perceived to have the potential to cause another problem. Therefore, the involvement of more knowledgeable people in giving feedback about a mistake was considered significant. Novita developed the conception that the correction of an error which happened during a learning process would benefit her as it served as a learning resource that remained in her memory for a long time. Otherwise, she would repeat the same mistake.

> I feel that if I have been aware that I've made a mistake but it is not immediately correct, later it will be difficult to correct it. Then I will tend to repeat it again and again because I usually forget about the mistakes. So, if I know that I make a mistake or I do not know something, I will ask a friend of mine who is smarter than me to help me, to correct it or explain it to me. I know that if a small problem is not

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immediately solved, it will be become bigger and worse and, of course, it will be so difficult to fix later on. (Interview/Novita)

Novita's beliefs about mistakes or errors in language learning and responses to them, reflected both her quantitative and qualitative conception about language learning. She believed that learning resources were many in number, and that making mistakes during learning, and having these corrected immediately, was a live language learning resource. Novita's belief in the importance of errors or mistakes in language learning is affirmed by studies which found that educators gather significant information from mistakes made by their students, as part of their teaching approach (see for example C. James, 2013; Odlin, 1989). However, these mistakes would remain mistakes if there was not any action taken to correct them. In addition, Novita felt that valid correction involved others more knowledgeable than herself such as her teachers, or friends with higher levels of language competence.   When Novita mentioned she had to correct mistakes immediately so that she would not repeat them in the future, she was demonstrating a quantitative conception. But when she mentioned that she would ask for help from someone smarter than her to solve a problem and make it a source of learning, she expressed to qualitative conceptions of language learning.

7.9.5. Learning through critical thinking. Critical thinking occurs when an individual is not merely thinking passively and accepting everything he sees and hears, but when he analyses and questions factors such as his thoughts, behaviour and values. There was one participant in this study who applied critical thinking during the implementation of her language learning strategies eventually revising her beliefs about her approaches to language learning.

Septi changed her belief markedly about the importance of learning about the English culture. Initially, she believed this was important and she studied it. However, by the second interview her belief had shifted to a more negative position about studying English culture. This was

because of her experience in seeing how English people lived, and recognising that this type of culture would be unacceptable in the local environment. Initially, Septi perceived that cultural understanding would help her, as a language learner, enhance her English language skills. Nevertheless, when she actually experienced her English friends' lifestyle, her conception about the relationship between cultural understanding and language learning strategies shifted.

> Well, I have just come to know my friend although we have chatted for some time. In relation to their culture, I have seen it with my own eyes how they live their life on a daily basis. Sorry to say but, he lives with his girlfriend in the same room without any marital bound. His girlfriend is also my friend. So I think, it is not that kind of culture that I need to study. I am afraid that such culture will influence the learners in a negative way. (Interview/Septi)

Septi was a Muslim student who studied at LPU, an Islamic educational institution which taught Islamic values to the students. The values covered not only how the people worship their God but also how they interact with people in general. In Islam, a man and a woman are not allowed to live together without a marital bond. This value is accepted as a local value applying to everyone regardless of their religious beliefs. Breaching this value is considered to be serious and immoral. Thus, it is understandable that Septi altered her belief about the role of English culture in language learning after she found that a couple of English speakers did not respect the local norms. Septi was seriously concerned that studying the English culture might have a negative influence on the students possibly endangering the preservation of local norms. Septi's reaction towards improper action exhibited by the English native speakers corroborates the idea of Mukti and Hwa (2004) that society is responsible in implanting good and positive values in the learners within the framework of religion and culture.

7.10. Conclusion: The interrelationship among the factors

This section has described how self-esteem, motivation, confidence, mindsets, conceptions about language and language learning relate to each other to affect belief change. The data in this study evidenced that the learners' belief system was highly complex, interrelated networks of beliefs and was eventually internalized dynamically and changed accordingly as a result of different context and personal learning experiences (Paula Kalaja & Maria Ferreira Barcelos, 2013; Mercer, 2011b). Some learners' beliefs remained stable changing minimally, indicating that they might have had similar experiences over the period of time and possibly were exposed to similar learning contexts. Other learners demonstrated changes in their belief systems which may have resulted from new learning experiences and contexts. The dynamics of the belief system was also the evidence of the existence of learning process.

