An Examination of Language Learning Beliefs and Language Learning Strategy Use in Adult ESL Learners in a Higher Educational Setting

by

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A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty of
Auburn University
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Auburn, Alabama
May 3, 2014

Keywords: ESL, SLA, language learning strategies, language learning beliefs, adult learners

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine adult international students' English learning beliefs and their use of different learning strategies at a four-year institution. This study was conducted to analyze English learning strategy use and beliefs about English language learning, and the relationship between beliefs and use reported by 84 international university students. This study also examined the influence of background variables such as, gender, self-rated English proficiency, academic program, age, TOEFL scores, study hour, and race/ethnicity on learners' beliefs and strategy use.

Data were collected using four questionnaires, the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) developed by Oxford (1990), the Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) developed by Horwitz (1987), the Individual Background Questionnaire (IBQ), and the Follow-up Interview Questionnaire. Eighty four international students participated in the online survey, and six international students participated in the follow-up interview.

Quantitative data were analyzed using descriptive analyses, factor analyses, Pearson *r* correlation analyses, T-test analysis, one-way ANOVA analysis, and the Scheffé post-hoc test. Sixty one point three percent of international students reported employing many strategies to enhance their English learning. Among six strategies, international students reported using social the most, followed by metacognitive, compensate, cognitive, memory, and affective. Findings of this study revealed that English studying hour and the TOEFL score affected international students' strategy use. Sixty point seven percent of international students reported having strong

beliefs about English learning. Among four English learning beliefs, beliefs about motivation were the most important factors, followed by learning preference, self-efficacy, and formal learning. Based on the findings, academic program and race/ethnicity affected international students' beliefs about English learning. Also, there was a strong correlation between the language learning strategies and learners' English learning beliefs.

Qualitative data were analyzed using a phenomenological approach. In the interview, categories such as, beliefs about English learning situation (learning situation in their country and in the United States), external factors (language exposure, class activities, time/practice, standardized tests, knowing another language, culture, error correction, survival), internal factors (motivation/desire, personality), and difficulty of English learning (accent/pronunciation and vocabulary) emerged as factors that impacted learners' beliefs about learning English and their strategy uses.

Understanding what kinds of learning strategies international students employ and their assumptions of English learning is crucial for not just the students but also educators, administrators, and policy makers to promote and assist them to monitor their own learning to become successful language learners.

Acknowledgements

To my family JinMog Lee, YoungOk An, SeungEun Lee, and SeungMi Lee,

Thank you so much for your endless support and unconditional love. Without your support and patience, I could have never completed this journey. You were my inspiration and motivation to help me pursue my education and achieve my goals. You have taught me to be persistent and never give up. Thank you so much for being my parents and sisters. I am such a fortunate person to have you in my life. My special love goes to my nephew Seung Gyu Park who just came out into the world and turned my adverse days in the office writing alone into bright moments. Your beautiful and pure smile helped me get through this. I love you all so much!

To my American Mom, Dr. Albrecht,

I don't know how to thank you enough! You have always been there for me when I was down and when I was happy! With your constant love and support, I was able to finish this journey! You are amazing!

To my friend Dr. Schwartz,

Your constant encouragement and friendship made me feel like I was not alone during all this mundane process of writing. Your support and feedback for my chapter writings helped me greatly move forward! Thank you, Tomoko!

To my friend Howon,

Thank you so much for you guidance in quantitative data analysis. With your help, I was able to complete my qualitative data analysis without any big problems. Thanks!

To my director Dr. Raffalovich and fellow teachers,

Thank you so much for giving me an opportunity to work in the ESL program to pursue my degree in Education. With your support, I was able to accomplish my goals. Thank you!
My sincere appreciation goes to my committee members, Dr. Maria Witte, Dr. James Witte, and Dr. Robert Leier,

Your devotion and dedication helped me to pursue my study. Your endless support and guidance taught me to be a better student and a person. Your constant positive encouragement made me get through this successfully when I was overwhelmed with all the work load and meeting the deadlines. I am grateful to have you as my committee members and learn from your profound knowledge and insights. Thank you all so much for being there for me!

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

English has become a global language due to globalization; therefore, and the result is a huge influx of international students moving to English speaking countries such as the United States, Canada, Australia, England, and New Zealand to pursue their higher education, to find jobs, or to experience different cultures (Braxton, 1999). The number of international students in the United States increased 5.7% to a record high of 764,495 students (Opendoors, 2012). Many of these students come to the United States either to improve their English skills or to enroll in regular academic classes to pursue higher education degrees. However, it is not so easy to master the English language within a year or two while they are in the United States to study the language since adult language learners have different potential and ideas about learning a new language.

Also, their use of a variety of different language learning strategies is limited. That is, most adult English language learners (ELLs) believe that they cannot communicate in English fluently even after studying it for a long time (Braxton, 1999). Additionally, they feel that they can remotely learn a new language by memorizing new grammar rules and structures rather than immersing themselves in the total language (Zhong, 2012). Therefore, many adult Intensive English Programs (IEPs) have tried to implement more effective instructional pedagogies to help adult ELLs acquire more readily implementing language learning strategies (LLSs) (Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006).

The focus on teacher-centered language instruction in the past has shifted to a learner-centered model; therefore, instructors are interested in how to help weaker language learners

adopt better strategies to promote their learning and success (Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006). Oxford (1990) stated that "learning strategies are important for language learning because they are tools for active, self-directed involvement" (p. 1). Furthermore, learning strategies boost the learners' language learning (Holec, 1981) and guide them towards acquiring language proficiency (Bremner, 1998; Green & Oxford, 1995; Griffiths, 2003; Lee, 2003; O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo, & Küpper, 1985; Oxford, 1990; Politzer, 1983). Indeed, learning strategies can foster one's learning and help students learn a language more efficiently.

Statement of Problem

Adult ELLs face tremendous difficulties when they first come to the United States to pursue higher education due to their lack of English proficiency. Most of them are not aware of the different LLSs that they could employ to advance their learning of the English language. Thus, if adult ELLs use an effective collection of strategies, then their language learning progress will be more efficient and effective (Holec, 1981; Bremner, 1998; Green & Oxford, 1995; Griffiths, 2003; Lee, 2003; O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo, & Küpper, 1985; Oxford, 1990; Politzer, 1983; Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; Hong, 2006; Oxford, 1990; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Oxford & Cohen, 1992; Oxford & Ehrman, 1995; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Park,1994; Park, 1997). By selecting information, organizing the information, relating it to existing knowledge, retaining what is considered important, retrieving it in appropriate contexts, and reflecting on the success of their learning efforts, learners become conscious of their own learning and learn to evaluate their efficiency (Shuell, 1986).

Studies on language learning strategies are not fairly new. However, much of the previous studies on language learning strategies focused on how learners learn a language and what strategies they apply to reinforce their language learning. In other words, there has been

little research concerning the relationship between language learning strategies and success/satisfaction and other factors that influence language learning (Cohen & Aphek, 1980; Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975).

Most studies on language learning strategies have concentrated on students learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL), and have focused on cultural backgrounds of the participants such as Japanese (Brown, 1996), Korean (Park, 1997), and Chinese (Bremer, 1998; Goh & Foong, 1997; Wang, 1999). There have been studies conducted in the United States with ELLs using samples from a combination of cultural backgrounds, such as Arabic, Hispanic, Thai, Korean, Chinese, and Japanese (Brown, 1996; O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Küpper, & Russo, 1985; Phillips, 1991; Reid, 1987; Hong 2006; Zhong, 2012).

However, previous studies have failed to investigate different aspects of learners and how and why they decide to learn English language in English as Second Language (ESL) settings. Therefore, more recent studies have analyzed the relationship between language-learning strategies and gender (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Oxford, 1993; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Politzer, 1983; Wharton, 2000), age (Purdie & Oliver, 1999), second language proficiency (Bialystok, 1979; Chamot & Küpper, 1989; Park, 1997; Peacock & Ho, 2003; Phillips, 1991; Politzer, 1983), cultural background (Oxford, 1996; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Politzer & McGroarty, 1985), social context (Parks & Raymond, 2004), learning styles (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989), motivation (Kim-Yoon, 2000; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Ramirez, 1986), anxiety (Gardner, 1993; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994), and beliefs about language learning (Park, 1997; Yang, 1999).

Language learning occurs in different contexts and environments for adult learners. According to Horwitz (1987, 1988), their prior language learning experiences influence their

learning a new language. Horwitz (1987) claimed that the learners' cultural background also plays an important role. If the learner had a previous successful language learning experience, he or she might be able to use the LLSs that were previously successful and be able to apply them to the new target language. Depending on the cultural background, the success of language learning can happen at a different pace (Horwitz, 1987). For instance, some cultures value second/foreign language learning more than others (Kuntz, 1996). In that case, learners in the culture where the second/foreign language learning is appreciated can benefit more. Also, when language learners learn a new language, their priorities and beliefs about learning might vary (Hosenfeld, 1978; Wenden, 1987a; Yang, 1992, 1999). For example, language learners who strongly believe in the importance of speaking well will likely spend more time on practicing speaking with native speakers, hang out with friends where they can find more chances to use the language, and study in or visit in countries where they can practice the language. Therefore, it is crucial to understand the learners' language learning beliefs and attitudes towards language learning since they can be used to understand how language learners learn and comprehend the language (Christison & Krahnke, 1986).

Benson & Lor (1999) have also argued that understanding learners' learning beliefs towards learning a new language may help alter their attitudes and behaviors. Horwitz (1987) and Holec (1987) claimed that acknowledging learners' beliefs about language learning can aid teachers to allow their students to be open to new ideas and information by resolving learners' misconception or mistaken beliefs that may hinder their learning a new language. Horwitz (1987) asserted that there might be a problem when the learners' preconceived ideas and teachers' teaching styles and instructional activities do not match. Horwitz (1987) explained that when this mismatch occurs, students lose their "confidence in the instructional approach and their ultimate

achievement can be limited" (p. 119). This phenomenon would eventually lead to students being less receptive towards their learning and retaining the information (Dole & Sinatra, 1994). Therefore, it is crucial to examine learners' beliefs about learning a new language so that teachers could enhance learners' confidence and help them progress in their language learning by motivating them (Horwitz, 1987).

There have been some studies (Horwitz, 1985; Horwitz, 1987; Wenden, 1987a; Wenden,1987b; Horwitz, 1988; Tumposky, 1991; Yang, 1992; Kern, 1995; Mantle-Bromley, 1995; Park,1995; Truitt, 1995; Kuntz, 1996; Oh, 1996; Gwynne, 1997; Kunt, 1997; White, 1999; Kim-Yoon, 2000; Kim, 2001; Siebert, 2003; Tanaka, 2004; Bernat, 2006; Diab, 2000; Hong , 2006; Amuzie & Winke, 2009; Ariogul et al.,2009; Zhong, 2012) concerning learners' language learning beliefs using the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI). These studies on the BALLI have been conducted using different ELF/ESL students and teachers. Some of the studies involve American students learning foreign languages (Horwitz, 1988; Kern, 1995; Mori, 1999; Saminmy and Lee, 1997), ESL students from diverse ethnic backgrounds (Abraham & Vann, 1987; Cotterall, 1995; Horwitz, 1987; Wenden,1987a), and EFL students in different countries (Huang, 1997; Kunt, 1997; Peacock, 1999, 2001; Sakui & Gaies, 1999; Truitt, 1995; Wen & Johnson, 1997; Yang, 1992, 1999), and in-service and pre-service foreign and second language teachers (Horwitz, 1985; Kern, 1995; Peacock, 1999, 2001).

There have been some studies such as, Wenden, 1987a; Yang, 1992, 1999; Brown, 1996 on either language learning beliefs or language learning strategies use, but there have been relatively few studies to investigate the relationship between learners' beliefs and language learning strategies use in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Horwitz (1985, 1987, 1988) first introduced the learner beliefs in the mid-1980s. Learner's language learning beliefs

differ depending on individuals' learning process along with other factors such as, age, gender, language proficiency culture, and motivation (Horwitz ,1985; Horwitz, 1987; Wenden, 1987a; Wenden,1987b; Horwitz, 1988; Tumposky, 1991; Yang, 1992; Kern, 1995; Mantle-Bromley, 1995; Park,1995; Truitt, 1995; Kuntz, 1996; Oh, 1996; Gwynne, 1997; Kunt, 1997; White, 1999; Kim-Yoon, 2000; Kim, 2001; Siebert, 2003; Tanaka, 2004; Bernat, 2006; Diab, 2000; Hong , 2006; Amuzie & Winke, 2009; Ariogul et al.,2009; Zhong, 2012). According to Ellis (2004, 2008), these learning beliefs and attitudes can be categorized into four groups: (1) abilities consisting of intelligence, working memory and language aptitude, (2) propensities including such factors as learning style, motivation, anxiety, personality and willingness to communicate, (3) learner cognitions or beliefs about L2 learning, and (4) learner action (i.e. learning strategies). Studies by Horwitz ,1985; Horwitz, 1987; Wenden, 1987a; Wenden,1987b; Horwitz, 1988; Tumposky, 1991; Yang, 1992; Kern, 1995; Mantle-Bromley, 1995; Park,1995; Truitt, 1995; Kuntz, 1996; Oh, 1996; Gwynne, 1997; Kunt, 1997; White, 1999; Kim-Yoon, 2000; Kim, 2001; Siebert, 2003; Tanaka, 2004; Bernat, 2006; Diab, 2006; Hong , 2006; Amuzie & Winke, 2009; Ariogul et al.,2009; Zhong, 2012 on these topics have shown an increasing interest in how individuals' perceptions about language learning are different and how these different factors influence one's learning a new language.

There is some research such as Wenden (1986a), Yang (1992, 1999), Brown (1996), Hong (2006), and Zhong (2012) investigating the relationship between language learning beliefs and language learning strategies involving students studying English in either EFL or ESL context, but there are lack of empirical studies that have categorized the international students into three different groups:

1. ESL students, who are taking Intensive English Program (IEP) classes to either continue their higher education in the United States or to improve their English skill for various personal and work-related reasons;
2. Undergraduate students, who are taking regular academic programs;
3. Graduate students, who are either in Masters or Ph.D. programs.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the English language learning beliefs and English language learning strategies used by international students at a four-year institution. It will also examine the relationship between English language learning beliefs and the English language learning strategies. For instance, how the learners' language learning beliefs influenced the choice of what language learning strategy use they employed and vice versa. To illustrate, students who believe in memorization tend to make an effort to spend more time memorizing new words or grammar rules from textbooks; while, students who believe that spending more time with native speakers will improve their English skills will be more likely to make friends with whom they can practice English. The study will also determine if background variables such as gender, self-rated English proficiency, TOEFL score, race/ethnicity, and the academic program in which students are enrolled influenced learners' beliefs about language learning and their use of language strategies.

This study employed four questionnaires in order to investigate international students', studying at a four-year institution, language learning beliefs and English learning strategies. The four questionnaires used in this study were: the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL, ESL/EFL 7.0 version) by Oxford (1990), the Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory

(BALLI, ESL/EFL version) by Horwitz (1987), the Individual Background Questionnaire (IBQ), and the follow-up interview questionnaire adopted from Zhong (2012).

Research Questions

In order to reach the goals of this study, the following research questions were addressed:

1. What are the language-learning strategies used by international students at a four-year institution?
2. Do demographic variables such as, gender, age, academic programs, hours of studying English, TOEFL score, self-rated language proficiency, and race/ethnicity affect international student's language learning strategies?
3. What are the language learning beliefs of international students at a four-year institution?
4. Do demographic variables such as, gender, age, academic programs, hours of studying English, TOEFL score, self-rated language proficiency, and race/ethnicity affect international students' language learning beliefs?
5. Is there a relationship between the learners' beliefs about language learning and the language learning strategy use among international students?
6. What factors influence international students' learning English?

Significance of the Study

This study provided both practical and theoretical aspects of English learning strategy uses and English learning beliefs among international students at a four-year institution. These two aspects were closely examined in relation to the participants' demographic characteristics such as, gender, self-reported language proficiency, TOEFL scores, the country of origin, and the

academic program the international students are enrolled in (the IEP, undergraduate, and graduate programs).

This study provided practical assistance to teachers, administrators, policy makers, researchers, curriculum developers, publishers, and international students, especially those studying in four-year institutions in the United States to enhance their language learning to succeed in their academic programs and jobs. The findings of this study were especially imperative for institutions of higher education since the number of international students coming into the United States to study has been increasing dramatically over the last twenty decades.

Limitations

Some limitations exist when interpreting the validity and reliability of this study.

1. This study was limited to college-level adult learners of English who were nineteen and older.
2. This study was conducted with a large number of international students from three different academic programs at a four year institution located in the South.
3. The sample was limited to students who voluntarily participated in the study for both the online survey and the follow-up interviews.
4. Not all participants' English proficiency was intermediate to advance to understand the questions on both the online survey and the follow-up interviews were limited.

Therefore, making generalizations of the findings to larger populations among international students from other four year institutions or to other English learning contexts such as community colleges, church, or private English institutions should be handled with caution.

Assumptions

The following assumptions were made for the purpose of this study:

1. There are certain language learning strategies that international students prefer to use when they learn English.
2. Based on their English learning beliefs, their use of language learning strategies vary.
3. There is a relationship between language learning strategies and language learning beliefs.
4. Participants understood the survey questions and answered them honestly and coherently.
5. Participants who volunteered for the follow-up interview answered the questions honestly and consistently.
6. SILL (version 7.0) and BALLI (ESL 2.0) are reliable and suitable instruments to examine students' language learning strategies and beliefs.
7. The results as reported on SILL and BALLI reflect the participants' language learning strategies and beliefs.

Definition of Terms

The following terms were used in this study:

1. Beliefs About Language Learning (BALL): It refers to language learners' preconceived notions and beliefs on diverse issues relating to second or foreign language learning (Horwitz, 1987).
2. Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI): BALLI is designed by Horwitz (1987) to investigate ESL/EFL students' beliefs about language learning. There are five aspects: (1) the difficulty of language learning, (2) foreign language aptitude, (3) the nature of language learning, (4) learning and communication

strategies, and (5) motivation and expectations. The BALLI ESL/EFL version was used for this study.

3. English as a Foreign Language (EFL): EFL refers to language learning and instruction of English to speakers of other languages in a non-English-speaking community or country where English is generally not a local medium of communication by non-native speakers.
4. English Language Learners (ELLs): Any individual learners who learn English as a second or foreign language for school or for other purposes such as jobs or hobbies whose first language is not English.
5. English as a Second Language (ESL): ESL refers to English as a second language learning and instruction of English in an English-speaking community or country where English is spoken as a first language or an official language to students whose first language is not English.
6. Intensive English Program (IEP): IEP refers to an intensive English program which provides more than eighteen hours a week at a four-year institution where international students take English classes such as writing, grammar, reading, and listening to improve their overall English skills.
7. International Students (IS): IS refers to international students who are defined as individuals enrolled for credit or non-credit at an accredited higher education institution in the U.S. on a temporary student visa.
8. L1: L1 refers to a first language or native language of second language learner.
9. L2: L2 refers to a second language or target language.

10. Language Learning Strategies (LLS): LLS refers to “specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations” (Oxford, 1990, p. 8).
11. Second Language Acquisition (SLA): Second language acquisition is the process by which people learn a second language. Second language refers to any languages that a person learns in addition to his/her first language. The academic field of second language acquisition seeks to understand how individuals learn new languages. SLA theories are descriptions of how people learn second languages and the factors that help or hinder their learning (Horwitz, 2013).
12. Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL): SILL is an instrument which was created by Oxford (1990) to examine how language learners use different strategies to promote their language learning. There are two different versions of SILL: one for native English speakers learning foreign language containing 80 items (Version 5.0); the other for ESL or EFL learners learning English as a second or foreign language with 50 items (Version 7.0). This study used the ESL/EFL version. There are six categories of strategies: (1) Memory strategies, (2) Cognitive strategies, (3) Metacognitive strategies, (4) Affective strategies, and (5) Social strategies.
13. Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL): TOEFL is a test used to assess international students’ English proficiency whose first language is not English. It is one of the most widely used tests of English required of international students who come to study at universities in the United States and other English-speaking countries.

Organization of the Study

Chapter 1 provided an introduction to examining the language learning strategy uses by international students at a four-year institution and their language learning beliefs. This chapter also provided the background of the study, the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, the research questions, the significance of the study, the limitations of the study, and the definitions of terms. Chapter 2 presented a review of relevant literature about how adults and children learn language differently, language learning strategies, beliefs about language learning, and learning differences among international students in the IEP, undergraduate, and graduate programs. Chapter 3 described the research design, the instruments, the participants, the data collection, and the data analysis. Chapter 4 presented the results of the data analysis and the findings of the study. Chapter 5 provided the discussion of the findings of the study, the conclusion, the pedagogical implications, and the recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

International students, who come from diverse cultural, linguistic, and educational backgrounds, find themselves in the position of having to learn a new language and culture in order to survive academically, socially, and financially in a new society. Despite their attempts to learn the language and culture, not everyone acquires the target language successfully. Their potential success or failure is determined in a large part by the complex interaction of factors related to the second language learning process, the environment, and the characteristics of the individual learner. In acquiring a second language, the learner must internalize a completely new system of communication comprised of unfamiliar sound patterns, syntactic rules, and vocabulary. The second language may appear to be "a confusing disarray of complex verbal stimuli that reach the learner solely as if they were 'noise'. How does the language learner cope with this complexity and uncertainty?" (Naiman et al., 1975, p. 65). The potential answers to this question might lie in an analysis of the second language learner's cognitive learning strategy, individual's preferred means of receiving, processing, and assimilating information to bring about learning (McLaughlin, 1978).

This chapter presented a review of literature, which focused on adult second language learning theories, language-learning strategies, beliefs about language learning, and the relationship between language strategy uses and language learning beliefs. The section on language learning strategies included a review of empirical studies of good language learners, the definitions of language-learning strategies, classifications of language learning strategies, and research such as, Bremner, 1998; Green & Oxford, 1995; Griffiths, 2003; Holec, 1981; Hong,

2006; Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; Lee, 2003; O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo, & Küpper, 1985; Oxford, 1990; Politzer, 1983; Oxford, 1990; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Oxford & Cohen, 1992; Oxford & Ehrman, 1995; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Park,1994; Park, 1997 on variables like gender (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Oxford, 1993; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Politzer, 1983; Wharton, 2000), age (Purdie & Oliver, 1999), second language proficiency (Bialystok, 1981; Chamot & Küpper, 1989; Park, 1997; Peacock & Ho, 2003; Phillips, 1991; Politzer, 1983), cultural background (Oxford, 1996; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Politzer & McGroarty, 1985), social context (Parks & Raymond, 2004), learning styles (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989), motivation (Kim-Yoon, 2000; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Ramirez, 1986), anxiety (Gardner, 1993; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994), and beliefs about language learning (Park, 1997; Yang, 1999) influencing language-learning strategy use.

The discussion of beliefs about language learning addressed definitions and characteristics of the term 'beliefs about language learning' and studies such as, Horwitz ,1985; Horwitz, 1987; Wenden, 1987a; Wenden,1987b; Horwitz, 1988; Tumposky, 1991; Yang, 1992; Kern, 1995; Mantle-Bromley, 1995; Park,1995; Truitt, 1995; Kuntz, 1996; Oh, 1996; Gwynne, 1997; Kunt, 1997; White, 1999; Kim-Yoon, 2000; Kim, 2001; Siebert, 2003; Tanaka, 2004; Bernat, 2006; Diab, 2006; Hong , 2006; Amuzie & Winke, 2009; Ariogul et al.,2009; Zhong, 2012 on factors influencing the beliefs and the relationship between beliefs and strategy use.

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4. Do demographic variables such as, gender, age, academic programs, hours of studying English, TOEFL score, self-rated language proficiency, and race/ethnicity affect international students' language learning beliefs?
5. Is there a relationship between the learner's beliefs about language learning and the language learning strategy use among international students?
6. What factors influence international student's learning English?