The self-esteem factor as identified in this study dealt with an individual's overall positive evaluation of the self. It was composed of two different dimensions, competence and worth (Gecas, 1982; Gecas & Schwalbe, 1983). As could be seen from the data, Jeffry possessed good speaking skills that made him confident in speaking in English. His comparatively high level of English competence was also evident in his writing skills, especially when he had to prepare an argumentative essay. In general, his high level of English competence attracted his friends to learn from him. Jeffry's friends respected him as a person who had a high level of English competence, and their admiration for him increased his sense of worthiness among them. His friends' respect and his sense of worthiness increased his motivation to invest more time in learning the English language. The two dimensions of self-esteem, competence and worth are interdependent to one another and play significant roles in language learning. When students possess a good language competence, their environment will acknowledge them and cause their self-worthiness increase. Similarly, when they have a positive feeling of worthiness to their

selves, they will develop positive attitude which later affect their awareness to invest more time to learn to acquire competence.

Motivation in foreign language learning deals with a "motor" which drives an individual to learn a foreign language (Dörnyei, 1994). As discussed in Chapter II, two main motivations exist in foreign language study, integrative motivation and instrumental motivation (Dörnyei, 1990). The former deals with the intention of the learner to be 'part' (my own term) of the community as the owner of the language, while the latter is related to the pragmatic benefits. In this study, the instrumental motivation is identified clearly, as all of the participants are learning English to be English teachers. Meanwhile, integrative motivation is not clearly detected although most of the participants considered that learning the culture of the target language was important. Although their motivation to learn English was primarily for their job orientation, their intention to be good examples for their future students energized them to learn the target language more seriously. The motivation to learn the target language would eventually affect their self-confidence.

In general, learning a foreign language in a monolingual setting, such as in Indonesia, would not encourage learners to develop positive attitudes which would orient them to seek contact with members of the target language community. Self-confidence in using the target language for communication which was reflected in low anxious affect and high self-perceptions of foreign language competence would not develop as expected. Therefore, in this study higher levels of self-confidence were only identified in the learners who had high levels of English competence and, consequently, it was absent amongst those with low levels of English competence. The data indicated that high achieving students possessed more self-confidence than their counterparts. The high achievers with their higher levels of self-confidence were found to be enjoying the motivation and positive vigour derived from learning the target language. In other words, motivation and self-confidence were closely related and formed significant factors in the success of language learning.

Beliefs about the role of talent and effort in the success of language learning found in this study were significant factors in the process of foreign language acquisition. As discussed earlier, most of the participants held growth mindsets, a belief in the importance of one's effort to gain success. This type of conviction affected their motivation to grow in their acquisition of language skills. Therefore, they exhibited serious efforts to learn the language. The data demonstrated that, most of the participants applied a variety of learning strategies to learning English and were hopeful about becoming competent and professional English teachers. The situation would be very much different if they held a belief that the success of language learning depended on the presence of an innate talent. There is a possibility that they would not be motivated to learn if they thought they were not talented; they may blame themselves as not having a talent if they did not make significant progress in language learning. As a result, it is posited that mindsets affect motivation to learn.

The conception about language and language learning plays a very significant role in the choice of language learning strategies affecting students' motivation to learn some aspects of a language and not learn others. In this study, one participant believed that learning a language was a matter of constructing sentences from the targeted language vocabulary. Consequently she was always motivated to memorize as many words as possible to be able to communicate in the target language. Another participant believed that perfect pronunciation was not necessary for a language learner; what was more important was the delivery and accuracy of the message. Consequently, for this participant the motivation to learn correct pronunciation was not as high as that to learn grammar because the misuse of grammar tends to lead to message inaccuracies. Therefore, the available evidence supports the concept that language and language learning are closely related to motivation, especially in the choice of language learning strategy.

This chapter has discussed belief change as a result of reflection. It started with the reflection model and procedure, reflection guidance and the identified changes. The factors causing the belief change to occur which include self-esteem, motivation, self-confidence, and mindsets

were presented. Conception about language and language learning was also discussed under the topic of how learners' beliefs in language learning affect their strategy choices and implementation. The next chapter presents the conclusion and recommendations of the thesis covering the summary of the findings, the implications of the study and recommendations for future research.

Chapter VIII

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Introduction

This study has investigated the beliefs about language learning strategies of English as Foreign Language (EFL) learners in an Indonesian University. Data were gathered through a number of methods including questionnaires (Strategy Inventory of Language Learning), interviews and learning journals. The learners' learning strategies were analysed and linked to their beliefs which they expressed through the interviews as well as through their journals and to their previous learning experiences.

This research was conducted in order to contribute further to the development of studies on beliefs about language learning strategy and how these beliefs may change. Beliefs about second language learning, and the learning strategies used by second language learners, are posited in the literature as playing major roles in shaping learners' approaches to language learning which will influence whether or not they are successful. The research was also conducted in conjunction with the model of second language learning, as suggested by Abraham and Vann (1987), which proposes that one's success or failure in second language learning is influenced highly by factors such as a learner's personality, learning philosophy or learning beliefs, and their previous learning experiences, as explained in Chapter I.

This chapter consists of three sections. The first section presents a brief summary of the key findings in response to the research questions. Brief explanations are also presented about each of the findings. The second section deals with the implications with regard to the English language teaching practices in EFL settings, especially in an Indonesian context. The final section proposes

suggestions for further directions for future research, in the area, and concludes with reference to the limitations and the findings of the present study.

8.2   Summary of the Findings

A summary of findings is presented in response to the research questions as formulated in Chapter One. There are three research questions which have been answered in this thesis. In this section, these three research questions will be responded to accordingly providing the reader with a summary to each research question.

Several conclusions can be drawn based on the analysis and discussion in Chapter Five through to Chapter Eight. The conclusions are based on the answers to the research questions as formulated in Chapter One. The first research question is "What kinds of language learning strategies do the Indonesian students use to learn English?"

First, in general the students involved in this current study could be identified as moderate users of the English learning strategies as covered in the Strategy Inventory of Language Learning developed by Oxford (1990). This finding was similar to earlier studies which reported that foreign language learners used these strategies at a medium level, for example the study conducted by Mistar (2002). In terms of categories, metacognitive strategies were the most popular whereas affective strategies were those least favoured by the participants in this research. This suggests that the students were familiar with the strategies of planning, monitoring and evaluating their learning, but have not yet managed their feelings sufficiently to facilitate their learning. The fact that social strategies registered the second lowest frequency of use, corroborates with earlier research by Lengkanawaty (2004) who suggested that Indonesian learners lack these social strategies. The reasons for this include cultural and social backgrounds including factors such as educational system within the family and the unsupportive learning environment.

Second, reflection as an intervention was shown to be able to improve the use of the strategies across categories (see Section 5.1.2). Almost all of the participants did not explicitly state that reflection had managed to influence them in relation to the use of the EFL learning strategies. However, the result of the survey shows that all of the learning strategies across categories were utilized more frequently than before the survey. Generally speaking, after the reflection process through the use of journals, the participants used the English learning strategies at a high level of frequency. Similar to the findings before reflection, metacognitive strategies were the most favoured of all. Reflection provided the students with an opportunity to critically evaluate their learning. As a result, the frequency of the use of metacognitive strategies increased. At the same time, affective strategies which were previously the least frequently used strategies improved to become the second least frequent strategies. Memory strategies became the least frequently used strategies of all contradicting a claim made by Politzer and McGroarty (1985) and LoCastro (1994) that memorization is the most preferred strategy among Asian EFL learners.