Adult Learners

There is no clear distinction between how adults and children learn; however, there are some differences between how children and adults learn/acquire information/knowledge. The adult learners are autonomous and self-directed learners who can monitor their own learning more than children (Little, 1991, 2007; Deci, 1980; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ushioda, 1996; Dam, 1995; Kasser & Ryan, 2001; Little, 1991; Vansteenkiste, Simons et al., 2004). Moreover, many Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theories assume that adults and children acquire a target language at a different pace, and some do argue that children can learn the target language faster and more effectively than adults (Curtiss, 1977; Johnson & Newport, 1989). Although the debate between whether there is difference between how children and adults learn, it appears that recent adult educators have differentiated adult learning from children learning (Lorge, 1944, 1947). Thus, andragogy and self-directed learning became prevalent in adult education.

Knowles (1968) presented andragogy, which is "a new label and new technology" (p. 351) for distinguishing adult learning from pre-adult schooling. His definition of andragogy is "the art of science of helping adults learn" (Knowles, 1980, p. 43) and it was different from the art and science of teaching children, pedagogy. Also, adult learners are defined as "autonomous,

free, and growth-oriented" (Merriam, 2001, p. 7). Andragogy described the characteristics of an adult learner as someone who:

> (1) has an independent self-concept and who can direct his or her own learning, (2) has accumulated a reservoir of life experiences that is a rich resource for learning, (3) has learning needs closely related to changing social roles, (4) is problem-centered and interested in immediate application of knowledge, and (5) is motivated to learn by internal rather than external factors. (Merriam, 2001, p. 5)

Therefore, adult education should be learner-directed, not teacher-directed. Moreover, adult educators "should involve learners as many aspects of their education as possible and in the creation of a climate in which they can most fruitfully learn" (Houle, 1996, p. 30).

Knowles (1975) also investigated self-directed learning, which was first introduced by Houle (1961). Knowles (1975) believes that adult learners are more self-directed learners. Knowles (1975) offered a widely accepted definition of self-directed learning:

> Self-directed learning describes a process in which individuals take the initiative, with or without the help of others, in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating learning goals, identifying human and material resources for learning, choosing and implementing appropriate learning strategies, and evaluating learning outcomes. (p. 18)

Self-directed learning has three goals: (1) It should have as its goal the development of the learner's capacity to be self-directed (Brockett & Hiemstra, 1991; Knowles, 1975; Tough, 1967, 1971); (2) It should foster transformational learning (Brookfield, 1986; Mezirow, 1985); (3) It is the promotion of emancipatory learning and social action (Andruske, 2000; Brookfield, 1993; Collins, 1996).

Transformative learning theory further explains adult learners' characteristics. According to Mezirow (1991a, 2000, 2003), adult learners find meaningful purpose to learn or frame of reference, which structures fixed, unexamined, unquestioned assumptions and expectations, and meanings. It is a

> process of becoming critically aware of how and why our presuppositions have come to constrain the way we perceive, understand, and feel about our world; of reformulating these assumptions to permit a more inclusive, discriminating, permeable, and integrative perspective; and of making decisions or otherwise acting upon these new understandings. (Mezirow, 1995, p. 14)

Transformative learning promotes adult learners to be able to use their prior experience and knowledge to monitor and learn new concepts to be able to transform to become a better individual (Mezirow, 2000).

Krashen's Five Hypothesis in SLA

Stephen Krashen is one of the most influential researchers and scholars in the field of linguistics, especially in second language acquisition (SLA) and development. His five hypotheses (Krashen, 1981) in second language acquisition have impacted all areas of second language research and teaching. Krashen's theory of SLA consists of five hypotheses, which are explained in the Table 1.

Table 1

A Summary of Krashen's Five Hypotheses in Second Language Acquisition

Hypothesis	Explanation
The natural hypothesis	Learners acquire parts of language in a predictable order. For any given language, certain grammatical structures are acquired early while others are acquired later in the process. This hypothesis suggests that this natural order of acquisition occurs independently of deliberate teaching and therefore teachers cannot change the order of a grammatical teaching sequence.
The acquisition / learning hypothesis	There are two ways of developing language ability. Acquisition involves the subconscious acceptance of knowledge where information is stored in the brain through the use of communication; this is the process used for developing native languages. Learning, on the other hand, is the conscious acceptance of knowledge 'about' a language (i.e. the grammar or form). This is often the product of formal language instruction.
The monitor hypothesis	This hypothesis further explains how acquisition and learning are used; the acquisition system, initiates an utterance and the learning system 'monitors' the utterance to inspect and correct errors. Monitoring can make some contribution to the accuracy of an utterance but its use should be limited. He suggests that the 'monitor' can sometimes act as a barrier as it forces the learner to slow down and focus more on accuracy as opposed to fluency.
The input hypothesis	This hypothesis suggests that language acquisition occurs when learners receive messages that they can understand a concept also known as comprehensible input. However, this comprehensible input should be one step beyond the learner's current language ability, represented as $i + 1$, in order to allow learners to continue to progress with their language development.
The affective filter hypothesis	Affective filter refers to a 'screen' that is influenced by emotional variables that can prevent learning. This hypothetical filter does not impact acquisition directly but rather prevents input from reaching the language acquisition part of the brain. He also mentions the affective filter can be prompted by many different variables including anxiety, self-confidence, motivation and stress.

Note. Adopted from *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition* by S. Krashen, 1981, Oxford: Progamon Press. Copyright 1981 by Stephen Krashen.

Monitor Hypothesis: Distinction between language acquisition and language learning.

One of the most vital hypotheses in Krashen's theories in SLA is that it is imperative to make a distinction between language acquisition and language learning. Tollefson, Jacobs &

Selipsky (1983) claimed that making these distinctions is “perhaps the most important conceptualization in the field and [it] has made possible the most productive models of SLA yet developed” (p. 1).

Krashen (1982) defined acquisition as a subconscious process where learners do not think about generating outcome while learning is a conscious process where learners constantly correct the errors and expect feedback. He further asserted that both language acquisition and language learning are crucial in developing second language competence, yet he emphasizes the importance of acquisition since it plays an important role in developing competence, which leads to language use and fluency. Moreover, competence obtained through learning or as a ‘Monitor’ serves language by acquired language competence. That is, the ESL students have a tendency to monitor their language before and after they produce the language. Students can only monitor their learning when they have already learned the grammatical rules and form, and when they have ample time to think about generating language.

Language acquisition occurs when there is a meaningful interaction in a natural environment where learners do not have to worry about the forms and rules. Therefore, explicit grammar instruction and error correction are not significant in this situation since these type of instructions isolate learners from interacting with others in a learning context where learning happens naturally (Brown & Hanlon, 1970; Brown, Cazden, & Bellugi, 1973). According to Krashen (1981), “acquirers need not have conscious awareness of the “rules” they possess, and [they] may self-correct only on the basis of a “feel” for grammatically” (p. 2).

In contrast, conscious language learning accompanies explicit grammar teaching and error correction. Fanselow (1977) and Long (1977) asserted that error correction helps learners to prepare themselves for the right mental representation stage to produce the language. It is still

questionable whether such feedback has a major impact on learning. In the Monitor theory, in order to have a conscious learning, the learner is acting as a Monitor and their language production is initiated by the acquired system, and he/she produces the outcome of language fluency based on what they have picked up through active communication (Krashen, 1981, p. 2). The Monitor achieves the language proficiency by making changes to improve accuracy. Figure 1 illustrates the interaction of acquisition and learning in adult second language production.

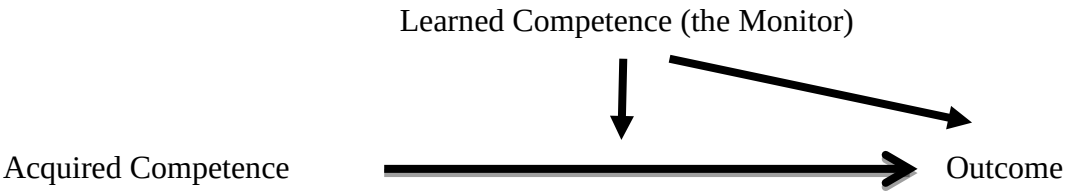

Figure 1. Model for Adult Second Language Performance. Cited from *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition* by Stephen Krashen, 1981, Oxford: Progamon Press, p. 16. Copyright 1981 by Stephen Krashen.

Adult English Language Learners (ELLs)

Despite Krashen's Monitor Theory that adult language learners act as monitors to control their own learning, there are still discrepancies in language proficiency among adults ELLs. There is no universal explanation to explain why despite using the same materials, taking the same classes, interacting with the same instructors, and learning from the same curriculum, there are still differences in the learners' outcomes, such as overall fluency and satisfaction level. There are various factors such as, overall comprehension of the language being taught, level of self-consciousness during language use (Johnson & Newport, 1989), conscious strategies used to augment language practice (Bialystok, 2006), intelligence, motivation, age, amount of exposure to the language being learned, and language learning history (Cenoz & Valencia, 1994).

Therefore, the next section of this chapter examines the learners' different language learning strategies and beliefs along with other demographic factors.

Adult "Good" Language Learners

In the late 1970s, language learning strategies that were used by language learners proliferated (Oxford, 1985, 1987, 1988). The paradigm moved from "behaviorism to cognitive science in psychology and education" (Zare, 2012, p. 162). For instance, Chamot (2005), Lee (2003) Reiss (1985) claimed that early research on language learning emphasized explaining behaviors that are externally observed, followed by attempts to label strategic behaviors to ultimately categorize the strategic behaviors and tie them to language proficiency.

Most of the previous research such as, Rubin (1975), Rubin & Thompson (1994), Stern (1975) related to language learning strategy had an intention to define the "good" language learners, and concluded that no single instructional method or research findings would guarantee the ultimate success in teaching a second language (Brown, 2007). The paradigm shifted from instruction-focus to the learners' own use of different strategies to enhance learning. Brown (2007) stated that "certain people appeared to be endowed with abilities to succeed [while] others lacked those abilities" (p. 132). Naiman et al. (1978), Reiss (1985), Rubin (1975), Rubin and Thompson (1994), Stern (1975), Vann and Abraham (1990) concluded that good language learners possess certain personal characteristics, style, and strategies.

The first "good" language learner study by Rubin (1975) based on interviews with language learners, found the following seven principles. The good learner:

1. is willing and accurate
2. has a strong drive to communicate or to learn from communication
3. is often not inhibited

4. is prepared to attend to form
5. practices by using a variety of behaviors
6. monitors his own and the speech of others, and
7. learns to attend to meaning. (p. 45)

According to Rubin's (1975) study, it made a substantial contribution to earlier understandings of good language learners. Rubin (1975) perceived that determining language learners' strategies is a complicated task because language learning contains cognitive processes which cannot be easily seen. Rubin gathered much data using observations and self-reports. She consistently stressed three areas of importance essential to understanding second language learners: "aptitude, motivation, and opportunity" (p. 42). Rubin (1975) identified the following seven distinguishable qualities of good language learners by observing students and teachers in language classes. The good language learner:

1. is a willing and accurate guesser.
2. has a strong drive to communicate, or to learn from communication.
3. is often not inhibited. He/she is willing to appear foolish if reasonable communication results.
4. is prepared to attend to form…and is constantly looking for patterns in the language.
5. practices.
6. monitors his own and the speech of others.
7. attends to meaning. (p. 45)

Stern (1975) also presented different strategies used by successful language learners. Based on his experience as a teacher and learner and his review of extended studies, Stern (1975) presented a similar list of language-learning strategies used among effective language learners.

Based on stages of language learning and problems faced by the learner when learning a language, Stern (1975) presented ten learning strategies of "good" language learners:

1. A personal learning style or positive learning strategies.
2. An active approach to the learning task.
3. A tolerant and outgoing approach to the target language and empathy with its speakers.
4. Technical know-how about how to tackle a language.
5. Strategies of experimentation and planning with the object of developing the new language into an ordered system, and revising this system progressively.
6. Constantly searching for meaning.
7. Willingness to practice.
8. Willingness to use the language in real communication.
9. Self-monitoring and critical sensitivity to language use.
10. Developing the target language more and more as a separate reference system and learning to think in it. (p. 311)

Naiman et al. (1978) conducted an empirical study using interviews with 34 adult second-language learners. They concluded that personality traits, cognitive styles, and strategic learning were critical to successful language learning. Their findings echoed those of previous studies, indicating learner agency and awareness as vital to language learning success.

To sum up, based on the different qualities of the previous studies of the "good" language learners, (Rubin, 1975Rubin & Thompson, 1994; Stern, 1975) such learners:

1. Find their own way, taking responsibility for their own learning
2. Organize information about learning

3. Are creative, and try to feel the language by experimenting its grammar and words
4. Create opportunities for practice in using the language inside and outside the classroom
5. Learn to live with uncertainty by not forgetting or being confused and by continuing to talk or listen without understanding every word
6. Use memory strategies to bring back what has been learned
7. Make errors work for them not against them
8. Use linguistics knowledge, including knowledge of the first language, in learning a second language
9. Use contextual clues to help them in comprehension
10. Learn to make intelligent guesses
11. Learn chunks of language as wholes and formalized routines to help them perform beyond their competence
12. Learn to use certain tricks to keep conversation going
13. Learn certain production strategies to fill in gaps in their own competence
14. Learn different styles of speech and writing and learn to vary their language depending on the formality of the situation.

Reiss (1985) conducted a survey with 98 college students who were foreign-language and ESL learners, and this study emphasized the role of metacognition and metacognitive behaviors in language learning. The questionnaires pertained to hypothetical circumstances, where participants may find themselves as language learners. Participants were asked to respond to the questions strategically. The result of this study showed that most of the participants used monitoring strategies, such as “silent speaking,” (p. 518) which is a form of active but nonverbal

participation, most of the time. In addition, active, non-verbal participation means that learners are attentive to the meaning and form of the language they are producing and are engaged by responding to questions even though the responses are in one's head. Results also demonstrated that these participants had a moderate tolerance for ambiguity, that is, they were more likely to try harder to comprehend the situation in spite of their lack of vocabulary and did not give up easily. Also, the results showed that mnemonic strategies were considered to be a valuable memory tool, but participants reported that they used them the least often. Thus, Reiss concluded that the more successful learners tended to use fewer mnemonic strategies, while less proficient learners were more likely to use different strategies more selectively and successfully to improve their vocabulary learning and metacognitive learning behaviors.

Vann and Abraham (1990) conducted an experimental study using participant's behaviors of language learners who were from Saudi Arabia struggling in their language learning efforts. They were taking classes at an IEP in one of the American universities. The researchers gathered data from interviews, a verb conjugating exercise, the completion of a CLOZE passage, which is a fill in the blank activity, and the writing essay accompanied by a think aloud transcription. The objective of that research was to identify possible reasons why these Saudi Arabian students failed to learn English. Surprisingly, the result of the study indicated that contrary to the commonly held beliefs that poor language learners are inactive and reserved, the Saudi Arabian students were actively participating in their learning. They were also preoccupied with applying different strategies such as checking for errors, attempting to clarify meaning, checking comprehension, repeating words, and generating synonyms on the CLOZE passages. The main reason why these learners failed to successfully match the language learning strategies to complete the tasks given to them was that they were lacking metacognitive abilities. They proved

a clear lack of any systematic approach to monitoring and checking structures and forms they were employing. Vann and Abraham (1990) concluded that learners do acknowledge the different strategies they could use to enhance their language learning, but the differences between more effective and less effective learners were in how efficiently they matched the learning strategies to the learning tasks to reinforce the learning. Thus, knowing a strategy and being able to use the strategy effectively are completely different.

Rubin (1975), Stern (1975), and Rubin and Thompson (1994) claimed that successful and productive language learners have shown that learners use a wider range of learning strategies effectively while the not so competent language learners do not incorporate these different strategies in their learning. According to Ellis (1994), language learners are susceptible to changing their learning strategies as they improve their language learning.

However, O'Malley et al. *(*1985) and Ellis (1994) argued that the definitions of successful language learners are ambiguous since the methods and criteria are equivocal. Classifying successful language learners seems easy, but it is hard to determine exactly how the learners are considered good since there are so many factors influencing their success. For instance, the speed of learning, previous exposure to English, learners' goals, and levels of proficiency should be taken into account in determining a good language learner (Sewell, 2003). In spite of its ambiguity, knowing the learners' characteristics, techniques, and strategies can reinforce students' language learning and well-rounded instruction (Bialystok ,1991; Cohen,1991; Green & Oxford,1995; O'Malley & Chamot ,1990; Oxford,1990; and Wenden ,1991). Language learning strategies focus on particular behaviors that learners somewhat intentionally employ to enhance their comprehension, storage, retrieval, and use of information (Rubin, 1978).

Definition of Language Learning Strategies (LLS)

Language learning strategies have the potential to be "an extremely powerful learning tool" (O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper, & Russo, 1985, p. 43). Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975) initiated the awareness and the importance of the strategies used by learners in the language learning process. Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975) emphasized the importance of learners and how they are the ones who actually learn and not the teachers or their methods of teaching. Nyikos and Oxford (1993) stated that, "learning begins with the learner" (p. 11). Skehan (1989) explained this phenomenon as an "explosion of activity" (p. 285) in the field of language learning strategy research. Despite the growing interest in language learning strategies among teachers and learners, it is not so easy to define and classify language learning strategies (Ellis, 1994; O'Malley et al., 1985; Oxford, Lavine & Crookall, 1989; Stern, 1975; Tarone, 1980). Wenden and Rubin (1987, p. 7) talked of "the elusive nature of the term," Ellis (1994, p. 529) describes the concept as fuzzy, whereas O'Malley et al (1985) attempt to explain it in a more defined way:

> There is no consensus on what constitutes a learning strategy in second language learning or how these differ from other types of learner activities. Learning, teaching and communication strategies are often interlaced in discussions of language learning and are often applied to the same behavior. Further, even within the group of activities most often referred to as learning strategies; there is considerable confusion about definitions of specific strategies and about the hierarchic relationship among strategies. (p. 22)

Different researchers have defined the term learning strategies slightly differently. Rubin (1975) provided a broad definition of learning strategies as "the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge" (p. 43).

Rubin (1981) also identified two kinds of learning strategies: (1) those which contribute directly to learning, and (2) those which contribute indirectly to learning. Rubin (1981) divided the direct learning strategies into six types: clarification/verification, monitoring, memorization, guessing/inductive inference, deductive reasoning, and practice. She divided the indirect learning strategies into two types: creating opportunities for practice, and production tricks (p. 124). Even though the definition of language learning strategies differ, the interests in the study of language learner strategies led to the publication of three books at the beginning of the 1990s (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; and Wenden 1991), suggesting that "the study of language learning strategies had reached the mainstream of SLA"(Zhong, 2012, p. 56). Table 2 demonstrates some selected definitions in the literature.

Table 2

Selected Definitions of Language Learning Strategies (LLS)

Source	Definition
Rubin (1975)	The techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge.
Holec (1981)	Learning strategies can foster learners' autonomy in language learning.
Stern (1983) (cited in Stevick, 1990)	General tendencies or overall characteristics of the approach employed by a [particular] language learner.
Weinstein & Mayer, (1986)	Behaviours and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning that are intended to influence the learner's encoding process
Wenden (1987a)	Language learning behaviours learners actually engage in to learn and regulate the learning of a second language…what learners know about the strategies they use, i.e. their strategic knowledge…what learners know about aspects of their language learning other than the strategies they use
O'Malley & Chamot (1987)	Special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn or retain new information

Oxford (1990)	Specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferable to new situations. That is, "operations employed by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval, and use of information" (p.8)
Cohen (1998)	Second language learner strategies encompass both second language learning and second language use strategies. Taken together they constitute the steps or actions consciously selected by learners either to improve the learning of a second language, the use of it, or both.
Cohen (2003)	The conscious or semi-conscious thoughts and behaviours used by learners with the explicit goal of improving their knowledge and understanding of a target language.
Griffiths (2008)	Activities consciously chosen by learners for the purpose of regulating their own language learning.

Note. Adopted and modified from *The Beliefs and Learner Strategy Use of Low-proficiency Chinese Leaners and Their Impact on Learning English in a New Zealand Context.* by Zhong, p. 57. Copyright 2012 by Qunyan Zhong.

Rubin (1975) included communication strategies in language learning strategies. However, this inclusion of communication strategies combined with the language learning strategies is seen by Brown (1989) as two quite separate manifestations of language learner behavior. Brown (1980), for instance, drew a clear distinction between learning strategies and communication strategies on the grounds that "communication is the output modality and learning is the input modality" (P. 87). Brown (1980) suggested that, while a learner generally applies the same fundamental strategies (such as rule transference) used in learning a language to communicate in that language, there are other communication strategies such as avoidance or message abandonment which do not result in learning.

Brown (1994) conceded, however, that "in the arena of linguistic interaction, it is sometimes difficult …to distinguish between the two" (p. 118). Ellis (1986) viewed strategies for learning and strategies for using, including communication strategies or "devices for

compensating for inadequate resources" (p. 165), as quite different manifestations of a more general phenomenon, which Ellis (1986) called learner strategies. Ellis (1986) argued that it was even possible that successful use of communication strategies may actually prevent language learning since skillful compensation for lack of linguistic knowledge may hinder the need for learning.

Tarone (1980) took a different point of view. She suggested that by helping students to say what they want or need to say, communication strategies can help to expand language. Even if the communication is not perfect in grammatical or lexical terms, in the process of using the language for communication, the learner will be exposed to language input which may result in learning and which therefore may be considered a learning strategy. The key point in this argument was that in order to be considered a learning strategy rather than a communication strategy, the "basic motivation is not to communicate but to learn" (Tarone, 1980, p. 419).

There are problems with differentiating between communication strategies and learning strategies on the grounds of motivation or intention. Tarone (1981) acknowledged that there is no way of determining what motivates a learner, that learners may have a dual motivation to both learn and communicate, or that learners may learn language even when the basic motivation was to communicate. As Tarone (1981) commented, "the relationship of learning strategies to communication strategies is somewhat problematic" (p. 290).

Ellis (1994) also conceded that there is "no easy way of telling whether a strategy is motivated by a desire to learn or a desire to communicate" (p. 530). This inability to differentiate clearly between communication and learning strategies does nothing to simplify the decision regarding what should or should not be included in learning strategy taxonomies. Rubin's

(1975) and O'Malley's and Chamot's (1987) led to what Stern (1992) acknowledged as "a certain arbitrariness in the classification of learning strategies" (p. 264).

In addition to the arbitrary definitions in LLS, some issues on LLS are not commonly shared such as: Is LLS conscious or unconscious? Is LLS a mental entity or behavioral action? Is LLS a specific or general behavioral action? Is LLS strategic learning or normal learning? (Chamot, 2005; Cohen, 1998, 2003, 2005; Griffiths, 2008; Macaro, 2006; O'Malley & Chamot, 1900; Oxford, 1990, 2003; Stevick, 1990; Weinstein and Mayer, 1986) Table 3 summarizes some of the different concepts in LLS.

Table 3

Different Views on LLS by Different Researchers

Author(s)	Year	Views	Comments
Cohen	(1998)	LLS is conscious	Learners consciously employ LLS. These conscious choices become the defining factor which distinguishes between strategic learner and non-strategic learner.
Cohen	(2003, 2005)	LLS is conscious	When using different strategies becomes so habitual, it is no longer conscious awareness but becomes a process.
Chamot	(2005)	LLS is conscious	"Strategies are most often conscious and goal driven" (p.112).
Oxford	(1990, 2003)	LLS is conscious	LLS are consciously employed by learners. Although after a repeated actions, LLS can become unconscious and habitual.
Oxford	(1990)	Behavioral action	LLS is a behavioral action accompanied by learners.
Stevick	(1990)	Both behavioral and mental action	LLS is "outside and in-side" problem (p.144).
Weinstein and Mayer	(1986)	Both behavioral and mental action	LLS is both observable behavior and unobservable thought.