Reflection also impacted on the choice of individual strategies of the learners across the three levels of proficiency. Initially the strategy of paying attention when someone is speaking English was the most favoured of all, However, after the reflection process the strategy of trying to find out how to be a better learner of English, and trying to relax whenever they felt insecure or lacked confidence in using English became the most popular strategies. Reflection therefore allowed the participants to rethink and evaluate their existing learning strategies; they came to the conclusion that these two strategies were the best for them, at that time.

The second research question was, "What is the nature of learners' beliefs and their language learning strategy choice?" All of the participants in this study showed a preference for collaborative learning, especially in learning verbal skills. This learning strategy was demonstrated to be constructive in improving the students' verbal skills. As Vygotsky contends, learning can happen among students who collaborate even when they have different competencies. Through social

interaction, each individual student learnt from the other students. The fact that their competence varies shows that some of them became the source of knowledge or "more knowledgeable others", and others became the learners. There was an example of a student who reported that she preferred individual learning. However, this divergence occurred because of an unsupportive environment, and that the choice of this alternative strategy was only a way out, or a solution to keep the learning activity happen. Similar to the finding of the survey which found that the participants used the social strategy in high frequency, in interviews most of the participants were also found to favour collaborative learning. The participants also reported that they were weak in their listening skills because they found the native speaker's speaking speed was too fast for them. To overcome this problem, they regularly used listening comprehension material in the form of MP3 or cassettes on their own and incorporated their hobbies of listening to music as their strategy for improving their listening skills. They also mentioned that they intentionally read English publications, such as newspapers, as a way to improve their reading comprehension.

During the implementation of their learning strategies, participants encountered linguistic and non-linguistic problems. Linguistic problems reported by the students resulted from their limited vocabularies and limited knowledge of grammar. These challenges prevented them from becoming actively involved, in both verbal and written practices, and caused them to be anxious and fearful of making mistakes. Non-linguistic problems students faced while learning English included, a lack of self-confidence, lack of motivation, lack of facilities and lack of social support. These problems caused them to feel shy, reluctant and even unmotivated preventing them from practising their English. Some of them reported that to cope with these problems, they forced themselves to chat with friends in English and to do oral presentations in front of the class. Lack of facilities was also reported as hindering the students' learning process. One participant stated that lack of private facilities had caused her to depend on the campus facilities, which were inadequate, consequently inhibiting her independent learning. In relation to social support, participants explained that their

friends who do not have an English learning background consider those speaking in English pretentious. This perception dissuaded them from practising their English in front of people not in their English studies program. In other words, an unsupportive learning environment discouraged the participants from making use of the opportunities available to enhance their learning, especially in their verbal skills.

In relation to learners' beliefs about learning strategies, four different beliefs were explored thoroughly in Section 6.13. These were beliefs about language practice, learning strategies , vocabulary and grammar, and error correction. Participants strongly believed that practice was very crucial in learning English. They agreed that only through practice would their English competence improve. They also believed that the learning strategies they had implemented so far were successful. Their learning experiences demonstrated that even with their existing learning strategies, they could improve their language learning proficiency. Many participants also believed that vocabulary and grammar were critical components of language learning. For these participants, without vocabulary and grammar, effective written and verbal communication would not happen. This belief led them to adopt a memorizing learning strategy more intensively. Most of the participants also shared the same belief about the importance of error-correction. They believed that making errors was part of the learning process and that it was unavoidable. Some of them did not mind if their interlocutors corrected their mistakes immediately as it helped them remember the correct form. However, others preferred such correction after they finished talking. They were adamant that such correction should not be in the public domain. Rather, they preferred such correction to happen in private, otherwise they would lose face. Above all they agreed that making mistakes was an essential stage in language learning and that it offered them new knowledge.

The third research question was "How does the belief change occur?" This question was explored in Chapter 8. The study revealed five factors as the possible causes of these changes. These factors include self-esteem (Section 7.5), motivation (Section 7.6), self-confidence (Section 7.7),

mindset (Section 7.8) and conception of language and language learning (Section 7.9). A strong relationship and interconnectedness between these factors was exhibited. As noted above (Section 7.5 to 7.7), increased self-esteem develops the motivation to learn and also builds self-confidence in learning. Self-confidence also increases motivation to learn. Similarly, motivation also improves one's self-confidence and self-esteem. Meanwhile, mindsets and perceptions about language, and language learning, shape students' beliefs in relation to ways to approach language learning. Students' mindsets and EFL learning perceptions also improve their motivation to learn English through learning strategies they believe to be effective. Therefore, all these factors are interrelated, one to another. Together they affect students' beliefs to either change their language learning strategies or to strengthen the effectiveness of their existing approaches

8.3.   Implications of the Study

This study reveals two findings regarding reflection; first, that reflection has the potential to increase the awareness of the need for EFL students to be critical of their implemented strategies resulting in their enhancement to increase their effectiveness;; second, that these participants could not write a comprehensive learning journal. This implies that the students need training in how to write a reflective learning journal as a way of evaluating their own learning process. Reflective learning journals (RLJ) can then be introduced each semester and should be used as a source of feedback for students and teachers for future student improvement. For the students, a RLJ can give them information about the learning process they have been using and the progress they have made. The journals also provide opportunities for identifying the difficulties students have encountered and/or the effectiveness of their chosen strategies. For the teacher, it provides evidence, at least from the point of view of the students, about the performance s/he has made, the effectiveness of the teaching methods, as well as the students' preference regarding the teachers' methods and materials.

8.3.1.   Strategy training

To make sure that the students carry out the learning process effectively, the teacher needs to take into account strategy training-the training on the variety of language learning strategies and how to implement them in relation to the completion of a language task. The students also need to be informed about the necessity of employing a range of strategies in language learning, as the use of different strategies has been found to be significantly correlated with proficiency attainment.

Before this training is implemented, the teacher needs to know what strategies the students have used and determine if they have worked successfully or not. To get this information, a survey of Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (Oxford, 1993) can be distributed to the students accompanied by some open-ended questions asking about the effectiveness of their current learning strategies. The students need to be aware of, and encouraged to learn using, a range of language learning strategies throughout the learning process. Therefore, explicit instructions in how to use language learning strategies need to be introduced to the students. As Cohen (2003) suggests, strategy training is aimed to provide students with the tools to do the following:

1. Self-diagnose their strengths and weaknesses in language learning

2. Become aware of what helps them to learn the target language most efficiently

3. Develop a broad range of problem-solving skills

4. Experiment with familiar and unfamiliar learning strategies

5. Make decision about how to approach a language task

6. Monitor and self-evaluate their performance

7. Transfer successful strategies to new learning contexts.

When achieved, these objectives will guarantee that the students will be able to approach language learning in a more effective and successful way.

My study shows that the choice of learning strategies is significantly correlated with the beliefs held by language learners about how to approach effective language learning. Therefore, it would be advisable if EFL teachers are aware of the beliefs the students hold about language learning strategies. In the event that the students have misconceptions about language and language learning, training on beliefs about language learning needs to be considered for EFL teachers. The training on belief should not necessarily be implemented independently, rather it can be inserted during the teaching and learning process. The teacher needs to ensure that the students hold realistic beliefs about language learning: students holding such beliefs will be more likely to behave in more productive ways such as offering active class participation, striving for accurate pronunciation, working harder inside and outside the classroom, and more importantly, they will be more persistent with their language learning studies. To reach this goal, the teacher should discuss with the students the process involved in second/foreign language acquisition. In this stage too, the teacher needs to further explore the issues of learner self-esteem, self-confidence, motivation, mindsets and conceptions about language, and language learning.