O'Malley & Chamot	(1900)	Both behavioral and mental action	LLS is both observable behavior and unobservable thought.
Griffiths	(2008)	Both behavioral and mental action	LLS includes "mental or physical" behaviors (p. 87).
Stern	(1983)	General	LLS is general and overall approach.
Oxford	(1990)	Specific	LLS is specific actions.
Dörnyei	(2005)	General	LLS is general learning strategies applicable to motivate leaners.
Weinstein et al.	(2000)	Specific	LLS is a specific learning that has three characteristics: goal-oriented, intentionally invoked, and effortful.
Cohen	(1998)	Specific	LLS is "with some exceptions, strategies themselves are not inherently good or bad, but have the potential to be used effectively" (p.8)
Macaro	(2006)	General	LLS is not specific learning, and there is no effective strategy. He asserts that "successful learning is no longer linked to the individual learner's frequency of strategy use. Rather it is associated with his or her orchestration of strategies available to him or her" (p.332).

Note. Adapted and modified from *The Beliefs and Learner Strategy Use of Low-proficiency Chinese Leaners and Their Impact on Learning English in a New Zealand Context* by Zhong, p. 58.Copyright 2012 by Qunyan Zhong.

As seen in Table 3, the term and the ideas in LLS are not unanimous. Recently, Dörnyei and Skehan (2003) and Dörnyei (2005) attempted to eradicate the term learning strategy and to use self-regulation, which "emphasizes the learners' own strategic efforts to manage their own achievement through specific beliefs and processes" (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997, p. 105, as cited in Dörnyei, 2005, p.191). The reason Dörnyei and Skehan (2003) and Dörnyei (2005) suggested using another term besides learning strategy is due to its varied definitions and understanding. Also, the term self-regulation is a multidimensional construct that includes

cognitive, metacognitive, motivational, behavioral and environmental processes that learner engage in rather than the actual techniques or actions that learners use to enhance their learning (Zhong, 2012, p. 60).

Even though Dörnyei and Skehan (2003) and Dörnyei (2005) claim that the notion of self-regulation helps better understand the language learners' situation, Griffiths (2008) explained that the idea of self-regulation does not accurately explain or resolve the issues in LLS, and that, "there is still a need for an answer to the question: what do learners do in order to regulate their own learning?" (Zhong, 2012, p. 60) Therefore, there is no exact term to describe how learners utilize different methods to learn due to the differences in defining and understanding them.

In order to address this ambiguity, Marco (2006) identified different strategies that would define crucial parts to clarify "sematic interchangeability and circularity of argument" (p. 325). Ellis (1994, 2008) provided the main features for defining the best way to understand strategy. Ellis (2008) proposed eight characteristics of learning strategies:

1. Strategies refer to both general approaches and specific actions or techniques used to learn Second Language (L2).
2. Strategies are problem-oriented - the learner deploys a strategy to overcome some particular learning problem.
3. Learners are generally aware of the strategies they use and can identify what they consist of if they are asked to pay attention to what they are doing/thinking.
4. Strategies involve linguistic behavior (such as requesting the name of an object) and non-linguistic (such as pointing at an object so as to be told its name).
5. Linguistic strategies can be performed in the First Language (L1) and in the L2.

6. Some strategies can be behavioral while others are mental. Thus some strategies are directly observable, while others are not.
7. In the main, strategies contribute indirectly to learning by providing learners with data about the L2 which they can then process. However, some strategies may also contribute directly (for example, memorization strategies directed at specific lexical items or grammatical rules).
8. Strategy use varies considerably as a result of both the kind of task the learner is engaged in and individual learner preferences. (p. 705)

Although Ellis (2008) provided adequate definitions of LLS, this study employed the definition by Oxford (1990). Oxford (1990) identified learning strategies as "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations" (p. 8). Thus, the learners are the center of the learning and monitor their own learning with high motivation.

Different Classifications in Language Learning Strategies (LLS)

In LLS, there are different classifications that helped language learning and instructional frameworks (Hong, 2006). Therefore, different researchers such as Bialystok (1978, 2001), Rubin (1981), O'Malley, Chamnot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo, and Kupper (1985), Wong-Fillmore (1979), and Stern (1992) adopted different categories of LLS. Bialystok (1978) presented a theoretical model in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) with social, biological, and other factors influencing language learning. There were three stages of learning: input, knowledge, and output. Her model was similar to the Monitor model (Krashen ,1981). At each stage, learners tend to use different strategies to enhance their progress and competence in

utilizing the language. She then synthesized the classifications of LLS in four groups along with the idea that how a learner utilizes a strategy depends on individuals:

1. Formal language practicing, which refers to knowledge about language related to grammatical and syntactical elements, that is, the language code
2. Functional practicing or using language for authentic communication purposes
3. Monitoring for examining and modifying or correcting linguistic output
4. Inferencing used for guessing a previously unknown meaning or form in a second language. (p. 78)

Biaslystok (1981) conducted a study with 157 high school students in terms of their uses within the four categories of LLS in the context of oral-based and text-based language learning. It revealed the correlation between the strategy uses and the achievement by using standardized test scores. The results showed that not all four categories were related to language proficiency, but only functional practicing influenced both oral-based and text-based tasks. Even though monitoring and inferencing were the most frequently used strategies, they did not influence the learners' proficiency as much as the functional practicing. There was a negative correlation between formal practicing and achievement on text-based tasks. This indicated that learners do not produce language learning effectively while doing written tasks such as homework, grammar drilling exercises, and journal entries. These tasks impeded the learners' progression at some point in their learning. Biaslystok (1981) concluded her study by emphasizing the importance of the quality of the strategy its quantity affecting the learners' success in language learning.

Rubin (1981) identified the importance of cognitive processes in SLA after observing classes and gathering individuals' self-report data from the University of Hawaii. In the study, Rubin (1981) also differentiated between learner behaviors that "contribute directly to learning"

(p. 118). She identified two factors: indirect strategy and direct strategy. Indirect strategies are the ones that create chances for exposure to the target language or motivation to practice. Direct strategies are considered the actual practice. The personal agency is of key importance in distinguishing these two different strategies. The indirect strategy helps with comprehending the learner's "predisposition toward language learning and potential success," (Hong, 2012, p. 28) whereas, the direct strategy "may be characteristic of strategies that could be explicitly taught to improve language learning" (Hong, 2012, p. 28).

Wong-Fillmore (1979) emphasized the importance of individual role. Compared to the study of Rubin (1981), Wong-Fillmore's (1979) study was smaller, ethnographic, and contextual. In her study, there were ten participants: five Spanish speakers and five English speakers. She paired them and observed how they played for about a year in the language-acquisition context of a playroom. The main focus was to discover how these paired students whose first language was different interacted to communicate with each other. The results of the study showed that there were individual differences as to how these children interacted with someone who did not share the same language in order to complete the task. In the end, she concluded that there were two classifications of LLS: cognitive and social. Children, interacting the most, no matter how hard it was for them to converse or convey in the messages in target language, gained the most knowledge. In other words, the successful children depended on social strategies, such as "join[ing] a group and act as if you understand what's going on, even if you don't [,]… giv[ing] the impression-with a few well-chosen words-that you speak the language … [, and] count[ing] on your friends for help" (p. 209).

Other researchers such as Ehrman and Oxford (1995), Ehrman and Oxford (1998), Hong (2006), Hong-Nam and Leavell (2007), Khamkhien (2010), Oxford and Burry-Stock(

1995), Politzer (1983), Rahimi, et al. (2008), Wharton (2000), Zare and Nooreen (2011), and Zhong (2012) in the field of LLS have not only focused on the relationship between how learners' use LLS, but also how these learner's use of different LLS impact the creation of an ideal ESL instruction and scaffolding in the field of ESL education. O'Malley, Chamnot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo, and Kupper (1985) discovered that three main categories were used among participants after observing and interviewing them. Their participants were ESL students and instructors from 70 different high schools. The three most widely used categories were: (1) cognitive strategies, directly related to the performance of information processing such as translation, note taking, and repetition; (2) metacognitive, referred to regulating language learning, including higher-order executive skills or functions such as planning, monitoring, and self-evaluation; (3) socioaffective, related to interaction with others when learning a new language such as cooperation and clarifying questions.

Oxford (1990) identified LLS can be neither bad nor good without context. She claimed that LLS can be only beneficial under certain conditions: (a) the strategy relates well to the LS task at hand, (b) the strategy fits the particular student's learning style preferences to one degree or another, and (c) the student employs the strategy effectively and links it with other relevant strategies. Oxford (1990) also mentioned that when LLS fulfilled these conditions, learning was "easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferrable to new situations" (p. 8).

There are six categories of LLS classified by Oxford (1990) adopting two major groups – direct strategies and indirect strategies – proposed by Rubin (1981). Direct strategies that are directly influencing and producing the target language are memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies. Indirect strategies are the strategies that help direct strategies to enhance the learning

are metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. Table 4 demonstrates a description of LLS classification.

Table 4

A Comparison of Strategy Classification System

Study	Strategy	Description
Bialystok (1978)	Formal Practicing	Gaining knowledge about language which by practicing with language rules.
	Functional Practicing	Using the language for authentic communication purposes.
	Monitoring Strategies	Examining and modifying or correcting linguistic output.
	Inferencing Strategies	Guessing a previously unknown meaning or form.
Wong-Fillmore (1979)	Social Strategies	Interacting with peers in learning, asking for help.
	Cognitive Strategies	Assuming what people say, looking for patterns of the target language.
Rubin (1981)	Direct Strategies	Clarifying, memorizing, guessing, inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning.
	Indirect Strategies	Creating opportunities for practice, using production tricks, using synonyms.
O'Malley, Chamot Stewner-Manazanares, Russo, & Küpper (1985)	Cognitive Strategies	Performing information processing.
	Metacognitive Strategies	Regulating language learning and including high order executive skills or function.
	Socioaffective strategies	Interacting with others in learning and using mental control to reduce learning anxiety.
Oxford (1990)	Direct Strategies:	
	Memory	Storing and retrieving new information.
	Cognitive	Manipulating and transforming the target language.
	Compensation	Filling in the gaps or missing knowledge of the target language.
	Indirect Strategies:	
	Metacognitive	Controlling cognitive process in learning, managing, or regulating language learning.
	Affective	Controlling emotions and feelings to lower learning anxiety.
	Social	Interacting and cooperating with others in learning.

Stern (1992)	Management and planning strategies	Learners' purpose to control learning
	Cognitive strategies	Improving learners' ability to learn and remember materials, and solve the problems. It includes classification/verification, guessing/inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning, practice, memorization, and monitoring
	Communicative – Experiential Strategies	Gesturing, paraphrasing, or asking for repetition and explanation involving verbal and non-verbal instruments
	Interpersonal Strategies	Monitoring learners' development and evaluating their performance
	Affective Strategies	Controlling emotions and feelings to lower learning anxiety.

Note. Adopted and modified from *Beliefs about language learning and language learning strategy use in an EFL context: a comparison study of monolingual Korean and bilingual Korean-Chinese university students* by Hong (2016). Copyright 2006 by Kyung-Shim, Hong.

Oxford (1990) identified these six categories based on the previous researchers' taxonomies and notions. According to Oxford (2003), she explained the direct strategies:

> Cognitive strategies enable the learner to manipulate the language material in direct ways, e.g., through reasoning, analysis, note-taking, summarizing, synthesizing, outlining, reorganizing information to develop stronger schemas (Knowledge structures), practicing in naturalistic settings, and practicing structures and sounds formally. (p. 12)
>
> Compensation strategies (e.g., guessing from the context in listening and reading; using synonyms and talking aloud the missing word to aid speaking and writing; and strictly for speaking, using gestures or pause words) help the learner make up for missing knowledge. (p. 13)
>
> Various memory-related strategies enable learners to learn and retrieve information in an orderly string (e.g., acronyms), whole other techniques create learning and retrieval via sounds (e.g., rhyming), images (e.g., a mental picture of the word itself or the meaning of the word), a combination of sounds and images (e.g., the keyword method), body

movement (e.g., total physical response), mechanical means (e.g., flashcards), or location (e.g., on a paper or blackboard). (p. 13)

Cognitive, memory, and compensation strategies were closely related to the proficiency of the L2 (Kaho, 1996; Ku, 1995; Park, 1994; Oxford and Ehrman, 1995; Oxford, Judd, and Giesen, 1998). However, not all these strategies are positively related to the proficiency or performance in L2. Memory-related strategies can be negatively related to learner's test performance in vocabulary and grammar (Purpura, 1997). This could happen due to the fact that low-proficiency learners need to memorize more vocabulary and grammar structures to aid their learning, but this strategy becomes less useful when the learners become more proficient in L2 (Oxford, 2003). Even though Cohen (1998) argued that compensation skills that were used in speaking and writing should not be included in LLS, Oxford (1990, 1990a) and Oxford and Ehrman (1995) asserted that compensation strategy strengthens learners' proficiency in L2.

In addition to the direct strategies, Oxford (2003) further explained the indirect strategies:

Metacognitive strategies (e.g., identifying one's own learning style preferences and needs, planning for an LS task, gather and organizing materials, arranging a study space and a schedule, monitoring mistakes, and evaluating task success, and evaluating the success of any type of learning strategy) are employed for managing the learning process. (p. 12)

Affective strategies, such as identifying one's mood and anxiety level, talking about feelings, rewarding oneself for good performance, and using deep breathing or positive self-talk. (p. 14)

Social strategies (e.g., asking questions to get verification, asking for clarification of a confusing point, asking for help in doing a language task, talking with a native-speaking

> conversation partner, and exploring cultural and social norms) help the learner work with others and understand the target culture as well as the language. (p. 14)

Similar to direct strategies, indirect strategies are closely related to L2 proficiency. Especially, the metacognitive strategy has "a significant, positive, direct effect on cognitive strategy use, providing clear evidence that metacognitive strategy use has an executive function over cognitive strategy use in task completion" (Purpura, 1999, p. 61). Dreyer and Oxford (1996), Oxford, Judd, and Giesen (1998) conducted studies in South Africa and Turkey and concluded that metacognitive strategies were one of the strong factors of L2 proficiency. In addition, affective strategies have been revealed to have a strong impact on L2 proficiency. Although the studies conducted by Dreyer and Oxford (1996) and Oxford and Ehrman (1995) indicate the positive relationship between the affective strategies and L2 proficiency, Mullins's (1992) finding showed that there was a negative relationship between the affective strategies and L2 proficiency.

Language Learning Strategies (LLS) and Relationship to Other Factors

Researchers such as Rubin (1975), Bialystok (1979) Abraham & Vann (1987, 1990), Oxford (1989), Oxford & Nyikos (1989), Chamot and Kupper (1989), Politzer (1993), Ehrman and Oxford (1995), Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995), Ehrman and Oxford (1998), Wharton (2000), Hong (2006), Hong-Nam and Leavell (2007), Rahimi, et al.(2008), Khamkhien (2010), Zare and Nooreen (2011), Zhong (2012), and conducted their studies in LLS to attempt to investigate not only the strategies that affect the learner's learning L2, but also to synthesize the relationship between the strategies and other influencing variables to get well-rounded understanding of L2 learners. Some of the variables that affected students using LLS were age, gender, attitude, motivation, aptitude, anxiety, degree of awareness, personality traits, cultural

background difference, beliefs about language learning, language proficiency, learning styles, teacher expectation, and task requirements. There are two major categories of these factors: socially-based strategies and individually-based strategies.

Socially-based Strategies

Gender. Oxford and Nyikos (1989) conducted a study with 1200 college foreign-language students in the United States to examine how gender played an important role in LLS. The result of this study indicated that female students use more formal rule-based practice strategies such as using structural knowledge, generating and revising rules, and analyzing words. Also, female students tended to use more general study strategies such as ignoring distraction and organizing and using time well. Finally, female participants preferred employing conversational input strategies; that is, requesting slower speech and asking for pronunciation correction.

Bacon and Finnemann (1990) distributed a survey to 938 Spanish freshmen students at an American university to investigate how gender differences affect learners' attitude, motivation, and strategy use in learning. The result of the study demonstrated that female students tend to utilize global/synthetic strategies (e.g., reading the title and inferring the content based on the words that they already know and guessing the meaning of the words) than male students when the task which they were assigned to do was authentic. In contrast, men were more susceptible in using decoding or analytic strategies (e.g., focusing on individual word, translating every word by using a dictionary).

Green and Oxford (1995) surveyed 375 university students who were all enrolled in three different course levels in Puerto Rico. Like studies of Oxford and Nyikos (1989) and Bacon and Finnemann (1990), the result of Green and Oxford's (1995) study too indicated that female

students tend to use more LLS than males. Among different strategies, female students used more memory, cognitive, affective, and social strategies than male students except one question under the cognitive category. The question asked if they watch TV or movies in English. Male students tended to watch more TV in English than female students, and the researcher's explanation for this phenomenon was due to the fact that most English TV programs in Puerto Rico were more male-centered, such as sports programs. They also mentioned that in order to understand the learners' LLS more accurately, the variable gender has to be understood with other variables such as learning styles, motivation, and attitudes. Green and Oxford (1995) suggested that there should be more studies investigating gender as a factor understanding language learners' choice of using LLS.

Vandergriff (1997) conducted a study with 36 high school students who were taking a French class. Vandergriff (1997) used American Council for the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) Oral Proficiency Interview by Lowe (1982) to interview all 36 students in French. The study found that there was a difference between males and females in terms of using different strategies. It indicated that female students tend to use more metacognitive strategies than male students. Also, Vandergriff (1997) mentioned that maybe the differences came from the research method. This study used the introspective (reporting while listening) methodology; whereas, other studies such as, Oxford and Nyikos (1989) and Bacon and Finnemann (1990) used a retrospective (answering instrument) way.

Bacon (1992) further supported Vandergriff's (1997) study by showing that female students used more metacognitive strategies than male students. Bacon (1992) recruited 50 Spanish learners at an American University and conducted a study by reading an authentic text to the participants and asking them how much of the text they had comprehended. The result

revealed that female students were apt to plan and organize their listening activity, monitor their comprehension, and evaluate different LLS they used during the given task. In contrast, male students used more cognitive strategies, such as summarizing and translating words, than female students.

Politzer (1983) scrutinized how gender difference affects a learner's choice of using LLS and found that females use more social learning strategies than male students. Ehrman and Oxford (1989) also supported that females use more social strategies than males. Similarly, Osanai (2000) conducted a study with 72 Asian students and 75 Latino students to examine the differences in strategy use between female and male university ESL students. The result of this study demonstrated that female learners are more prone to using more LLS than males, especially in social and affective strategies. Politzer (1983), Ehrman and Oxford (1989), and Osanai (2000) presented similar findings in terms of gender.

However, Tran (1988) showed a different result. Tran (1988) used a national sample of Southeast Asian Refugee Self-Sufficient Study of 327 older Vietnamese refugees to examine gender differences in English language acculturation and how they used LLS to improve their English skills. The finding displayed that more male students adopted various strategies to enhance their learning English than female students. The rationale behind the males' using more different LLS was closely related to survival needs such as supporting their family in a new environment and culture. Unlike their male counterparts, female students did not have many opportunities to practice using the language, since they had other responsibilities in their households in a traditional male-oriented culture.

Not all studies revealed a significant difference in gender and their use of LLS. Al-Otaibi (2004) conducted a study with 237 adult ELLs in Saudi Arabia and concluded that there was no

significant difference between female and male students in terms of LLS. Al-Otaibi (2004) pointed out that the difference in gender might derive from gender/social role interaction in Saudi Arabia not the gender itself. In addition, Wharton (2000) studied 678 bilingual students at a university in Singapore and found that males tended to use more memory, metacognitive, and cognitive strategies, which differs from the results of other studies. Wharton (2000) concluded that previous language learning experiences and the environment might influence more than gender when using LLS.

Cultural, social, and educational context. Takeuchi (2003) gathered 67 books written by successful Japanese language learners describing how they had learned a foreign language in the Japanese Foreign Language (FL) context. The findings showed that some strategies were closely related to the context and the environment in which learners studied. Most of the writers of these 67 books claimed that they had used reading aloud many times and extensive reading to improve reading. In order to improve speaking, they used memorizing basic sentences by vocalizing them many times and by pattern-practicing them thoroughly.

Oxford and Nyikos's (1989) study examined the relationship between different majors and LLS using 1200 university students taking French, Spanish, German, Russian, and Italian. The result of their study indicated that the Humanities/Social Sciences majoring students, who constantly attempted to find more chances to practice their oral skills in authentic settings and monitor their own learning, preferred using functional practice strategies and resourceful/independent strategies compared to the Engineering and Business majoring students. Also, it was speculated that students majoring in the Humanities/Social Sciences might be more autonomous and independent in their own learning.

Rao (2006) employed the SILL to examine how cultural and educational background influence Chinese learners' use of different LLS. Rao (2006) chose 217 non-English major students to participate in his study. The result showed that the choice of LLS made by the participants was closely related to the education system in China. In China, students were competing to get high exam scores to enter good universities, so they had to control their anxiety by using different strategies to cope with it. Ironically, the results indicated that the participants did not use social strategies for two reasons: (1) English was a foreign language in China where students do not use it on a daily basis; (2) The main focus was to pass the test, which mainly consisted of grammar and reading comprehension. Under these circumstances, Chinese students were forced to use memorization strategies through which they would review vocabulary, text and notes for exams to perform well on the test. Only 6% of the participants chose to use a communication strategy, such as communicating with teachers and classmates in English.

Language proficiency (self-rated and standardized test scores). Green and Oxford (1995) conducted a study with 374 university students in Puerto Rico using the English as a Second Language Achievement Test (ESLAT), which is similar to the Scholastic Achievement Test (SAT) in the USA. The findings exhibited that the more successful language learners had adopted cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, and social strategies than the less successful language learners. Also, active learning, which means initiating learning, was a crucial part in the successful learners' learning in different situations such as authentic or authentic-like situations.

Park's (1997) study involved with 332 Korean university students and how their LLS use differed depending on their language proficiency. He used the SILL by Oxford (1990) to verify the correlation between students' TOEFL scores and their use of LLS. Out of six categories (cognitive, metacognitive, memory, compensation, affective, and social), most of the categories

in the SILL showed a strong positive correlation to the TOEFL scores, except the cognitive and the social strategies (r = .33 and r =.30 respectively). Also, this study revealed a linear relationship between strategy use and English proficiency. That is, students with higher TOEFL scores used more strategies than the students with lower TOEFL scores.

In Bremer's (1998) study, 149 EFL university students in Hong Kong participated to investigate how students' proficiency affected their use of LLS. The researcher used speaking task, writing task, and discrete-item language tests. The result of this study provided that substantial differences between the language proficiency and the participants' use of LLS especially in cognitive, comprehensive, and affective strategies. The cognitive (F=6.94, p<.0013) and compensation (F=8.16, p<.0004) strategies were the most frequently used by the advance learners. According to Bremer (1998), these two strategies are easily available than the other ones among the learners. Also, the findings indicated that there was a negative correlation between the affective strategy and the language proficiency, which high proficient students did not use much.

Chou (2002) conducted a study with 474 students from five Taiwanese technological and vocational universities using Technology-Based College Entrance Exam, which is a national Taiwanese university entrance test to measure the relationship between the test scores and the language proficiency. The findings of the study demonstrated that language proficiency was closely related to the student's use of LLS since students with higher language proficiency tended to use more strategies to perform better than the lower language proficiency participants.

However, not all of the studies indicate strong correlations between the language proficiency and the students' use of different strategies to enhance their learning. For instance, in Mullins' (1992) study, the results revealed that there was no direct relationship between language

proficiency and the students' use of LLS. One hundred ten Thai university participants' response to the Oxford's (1990) SILL survey showed the negative correlation between the affective strategy and the language proficiency (r = -.325, p<0.05). Mullin (1992) claimed that this negative correlation could be due to the fact that the relationship between the LLS and the language proficiency is more complex and equivocal.

A study conducted by Phillips (1991) revealed that high proficiency learners tended to use more strategies to progress their learning than lower proficiency learners. Phillips (1991) used the TOEFL as a variable to examine the relationship between the test scores and the LLS use. There were 141 ESL students, who were taking English courses at an IEP from seven different universities in the United States that participated in this study. Phillips (1991) proposed three groups based on the TOEFL scores (600 as a maximum score): low (397-480), middle (481-506), and high (507-600). The results pointed out a curvilinear relationship between the language proficiency and the strategy use. Thus, intermediate to high language proficient students used more wide range of LLS. However, Philip (1991) also mentioned that low proficient learners might not be aware of different strategies that they could employ to strengthen their learning.