8.3.2. Understanding beliefs – the language room

However, before strategy training is given to the students, the EFL teacher should understand and be made aware of the diversity of strategies that can facilitate language learners to learn the target language. It is crucial, as the teacher should be the first one who knows about the learning strategies and how to implement them. However, not all teachers are aware of this. Therefore, professional development programs for teachers about the importance of learning strategies and how to implement them, should be initiated early in their teacher training programs. Another important area for the training of EFL teachers, that can be combined with the strategy training, is training regarding beliefs about language learning. This training is also important for teachers because they will be in responsible for "revising" learners' unrealistic beliefs, or

misconceptions, about language and language learning. Above all, teachers should be the models for their students in strategy use, as well as in holding realistic beliefs.

Learning from one of the high achievers (Jeffry), we found that providing students with the opportunity to be involved in more genuine conversational settings will assist them to develop confidence, and eventually improve their English competence. One of the ways to achieve this is by setting up an English conversation club, in the department, for English students only. It would be beneficial if they could be provided with a room which they could decorate and set up as if in an English speaking house where English is the only medium of communication. This room should also be supplied with multi-media facilities which would enable the students to play, then discuss, English movies. In this room, the students from different English classes could meet and practice their English with each other forming an English-speaking community. In such an environment which would be both educational and enjoyable, the students' English competence and communication skills would improve markedly.

8.4. Problems and Issues with the research

Although this current study has been conducted carefully by employing the proper methodology, there are still some limitations that need to be reported so that the boundaries of the scope are clear. The current study was limited by the following practical considerations. Firstly, the study focussed on the learners of English in only one university in Indonesia which was selected on the bases of availability, ease of bureaucracy, and accessibility. Consequently, the findings of this study cannot be used to represent all Indonesian learners of English, specifically the learners of primary and secondary level of education. Secondly, due to students' availability, the number of the participants was twelve. Although the twelve participants have represented students from all levels of English proficiency, this number was not big enough to produce more comprehensive findings.

8.5. Recommendations for future research

8.5.1. Research Method and Design

As this is a case study, the conclusions drawn cannot be used to make generalizations. Any recommendations made are tentative. Therefore, more research with different methods and designs needs to be carried out to complement, modify, and/or verify the findings of the current study to enrich the body of knowledge about language learning strategies, and learners' beliefs about language learning strategies.

With regard to the language learning strategies, this study focusses on a small number of students in Semester Four at tertiary education level. Further studies need to cover broader groups of the population such as students from Semesters Two, Six and Eight. As many public institutions have English teacher training study programs, these need to be represented in the study so that the profile of the strategies used by Indonesian foreign language learners, at tertiary education level, will be more valid and comprehensive.

8.5.2. Data Collecting Instrument

One of the weaknesses of the SILL instrument is that it cannot guarantee that the students are actually using the strategies, as suggested, in the instrument. It also fails to measure how the students are actually employing the strategies. Therefore, further studies are needed to integrate this instrument, with other instruments which measure how the strategies are actually used in the process of language learning, to verify participants' responses to the SILL. Various methodologies could be used for this purpose including using a video recorder to investigate how EFL students are using the learning strategies, and the task-based strategy elicitation procedure as recommended by Mistar (2003).

8.5.3.   Further Research Area

As an intervention, reflection has been successful in identifying reasons for the changes in beliefs about language learning strategies in this present study. Further studies are needed to investigate more thoroughly how those factors may be deployed to impact on, and facilitate, belief change, as appropriate. An in-depth study on the ways in which how factors such as self-esteem, self-confidence, motivation, mindset and conception contribute to changes in learners' beliefs about language learning strategies, is proposed. Such research could investigate which of these factors contributes most significantly, and which the least, to belief changes. The findings of such a study could enable teachers to develop programs best suited to assisting students with their decision-making.

A further study needs to be carried out to investigate how positive beliefs that lead to effective learning strategies use can be fostered, and negative beliefs that can inhibit effective learning, can be minimized or removed. To be able to do this, a preliminary study to find out learner's beliefs about language learning would be necessary. It would establish a base or the investigative study. Such a study will be expected to produce alternative interventions which may assist teachers to help students with their beliefs. As has been shown in Chapter VI to VII, learners' beliefs are important determinants of their behaviour, and consequently affect the selection of language learning strategies. Such a study is worth doing as it could lead to language learners approaching language learning more efficaciously. A model of an experimental study can be used to find out if certain interventions work well, or not, in one group but not in another group.

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Appendix 1.

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

Version for Speakers of Other Languages Learning English

Version 7.0 (ESL/EFL)

© R. Oxford, 1989

This form is the STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGAUGE LEARNING (SILL) for students of English as a second or foreign language. You will find statements about learning English. Please read each statement. On the separate worksheet, write the response (1, 2, 3, 4 or 5) that tells HOW TRUE OF YOU THE STATEMENT IS.

1. Never or almost never true of me.
2. Usually not true of me.
3. Somewhat true of me
4. Usually true of me
5. Always or almost always true of me.

(Write answers on Worksheet)

NEVER OR ALMOST NEVER TRUE OF ME means the statement is <u>very rarely true of you</u>.

USUALLY NOT TRUE OF ME means that the statement is true <u>less than half the time</u>.

SOMEWHAT TRUE OF ME means that the statement true of you about <u>half the time</u>.

ALWAYS OR ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE OF ME means that the statement is true of you <u>almost always.</u>

Answer in terms of how well the statement describes you. Do not answer how you think you should be, or what other people do. There are no right or wrong answers to these statements. Put your answer on the separate Worksheet. Please make no marks on the items. Work as quickly as you can without being careless. This usually takes about 20-30 minutes to complete. If you have any questions, let the teacher know immediately.

EXAMPLE

1. Never or almost never true of me.
2. Usually not true of me.
3. Somewhat true of me
4. Usually true of me
5. Always or almost always true of me.

Read the item and choose a response (1 through 5 as above), and write it in the space after the item.

I actively seek out opportunities to talk with native speakers of English. _____

You have just completed the example item. Answer the rest of the items on the Worksheet.

<u>PART A</u>

1. I think of the relationship between what I already know and new things I learn in English.
2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.
3. I connect the sound of new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.
4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.
5. I use rhymes to remember English words.
6. I use flashcards to remember new English words.
7. I physically act out new English words.
8. I review English lessons often.
9. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.

BART B

10. I say or write new English words several times.
11. I try to talk like native English speakers.
12. I practice the sound of English.
13. I use the English words I know in different ways.
14. I start conversation in English.
15. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.
16. I read for pleasure in English.
17. I write notes, massages, letters, or reports in English.
18. I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.

      1.   Never or almost never true of me.
      2.   Usually not true of me.
      3.   Somewhat true of me
      4.   Usually true of me
      5.   Always or almost always true of me.

(Write answers on Worksheet)

19. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.
20. I try to find pattern in English.
21. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.
22. I try not to translate word-by-word.
23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.

PART C

24. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.
25. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gesture.
26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.
27. I read English without looking up every new word.
28. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.
29. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.

PART D

30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.
31. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.
32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.
33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.

34. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.
35. I look for people I can talk in English.
36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.
37. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.
38. I think about my progress in learning English.

    1. Never or almost never true of me.
    2. Usually not true of me.
    3. Somewhat true of me
    4. Usually true of me
    5. Always or almost always true of me.

(Write answers on Worksheet)

PART E

39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.
40. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.
41. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.
42. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.
43. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.
44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.

PART F

45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.
46. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.
47. I practice English with other students.
48. I ask for help from English speakers.
49. I ask questions in English.
50. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.

Appendix 2.

LIST OF SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW ON BELIEF ABOUT LANGUAGE

LEARNING STRATEGIES SELECTION

Language Learning Strategy use

1. How do you learn English in general? Explain!
2. How do you improve your speaking skill?
3. How do you improve your listening skill?
4. How do you improve your reading skill?
5. How do you improve your writing skill?