Most of the studies such as Green and Oxford (1995), Park (1997), Bremer (1998), Chou (2002), and Mullins (1992) concluded that there was a correlation between the LLS and the language learning proficiency whether it affected positively or negatively to each other. Also, higher language proficient learners are apt to use a wider range of LLS to aid their learning than the lower proficient learners since different strategies might not be readily accessible for the lower proficiency students to apply in their learning due to the weak language proficiency

(Bremer, 1998; Chou, 2002; Green & Oxford, 1995; Mullins, 1992; Park, 1997). Table 5 summarizes how many different factors influence learners' choice of LLS.

Table 5

A Summary of How Different Variables Impact on Learners' Choice of LLS

Author(s)	Variable	Result
Bacon, 1992; Bacon & Finnemann, 1990; Green & Oxford, 1995; Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Lee, 2003; Osanai , 2000; Oxford & Nyikos, 1998; Tran, 1988; Vandergriff,1997; Wharton, 2000; Zare, 2010	Gender	Female language learners tend to use more various LLS than male language learners. Also, female students tend to use more rule-based strategies, general study strategies, and conversational input strategies than male students. However, more male students utilize LLS in Singapore due to the fact that most of them were bilinguals.
Anderson, 2005; Bremner, 1998; Bruen, 2001; Chou, 2002; Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Green & Oxford, 1995; Griffiths, 2003; Lee, 2003; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Rahimi et al., 2008; Wharton, 2000	Learners' proficiency (Self-rated)	More proficient learners are likely to use a wide range of LLS. Students with the higher self-rated proficiency showed more frequent and more effective use of LLS. Proficiency affects social strategy use and vice versa.
McIntyre & Noels, 1996;	Motivation	Learners with high motivation employ more LLS than less motivated students

Oxford, 1990; Oxford & Nyikos, 1998		
Chamot , 2004; Ehrman & Oxford, 1989 Oxford, 2003; Rahimi et al., 2008; Rossei-Le, 1995	Learning styles	When there is harmony between learners' learning style preference and LLS, the learners will perform better and feel less anxious about learning.
Al-Otaibi, 2004; Huang & Van Naerrsen, 1987; Noguchi, 1991; Oxford, 1994; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990 Politzerof & McGroarty, 1985; Tyacke & Mendelsohn, 1986	Cultural background	Based on their cultural background, learners tend to use different LLS. Asians tend to use more memorization strategy. Also, social strategies were the least favorite strategy to use among Chinese and Japanese students. Some of the significant findings show that cultural context, such as gender/social role interactions affect how they adopt different LLS.
Chou, 2002; Oxford and Nyikos, 1998; Peacock and Ho, 2003; Wharton, 1997	Academic major	Students majoring in Humanities/Social Sciences and Education preferred functional practice strategies and resourceful/independent strategies more than students in more practical areas. Also, language majoring students tend to develop a significant use of LLS. Computer Science majors did not consider learning English as a crucial subject. No significant difference among academic majors and their use of LLS.
Bremner, 1998; Chou, 2002 Green & Oxford, 1995; Griffiths, 2003; Ku, 1995; Mullins, 1992	Learners' proficiency (standardized test scores and their performance level)	Different studies have used different types of standardized test scores such as TOEFL, Oxford placement test, Michigan test, and etc. Students who study at a higher level use various types of LLS. Cognitive and social strategy use was closely

Park, 1997; Phillips, 1991		related to TOEFL scores. Also, a significant finding was that more successful learners might not need as many affective strategies as less successful learners. Moreover, some studies indicate that there is no correlation between LLS and learners' proficiency.
Brown, 1996; Dornyei, 2005; Ellis, 2008; Horwitz ,1987; Tanaka, 2004; Wenden, 1986a; Yang ,1992, 1999	Learners' belief	Learners' beliefs about how well they can learn provide the rationale for choosing LLS. Relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and LLS is significant. Learners feel competent enough to implement different LLS and are confident to perform well.

Language Learning Beliefs

The field of language learner's beliefs (LLB) have not been widely studied in SLA, so the conceptual framework for LLB is basically "based on some key concepts drawn from social psychology including the definitions of beliefs, the conceptual difference between knowledge, attitudes and beliefs, types of beliefs, and belief formation" (Zhong, 2012, p. 25). Like LLS, LLB is also related to other variables that influence their perception on learning English such as personality, learning styles, and LLS (Brown, 1996; Dornyei, 2005; Ellis, 2008; Horwitz,1987; Tanaka, 2004; Wenden, 1986a; Yang ,1992, 1999).

Definitions of three beliefs. Language learners' beliefs refers to learner's perception, ideas, insights, attributes, concepts, notions, assumptions, values, opinions, representations of the nature of language learning (Fishbein & Ajzen; 1975; Holec, 1981; Horwitz, 1987; Hosenfeld, 1989; Omagiio, 1978; Wenden, 1987a). Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) defined beliefs as "a person's subjective probability judgments concerning some discriminable aspect of his world; they deal

with the person's understanding of himself and his environment" (p. 131). Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) further explained that the beliefs are "the subjective probability of a relation between the object of the belief and some other object, value, concept, or attribute" (p.131). Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) referred to the object as "the object of a belief may be a person, a group of people, an institution, a behavior, a policy, an event, etc., and the associated attribute may be any object, trait, property, quality, characteristic, outcome, or event" (Fishbein & Ajzen,1975, p. 12).

If a learner finds English a difficult language to learn, the object English is the reason for the learner to believe difficult to learn. In this case, the object that attributes this belief is English; however, anything can be an object, such as teachers, class lessons, activities, and materials or the fact of learning something new (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Zhong (2012) explained:

> Beliefs reflect the subjective reality of an individual. Therefore, the strength of beliefs varies from individual to individual. The more individuals perceive the likelihood that the object is associated with the attribution, the stronger the more belief is and more likely they will act on the belief. (p. 26)

Based on the Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) definition of beliefs, LLB is the subjective perception to the object which is associated with the attribution. To further clarify this, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) and Ajzen (1991, 2005) distinguished three different types of beliefs and the sources for them. Table 6 summarizes these three different beliefs.

Table 6

Summary of Three Different Beliefs

Belief	Summary
Descriptive beliefs	These beliefs are formed through an individual's direct observations. For example, an individual may see a given person who has dark hair or he or she may taste the given water which is sweet. Because the relationship between a given object and its attribute is established with ones' own senses and by direct experiences with the object, Ajzen (2005) argued that descriptive beliefs are held with maximal certainty at least initially. Over time the belief strength may be reduced due to a lapse of memory and forgetting.
Inferential beliefs	These beliefs go beyond merely direct observations. They are formed by making use of an individual's previously learned relationships or residues of past experience or by referring to various rules of logic. For example, at the end of a job interview, an employer may form a belief about the interviewee's friendliness, honesty, capabilities etc. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) and Ajzen (1991, 2005) proposed to view descriptive beliefs and inferential beliefs as a continuum. At the descriptive end of the continuum, a person's beliefs are directly related to the observed events or the stimulus situation, and at the inferential end, beliefs are based on these stimuli and also on residues of the person's past experience. The continuum represents the range from minimal to maximal of the residues.
Informational beliefs	These beliefs are formed by accepting information provided by an outside source, such as newspapers, books, magazines, radio and television, lecturers, friends, relatives, colleagues, etc. In other words, to form informational beliefs, an object-attribute relation is neither observed nor inferred but is linked by an outside source and will be accepted. For example, a person may accept the information from his friend that it is easy to learn English by listening to English songs.

Note. Adapted and modified from *The Beliefs and Learner Strategy Use of Low-proficiency Chinese Leaners and Their Impact on Learning English in a New Zealand Context* by Zhong (2012). p. 28. Copyright 2012 by Qunyan Zhong.

Definitions and Characteristics of Language Learners' Beliefs

Horwitz (1985, 1987, 1988), Wenden (1987a, 1987b), Tumposky (1991), Yang (1992), Kern (1995), Mantle-Bromley (1995), Park (1995), Truitt (1995), Kuntz (1996), Oh (1996), Gwynne (1997), Kunt (1997), White (1999), Kim-Yoon (2000), Kim (2001), Siebert (2003),

Tanaka (2004), Bernat (2006), Diab (2006), Hong (2006), Amuzie and Winke (2009), Ariogul et al. (2009), and Zhong (2012) attempted to understand what learner's beliefs truly mean. The notion belief can be subjective, so having a consensus definition of LLB is not likely. Elaine Horwitz, one of the pioneer researchers of the studies on beliefs about language learning, never gave a concrete definition of beliefs about language learning in her articles (1985, 1987, and 1988). She synonymously uses beliefs as the terms such as preconceptions (1985), preconceived ideas (1987), and preconceived notions (1988). However, she did not provide any specific descriptions about using these terms instead of the notion belief. Horwitz (1987) stated that "The Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) was developed to assess student *opinions* on a variety of issues and controversies related to language learning" (p. 120).

Moreover, different researchers have used different terms and characteristics to identify learners beliefs about language learning such as mini-theories (Hosenfeld, 1978), learner representation (Holec, 1987), learners' philosophy of language learning (Abraham & Vann, 1987), learners' naïve psychology of learning (Wenden, 1987), preconceived ideas (Horwitz, 1987, 1988), cultural beliefs (Gardner, 1988), representations (Riley, 1989, 1994), everyday knowledge (Dufva, 1994), the culture of learning languages (Barcelos, 1995), folklinguistics theories of learning (Miller & Ginsberg, 1995), culture of learning (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996a), learning culture (Riley, 1997), metacognitive knowledge (Wenden, 1998, 2002), learners cognitions (Ellis, 2004, 2008). Table 7 summarizes some key definitions in the field.

Table 7

Definitions for Beliefs about Language Learning

Authors	Definition
Abraham & Vann (1987)	A philosophy of how language is learned. (p.96)
Horwitz (1987)	Preconceived ideas about language learning, often differing radically form the current opinions of second language scholars. (p.119)
Kalaja (1995)	Socially constructed, emerging from interaction with others. (p.196)
Cortazzi & Jin (1996)	The cultural aspects of teaching and learning; what people believe about 'normal' and 'good' learning activities and processes, where such beliefs have a cultural origin. (p.230)
Gadener (1998)	Expectations in the minds of teachers, parents and students concerning the entire second language acquisition task (p.110)
Wenden (1998)	The relatively stable information human thinkers have about their own cognitive processes and those of others. (p. 516)
Wenden (2002)	What learners know about language learning: the nature of the task, how best to approach it, and personal factors that may inhibit or facilitate the process. (p.46).
Miller & Ginsberg (1995), cited in Bracelos (2003)	Ideas that students have about language and language learning. (p.294)
Riley (1997), cited in Bracelos (2003)	A set of representations, beliefs and values related to learning that directly influence [students'] learning behavior. (p.122)
Dufva (2003)	A complex and multilayered collection of "viewpoints and voices rather than a well-organized and coherent schema. (p.146)

Note. Adopted and modified from *the beliefs and learner strategy use of low-proficiency Chinese learners and their impact on learning English in a New Zealand context.* by Zhong (2012). p. 30. Copyright 2012 by Qunyan, Zhong.

Based on these different definitions presented in the Table 7, there is a little agreement regards to the notion of beliefs (Gwynne, 1997; Horwitz ,1985, 1987, 1988; Kern,1995; Kuntz,

1996; Kunt, 1997; Mantle-Bromley,1995; Oh,1996; Park ,1995; Truitt, 1995; Tumposky 1991; Wenden ,1987a, 1987b; White, 1999; Yang,1992). The contemporary literature shows two opposed views concerning the actual construct of beliefs (Zhong, 2012). Table 8 summarizes these two polarized views in more detail.

Table 8

Two Different Views on the Term Belief

Researcher(s)	View	Description
Wenden (1998)	Static	He described the metacognitive knowledge as "the relatively stable information human thinkers have about their own cognitive processes and those of others" (p.516).
Horwitz (1987)	Static	Learners' beliefs as preconceived, "static, stable and unchanging internalized knowledge stored in the mind" (cited in Zhong, 2012, p. 31).
		Vs.
Goodwin & Duranti (1992)	Dynamic	Beliefs are "socially constituted, interactively sustained, time-bound phenomenon" (p.5).
Hosenfeld (2003)	Dynamic	Beliefs are "embedded in experiences continually changing and dynamic" (p.38)
Dufva (2003)	Dynamic	Beliefs refer "as a complex and multilayered collection of viewpoints and voices rather than a well-organized and coherent schema" (p. 146).
Horwitz (1987)	Erroneous	Beliefs as " myths, naïve, and misconception"(p. 119)
Horwitz (1999)	Erroneous	Beliefs are "erroneous, counterproductive, and detrimental" and "constitute a serious impediment that could affect their language-related attitudes and behaviors" (p.373).
Wenden (1987)	Erroneous	Beliefs are "fallible" (p. 46).
		Vs.

Riley (1997)	Subjective reality	Beliefs "may be wrong" in terms of scientific truth, and "it is their beliefs more than anybody else's that will influence their learning" (p.127).
Hosenfeld (2003)	Subject reality	Learner's own beliefs affect their learning behavior. (Cited in Zhong, 2012, p. 31).
Miller & Ginsberg (1995)	Cognitive entity	Beliefs are ideas.
Holec (1987)	Cognitive entity	Beliefs are assumptions.
Wenden (1998)	Cognitive entity	Beliefs are knowledge.
Gardner (1988)	Cognitive entity	Beliefs are expectations in the minds of teachers, parents, and students.
		Vs.
Sakui & Gaies (1999)	Socially constructed	Beliefs are "socially conditioned" (p. 48).
Benson & Lor (1999)	Socially constructed	Beliefs are "rational and responsive to context" (p. 464).
Barcelos (1995)	Socially constructed	Beliefs are "cultural assumptions…based upon their previous educational experience, previous (and present) readings about language learning and contact with other people" (p. 40).
Cortazzi & Jin (1996a)	Socially constructed	Beliefs are "the cultural aspects of teaching and learning [and] have a cultural origin" (p. 230).

As seen in Table 8, depending on the theoretical approach, there are two different approaches: (1) normative approach, which uses a cognitive psychology framework to examine the result of the beliefs and (2) contextual approach, which is the process of belief formation. (Barcelos, 2003)

Classification of Beliefs about Language Learning

Wenden (1987) conducted a study with 25 adults studying in a part-time advanced level in American university. Wenden (1987) grouped variety beliefs provided by the participants into three parts: the language use (learning the language in a natural way, practicing as much as possible, thinking in the second language, living and studying in English spoken countries, and not worrying about making mistakes); the language learning (learning grammar and vocabulary, taking a formal course, learning from mistakes, and being mentally active); the personal traits (emotions, self-concept, and aptitude).

Horwiz's (1985) study involved four groups of about 25 language teachers both English and foreign language to find out student's beliefs about language learning and teacher's beliefs about language learning. She then grouped them into five different categories (the difficulty of language learning, aptitude for language learning, the nature of language learning, learning and communication strategies, and motivation and expectations for language learning), which later became the instrument BALLI.

Cortwell (1999) invented a 90-item questionnaire after emphasizing how language learning should be autonomous. In her study, students who were taking an Academic English class identified six key beliefs: the importance of teacher's role, the importance of getting feedback, the importance of self-efficacy, the importance of using strategies, the importance of strategy-related behaviors, and the importance of language learning.

Sakui and Gaiese (1999) also developed their own instrument to investigate 1,296 Japanese students' English learning beliefs in an EFL context. The purpose of this study was to validate their instrument which was composed of 45 questions along with the interview data. Their findings showed that learner's language learning beliefs are dynamic and depend on the

context. Their survey questionnaire contains four parts: beliefs about communication, beliefs about traditional way of learning, quality and sufficiency of classroom instruction, and foreign language aptitude.

Benson and Lor (1999) focused on learner's learning beliefs in relation to their learning styles and self-efficacy. Benson and Lor (1999) classified the beliefs as language learning, learner, and the learning situation. Tanaka and Ellis (2003) identified three factors that influence language learning beliefs: analytic learning, experiential learning, and self-efficacy. Table 9 summarizes the classification of language learner's beliefs.

Table 9

Classification of Language Learner's Beliefs

Researcher(s)	Source of the categories	Classification
Wenden (1987)	Learners' reports from study	Language use in a natural setting; Language learning; Personal factors
Horwitz (1985, 1987)	Teachers' and students' perspective responses	Language learning difficulty Foreign language aptitude Nature of language learning Learning & communication strategies Motivations and expectations
Park (1995)	Learners' report from study	Motivational beliefs Beliefs about formal English Self-efficacy Beliefs about social interaction
Sakui & Gaies (1999)	English teachers' views in Japan	Contemporary orientation to English learning Traditional orientation to English learning Quality and sufficiency of classroom instruction Foreign language aptitude and difficulty
Cotterall (1999)	SLA theory	Role of the teachers Role of the feedbacks Sense of self-efficacy Important strategies

		Dimensions of strategies related behavior Nature of language learning
Benson & Lor (1999)	Learners' account	Language learning : quantitative & qualitative conceptions Self Learning situation
Yang (1999)	Learners' reports from study	Self-efficacy and expectation Value and nature of learning spoken English Foreign language aptitude Formal structure study
Kim (2001)	Learners' report from study	Motivational beliefs Formal language learning beliefs Self-efficacy social interaction Language aptitude Beliefs about practice
Tanaka & Ellis (2003)	SLA theory	Analytic learning Experiential learning Self-efficacy and confidence
Diab (2006)	Results of the pilot study	Beliefs about foreign language learning in general Beliefs about learning English Beliefs about learning French Beliefs about the learning of different languages in Lebanon

Wenden (1987), Sakui & Gaies (1999), Cotterall (1999), Benson and Lor (1999), and Tanaka and Ellis (2003) investigated and created different categories in learner's language learning beliefs. Horwitz (1987) made the most impact in the field of language learning beliefs using scaled measurement instrument. Horwitz (1985) developed four versions of BALLI. The first one, which had 27 Likert-scale items, was developed in 1985 to examine teachers' beliefs in foreign language aptitude, the difficulty of language learning, the nature of language learning, and appropriate language learning strategies.

Horwitz (1987) designed the second version, which was the ESL/EFL version of the BALLI to measure students' beliefs about the nature of language and the language learning process. This version included 33 questions related to foreign language aptitude, the difficulty of language learning, the nature of language learning, learning and communication strategies, and motivations. Horwitz (1988) developed the foreign language learning BALLI version to assess the beliefs of American students learning foreign languages. The recent version was BALLI ESL version 2.0 for students who learn English where it is learned in an ESL setting. This version includes 44 Likert-scale items, but Horwitz (2013) did not group them into different categories. This version of the BALLI should not be considered as a single scale or to be recommended to be grouped together (Horwitz, 2013).

Studies using the BALLI

Many of the studies (Amuzie & Winke, 2009; Ariogul et al., 2009; Bernat, 2006; Diab, 2006; Gwynne, 1997; Hong , 2006; Horwitz, 1985, 1987, 1988; Kern, 1995; Kim-Yoon, 2000; Kim, 200; Kunt, 1997; Kuntz, 1996; Mantle-Bromley, 1995; Oh, 1996; Park,1995; Siebert, 2003; Tanaka, 2004; Truitt, 1995; Tumposky, 1991; Wenden, 1987a; Wenden,1987b; White, 1999; Yang, 1992; and Zhong, 2012) in language learning beliefs used the BALLI designed by Horwitz (1985). Horwitz's (1985, 1987, 1988) studies contributed to the language learner beliefs research field. Since then, Horwitz (1985, 1987, 1988), Wenden (1987a, 1987b), Kim-yoon (2000), Diab (2006), and Oh (1996) have attempted to quantify learner's language learning beliefs using different population in different settings. Horwitz (1985) first developed a teacher's version of the BALLI to measure teacher's beliefs about foreign language aptitude, the difficulty of foreign language learning, the nature of language learning, and the use of language learning strategies. Horwitz's (1985) study consisted of 25 language teachers and from their responses;

created a new ESL/EFL version of the BALLI. The original version of the BALLI had 27 Likert-scale items, but the new ESL/EFL version of the BALLI (1987) consisted of 34 items in five major areas: foreign language aptitude, the difficulty of language learning, the nature of language learning, learning and communication strategies, and motivation. Horwitz (1988) also developed another version of the BALLI (1988) to evaluate American foreign language students' language learning beliefs. The foreign language version of the BALLI had the same content areas as the ESL/EFL version of the BALLI. Table 10 presents a summary of different studies employing Horwitz's original or modified version of BALLI.

Table 10

Summary of Studies Using the Beliefs about Language Learning (BALL)

Researcher(s)	Research design	Participants	Purpose	Findings
Horwitz (1985)	Quantitative	25 language teachers	To measure instructors' beliefs in foreign language aptitude, the difficulty of foreign language learning, the nature of foreign language learning, language-learning strategies	Teachers listed their beliefs about language learning, and from this study, Horwitz developed the second instrument ESL/EFL version of the BALLI.
Horwitz (1987)	Quantitative	32 intermediate level students at an IEP at the university of Texas	To report responses of ESL students to the BALLI	Most of the students believed in the importance of vocabulary and grammar learning and translation. They also believe in language aptitude and hierarchy.

Wenden (1987)	Quantitative	34 adult ESL learners	To find out their learning beliefs about language learning	The result of the study showed that learners had explicit beliefs about language learning
Wenden (1987b)	Quantitative	25 advanced-level adult ESL students in NY	To examine in which social context they practiced, heard, and used English	The study presented three groups of learners identified their learning beliefs: (1) the importance of an active stance while speaking and listening, (2) the need to learn grammar and vocabulary, and (3) the role of personal factors. Learners' beliefs can be inferred as "theories-in-action."
Horwitz (1988)	Quantitative	241 students of German, French, and Spanish	To compare common beliefs of foreign language students and teachers and understand possible consequences	The findings of this study showed that there were a consistent belief patterns among the participants. All the groups believed in language aptitude and difficulty hierarchy. Also, most of the students believed in translation strategy and grammar and vocabulary learning.
Tumposky (1991)	Quantitative	36 university students studying English as a FL and 42 students learning Spanish and French at a university in the USA	To examine the beliefs about language learning of two groups of language learners from different context	There were similarities between the two groups in terms of their language learning beliefs, but there were differences between the groups about choosing which strategies influence their learning.
Yang (1992)	Quantitative	505 Taiwanese university students	To investigate the relationship between their language learning beliefs and strategy uses	Taiwanese university students have a strong sense of "self-efficacy" about learning English. Also, the findings showed the importance of repetition

				and practice. Their language learning beliefs affected the way they use language learning strategies.
Kern (1995)	Quantitative	288 instructors and students learning French	To compare language learning beliefs between the students and the instructors	Many students believed that they would eventually be fluent in French after studying it for about two years. Also, their beliefs about learning French remained the same throughout the semester and not modified easily.
Mantle-Bromley (1995)	Quantitative	208 students of Spanish and French from school district in Kansas	To investigate students' attitudes towards language and culture	Most students believed that there are certain languages that are difficult to learn, and language hierarchy and language aptitude.
Park (1995)	Quantitative	338 Korean EFL university students	To examine the relationship between the language learning beliefs and the use of language learning strategies	The result of the study demonstrated that Korean EFL students used more metacognitive and memory strategy than communication-affective strategies. Also, the relationship between the beliefs and strategy was low to moderate, which shows that the dependence on each other depended on only certain beliefs and strategies.
Truitt (1995)	Quantitative	204 Korean EFL students	To investigate on foreign language anxiety and beliefs about language learning	The results revealed that students had a high motivation to learn English in order to get a good job, but they had low self-efficacy.
Kuntz (1996)	Quantitative	424 foreign language learning students	To identify similarities and differences	The findings of the study showed that there was a relationship between which

		of French, German, Spanish (commonly taught languages) and Arabic and Swahili (less commonly taught languages)	between the two groups	foreign language they study and their language learning beliefs. Students who took Arabic and Swahili preferred communication strategies and exposure to the culture rather than the other strategies.
Oh (1996)	Quantitative	195 freshman and sophomore students taking Japanese class	To investigate beliefs about language learning and foreign language anxiety	The results provided that students' beliefs about the target language that they study affect their self-efficacy. In other words, "a perception of target language difficulty in general seems to influence language learners' confidence levels" (p.113).
Gwynne (1997)	Qualitative	10 immigrants in New Zealand over 12 weeks	To investigate the changes in the beliefs of the ten immigrants	The findings showed that as they become more confident about language learning, they gained self-efficacy. Also, the learners became more autonomous in their own learning after 12 weeks.
Kunt (1997)	Quantitative	882 Turkish EFL students	To examine the relationship between the beliefs about language learning and language learning anxiety	Students had a strong motivation for learning English, strong belief about learning English, and high value placed on guessing and repeating.
White (1999)	Qualitative	Novice Japanese and Spanish distance learners during 12 weeks	To track the expectations and emergent beliefs	The findings of the study indicated that most of the learners reported that internal factors such as, motivation, persistence,

				confidence were more important than the external factors such as, course materials and tutors.
Kim-Yoon (2000)	Quantitative	Three groups of Korean EFL learners	Used BALLIK (BALLI for Korean version) to investigate beliefs about language learning and motivation relating to the language learning	A large number of students reported that English is a difficult language to learn. Also, the learners believed that learning grammar, vocabulary, and translation was the most important factor.
Kim (2001)	Quantitative	60 Korean EFL students	To examine the association between the use of language learning strategies and beliefs about language learning.	The result of the study indicated that there was a close relationship between the students' strategy use and beliefs about language learning. Also, students' beliefs about motivation, self-efficacy, and practicing promoted learners to use more strategies when they learn.
Siebert (2003)	Quantitative	156 ESL students and 25 teachers	To compare the language learning beliefs between the students and the teachers based on gender and national origin	There were a number of statistically significant differences among teachers' and students' beliefs, and gender and national origin influenced their language learning beliefs.
Tanaka (2004)	Mixed-method	56 Japanese students over 12 weeks	Using questionnaire to investigate learners' opinions on their language learning. For qualitative data,	The results for quantitative study showed that there were no significant differences, but the qualitative results showed the two important changes in students' beliefs. First one was that the

			five journal entries were collected and an interview to find out more insights about learners' beliefs	participants strongly believed that grammar and vocabulary learning were important. Secondly, learners became more realistic, that is, they started to understand the importance of their own effort that will help them improve their English.
Bernat (2006)	Quantitative	262 ESL learners	To identify if beliefs were context-specific by comparing with an American study	The findings of the study revealed that beliefs about language learning by both study groups were similar in all categories. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.
Diab (2006)	Quantitative	284 Lebanese undergraduate ELF students	To compare learners' beliefs about learning English and learning French to explore different factors that contributed the differences	Based on this study, beliefs are closely related to the political and socio-cultural context in Lebanon. Moreover, leaners' language learning beliefs were related to language-medium educational background and gender.
Hong (2006)	Mixed-method	428 Korean monolingual and 420 Korean bilingual Korean university students	To compare LLS and BALL between monolingual students and bilingual students	The result showed that Monolinguals reported using compensation strategies most and affective strategies least, and bilinguals preferred to use metacognitive strategies most and memory strategies least.
Amuzie and Winke (2009)	Mixed-method	70 ESL learners in the USA	To explore learners' language learning belief changes while studying in the USA	The findings of the study presented that learners considered themselves more successful language learners since they had more opportunities to practice and learn English

				both in class and outside of class. Also, beliefs are dynamic, socially constructed, and responsive to context.
Ariogul et al. (2009)	Quantitative	343 Turkish EFL students	To examine the differences and similarities among English, French, and German language groups' beliefs about language learning	Each group had different beliefs. The results of a cross-tabulation of thirty-four items showed that although French language learners had more positive expectations in language learning, all three groups held certain beliefs that would be detrimental to their long-term language learning.
Zhong (2012)	Qualitative	Five low-proficiency Chinese ESL learners	To investigate their beliefs, language learning strategies, and language proficiency over 16 weeks	The results showed that learners changed their initial beliefs about language learning from the importance of grammar instructions to more experiential ones. Also, they shifted their focus from accuracy to fluency. Furthermore, participants also believed in group work and their self-efficacy beliefs strengthened as their language progress.

Language Learning Beliefs and Factors

Siebert (2003) studied the relationship between participants' beliefs and national origin/ethnicity and gender. The participants came from diverse cultural backgrounds such as, Angola, Brazil, Chile, China, Colombia, Ecuador, Egypt, Indonesia, Japan, Korea, Kuwait, Laos, Russia, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Taiwan, Thailand, Turkey, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, and

Vietnam. The results showed that the participants from all these different cultural backgrounds had similar beliefs about language aptitude and the importance of pronunciation and vocabulary learning. There was a significant difference between males and females. Male students tended to consider their English ability highly and were more positive about the length of time it took for them to learn English than female participants. Also, there was a significant difference between ethnicity about beliefs about ability, the length of time to take English, and the difficulty of English language. Students from the Middle East were more likely to believe that they could learn English in a short period of time while Japanese students responded in an opposite way.

Diab (2006) also investigated whether gender affected learner's language learning beliefs using 284 Lebanese undergraduate students to find out their beliefs about learning French and English. The result of the study showed that females reported to have stronger motivation and confidence to learn French than male students. The researcher also revealed that gender and language-medium educational background (English vs. French) influenced learners' language learning beliefs.

Studies about relationships between the beliefs about language learning and culture are not consistent (Horwitz, 1988; Kern, 1995; Kunt, 1997; Oh, 1996; Park, 1995; Truitt, 1995; Yang, 1992). Researchers such as, Horwitz (1988), Oh (1996), Kern (1995), Park (1995), Truitt (1995), Yang (1992), and Kunt (1997) reported that there were differences between learner's language learning beliefs and cultural background, but Horwitz (1988) argued that these differences in individual items in the BALLI did not provide clear and specific cultural differences in beliefs. Instead, the differences arose from individual differences and learning situations than cultural differences. Ellis (1994, 2008) also emphasized that individual factors

such as, personality and learning styles influence learners' beliefs more than the cultural backgrounds.

Relationships between Language Learning Strategies and Language Learning Beliefs

Wenden (1986a), Yang (1992, 1999), and Brown (1996) claim that leaner's language learning beliefs could be one of the strong factors of their using different strategies. Wenden (1986a) found that there was a close relationship between the LLS and the learner's perception about language learning beliefs. The most commonly held beliefs about language learning by learners were their using language, learning the language, and the personal factors such as their perspectives about what facilitates or inhibits their learning, self-concept, and aptitude in learning. The results showed that students who value language usage were more likely to use the language in a natural setting and attempted to use the language and practice it whenever they could. Whereas, students who value learning the language tended to emphasize on taking courses in more grammar and vocabulary learning. The study also presented an important finding, that is, beliefs about using the language closely related to communication strategy and beliefs about learning the language was related to cognitive strategies.

Yang (1992, 1999) carried out a study to examine the relationship between the learner's beliefs about language learning and strategy use by Taiwanese university EFL students. Yang (1992, 1999) used Horwitz's (1987) BALLI and Oxford's (1990) SILL and self-developed open ended questions to get more in depth data from her participants. Five hundred five participated in her study. The findings showed that self-efficacy beliefs significantly correlated to their use of various strategies. Students with high self-efficacy tended to use more strategies than the students with lower self-efficacy. Also, the students with high self-efficacy reported to be practicing English outside of their class than the students with low self-efficacy such as listening

to the radio, watch TV shows in English, or movies to find more chances to expose themselves to English. Students who believed in the importance of repetition and practice focused more on correct pronunciation since they believed in the accuracy rather than fluency. In order to demonstrate accuracy, they imitate native speakers' pronunciation and practice pronunciation repetitively until they could pronounce the words correctly. Nevertheless, Yang (1992, 1999) claimed that there was a close relationship between the learners' beliefs and the strategy use. Yang (1999) pointed out that "appropriate strategy use will lead to an enhanced self-perception of language proficiency and, in turn, increases motivation" (p. 531).

Brown (1996) conducted a qualitative study with Japanese English language learners at an ESL program in the USA. There were seven participants in the study who were being observed and interviewed during two semesters. The participants were videotaped and audio recorded during five class periods for a week individually. After analyzing the videos, the researcher carried out two simulated recall interviews to find out the LLS used by the participants during the simulated recall interviews. The results indicated that two beliefs had an impact on language learning. The first belief was activity goal belief, which was related to the different sub-goals that learners believed were important to complete a task successfully. Brown (1996) also found out that there was a correlation between LLS and learners' goal beliefs. For example, LLS choice relied on the specific goals in each task. Second belief was success beliefs that learners believe that deciding their success and failure depending on the goals of tasks. For instance, when a learner fails in a class activity, his/her perception of failure helps him/her realize that they type of strategy used in the activity might not be the adequate one. He/she then reshapes different strategies to adopt to perform better at the activity.

Like the other variables, learners' beliefs impact on learners' learning English and how they employ using different strategies to promote their learning and better outcome and proficiency. Therefore, recent studies have placed an importance on the LLS and learners' beliefs/perceptions about learning English.

Summary

This chapter presented how adult learners learn especially in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Krashen's (1981) five hypotheses were outlined to understand how adult learners learn a second language. This chapter reviewed empirical studies on learner's strategy uses and their beliefs about language learning as well as it presented the rationale for this study. While early studies (Johnson & Newport, 1989; Naman et al., 1978; Reiss, 1985; Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975) on learning strategies focused on identifying strategic behaviors of good language learners, more recent studies (Cohen, 1998, 2003, 2005; Griffiths, 2008; Oxford, 1990, 2003) have attempted to clarify taxonomies of language-learning strategies and classify strategies used by learners. Through numerous studies, researchers have found that the choice of learning strategies is associated with such variables as various learner characteristics, learning contexts, learners' prior learning experiences, language proficiency, or cultural and educational backgrounds.

A number of studies have demonstrated that language learners from different backgrounds and learning experiences hold different ideas about language learning (Bremner, 1998; Green & Oxford, 1995; Griffiths, 2003; Lee, 2003; Holec, 1981; Hong, 2006; Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo, & Küpper, 1985; Oxford, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Oxford & Cohen, 1992; Oxford & Ehrman, 1995; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Park, 1994; Park, 1997; Politzer, 1983). Studies found that beliefs

about language learning may constrain or facilitate learners' use of language-learning strategies (Hong, 2006; Park, 1997; Yang, 1999; Zhong, 2012). Beliefs about language learning were identified as one variable influencing learner's choices and use of learning strategies. Because different studies such as, Wenden (1986a), Yang (1992, 1999), and Brown (1996) found that strategy use and beliefs influence learner's success at language learning, further research regarding the use and beliefs of learners about language learning from varying backgrounds is warranted in order to provide a better understanding of language learning for specific groups of learners.

CHAPTER 3: METHODS

This chapter presents the methods used in this study. A review of research methods for investigating Strategies in Language Learning (SILL) and Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) which were the instruments used to collect data, demographic information was described. The research design and detailed description of setting and data collection procedures were provided in order to address research questions proposed in this study.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the English language learning beliefs and English language learning strategies used by international students at a four-year institution. It will also examine the relationship between English language learning beliefs and the English language learning strategies. For instance, how the learners' language learning beliefs influenced the choice of what language learning strategy use they employed and vice versa. To illustrate, students who believe in memorization tend to make an effort to spend more time memorizing new words or grammar rules from textbooks; while, students who believe that spending more time with native speakers will improve their English skills and will be more likely to make friends with whom they can practice English. The study will also determine if background variables such as gender, self-rated English proficiency, TOEFL score, race/ethnicity, and the academic program in which students are enrolled, influenced learners' beliefs about language learning and their use of language strategies.

This study employed four questionnaires in order to investigate international students', studying at a four-year institution, language learning beliefs and English learning strategies. The four questionnaires used in this study were: the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL, ESL/EFL 7.0 version) by Oxford (1990), the Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI, ESL/EFL version) by Horwitz (1987), the Individual Background Questionnaire (IBQ), and the follow-up interview questionnaire adopted from Zhong (2012).

Research Questions

In order to reach the goals of this study, the following research questions were addressed:

1. What are the language-learning strategies used by international students at a four-year institution?
2. Do demographic variables such as, gender, age, academic programs, hours of studying English, TOEFL score, self-rated language proficiency, and race/ethnicity affect international student's language learning strategies?
3. What are the language learning beliefs of international students at a four-year institution?
4. Do demographic variables such as, gender, age, academic programs, hours of studying English, TOEFL score, self-rated language proficiency, and race/ethnicity affect international student's language learning beliefs?
5. Is there a relationship between the learner's beliefs about language learning and the language learning strategy use among international students?
6. What factors influence international student's learning English?

Research Design

Numerous studies have used either quantitative or qualitative method to examine learners' language learning strategies (Bialystok, 1981; Bremner, 1998; Chamot & Küpper, 1989; Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Gardner, 1993; Green & Oxford, 1995; Griffiths, 2003; Holec, 1981; Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; Hong, 2006; Kim-Yoon, 2000; Lee, 2003; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo, & Küpper, 1985; Oxford, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Oxford, 1993; Oxford, 1996;Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Oxford & Cohen, 1992; Oxford & Ehrman, 1995; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Park,1994; Park, 1997; Park, 1997; Parks & Raymond, 2004; Peacock & Ho, 2003; Phillips, 1991; Politzer & McGroarty, 1985; Politzer, 1983; Purdie & Oliver, 1999; Ramirez, 1986; Wharton, 2000; Yang, 1999). Numerous studies have also used either quantitative or qualitative method to examine learner's language learning beliefs (Amuzie & Winke, 2009; Ariogul et al., 2009; Bernat, 2006; Diab, 2006; Hong, 2006; Horwitz,1985, 1987, 1988; Gwynne, 1997; Kern, 1995; Kim-Yoon, 2000; Kim, 2001; Kuntz, 1996; Kunt, 1997; Mantle-Bromley, 1995; Oh, 1996; Park,1995; Siebert, 2003; Tanaka, 2004; Truitt, 1995; Tumposky, 1991; Wenden, 1987a; Wenden,1987b; White, 1999; Yang, 1992; Zhong, 2012). However, there are only a few studies on learners' language learning strategies and beliefs using both quantitative and qualitative methods (Amuzie & Winke, 2009; Hong, 2006; Tanaka, 2004; Yang, 1999; Zhong, 2012).

Research design is an important factor to consider when conducting a study. Maxwell (1996) differentiates between a good design and bad one, and he states that a good design is "one in which the components work harmoniously together [, and it] promotes efficient and successful functioning. [In contrast, the bad one is] a flawed design [which] leads to poor operation or failure." (p. 2). Thus, selecting the right design for a study is crucial.

Merriam and Kim (2012) assert that quantitative research methods presuppose that "reality exists separate from the knower and that it is observable, stable, and measurable" (p. 57). Quantitative research methods tend to "eliminate their [researchers] bias, remain emotionally detached and uninvolved with the objects of study, and test or empirically justify their stated hypothesis" (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 14). To clarify the meaning of quantitative research, Bogdan and Biklen (1998) note:

> Charts and graphs illustrate the results of the research, and commentators employ words such as 'variables', 'populations' and 'result' as part of their daily vocabulary…even if we do not always know just what all of the terms mean…[but] we know that this is part of the process of doing research. Research, then as it comes to be known publicly, is a synonym for quantitative research. (p. 4)

In contrast, in qualitative methods, "there is no single, objective reality [since] reality for an individual is her or his interpretation of it as there are multiple possible constructions or interpretations of reality" (Merriam & Kim, 2012, p. 58). Thus, qualitative methods claim that "time-and-context-free generalizations are neither desirable nor possible" (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 14). A naturalistic approach was used in qualitative study to understand phenomena in context-specific settings, such as "real world setting [where] the researcher does not attempt to manipulate the phenomenon of interest" (Patton, 2001, p. 39). Also, qualitative study means "any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification" (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, p. 17) but employing "phenomenon of interest unfold naturally" (Patton, 2001, p. 39).

These two different research methods are partially conflicting since the nature of the design instruments comes from different paradigms. Quantitative researchers seek "casual

determination, prediction, and generalization of findings," (Hoepfl, 1997, p. 48) but quanlitative researchers seek "illumination, understanding, and extrapolation to similar situations" (Hoepfl, 1997, p. 48). In order to alleviate this concern, a mixed-method approach emerged (Guba & Lincoln, 2005; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2008). The mixed-method approach diminishes both the quantitative and qualitative methods weaknesses and enhances their strengths.

This study employed a mixed-method approach. It consists of a concurrent methodology of quantitative methods, a survey questionnaire and qualitative methods, semi-structured in-depth interviews. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) claimed that " the goal of mixed method research is not to replace either of these approaches (quantitative and qualitative) but rather to draw from the strengths and minimize the weaknesses of both in single research studies and across studies" (p. 14). Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) also alleged that one of the benefits of the mixed-method approach is "its methodological pluralism or eclecticism, which frequently results in superior research (compared to monomethod research) … [and] research in a content domain that is dominated by one method often can be better informed by the use of multiple methods" (p. 15). Greene, Caracelli, and Graham (1989) classified the five purposes of the mixed-method approach:

1. Triangulation, which pursues convergence/corroboration/correspondence of outcome from the different methods
2. Complementary, which pursues elaboration / enhancement / illustration /classification of the outcomes from one method with the outcomes from the other method

3. Development, which aims at using the outcomes from one method to aid develop/inform the other method (development is largely inferred to include sampling/implementation/measurement decisions)
4. Initiation, which pursues the revelation of paradox/contradiction/new perspectives of frameworks/measurement decisions
5. Expansion, which pursues the expanding of the range of inquiry by using other methods for other inquiry components. (p. 256)

In the field of learner's language learning strategies and their language learning beliefs, it is adequate to employ mixed-methods. Quantitative method examined what kinds of strategies learners use to improve their English, what kinds of beliefs they have in terms of learning English, what kinds of relationships among language learning beliefs and strategies to other variables such as gender, age, language proficiency, and academic program. Qualitative method is employed "to explore the problem, honor the voices of participants, map the complexity of the situation, and convey multiple perspectives of participants" (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, p. 7). Therefore, this study employed a mix-method research design to understand learner's language learning strategy uses and their beliefs from both qualitative and quantitative analysis to deepen the understanding of the SILL and the BALLI. The mixed-method research design used in this study will help progress the existing literature body of the SILL and the BALLI.

In order to obtain information related to the research questions mentioned previously, the three online surveys the SILL, the BALLI, and the IBQ were distributed to international students studying in the IEP, undergraduate, and graduate programs at a Southeastern university for the quantitative part of the study. In the qualitative part of the study, the investigator conducted in-depth individual semi-structured interviews. The three online surveys were used to identify the

language learning strategies and beliefs and their relations. Also, online surveys promoted the understanding among different variables affecting the learning strategies and the learning beliefs held by adult ESL learners. These online surveys helped the investigator get access to the large number of participants (Ary, Jacobs, & Razavieh, 2005).

Several statistical procedures such as, one-way ANOVA, t-test, descriptive statistics, Pearson's *r* correlation, factor analysis, and Cronbach's alpha test were employed to analyze the online survey data, and then the researcher selected six participants out of forty-five who volunteered for the follow-up interview. The researcher interviewed six participants, two from each academic program (the IEP, undergraduate, and graduate) using a 21 semi-structured interview questionnaire. The investigator selected these six follow-up interview participants based on the demographic information. All the participants were from different age groups, academic programs, gender, and nationality. The investigator audio-recorded the interview sessions and coded the interview transcripts to analyze the follow-up interview data.

Population and Participants

The population and participants in this study were the international students who were enrolled in IEP courses, undergraduate courses, and graduate courses at a Southeastern public four-year institution. International students in this study were restricted to foreign-born students whose first language was not English and who were present with student visas. There were about a total of 1000 international students enrolled in the IEP, undergraduate, and graduate courses, but only students who were nineteen years old or older were allowed to participate in this study and the follow-up interview. The information on the total number of international students who were above nineteen years old was not accessible to the researcher; therefore, the exact number

of available participants was unknown. The participants who were under the age of nineteen years old were prohibited from participating in the online survey and the follow-up interview.

Since these international students on campus were taking different classes and were enrolled in different degree programs, the researcher obtained a letter from the assistant director of Multicultural Programs from the Department of the International Student Life and the International Student Organization which allowed the researcher to e-mail the survey link, recruit participants for both the survey and the follow-up interview, and collect data (see Appendix E)

Instrumentation

Four instruments were utilized in this study: (1) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL, ESL/EFL 7.0 version) created by Oxford (1990), (2) the Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI, ESL 2.0 version) designed by Horwitz (2012), (3) the Individual Background Questionnaire (IBQ) developed by the researcher to obtain more information about the participants' demographic features and general information. These three instruments were used for the quantitative method. (4) The researcher adopted and modified 21 semi-structured questionnaire adopted by the researcher designed by Zhong (2012) to have an in-depth understanding of the students' opinions about language learning beliefs and strategy uses (see Appendix D).

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

Oxford (1990) first developed SILL to measure which language-learning strategies adult learners of foreign languages adopted and used frequently. After the first SILL was widely used in the field of language learning strategy, Oxford (1990) divided the SILL into two versions: the SILL 5.1 version for English speakers learning a new foreign language (80 items), and the SILL 7.0 version for speakers of other languages learning English (50 items). This study used the

ESL/EFL SILL 7.0 version, which was a self-report questionnaire, to examine which strategy international students use at a higher educational setting. There were six categories in the SILL (adapted version):

1. Memory (8 questions) : storing and retrieving information.
2. Cognitive (11 questions) : understanding and producing the language.
3. Compensation (4 questions) : overcoming limitations in language learning.
4. Metacognitive (8 questions) : centering and directing learning.
5. Affective (6 questions) : controlling emotions.
6. Social (6 questions) : cooperating with others in language learning.

Originally it had 50 items, but only 42 items were used in this study since those eight questions were not relevant to participants in this study (see Appendix B).

The SILL used a five-point Likert-scale system which ranged from 1 to 5, 1 being never and almost never true, 2 being generally not true, 3 being somewhat true, 4 being generally true, and 5 being always or almost always true. In this study, the researcher simplified the wording of the scales for easy understanding of the scale without changing the scaling system: 1= never or almost never, 2= not usually, 3=sometimes, 4=usually, and 5=always or almost always.

The SILL has been used in about 50 different studies with 9000 language learners to examine different language learning strategies used (Bialystok, 1981; Bremner, 1998; Brown, 1996; Chamot & Küpper, 1989; Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Gardner, 19; Green & Oxford, 1995; Griffiths, 2003; Holec, 1981; Hong, 2006; Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; Kim-Yoon, 2000; Lee, 2003; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo, & Küpper, 1985; Oxford, 1990; Oxford, 1996; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Oxford & Cohen, 1992; Oxford & Ehrman, 1995; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Oxford, Talbott, & Halleck, 1990; Park,1994;

Park, 1997; Oxford, 1993; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Park, 1997; Peacock & Ho, 2003; Phillips, 1991; Politzer, 1983; Politzer & McGroarty, 1985; Ramirez, 1986; Reid, 1987). Therefore, the SILL has been one of the most frequently used and adopted instruments to measure language learner's strategy use. There were many studies that have identified the reliability and validity of the SILL and used Conbach's alpha (Bremmer, 1998; Hong, 2006; Lee, 1998; Park, 1997; Philips, 1991; Wanatabe, 1990; Yang, 1992).

Hong (2011) presents the summary of reliability coefficients for the SILL reported in different studies indicating high reliability (above .90) of the SILL. Table 11 demonstrates the summary of reliability coefficients for the SILL.

Table 11

Summary of the Reported Reliability of the SILL

Author	Number of Subjects	Cronbach's alpha
Watanabe (1990)	315 Japanese university students	.92
Philips (1991)	141 college ESL students	.87
Yang (1992)	505 Taiwanese university students	.94
Park (1997)	332 Korean university students	.93
Bremner (1998)	149 Chinese students in Hong Kong	.92
Lee (1998)	337 Korean Naval Academy midshipmen	.93
Hong (2006)	428 monolingual Korean university students	.94
Hong (2006)	420 bilingual Korean university students	.91

Note. Adopted and modified from *Beliefs about language learning and language learning strategy use in an EFL context: a comparison study of monolingual Korean and bilingual Korean-Chinese university students* by Hong (2006). p. 71. Copyright 2006 by KyungSim, Hong.

Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI)

BALLI was developed by Horwitz (1987), and it has been widely used by researchers to understand the language learning beliefs of language learners throughout the world. Horwitz (1997, 1998), Tumposky (1991), Yang (1992), and Su (1995) used the BALLI. Also, Mantle-Bromley (1995), Kruntz (1996), Diab (2006), and Ariogul (2009) modified the BALLI to meet their individual studies. Cotterall (1995), Kuntz (1996), Wen and Johnson (1997), Sakuri and Gaies (1999), and Tanaka (2004) created their own questionnaires to find out language learners' beliefs about language learning (Amuzie & Winke, 2009; Ariogul et al., 2009; Bernat, 2006; Diab, 2006; Hong , 2006; Horwitz, 1985, 1987, 1988; Gwynne, 1997; Kern, 1995; Kim-Yoon, 2000; Kim, 2001; Kunt, 1997; Kuntz, 1996; Mantle-Bromley, 1995; Oh, 1996; Park, 1995; Siebert, 2003; Tanaka, 2004; Truitt, 1995; Tumposky, 1991; Wenden, 1987a; Wenden, 1987b; White, 1999; Yang, 1992; Zhong, 2012).

Although there are different researchers employing different questionnaires, the BALLI has been the most widely used instrument. Different studies reported the reliability on the BALLI ESL/EFL version, whose reliability ranged from .59 to .71 using Cronbach's alpha coefficients (Hong, 2006). Hong (2006) also mentioned that these reliability scores are not as high as the SILL reliability scores because the nature of the BALLI instrument was different from other instruments since these questionnaires asked about learner's perspectives. She also cited different researchers explaining that the items in the BALLI are interpreted individually based on the five-scales (Diab, 2000; Kim-Yoon, 2000, Park, 1995; Yang, 1992). Table 12 summarizes the reliability scores of previous studies using the BALLI.

Table 12

Summary of the Reported Reliability of the BALLI

Author	Number of Subjects	Cronbach's alpha
Yang (1992)	505 Taiwanese university students	.69
Park (1995)	332 Korean university students	.61
Truitt (1995)	197 Korean university students	.63
Kunt (1997)	554 Turkish-speaking university students	.64
Kunt (1997)	328 Turkish-speaking university students	.63
Kim-Yoon (2000)	235 Korean high school students	.71
Kim-Yoon (2000)	227 Korean university students	.60
Kim-Yoon (2000)	202 Korean adult English learners	.59
Hong (2006)	428 monolingual Korean university students	.74
Hong (2006)	420 bilingual Korean university students	.77

Note. Adopted and modified from *Beliefs about language learning and language learning strategy use in an EFL context: a comparison study of monolingual Korean and bilingual Korean-Chinese university students* by Hong (2006). p. 73. Copyright 2006 by KyungSim, Hong.

Horwitz (1988) created the BALLI in order to "assess student opinions on a variety of issues and controversies related to language learning" (p. 284). There were three versions of the BALLI: for foreign language teachers (Horwitz, 1985); for ESL students (Horwitz, 1987), and for the United States students studying a foreign language (Horwitz, 1988). All three different BALLI versions have been constantly revised and updated. For instance, there was a free recall activity where 25 foreign language and ESL teachers in four different groups of different cultural background were to make a list of their beliefs, other people's beliefs, and their students' beliefs about language learning (Horwitz, 1985). Once the unrelated and unconventional beliefs from

the participants were removed, 30 items from the free call activity remained, and then the teacher educators and student focus groups were invited to scrutinize the list to include more items to the already compiled 30 items. Finally, there were two versions of the questionnaire: one in Standard English for use with American foreign language students and the other in simplified English for ESL students. These two versions of questionnaires were then pilot-tested with 150 foreign language students who were in their first semester and 50 IEP students at the University of Texas at Austin (Horwitz, 1987).

Based on this pilot-test, there are 34 items evaluating language learning beliefs in five major areas:

1. The difficulty of language learning : 6 questions
2. Aptitude for language learning: 9 questions
3. The nature of language learning: 6 questions
4. Learning and communication strategies: 8 questions
5. Motivations and expectations for language learning: 4 questions

This study used the BALLI ESL 2.0 version. This questionnaire had 44 items, but only 40 items were used in this study (see Appendix C). All the 40 items in the BALLI were scored on a five-point Likert scale, 1 strongly disagree, 2 disagree, 3 neither agree nor disagree, 4 agree, and 5 strongly agree.

Horwitz (2013) emphasized the importance of using questions individually rather than grouping and averaging them together since the BALLI was not a single scale. Therefore, the questions were considered as individual items and then grouped based on the four different categories: English language learning aptitude, English language learning preference, formal learning, and English language learners' self-efficacy.

Individual Background Questionnaire (IBQ)

The researcher also created seven individual background questions to find out more about the characteristics of the participants of the study. It included demographic questions such as gender, age, academic program, and race/ethnicity. Some of the questions were related to the participant's English proficiency, both self-rated and the TOEFL score. Also, there were questions specifically related to how many hours per day the participants spent studying English outside of their classes.

Language Learning Beliefs and Strategies Follow-up Interview Questionnaire

The follow-up interview had twenty questions (see Appendix D). The participants who volunteered to participate in the follow-up interview were asked to describe and explain their experiences of using different learning strategies and their beliefs about learning English as a second language. The interview questions were in a semi-structured format, that is, the researcher elicited personal experience and insights from each participant in order to help participants focus on the topic. Questions 1, 2, and 4 required participants to explain English education in their country and a typical English lesson in school. These three questions helped the investigator understand the participants' previous English learning experience. Questions 3, 7, 9, 10, 11, 16, and 17 were asked about their LLS, and they were asked to clarify, explain, and describe their experience and insights in depth. Questions 6, 8, 12, 13, and 15 asked the participants to explain their English language learning beliefs. Questions 14, 15, 18, 19, and 21 required the participants to provide more information about teachers' role and instructions, and how much they impact on their LLS and BALL. Table 13 summarizes the follow-up interview questionnaire.

Table 13

Follow-up Interview Questionnaire

Related Topic(s)	Question numbers
English education in their country	Q1, Q2, Q4
Language learning strategies (LLS)	Q3,Q7, Q9, Q10, Q11,Q16, Q17
English language learning beliefs (BALL)	Q6, Q8, Q12, Q13, Q15:
Roles of teachers and instructions	Q14, Q15, Q18, Q19, Q21

Data Collection

Data collection for this study was divided into two phases: the quantitative phase with three online surveys the SILL (ESL/EFL 7.0 version), the BALLI (ESL 2.0 version), and the IBQ and the qualitative phase with follow-up interviews. This study used a mixed-method research design, and the interview phase was followed by the online survey phase. Both the quantitative and the qualitative phases were given equal importance.

Online Surveys

The SILL (ESL/EFL 7.0 version), the BALLI (ESL 2.0 version), and the IBQ were used in this study to examine adult ESL learners' preferred language learning strategies and their beliefs about English learning. Permissions from the developers of the SILL by Dr. Oxford and the BALLI by Dr. Horwitz were obtained to administer the questionnaires (see Appendix F and Appendix G). The online surveys were provided and accessed through a website, Quatrics.com, and the participants were international students who were enrolled in the IEP, undergraduate courses, and graduate courses. Since the students were from a variety of programs and degrees, the researcher obtained permission and assistance from the assistant director of the Student Life (see Appendix E) to send e-mails to all of the international students on campus (1) to initially

invite participants to participate in online survey, (2) to remind/thank participants for participating in the study on the 7th day, and (3) to finally remind/thank/notify participants for participating on the 14th day (see Appendix J and K). The online survey was open for 21 days. The online surveys were anonymous unless the participants signed up for the voluntary follow-up interviews. Those who decided to take part in the follow-up interview provided their personal e-mail address with their full name. The participants received three e-mails from the assistant director of the Student Life with the information letter. In the information letter, the researcher assured the participants that the study was conducted anonymously and their personal information and the responses were kept confidential.

Once the participants decided to take the survey, they clicked on the link of the three surveys in their invitation e-mail. On the first page of the surveys, there was the information letter, and the participants who decided to participate were asked to click on the part where it said whether they agreed to participate or not and if they were over nineteen years of age to be eligible to participate in the study. Once they finished all three surveys, there was a sign-up form for the follow-up interview. The participants who decided to take part in the follow-up interview were asked to provide their full name and the e-mail address and comments or questions for the researcher.

Follow-up Interviews

Permission to use the interview questionnaires from the developer Dr. Zhong was obtained through email before conducting interviews (see Appendix H). The purpose of including the qualitative component in this study was to deepen and reinforce the understanding, insights, and interpretation of the online data with the participants' diverse explanation of their English learning strategy uses and beliefs from their personal experiences and perspectives. Also,

the participant's responses provided a deeper understanding of the rationale of certain strategy uses and beliefs.

Once the participants provided their e-mail addresses and full names as an indication of their willingness to participate in the follow-up interview, the researcher contacted them via email to find out the availability of the time and location of the interview session. There were 21 semi-structured interview questions asking general information about their previous English learning experience in their country, their use of different strategies to help improve learning English, their beliefs about learning English, and their perceptions toward instructors/teachers and instructional style and materials.

The interview data were audio-recorded and transcribed. After the transcribing procedure was completed, the researcher sent each participant a copy of interview transcript via email to review and confirm the accuracy of content and information of the interview. The researcher revised all the information and content based on the interviewees' comments and resent the transcript to them.

Data Analysis

Two phases of data analysis were used in this study: analysis of the online surveys and the analysis of the follow-up interview. This study used a mixed-method research design. First, the online survey data were analyzed, and then the interview data were analyzed. Once each section of the data was analyzed, both the quantitative and qualitative data were integrated for interpretation of the results.

Online Survey

The online survey data were analyzed using quantitative methods by entering information into The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 20 package. The investigator used

descriptive statistics to evaluate and provide descriptive data in addition to the analysis and evaluation of the different variables. Means, standard deviations, and frequencies were calculated to represent demographic information and to summarize the learners' overall strategy use and beliefs about language learning.

Before analyzing the online survey data, the researcher coded the data and ran the factor analyses to identify the underlying dimensions of factors, reported by students on the SILL and the BALLI. The factor scores were then computed for each composite variable of strategies and beliefs to use them as new variables in further analyses. The factor scores were computed for use in the correlations, one-way ANOVA and T-test analysis of variance.

Descriptive statistics and analysis of frequency were used to analyze the data and provide answers for research question 1 "What are the language-learning strategies used by international students at a four-year institution?" and research question 2 "What are the language learning beliefs of international students at a four-year institution?" Descriptive and analysis of frequency results were then summarized and presented in a table.

In order to answer research question 3 and 4 "How do gender, self-rated English proficiency, country of origin, and academic programs influence learners' language learning beliefs and language learning strategies?", One-way ANOVAs and T-tests were conducted using gender, self-rated English proficiency, country of origin, and academic programs and other demographic variables as independent variables. Therefore, this study used six factor scores of the SILL and the five factor scores of the BALLI as the dependent variables and the following factors were used as the independent variables in the One-way ANOVA and T-test: gender, academic program, self-rated English proficiency, and country of origin. Also, a separate

ANOVA was conducted for each of the background variables for the SILL and the BALLI to determine within-group variation.

The Scheffé post-hoc procedure was used to identify where any statistically significant differences in strategy use and beliefs may lie. In addition, a Cronbach's alpha test was conducted in order to determine the internal reliability of the two questionnaires: the SILL and the BALLI. The result of the reliability results were compared to the previous studies such as Wanatabe (1990), Philips (1991), Yang (1992), Park (1997), Bremmer (1998), Lee (1998), Hong (2006), Truitt (1995), Kunt (1997), and Kim-Yoon (2000).

Pearson *r* correlations were used to determine the correlations between students' beliefs about language learning and their use of language-learning strategies, answering research question 5 "What is the relationship between the learners' beliefs about language learning and the language learning strategy use among them?" Again, factor scores were used in order to determine any correlation between learners' beliefs and strategy use.

Follow-up Interviews

Follow-up interview data were used in order to answer research questions 6: "What other factors influence student's learning English?" The interview data were analyzed using a phenomenological approach. The researcher used Atlas.ti software for coding and categorized themes based on the interview data.

In order to identify learners' beliefs, the investigator used the follow guidelines to determine statements in the forms of learner's beliefs for analysis:

1. General statements relating to language learning that expressed opinions: for example, "I believe/think…," "in my opinion…," "to my view…," "It is important to…"

2. Students that used modal verbs: for example, “you/I need…,” “you/I must/have to …,” “students should…”
3. Definitions about language learning and teaching: for example, “learning English is mainly about learning the grammar rules.”
4. Hypothetical statements: for example, “if I were younger, I would learn English faster.”
5. Statements that included superlatives or comparatives: for example, “The best way to learn is…” (Zhong, 2012, p. 114)

In order to identify LLS, the investigator analyzed the transcript line by line to find major strategies, such as cognitive, metacognitive, memory, compensation, social, and affective.

In this study, inductive process of coding for themes, looking for patterns, making interpretations, and building theory were used (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005; Strauss & Corbin, 1998; Zhong, 2012). The investigator transcribed the data gathered from the follow-up interviews, and then the data were sent to the individual participants for content correction. Upon receiving all the data from the interviewees, the investigator read the transcripts multiple times while taking notes to understand the overall meaning. Then, the researcher organized the data by unitizing them. A unit was defined as the “smallest piece of information about something that can stand by itself, that is, it must be interpretable in the absence of any additional information other than a broad understanding of the context in which the inquiry is carried out” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 345). For this study, the investigator chose to analyze single words, phrases, complete sentences and utterances. Then, the researcher coded the data into different themes and categories and read the categories and themes numerous times to find patterns. Finally, the researcher interpreted and presented the findings. Zhong (2012) explained “a process of

recursive analysis where data was read repeatedly [and] new codes were added until saturation was reached, i.e. no new themes were found, and salient themes, categories or recurring patterns began to emerge. To sum up, the data analysis procedure of this study involve:

1. Reading all of the data thoroughly multiple times to fully understand the meaning.
2. Organizing the data by unitizing them.
3. Creating a codebook and coding units.
4. Grouping the open codes based on similar themes and concepts.
5. Looking for patterns.
6. Interpreting the data.

Validity and Reliability

In order to ensure the validity and reliability of the findings and results of both online survey and interview, several steps have taken place for this study. For the quantitative method design, Joppe (2000) defined reliability as "consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study is referred to as reliability and if the results of a study can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable" (p. 1). Joppe (2000) defined validity as determination "whether the research truly measures [what] it was intended to measure or how truthful the research results are" (p. 1). In order to accomplish the validity and reliability of this study, data were collected from multiple participants, and the two surveys (the SILL and the BALLI) used in this study had established reliability (Bremmer, 1998; Hong, 2006; Kim-Yoon 2000; Kunt 1997; Lee, 1998, Park, 1997; Philips, 1991; Truitt, 1995; Wanatabe, 1990; Yang, 1992).

For the qualitative method design, while the terms reliability and validity are crucial notions for quality in quantitative design, the terms "Credibility, Neutrality or Conformability,

Consistency or Dependability and Applicability or Transferability" were considered to be more essential criteria. (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Lincoln and Guba (1985, p. 300) used dependability in interview corresponding to the concept of reliability in online surveys. In order to achieve credibility and dependability, the researcher emailed the interview transcripts to each participant to review and provide any correction if necessary. The investigator solicited participant's feedback for the accuracy and credibility of the interview transcripts to establish the credibility and trustworthiness of the study. Creswell (2007) claimed that in order to obtain good quality interview data from field notes, it is crucial to employ the best quality recording device to record and transcribe. Creswell (2007) mentioned that it was also imperative to pay attention to pauses and overlaps. Therefore, the investigator used the best quality voice recorder for the follow-up interviews, and the data were carefully transcribed, paying close attention to the pause and overlaps.

The procedures used to ensure reliability and validity of this study were:

- Triangulation of data and analysis: Diverse instruments were employed to collect data to learn more about the learners' beliefs and language learning strategies.
- Member checking: Each interview was transcribed and returned to the participants for member checking, in terms of its credibility and accuracy. Corrections were made to each transcript where noted by the participants and their comments were included when analyzing the data.

Ethics

In compliance with the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Auburn University, all ethical concerns were addressed (see Appendix M). The IRB Research Protocol Review Form was filed to provide the detailed information regarding this study such as contact information of

both the investigator and advisor, proof of mandatory CITI training, research methodology, participant information, risks to participants, research purpose and title, research location, recruiting process of participants, data collection procedures, data analysis procedure, and protection of the data.

The investigator also provided the information letter, email invitations for participants, SILL and BALLI online survey, interview questions, and the authorization letter from the assistant director of Student Life. The submitted IRB Research Protocol was approved by the Office of Research Compliance (see Appendix M).

The participants of the online survey were provided with a copy of the information letter in the email invitation and on the first page of the online survey. Participation in this study was voluntary and participants were allowed to stop the process at any time of the study. At the end of the online survey, the participants who wanted to participate in the follow-up interview left their contact information. According to Schwartz (2013), all the data were collected anonymously because Qualtrics.com provided the following security options for storing participant's information:

1. Participants accessed the survey through a custom link developed by the investigator.
2. IP address collection was turned off on the survey collection site.
3. Qualtrics.com used SSL for secure collection and transmission of data.
4. The responses of participants were transmitted over a secure, encrypted connection.
5. All data were stored on servers located in the United States.
6. Backups occurred hourly internally and daily to centralize backup system for offsite storage.
7. Backups were encrypted. (p. 111)

The follow-up interview participants' names were not anonymous, but to maintain confidentiality, the investigator assigned pseudonyms for security purposes. All the data from both quantitative and qualitative were only accessible to the investigator, and the data were placed in a locked cabinet in the investigator's office. After completing the study, all the data including transcripts, audio files, and notes were destroyed. The investigator also informed the participants that the collected data would be only used for a doctoral dissertation, conference presentations, and future publication. None of the data were identifiable.

Summary

This chapter presented the research design employed for this study including research designs, the four different instruments (the SILL, the BALLI, the IBQ, and the follow-up interview questionnaire), the participant's descriptive data points, the data collection procedures, and the data analysis. The investigator also provided the validity and reliability of this study.

The instrument used for data collection of this study was the SILL developed by Oxford (1990) and the BALLI developed by Horwitz (1987). The descriptive statistics, one-way ANOVA, t-test, and Pearson *r* correlation tests were administered with the use of the SPSS software to analyze the quantitative data.

A phenomenological approach was used to analyze the qualitative data. The investigator integrated the interpretation and analysis of both quantitative data and the qualitative data to report the findings and results. Ethical and credential issues were also mentioned in this chapter.

CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS AND RESULTS

This chapter presents the findings of the study from both quantitative and qualitative data, including demographic results, response rate, discussion of findings, and summary. A mixed-method research design was used to collect and analyze the data through the SILL (Oxford, 1990) and the BALLI (Horwitz, 1987). Both quantitative and qualitative phases were given equal importance in data collection and analysis.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the English language learning beliefs and English language learning strategies used by international students at a four-year institution. It will also examine the relationship between English language learning beliefs and the English language learning strategies. For instance, how the learners' language learning beliefs influenced the choice of what language learning strategy use they employed and vice versa. To illustrate, students who believe in memorization tend to make an effort to spend more time memorizing new words or grammar rules from textbooks; while, students who believe that spending more time with native speakers will improve their English skills and will be more likely to make friends with whom they can practice English. The study will also determine if background variables such as gender, self-rated English proficiency, TOEFL score, race/ethnicity, and the academic program in which students are enrolled, influenced learners' beliefs about language learning and their use of language strategies.

This study employed four questionnaires in order to investigate international students', studying at a four-year institution, language learning beliefs and English learning strategies. The four questionnaires used in this study were: the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL, ESL/EFL 7.0 version) by Oxford (1990), the Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI, ESL/EFL version) by Horwitz (1987), the Individual Background Questionnaire (IBQ), and the follow-up interview questionnaire adopted from Zhong (2012).

Research Questions

In order to reach the goals of this study, the following research questions were addressed:

1. What are the language-learning strategies used by international students at a four-year institution?
2. Do demographic variables such as, gender, age, academic programs, hours of studying English, TOEFL score, self-rated language proficiency, and race/ethnicity affect international student's language learning strategies?
3. What are the language learning beliefs of international students at a four-year institution?
4. Do demographic variables such as, gender, age, academic programs, hours of studying English, TOEFL score, self-rated language proficiency, and race/ethnicity affect international student's language learning beliefs?
5. Is there a relationship between the learner's beliefs about language learning and the language learning strategy use among international students?
6. What factors influence international student's learning English?

Demographic Results

Online Survey

Response rate. An invitation email (see Appendix J) to participate in this study was sent to the international students who were taking the IEP classes, undergraduate courses, and graduate courses at a four-year southeastern public university during the Fall, 2013 semester. There were approximately 1,000 international students who registered in above-mentioned courses in the Fall, 2013 semester. Among these 1,000 students, those who were nineteen years old or older were eligible to participate in the study and the follow-up interview (see Appendix J and K). Although the total number of students who were invited to participate was approximately 1,000, the investigator was unable to verify the age of all participants. Thus, the total number of students who were eligible to participate in this study was unknown. Of those 1,000 students, 168 students responded. This represented a response rate of 16.8% out of the entire international student population. The response rate of 16.8% should have most likely been higher if those eighteen years old were allowed to participate. Among 168 responses, 83 responses were eliminated because they were incomplete. Therefore, 84 responses were included in the coding and analysis of this study.

Demographics of the online survey. Table 14 shows the frequency distribution of 84 online survey participants by each demographic group. Among 84 participants, 52 (61.9%) were male and 32 (38.1%) were female. There were more male participants than female participants.

The participants between the ages of 19-21 consisted of 25 (29.8%); 22-26 (39.3%); 27-30 (13.1%); and above 30 (17.9%). The majority of the participants in this study were from 19 to 26, which consisted of 69.1% of the total participants.

The participants were among three academic programs at University: ESL, undergraduate, and graduate. The number of participants who were taking ESL classes was 27 (32.1%), undergraduate 28 (33.3%), and graduate 29 (34.5 %). The number of participants in each academic program was equally distributed.

The participants who studied less than 30 minutes consisted of 25 (29.8%). The participants who studied from 30 minutes to an hour consisted of 21 (25%), which was the same number of participants who studied from 1-2 hours a day. Eight participants studied more than 2-3 hours, and nine participants studied more than 3 hours a day. Half of the participants studied from 30 minutes to 2 hours every day.

Out of 84 participants, 75 took the paper-based TOEFL test. Among 75 participants who took the test, 12% scored lower than 429, which represent learner's low proficiency in English, 22.6% of the participants scored from 430-499, which represent learner's intermediate proficiency in English, 34.5% scored from 500-550, which represent learner's high intermediate proficiency in English, and 20.2% scored over 550, which represent advanced proficiency in English. The majority of the participants scored above 430 in the TOEFL test.

There were ten (11.9%) participants who reported that their language proficiency was beginner. Forty eight (57.1%) participants were intermediate and 26 (31%) participants were advanced. The majority (88.1%) of the participants reported their English proficiency to be either intermediate level or an advanced level.

Out of 84 participants, 52 were Asian (22 Koreans, 10 Japanese, and 20 Chinese). 20 were Arabic/Middle Eastern (18 Saudi Arabians and 2 Jordanians). There were nine participants from South America (9 Brazilians) and three participants from Europeans (1 Russian and 2 Germans).