How they are exposed to Language Learning Strategies

6. How do you know those ways of learning English?
7. How do you know those ways of improving your listening, speaking, reading and writing skills?

Beliefs about Language learning strategies

8. Do you think the way you study English work effectively for you? Why?
9. Do you believe if somebody else imitates the way you study English, he or she can learn English effectively like you?
10. What do you think are the best ways to learn English?
11. What parts of learning English are difficult for you? Why?
12. When you are speaking in English is it alright with you when someone corrects your error if you make one? Why?

Beliefs about Factors influencing the English competence

13. Do you think you need to know English culture when you learn English? Why?
14. Do you think it is better to learn English in the English speaking countries? Explain your answer!

15. Is the knowledge of grammar and vocabulary the important parts of English language learning? Why?
16. What factors do you think help in achieving success in language learning?
17. How important is it to practice in English language learning? Explain?
18. In what area do you think you need a lot of practice? (E.g. speaking, listening, reading or writing?) Why?
19. What are the most important aspects of English that you need to learn? Why?

Appendix 3

Subject　　　　:

Name　　　　:

Date　　　　:

Learning Journal

A. General Reflection

1. How do you learn English in general, what strategies do you use, give an example?
2. What obstacles do you encounter in using the strategies, give an example?
3. How do you make yourself get used to the strategies?
4. How do you enjoy using the strategies, why? Give an example?
5. Mention the advantages of using the strategies in improving your English language competence?
6. Mention the subjects that you like best in the last two semesters, why?

Explain the aspects of

1. Lecturer(s)
2. Teaching method(s)
3. Content of the subject
4. Significance of the subject in relation to your personal and professional competence and
5. The problems you have and how you solve them.

B. Weekly Reflection

1. What language tasks did your lecturer assign?
2. How did you accomplish the tasks?
3. What steps did you take to perform the tasks?
4. Did these steps work effectively?
5. Why did you believe that these steps would work effectively?

Appendix 4

MONASH University

Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee (MUHREC)
Research Office

Human Ethics Certificate of Approval

Date:	10 February 2011
Project Number:	CF11/0324 - 2011000114
Title:	Exploring Indonesian learners' beliefs about language learning strategies through reflection
Chief Investigator:	Dr Dat Bao
Approved:	From: 10 February 2011 To: 10 February 2016

Terms of approval

1. The Chief investigator is responsible for ensuring that permission letters are obtained, if relevant, and a copy forwarded to MUHREC before any data collection can occur at the specified organisation. **Failure to provide permission letters to MUHREC before data collection commences is in breach of the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research and the Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research**.
2. Approval is only valid whilst you hold a position at Monash University.
3. It is the responsibility of the Chief Investigator to ensure that all investigators are aware of the terms of approval and to ensure the project is conducted as approved by MUHREC.
4. You should notify MUHREC immediately of any serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants or unforeseen events affecting the ethical acceptability of the project.
5. The Explanatory Statement must be on Monash University letterhead and the Monash University complaints clause must contain your project number.
6. **Amendments to the approved project (including changes in personnel):** Requires the submission of a Request for Amendment form to MUHREC and must not begin without written approval from MUHREC. Substantial variations may require a new application.
7. **Future correspondence:** Please quote the project number and project title above in any further correspondence.
8. **Annual reports:** Continued approval of this project is dependent on the submission of an Annual Report. This is determined by the date of your letter of approval.
9. **Final report:** A Final Report should be provided at the conclusion of the project. MUHREC should be notified if the project is discontinued before the expected date of completion.
10. **Monitoring:** Projects may be subject to an audit or any other form of monitoring by MUHREC at any time.
11. **Retention and storage of data:** The Chief Investigator is responsible for the storage and retention of original data pertaining to a project for a minimum period of five years.

Professor Ben Canny
Chair, MUHREC

cc: Mr Bambang Widi Pratolo