Table 14

Frequency Distribution of Online Survey Participants for Each Demographic Category

Category	**Description**	***n***	**%**
Gender	Male	52	61.9
	Female	32	38.1
Age	19-21	25	29.8
	22-26	33	39.3
	27-30	11	13.1
	Above 30	15	17.9
Academic program	ESL	27	32.1
	Undergraduate	28	33.3
	Graduate	29	34.5
Hours of studying English per day	Less than 30 minutes	25	29.8
	30-60 minutes	21	25
	1-2 hours	21	25
	2-3 hours	8	9.5
	More than 3 hours	9	10.7
Taken the (paper-based) TOEFL test	Yes	75	89.3
	No	9	10.7
TOEFL score*	Lower than 350	2	2.6
	350-429	8	10.6
	430-499	19	22.6
	500-550	29	34.5
	Over 550	17	20.2
Self-rated language proficiency	Beginner	10	11.9
	Intermediate	48	57.1
	Advanced	26	31
Race/ethnicity	Asian	52	61.9
	Arab/Middle Eastern	20	23.8
	South American	9	10.7
	European	3	3.6

n= 84, *n**= 75

Follow-up Interviews

Response rate. Out of 84 online survey participants, 48 provided their names and email addresses on the sign-up form to participate in the follow-up interview. The investigator contacted 48 participants for the follow-up interview, but only 19 participants responded. Among these 19 responded participants, 10 of them were in the ESL program, 4 of them were in undergraduate programs, and 5 of them were in graduate programs. After receiving the initial e-mail invitation response, the investigator emailed all these nineteen follow-up interview participants to arrange the time and place in order to gather in-depth insights from each participant. There were only 10 participants who responded to the follow-up interview e-mail invitation. The investigator then selected 6 participants based on their cultural and language background, academic programs, and gender. All 6 participants were from different cultural and language background (China, Korea, Brazil, Saudi Arabia, Russia, and Jordan). Among six participants, two participants were from the ESL program, two from the undergraduate programs, and two from the graduate programs. There were 3 female and 3 male participants.

Demographics of the follow-up interviews. Table 15 shows the frequency distribution of the follow-up interview participants by demographic categories. Among six participants, three (50%) were males and three (50%) were females. There was equal number of male and female participants in the follow-up interview.

The participants between the ages of 19-21 consisted of one (16.7%); 22-26 three (50%); and 27-30 two (33.3%). The majority of the follow-up interview participants in this study were from 22-26.

The participants were among three academic programs at the University: ESL, undergraduate, and graduate. The number of participants who were taking ESL classes was 2

(33.3%), undergraduate 2 (33.3%), and graduate 2 (33.3 %). The number of participants in each academic program was the same.

The participants who studied from 30 minutes to an hour consisted of three (50%), and the participants who studied from 1-2 hours consisted of two (33.3%). One participant reported he/she studied 2-3 hours a day. Half of the interview participants responded that they spent about 30 minutes to an hour every day to study English.

Out of six participants, all of them took the paper-based TOEFL test. There were two (33.3%) participants scored from 430-499, one (16.7%) participant scored from 500-550, and three (50%) participants scored over 550. The majority of the participants scored above 500 in the TOEFL test.

There were two (33.3%) participants who reported that their language proficiency was beginner. Three (50%) participants were intermediate and one (16.7%) participant was advanced. Half of the participants reported their English proficiency to be intermediate level.

There were two participants (Korea and China) from the Asian group, two participants (Saudi Arabia and Jordan) from the Arab/Middle Eastern group, one participant from Brazil, and one participant from Russia.

Table 15

Frequency Distribution of Follow-up Interview participants for Each Demographic Categories

Category	**Description**	***n***	**%**
Gender	Male	3	50
	Female	3	50
Age	19-21	1	16.7
	22-26	3	50
	27-30	2	33.3
Academic program	ESL	2	33.3
	Undergraduate	2	33.3
	Graduate	2	33.3
Hours of studying English per day	30-60 minutes	3	50
	1-2 hours	2	33.3
	2-3 hours	1	16.7
Taken the (paper-based) TOEFL test	Yes	6	100
	No	0	0
TOEFL score*	430-499	2	33.3
	500-550	1	16.7
	Over 550	3	50
Self-rated language proficiency	Beginner	2	33.3
	Intermediate	3	50
	Advanced	1	16.7
Race/ethnicity	Asian (Korean and Chinese)	2	33.3
	Arab/Middle Eastern (Saudi Arabia and Jordan)	2	33.3
	South American (Brazil)	1	16.7
	Europe (Russian)	1	16.7

n=6

Discussion of Findings – Online Survey

Research Question 1

The first research question for this study was "What are the language-learning strategies used by international students at a four-year institution?" In order to examine international students' language learning strategies, this study used the SILL (ESL.EFL version 7.0). Previous studies have identified the reliability and validity of the SILL, using Cronbach's alpha

(Bremmer, 1998; Hong, 2006; Lee, 1998; Park, 1997; Philips, 1991; Wanatabe, 1990; Yang, 1992). This study also identified the reliability of the SILL using a Cronbach's alpha. Table 16 presents the reliability of each category in this study on the SILL ESL version 7.0 using Cronbach's alpha coefficients. As Table 16 shows, the reliability coefficient for the cognitive strategies is .75, the compensation strategies is .52, the metacognitive strategies is .70, the memory strategies is .75, the affective strategies is .69, and the social strategies is .75. The overall reliability coefficient is .69.

Table 16

Summary of the Reported Reliability of Each Category of the SILL in this Study

Categories	Cronbach's alpha
Cognitive Strategies	.75
Compensation Strategies	.52
Metacognitive Strategies	.70
Memory Strategies	.75
Affective Strategies	.69
Social Strategies	.75
Overall SILL	.69

A mean score in the range above 3.5 on all the SILL questions was considered to reflect high use of a given strategy, 2.5 to 3.4 showed medium use, and below 2.4 indicated low use of a strategy (Oxford, 1990). Question 1 was to determine how intensely international students used language learning strategies to enhance their English learning. Descriptive statistics in SPSS were used to answer the first research question.

As shown in Table 17, the participants were categorized into three ranges (High, Medium, and Low Usage) based on their overall mean score and frequency of strategy use. There were 53 (63.1%) international students who employ many strategies to enhance their learning, 31 (36.9%) participants who reported to have used moderate amount of strategy use in

their English learning. All international students reported medium to high strategy usage. As shown in Table 17, all the international students used different strategies to enhance their learning. Among six different strategies, the international students used social strategies the most.

Table 17

Overall Means of Reported Strategy Use

Usage	International Students	
	n	%
High ($M \geq 3.5$)	53	63.1
Medium ($3.4 \leq M \geq 2.5$)	31	36.9
Low ($M \leq 2.4$)	0	0

n=84

Table 18 shows the individual strategy use by international students based on the responses on the SILL, 1 never or almost never, 2 not usually, 3 sometimes, 4 usually, and 5 always or almost always. The overall mean of social strategy use was 3.78, which was being the most preferred learning strategy use by international students. Following social strategy was metacognitive strategy, whose mean score was 3.69%; a compensation strategy, whose mean score was 3.62; cognitive strategy, whose mean score was 3.44. The least frequently used strategies were memory (*M*=2.86) and affective (*M*=2.66).

Table 18

Reported Strategy Use Categorized by International Students

Category	International Students	
	Item	*M*
Cognitive	Q9: I say or write new English words several times. Q10. I try to talk like native English speakers. Q11: I practice the sounds of English. Q12: I use the English words I know in different ways. Q13: I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English. Q14: I read for pleasure in English. Q15: I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English. Q16: I try to find patterns in English. Q17: I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand. Q18: I try not to translate word-for-word. Q19: I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.	3.44
Compensate	Q20: To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses. Q21: When I don't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.	3.62
Metacognitive	Q23: I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English. Q24: I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better. Q25: I try to find out how to be a better learner of English. Q27: I look for people I can talk to in English. Q28: I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English. Q29: I have clear goals for improving my English skills. Q30: I think about my progress in learning English.	3.69
Memory	Q1: I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them. Q2: I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word. Q3: I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used. Q4: I use rhymes to remember new English words. Q5: I use flashcards to remember new English words. Q6: I physically act out new English words. Q7: I review English lessons often. Q8: I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.	2.83
Affective	Q33: I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English. Q34: I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using	

	English. Q35: I write down my feelings in a language learning diary. Q.36: I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.	2.66
Social	Q37: If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or repeat it. Q38: I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk. Q39: I practice English with other students. Q40: I ask for help from English speakers. Q41: I ask questions in English. Q42: I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.	3.78

n=84.

Research Question 2

The second research question of this study was "Do demographic variables such as, age, gender, academic programs, hours of studying English, TOEFL score, self-rated language proficiency, and race/ethnicity affect international students' language learning strategies?" In order to answer this question, SPSS software was used to perform the one-way Anova test and independent sample T-test to investigate the relationships between each demographic variable and the six different strategy categories. The six strategy categories were: cognitive strategy, metacognitive strategy, memory strategy, compensation strategy, social strategy, and affective strategy. Gender did not influence the learners' strategy uses.

Table 19 presents whether age, academic program, hours of studying English influenced international students' use of the overall strategy. While age and academic programs did not affect learners' overall strategy use, study hour significantly influenced students' overall strategy use. An F-test revealed a statistically significance (F=3.54, p=.01) in how many hours learners' study affect their use of different strategies.

Table 19

F-tests for Mean Differences of the Strategy Use by Age, Academic Program, and Study Hours

Variable	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*F*	*Sig*
Age					
19-21	25	3.40	.29		
22-26	33	3.28	.08	.74	.53
27-30	11	3.23	.15		
Above 30	15	3.42	.14		
Academic Program					
ESL	27	3.45	.39	2.05	.136
Undergraduate	28	3.35	.36		
Graduate	29	3.21	.54		
Study Hour					
Less than 30 min	25	3.09	.51		
30 min- 1 hour	21	3.37	.26		
1 – 2 hours	21	3.44	.34	3.54	.01*
2 – 3 hours	8	3.48	.59		
More than 3 hours	9	3.57	.45		

Note. n= 84
* p<.05

Table 20 shows how academic program and hours of studying influence six individual strategies (cognitive, metacognitive, memory, compensation, social, and affective). As shown in Table 20, An F-test revealed a statistically significance in metacognitive strategy use (F=2.30, p=.057) and affective strategy use (F=2.90, p=.062) among international students in three different academic programs: ESL, undergraduate, and graduate. Also, an F-test provided a statistically significance in memory strategy use (F=3.40, p=.013) and affective strategy use (F=4.50, p=.003) depending on how many hours international students study English per day.

Table 20

F-tests for Mean Differences of the Individual Strategy Use by Academic Program and Study Hours

Strategies	Variable	*SS*	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*Sig*
	Academic Program					
Metacognitive	Between Groups	1.63	2	.814	2.97	.057 †
	Within Groups	22.20	81	.274		
	Total	23.83	83			
Affective	**Academic Program**					
	Between Groups	3.74	2	1.87	2.88	.062 †
	Within Groups	52.71	81	.65		
	Total	56.45	83			
	Study Hour					
Memory	Between Groups	6.01	4	1.50	3.40	.01**
	Within Groups	34.89	79	.44		
	Total	40.90	83			
Affective	**Study Hour**					
	Between Groups	10.45	4	2.61	4.50	.01**
	Within Groups	46.00	79	.58		
	Total	56.45	83			

Note. n= 84
** $p<.01$
† $p<.07$ (the percentages have been rounded to the nearest tenth.)

Means for different academic programs in homogeneous subjects were analyzed using post-hoc test Scheffe. As shown in Table 21, there were differences among academic programs such as, ESL, undergraduate and graduate students' use of metacognitive and affective strategies. ESL students used more metacognitive strategies than undergraduate students. Also, ESL students used affective strategies more than undergraduate and graduate students. For study hours, post-hoc test revealed that the international students who spent more than one hour every day used more memory and affective strategies than those international students who studied less than one hour.

Table 21

Means for Subject Groups by Academic Program and Study Hour

Strategies	Variable	*n*	Subject for alpha = .05	
			1	2
	Academic Program			
Metacognitive	ESL	27	3.86	
	Undergraduate	28		3.51
	Graduate	29	3.70	3.70
	Academic Program			
Affective	ESL	27	4.53	
	Undergraduate	28		4.10
	Graduate	29		4.20
	Study Hour			
	Less than 30 min	25	2.46	
Memory	30 min- 1 hour	21	2.88	2.88
	1 – 2 hours	21	2.95	2.95
	2 – 3 hours	8	3.15	3.15
	More than 3 hours	9		3.22
	Study Hour			
	Less than 30 min	25	2.15	
Affective	30 min- 1 hour	21	2.71	2.71
	1 – 2 hours	21	2.86	2.86
	2 – 3 hours	8	2.95	2.95
	More than 3 hours	9		3.13

Note. n= 84
Post-hoc Method: Scheffe

Table 22 presents whether TOEFL scores, self-rated proficiency, and race/ethnicity influenced international student's use of the overall strategy. While self-rated proficiency and race/ethnicity did not affect learners' overall strategy use, the TOEFL score significantly influenced students' overall strategy use. An F-test revealed a statistically significance (F=3.64, p=.009) on the TOEFL test scores affect their use of different strategies.

Table 22

F-tests for Mean Differences of the Strategy Use by TOEFL scores, Self-rated Proficiency, and Race/Ethnicity

Variable	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*F*	*Sig*
TOEFL SCORE					
Lower than 350	2	2.07	1.11		
350-429	8	3.43	.40	3.64	.01**
430-499	19	2.78	.61		
500-550	29	2.95	.63		
Over 550	17	2.67	.79		
Self-rated Proficiency					
Beginner	10	3.22	.43		
Intermediate	48	3.40	.45	1.06	.35
Advanced	26	3.30	.45		
Race/Ethnicity					
Asia	52	3.30	.41		
Middle East	20	3.33	.48	1.08	.36
South America	9	3.55	.58		
Europe	3	3.53	.35		

Note. n= 84
** p<.01

Table 23 shows how TOEFL scores, self-rated proficiency, and race/ethnicity influence six individual strategies (cognitive, metacognitive, memory, compensation, social, and affective). As shown in Table 23, An F-test revealed a statistically significance in metacognitive strategy use (F=3.51, p=.011) and memory strategy use (F=2.78, p=.033) based on international student's TOEFL scores. Also, an F-test provided a statistically significance in compensation strategy use (F=3.58, p=.032) based on learners' self-rated proficiency: beginner, intermediate, and advanced. International students' race/ethnicity affected compensation strategy use (F=2.60, p=.058)

Table 23

F-tests for Mean Differences of the Individual Strategy Use by TOEFL Scores, Self-rated Proficiency, and Race/Ethnicity

Strategy	Variable	*SS*	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*Sig*
Memory	**TOEFL Score**					
	Between Groups	4.77	4	1.19	2.78	.033
	Within Groups	30.05	70	.42		
	Total	34.83	74			
	TOEFL Score					
Metacognitive	Between Groups	3.59	4	.899	3.51	.011
	Within Groups	17.93	70	.256		
	Total	21.53	74			
Compensation	**Self-rated Proficiency**					
	Between Groups	4.98	2	2.49	3.58	.032
	Within Groups	56.32	81	.69		
	Total	61.31	83			
Compensation	**Race/Ethnicity**					
	Between Groups	5.44	3	1.81		
	Within Groups	55.86	80	.69	2.60	.058†
	Total	61.30	83			

Note. n=84 n=75*

* p<.05

† p<.07 (the percentages have been rounded to the nearest tenth.)

Means for different TOEFL scores, self-rated proficiency, and race/ethnicity in subject groups are analyzed using Scheffe in a post-hoc test. As shown in Table 24, there were differences among students (N=75) with different TOEFL scores using metacognitive and metacognitive strategies. International students who scored between 350 and 429 used more memory scores than the students who scored lower than 350. Also, international students who scored above 350 used more metacognitive strategies than the students whose TOEFL scores were below 350. International students who reported their English as beginner, intermediate, or

advanced did not have much significant difference in terms of using compensation strategies. Also, students' use of compensation strategies among international students from different racial backgrounds was significantly different.

Table 24

Means for Subject Groups by the TOEFL Scores

Strategies	Variable	*n*	Subject for alpha = .05	
			1	2
	TOEFL SCORE	75*		
Metacognitive	Lower than 350	2	2.07	
	350-429	8		3.43
	430-499	19	2.78	2.78
	500-550	29	2.95	2.95
	Over 550	17	2.67	2.67
	TOEFL SCORE	75*		
Memory	Lower than 350	2	2.71	
	350-429	8		3.70
	430-499	19		3.52
	500-550	29		3.84
	Over 550	17		3.87

Note. $n = 75$
Post-hoc Method: Scheffe

Research Question 3

The third research question for this study was "What are the language learning beliefs of international students at a four-year institution?" In order to investigate international student's language learning beliefs, this study used BALLI (ESL version 2.0). A mean score in the range above 3.5 on all the BALLI questions was considered to reflect high use of a given strategy, 2.5 to 3.4 showed medium use, and below 2.4 indicated low use of beliefs. This question was to determine how strongly international students believed in their own language learning beliefs to accommodate their English learning and the perceptions they had towards their English learning.

Descriptive statistics in SPSS were used to answer the third research question. Table 25 summarizes international students language learning beliefs categorized into three groups (strong, moderate, and weak beliefs) based on their overall mean scores and frequency of strategies used. More than 60% of the international students had strong beliefs about their English learning. About 40% had moderate beliefs towards their English learning. Perceptions about English language learning affected international students learning English.

Table 25

Overall Means of Reported Beliefs Held by International Students

Beliefs	International Students	
	n	%
Strong ($M \geq 3.5$)	51	60.7
Moderate ($3.4 \leq M \geq 2.5$)	33	39.3
Weak ($M \leq 2.4$)	0	0

n=84

Factor Analysis of the BALLI

Based on the principal component analyses and scree plot test, the investigator used fixed method to confirm four factors on the BALLI. The four factors accounted for 51% of the total variance. A varimax rotation test was used to make factors more interpretable. As shown in Table 21, items with factor loadings below ± .40 in the BALLI were eliminated from the factor analysis. Q3 (.305), Q8 (.262), Q10 (-.062), Q7 (.283), Q2 (.-021), Q32 (.105), Q23 (.084), Q40 (.144), Q18 (.035), and Q30 (.160) were eliminated because their factor loadings were below ± .40. Q31 (.441) and Q29 (-.499) were eliminated because they lowered the reliability in their factor groups. Table 26 shows the final factor loading of the BALLI items.

Table 26

Rotated Factor Structure of the BALLI Variables

Items	Factor1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Q20	**.750**	.091	-.078	-.013
Q24	**.668**	.149	-.199	-.082
Q1	**.614**	.249	-.080	.074
Q38	**.608**	.204	.077	.323
Q6	**.578**	.037	.078	-.082
Q37	**.511**	.038	.068	-.098
Q17	**.476**	.126	.392	.123
Q19	**.449**	.040	-.075	.279
Q14	-.012	**.712**	-.008	.145
Q22	.177	**.684**	.274	.051
Q12	.208	**.564**	-.005	-.009
Q13	.431	**.561**	.014	-.063
Q27	-.010	**.557**	.286	-.131
Q15	.171	**.521**	.152	.120
Q11	.280	**.481**	-.336	.161
Q21	.070	.186	**.638**	-.065
Q4	-.109	.024	**.626**	-.299
Q9	-.176	-.333	**.607**	.083
Q16	.042	.184	**.529**	-.054
Q36	-.167	-.125	**.470**	.136
Q25	.362	.213	**.455**	-.116
Q39	-.097	-.184	.416	**.640**
Q35	-.007	.214	-.017	**.618**
Q34	.087	-.260	.401	**.580**
Q5	-.366	-.129	.059	**.566**
Q26	.363	.189	-.085	**.549**
Q28	.137	.053	-.084	**.542**
Q33	-.262	.171	-.023	**.497**

Note. Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax

As shown in Table 26, there were four factor groups. The researcher identified four different categories in language learning beliefs: motivation, learning preference, formal learning, and self-efficacy/confidence based on the factor loadings, which were above .40. Table 27 presents how which category beliefs are perceived more among the international students. International students believed that their motivation (*M*=4.27) was the most important factor influencing their English learning. Based on their learning preference beliefs (*M*=3.85), international student's English learning was affected. The third belief factor that influenced learners learning English was self-efficacy and confidence (*M*=3.31). The least influential belief factor held by the international students was the beliefs about formal learning (*M*=2.96).

Table 27

Reported Language Learning Beliefs Categorized by International Students

Category	International Students	
	Item	*M*
Motivation	Q1: It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language. Q6: I believe that I will learn to speak English very well. Q17: The most important part of learning English is learning vocabulary words. Q19: It is better to have teachers who are native speakers of English. Q20: If I learn to speak English very well, I will have better opportunities for a good job. Q24: I want to speak English well. Q37: People in my country feel that it is important to speak English. Q38: I would like to have English-speaking friends.	4.27
Learning Preference	Q11: It is best to learn English in an English speaking country. Q12: I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English. Q13: I enjoy practicing English with the people I meet. Q14: In order to speak English, you have to think in English. Q22: It is important to practice English with multimedia. Q27: I can learn a lot from non-native English speakers.	3.85
Formal learning	Q4: People from my country are good at learning English. Q9: You shouldn't say anything in English until you can say it	

	correctly. Q16: I have a special ability in learning English. Q21: The most important part of learning English is learning the grammar. Q25: I can learn a lot from group activities with other students in my class.	2.96
Self-efficacy	Q5: English is a difficult language to learn. Q26: I would like to learn English so that I can get to know English speakers. Q28: Learning English is different from learning other academic subjects. Q33: It is easier to read and write English than to speak and understand it. Q34: I have to spend so much time preparing for big English test, that I don't have time to actually learn English. Q35: It is important to speak English like a native speaker. Q39: I feel shy to speak English with other people.	3.31

n=84.

Research Question 4

The fourth research question of this study was "Do demographic variables such as, age, gender, academic programs, hours of studying English, TOEFL score, self-rated language proficiency, and race/ethnicity affect international students' language learning beliefs?" In order to answer this question, SPSS software was employed to perform the one-way ANOVA tests and independent sample T-tests to investigate the relationships between each demographic variable and the four different belief categories. The four belief categories were: motivation, language learning preference, formal learning, and self-efficacy/confidence. Gender did not influence the learners' English learning beliefs.

Table 28 presents whether age, academic program, hours of studying English influenced international student's overall English language learning beliefs. Although age and study hour did not affect learner's overall English learning beliefs, academic program significantly influenced student's overall English learning beliefs. An F-test revealed a statistically significance (F=3.98, p=.02) based on academic program (ESL, undergraduate, and graduate)

and the effect on their English learning beliefs. Age and how many hours international students study a day were not significant factors for learner's English learning beliefs. However, academic program was a significant factor (p= .02). International students among the three different academic programs had higher beliefs about English learning.

Table 28

F-tests for Mean Differences of the Strategy Use by Age, Academic Program, and Study Hours

Variable	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*F*	*Sig*
Age					
19-21	25	3.69	.34	1.05	.37
22-26	33	3.56	.40		
27-30	11	3.50	.33		
Above 30	15	3.60	.32		
Academic Program					
ESL	27	3.76	.32	3.97	.02*
Undergraduate	28	3.51	.36		
Graduate	29	3.53	.36		
Study Hour					
Less than 30 min	25	3.51	.35	2.02	.10
30 min- 1 hour	21	3.60	.34		
1 – 2 hours	21	3.56	.35		
2 – 3 hours	8	3.68	.37		
More than 3 hours	9	3.88	.36		

Note. n= 84
* p<.05

Table 29 shows how academic program influenced four English learning belief categories: motivation, learning preference, formal learning, and self-efficacy/confidence. As shown in Table 29, An F-test revealed statistically significant differences in beliefs in motivation (F=5.830, p=.004) among international students in three different academic programs: ESL, undergraduate, and graduate.

Table 29

F-tests for Mean Differences of the Individual Beliefs by Academic Program

Belief	Variable	*SS*	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*Sig*
Motivation	**Academic Program**					
	Between Groups	2.79	2	1.39	5.83	.004**
	Within Groups	19.39	81	.23		
	Total	22.18	83			

Note. n= 84. ** *p*<.01

Means for different academic programs are analyzed using post-hoc test such as Tukey and Scheffe. As shown in Table 30, there were differences among academic programs such as, ESL, undergraduate and graduate student's English learning beliefs about motivation. There was a significant difference in beliefs about motivation among ESL students and international undergraduate students. ESL students were more motivated in terms of English language learning than the students who were enrolled in undergraduate classes.

Table 30

Means for Beliefs Subject Groups by Academic Program

Strategies	Variable	*n*	Subject for alpha = .05	
			1	2
	Academic Program			
Motivation	ESL	27	3.76	
	Undergraduate	28		3.51
	Graduate	29	3.54	3.54

Note. n= 84
Post-hoc Method: Scheffe

Table 31 presents whether TOEFL scores, self-rated proficiency, and race/ethnicity influenced international students overall English beliefs. Self-rated proficiency and TOEFL scores did not affect learners' overall strategy use; however, international students' racial and

ethnic backgrounds significantly influenced students' overall language learning beliefs. An F-test revealed a statistically significance (F=4.418, p=.009) on the race/ethnicity affect student's English language learning beliefs.

Table 31

F-tests for Mean Differences of the Beliefs by TOEFL scores, Self-rated Proficiency, and Race/Ethnicity

Variable	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*F*	*Sig*
TOEFL SCORE					
Lower than 350	2	3.40	.60		
350-429	8	3.80	.47	.67	.612
430-499	19	3.58	.40		
500-550	29	3.61	.34		
Over 550	17	3.63	.30		
Self-rated Proficiency					
Beginner	10	3.60	.20		
Intermediate	48	3.67	.35	1.94	.150
Advanced	26	3.50	.40		
Race/Ethnicity					
Asia	52	3.50	.34		
Middle East	20	3.79	.35	4.42	.009**
South America	9	3.61	.26		
Europe	3	3.93	.35		

Note. n= 84
** p<.01

Table 32 shows how TOEFL scores, self-rated proficiency, and race/ethnicity influenced four English language learning beliefs (motivation, learning preference, formal learning, and self-efficacy/confidence). As shown in Table 27, An F-test revealed a statistically significance in beliefs in learners' self-efficacy (F=2.86, p=.063) based on international students' self-reported English proficiency: beginner, intermediate, and advanced. Also, an F-test provided a statistically significance in beliefs in learners' motivation (F=3.70, p=.015) based on learner's racial and ethnic background.

Table 32

F-tests for Mean Differences of the Beliefs Use by Self-rated Proficiency, and Race/Ethnicity

Belief	Variable	*SS*	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*Sig*
Self-efficacy	**Self-rated Proficiency**					
	Between Groups	2.55	2	1.27	2.85	.063†
	Within Groups	36.27	81	.44		
	Total	38.83	83			
Motivation	**Race/Ethnicity**					
	Between Groups	2.70	3	.90	3.70	.015*
	Within Groups	19.47	80	.24		
	Total	22.18	83			

Note. n=84
* p<.05
† p<.07 (the percentages have been rounded to the nearest tenth.)

Means for different self-rated proficiency and race/ethnicity were analyzed using Scheffe in a post-hoc test. However, there were no significant differences within variables in terms of their English language learning beliefs: self-efficacy and motivation based on self-rated proficiency and race/ethnicity.

Research Question 5

The fifth research question of this study was “Is there a relationship between the learners' beliefs about language learning and the language learning strategy use among international students?” Pearson’s *r* correlation analysis was used to determine whether there were relationships among international students language learning beliefs and language learning strategy use. The results of correlation coefficient tests between six strategy categories (cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, memory, affective, and social) and four belief categories (motivation, learning preference, formal learning, and self-efficacy/confidence) about English learning revealed a significant correlation with one another at the p<.01 level.

Table 33 presents indicate moderate correlations. International memory strategy had strong correlations with beliefs about formal learning (r=.355, p<.01) and moderate correlations with self-efficacy (r=.306, p<.01). No significant correlations were found between memory strategy and beliefs about motivation and language preference.

Cognitive strategy had a correlation with beliefs about language preference (r=.251, p<.05). Other beliefs about motivation, formal learning, and self-efficacy did not have significant correlations to cognitive strategy.

Compensation strategy had no significant correlations with any of the beliefs about motivation, language preference, formal learning, or self-efficacy.

Metacognitive had moderate correlations with beliefs about motivation ((r=.314, p<.01) and language preference (r=.436, p<.01). There was a moderate correlations between metacognitive strategy and belief about formal learning (r=.240, p<.05). No significant correlation was found between metacognitive strategy and belief about self-efficacy.

Affective strategy had moderate correlations with beliefs about formal learning (r=.344, p<.01) and beliefs about self-efficacy (r=.339, p<.01). There were no significant correlations between affective strategy and beliefs about motivation and language preference.

Social strategy had a moderate correlation with beliefs about language preference (r=.250, p<.01). There were no significant correlations between social strategy and beliefs about motivation, formal learning, and self-efficacy.

Table 33

Correlations of SILL and BALLI Factor Scores of International Students

	SMEM	SCOG	SCOM	SMET	SAFF	SSOC
BM	-.073	.033	.058	.314**	-.123	.106
BLP	.055	.251*	.087	.436**	-1.04	.250**
BFL	.355**	.097	.080	.240*	.344**	.028
BSE	.306**	.136	.202	-.067	.339**	.069

Note. Correlations are significant at **p<.01, *p<.05 (2-tailed, n=84)
SEME= Strategy Memory, SCOG= Strategy Cognitive, SCOM= Strategy Compensation, SMET= Strategy Metacognitive, SAFF=Strategy Affective, SSOC= Strategy Social.
BM=Belief Motivation, BLP=Belief Learning Preference, BFL= Belief Formal Learning, BSE=Belief Self-efficacy

Research Question 6

The follow-up interview provided findings for Research Question 6 "What factors influence international student's learning English?" Besides the four belief categories (motivation, learning preference, formal learning, and self-efficacy), the question sought to find more about English learning beliefs among international students. For the analysis of qualitative data, Atlas.ti software was used to examine emergent categories and themes from the interview data. Follow-up interview data were transcribed and coded for analysis. All names used in this study are pseudonyms.

This study used a phenomological approach to analyze the follow-up interview. By using software Atlas.ti, the investigator was able to transcribe the interview data and elicit emergent themes. Zhong (2012) explained the data analysis procedure involves:

1. Reading all of the data thoroughly multiple times to fully understand the meaning.
2. Organizing the data by unitizing them.

3. Creating a codebook and coding units.
4. Grouping the open codes based on similar themes and concepts.
5. Looking for patterns.
6. Interpreting the data.

The investigator followed this data analysis procedure in this study. The investigator transcribed the interview data for coding procedure and read the transcribed data several times thoroughly. While reading the transcribed data, the investigator highlighted key words and took notes simultaneously to comprehend general and detailed ideas of the information given by the follow-up interview participants. Using the software Atlas.ti, the investigator was able to code the data into chunks of words and phrases using open coding process. Once all the chunks of data were collected, the investigator extracted key categories and uprising themes using axial coding process. See Appendix L for the sample codebook of emerged open and axial codes for this study.

Table 34 shows the categories and axial codes that emerged from the analysis of interview transcripts: (1) beliefs about English learning situation – learning situation in their country and learning situation in the United States; (2) beliefs about English learning external factors – teachers, friends, class resources, time/practice, language exposure, tests, knowing another language, culture, error correction, and survival; (3) beliefs about English learning internal factors – motivation/desire and personality; and (4) beliefs about difficulty of English learning – accents and pronunciation and vocabulary.

Table 34

Emergent Categories and Axial Codes from Qualitative Analysis

Categories	Axial Codes
Beliefs about English learning situation	Learning situation in their country
	Learning situation in the United States
Beliefs about English learning external factors	Language exposure
	Class activities
	Time/practice
	Standardized Tests
	Knowing another language
	Culture
	Error correction
	Survival
Beliefs about English learning internal factors	Motivation/desire
	personality
Beliefs about difficulty of English learning	Accent/pronunciation
	Vocabulary

Beliefs about English Learning Situation

Learning situation in their country. Beliefs about learning situation in their country referred to the learners' overall views about English learning in their home country and their previous English learning experience.

> In my country, we focus much on grammar and the we have reading and listening also, but main focus in my country is on grammar not reading and listening. That is why we have some problems…I feel comfortable using correct grammar… she (English teacher) was mainly teaching us about grammar and actually I don't blame them because during university they taking grammar and teaching them how to teach grammar not how to teach reading or how to do listening or anything

> else. So…it was mainly grammar. Ah..not everyone is good in grammar because some teacher doesn't know how to teach grammar or doesn't even care about English language. (Mary)
>
> Especially high school that would be a very poor quality, I guess. And in my country, English is not spoken by many people. Most people learn it in school but they learn it in a very poor way since don't use it in real life…there are many places where people mainly speak Russian, so they don't need to use it, so they forget it. (Tom)
>
> I am not a good student in China, so I can't represent the students level so…so for me almost Chinese students are good at grammar. They are not good at speaking English because they are taking exams. It just has no speaking section so they are good at grammar and reading. For me, while I was in the primary school like the three grade or third grade we have to study English. But teachers English skills are not that professional, I think. So in class, we just speak Chinese and we seldom speak in English. That is why I think most of the students are not good at English, I think. (Mark)
>
> In China, English class is a must from high school to college. I don't think that studies make me like this…but there is something basic grammar and words like that which makes me speak it is actually when I was in college, I had an opportunity to study or work experience in overseas and then I take some preparing TOEFL and GRE.. (Mike)
>
> Jordan is one of the countries that require English for the CV and applying for ant work over there. This is new. We didn't have that. (Mary)
>
> If it (English) were important, then many people would learn it. If you come, let's say come to the Western Europe. When I came to Stockholm, for example, all the people I spoke to spoke English, even beggars. They spoke English. If you come to Moscow, you speak to them in English, I would guess in about 80-85% probably would stare at you or they would say some basic English words like "what" or "sorry" like that. (Tom)
>
> We have English test…I think teachers probably go through the passage like what is the main idea of this and about the whole passage. And they may talk about individual paragraphs more details like structures setences and words how we use it. Give some tips which is easy to make mistakes. And sometimes we just focus on analyzing the grammar or analyzing the vocabulary. Just like that. (Mike)

Most of the participants reported that grammar and reading class were the core lesson in English class in their home country. Also, Mary, Mark, and Tom expressed how English classes in their country had problems and teachers were not able to teach English very well.

Learning situation in the United States. Beliefs about learning situation in the United States referred to the learners' overall views about English learning in their academic programs (ESL, undergraduate, and graduate) and how new English learning experience is different from their previous English learning experience.

> I mean in the ESL program, all the students are from different countries. They are not native speakers, so I think the environment is more comfortable for me than the regular course. The regular course, you just take the classes with native speakers so they can understand more than you. I mean sometimes I can't catch the teachers' points exactly. (Mark)

> I became a good student after coming to America because teachers in the ESL program help you learn. They don't just leave you alone. In my country, teachers don't care about you if you are not a good student. Here, I have to do my homework and so many…many group work. Friends are from all all different countries. It is more fun. I can speak to them more because they understand me. (Amy)

> First I chose school to learn English because the best thing to learn English at that time I think I thought it is school so I chose school … if I go to school I have to speak English I have to write a report so…ESL program and kind of it was a good experience..I mean I don't know English at all at that time I just say "yes" and "thank you" just two words but it was really good chance for me to familiarize with English. At that time my English was really really horribly but yeah..I think that was a good experience to kind of retouch and relearn basic of the English. (Julie)

> First year was listening to professors giving lectures cause when they give the lecture, I have to understand it immediately and write it down. So I got used to that. Actually, before I came here, I had already been to United States, so it was an easier transition than if I hadn't been here. I was already exposed to the native speech. (Tom)

According to Amy, taking English classes in the United States was more fun and helped her become a better student. Also, most of the participants expressed that taking English class was a positive experience for them. However, Mary had a challenging experience studying English in the United States since she was a graduate student who needed to focus more on academic English than everyday English.

> I expect my teachers to give me more time to offer to give my ideas and to explain what I am going to do or what I think. I need more time from them. I mean not more time to think. I need more time to answer the questions. A regular time to answer the question is about 30 seconds. I need maybe 1 minute to explain because of my vocabulary. I don't have so much terminology. I have language but not terminology… I was around the people much time and I was trying to get in groups but Americnas not helpful to learning English. (Mary)

Beliefs about English Learning External Factors

External factors. Beliefs about English learning external factors referred to a variety of external factors that had an apparent impact on learners' English learning. Exposing to English was one of the important factors that influenced their English learning. Mary said that "I listen to music. A lot of music. And I try to read the words of the music and sing it again and memorize it. That was the most helpful thing I did to learn English." Similar to Mary, Amy also watched TV shows and movies to improve her English.

> When I have free time, I like to watch English movies with subtitles. Because it really helped. I mean words were kind of exposed to me. I mean romantic movies, the contents are not easy, I mean difficult, right? So in this case, I can know American people say like that. I learned normal sentence, expression. And subtitles have word spelling, so I kinda learned spelling, too. This is not r but starts with l stuff like that. Spontaneously exposed to that. I think that helped me. (Amy)

Julie and Mike mentioned the importance of socializing with American friends to improve their English since they believe American friends will correct their mistakes.

> My major demand a lot of group work so I kinda have a lot of chance to meet American people as a group progject. So for example, comparing to accounting majors, I have a lot of chances to speak American people for several projects so first time it was really stressful… but I kinda learn what the younger generation speak way, the way younger generation speak. Also kind of new term I could learn a lot of things and expressions. (Julie)

> If you have American friends, I think it is more practical. If you make some mistakes, they can correct you. I think this is kinda important because when you talk to people from the same country or same thing, you are going to make the same mistkaes over and over again. But when you talk to American people, so they can correct you if you use wrong words and wrong expression. (Mike)

Mary and Tom had a negative opinion about having American friends to help them improve their English. They mentioned that having non-native English speakers can help them learn English. Also, the culture plays an important role in learning English. Culture can play both positively and negatively.

> I tried to make American friends but they are not helpful…they always ignore your mistakes. I want them to correct my mistakes. I need it because when I am talking, no one correct you then you will continue using it because you think you are right. For me I want it. There are students may be confusing. They are maybe embarrassed but for me yes. I want it. Actually I also like to join conversation clubs to communicate in English with more American friends but it is not easy. (Mary)

> You know Americans don't understand you so you don't feel comfortable. When you walk on the street, you can see Asian group, and white group, and black people group. So I think it is culture. Because I don't know what to talk to American people. I don't know the topic. I think talking to non-native speakers is easy because we have the same backgrounds. I mean our official language is not English. So maybe we have to same problem. And that makes me feel more comfortable (Tom)

Julie and Amy mentioned the importance of knowing English culture in order to successfully learn English and socialize with other people.

> Like I never hear tailgate party when I was in Korea or study Japanese. What is tailgate party? That was the first word I learned after coming to America, so if I have never got the chance of tailgate party, I am never gonna memorize that word. I know the culture. What is football, tailgate party, so I could memorize them. So I think I have to know the culture to improve my English. I think the best way to learn English I mean learn the culture…like my classmate has a home party in her apartment, so they invite me so I go to their party, so I can learn how people party in America and what foods they eat and so on. So I can learn new words and expressions at the party. (Julie)

> Knowing the culture is very important. If you are interested in the culture, first you will learn it with pleasure with interests, and second you learn more things. I read about culture, let's say before 2001, 2002, 2003, some of my friends visited the United States, and I was curious about it, so I was looking up some materials about it (Amy)

Error correction was one of the most prominent external factors the participants expressed during their interview. All of the participants wanted their friends or teachers to correct their errors so that they did not make the same mistakes again.

> I think every time I make mistakes, people have to correct me. I think if they correct my mistakes….then…I can change that next time so I don't make same mistake again. I think it is very important not to make the same mistakes. I will really appreciate that. (Mike)

> I know sometimes I make mistakes again and again because I don't know if I make mistakes. But my teachers know that I make mistakes….so they should correct me. That is their job. If I say something wrong, I never learn. So….someone should correct me then I don't make the same mistake again. (Mark)

> I feel I improve more when someone points out my mistakes. If they don't do that, I will be making the same mistakes again which is a terrible cycle. I think that is why when you take ESL classes, teachers correct you, but in regular classes, they don't care if you make mistakes or not as long as you can communicate with them. But for me….I want my teachers and American friends to correct me. (Tom)

> I feel shy when I make the errors in my speaking and people don't correct me. I think most of the time, my American friends don't correct me because they think they embarrass me…but I tell them to correct me, but they don't do that easily. Only when I ask them "is this right?" they tell me. I don't know why. (Amy)

Mike and Mary explained the importance of practicing and taking more time to learn English. Sometimes they were under a lot of pressure to express their opinions when they needed more time to organize their thoughts before talking to other people.

> Practice is the way to learn English and person like me…I don't like to read much, so it will be a very good opportunity to meet and learn new words to communicate and to try to use the right phrase and right place. You can't find everything in books. If you only learn from books and don't practice, you will never improve because you don't know how to use it. So…practicing with people or online classes….or emails with people. They are all very important. (Mary)

> Practice and practice. In the beginning, there were some skills I need to practice like some of them were like when you walk on the road, you have nothing to think about. Your mind is wandering. For example, I am going back home from school. I say 'ah..I am tired.' 'I have to do another homework.' I say these

> sentences in my mind in Chinese. At that time, I say to myself. If I want to say that in English, how can I say that? So I organize that in English. (Mike)

> At the beginning, you just come up with some words how to connect them together but if you do more, you connect them together. Because I understand this way because these sentences are daily expression daily basis and actually based on your experiences by own. So you talk to your friend today was a tough day then you are already practicing. Your mind became an action. (Mike)

Mike focused on the importance of translation and how translating was inevitable when learning English.

> When I am working on some stuff that I don't know very well…I translate from my mother language to English. At first I did that translate from my mother language to English and back and forth but now I try not to do that but I can't help it. I always think in Chinese first and then in my mind I translate to English. If I don't do that, I can say basic daily expressions but not my homework or school work. (Mike)

Julie stated that translation from one language was inevitable, but her case was little bit different. Since English was her third language, she first translate to Japanese and then to English. She believed that process hinders her improving speaking ability in English.

> I cannot speak naturally. As a foreigner, when I want to speak something, I just…first step is I think of Korean, and unfortunately the second step is I spontaneously translate that in Japanese. It doesn't matter if I want it or not. Just my brain work that way. And then I translate that into English. So I think that is why my spoken English never improves. (Julie)

All the participants believed that standardized tests like the TOEFL and IELTS were important factors to enhance their English learning and adequate instruments to measure their academic English ability.

> I think standardized tests accurately measures my ability because there are a lot of reading sections and you have to work on and does not easy for me. So in order to get high score, you have to study different sections like reading, grammar, listening, writing and so on … if you get high score that means you have high ability. (Tom)

> Generally, for some people got a high score on TOEFL or TOEIC test, their English is better than lower score people. I think so. Because as I said, vocabulary

> is important so probably they know more vocabulary than the lower scored people. So generally I could say. I can't say 100% sure for the spoken English skill but generally I think so. (Julie)
>
> It tries to. It presents most general situations and the speaking has to be like most mundane and most everyday type. But reading and listening are very academic, so if students score high on these two areas, their academic English…I mean they have the vocabulary and comprehension is already there. (Mike)
>
> Hmm. I think part of it it is. Part of it. I mean for example, you have to get 6.5 to 7 on IELTS. There is no big differences. But if you compare 6 and 7, there is a difference. So, I mean not that accurately but roughly you can tell them. (Amy)

Beliefs about English Learning Internal Factors

Internal Factors. Beliefs about English learning internal factors consisted of two categories. Motivation/desire and personality. Mike stressed on the importance of motivation and how it is the key to one's English learning success.

> What I want, I need to kind of use English and learn it because this is the motivation there because the motivation is the basic step I mean. So I think this is part of the things benefited me. (Mike)
>
> I wanted to learn English. Always I wanted to learn it. (Mike)
>
> People in China talk about learning environment is important… I think it is part of it, but I don't think it is major part of it… because people in your home country, they can speak excellent English, it doesn't matter if they have a good learning environment or program because I think…yes..there are certain skills for surely but it is more about the motivation of yourself. (Mike)
>
> When I was working at a company, there were a lot of colleagues there…they area also graduated from school so they have some basic skills from school like me, but you can see some differences like some of them are practicing really hard and some are not even trying. Some people improve, some people stay the same where they start. (Mike)
>
> Myself is the most important when it comes to learn English. Because I have to do more efforts to be around the world and get out from my house. (Mary)
>
> I was very interested in learning English. So I was mainly at that time interested in studying English so, uh, I took English course. (Mark)

> I think I have to study English. No books and things can help me if I don't want. After living here for six month, I got so lazy, so I didn't want to go out and practice English, stayed home and doing nothing. Sometimes didn't go to school. I don't know why…why..but I just didn't want to do it. I just felt so lazy. (Amy)
>
> I have to change. If I want to graduate and make my family happy… and getting a degree from the US is a privilege. I want that to happen so badly. So I have the motivation to keep trying hard and hard. (Amy)
>
> I came here to study English because that is what I really want to do. Also, if I speak English very well, I can get a better job and make more money. I want to be happy. I think if I speak English like native speaker, I will feel more happy. Sometime I get disappointed because I cannot express myself. Then I go home and promise myself to study harder. (Mary)

Mike specified how personality could be a crucial factor in learning English. People who were outgoing were likely to practice English more than people who were reserved.

> You have to be more open-minded. Like don't be afraid to show yourself. Be confident to talk to other people. A lot of people are just shy and for example, my boss when he hired new undergraduate students, he talk about what to do and talk about policies and ask them if they have any questions. But they are so quiet. Why? That doesn't mean they have no questions. They understand everything, but they want to show him they are compatible to do the work, and they don't want to show their weakness, which is maybe I didn't understand you or I cannot speak very fluently, or my accent is bad. (Mike)
>
> I am sometimes jealous of people who are very outgoing and not afraid of making mistakes. For me, I always worry about making mistakes and….afraid to talk to people because I don't want to be stupid. Some of my friends from Arabic countries they speak very well even though they make many mistakes. I don't think they care about that, but they just talk talk and talk. Sometimes they talk more than teachers in class. But for me…I am shy and not social. I only talk to people I feel comfortable. I don't like to talk in front of many people. Maybe…reason why I don't speak very well English…I want to change it but very hard. (Amy)
>
> I have many personalities. When I speak my language, I act different. When I speak English I become different person. I don't know why. I become more active when I talk in English. Because I like to copy how other people talk so I follow that people. Also, you know my voice changes when I talk. I get high tone and more girlish. I did not know that…but…when I talk, my friends tell me I sound different. I guess I am a different person when I speak English. (Mark)

> If you want to improve your English, I think…hmm… you have to socialize with people. If you are friendly and easy going, you make more friends, then when you need help…people help you more. Hmmm… I don't know what is the most important thing to improve your English….but I think your willingness to try. If you are willing to try new things, then everything becomes easy. I had a friend who always went to library alone to study. I mean it is ok if that is your style…but I think you have to be social. (Mary)

Beliefs about Difficulty of English Learning

Accent/pronunciation. All participants mentioned how different English accents and pronunciation can become a hindrance when they learn English. Their previous English learning experiences in their country hinder their understanding of English in the United States.

> If you listen to Russian teacher speaking English, that is very heavily accented version so that that kind of English will not help you understand native speakers' English. (Tom)

> If you have a slight accent, that is ok because that is where you come from. People here have an accent which is different from let's say Boston. But if your English is heavily accented and that accent is non-native, that means some American can understand British accent or Australian accent, but they will probably have a hard time understanding let's say Vietnamese accent because English is not a native language for Vienamese people… If you have a heavy foreign accent, that would impede undertstanding. (Tom)

> Actually the main English accent we learn in Jordan is British accent. So English accent is very difficult to understand for me in America. (Mary)

> My Korean English teacher spoke English with very very what do you say…strange way. But at that time, I thought her pronunciation was right, so I repeated after her. Now, people cannot understand me here because I have strange accent. I hate it. But I think most of the foreign students come with different accent so…I don't know. But... accent is not good because it bothers me when I talk to people. Sometimes I write down the word and my American friend say something so differently. (Amy)

What was eminently common among those participants was the how Southern accents was the most difficult aspect in their learning English in the United States. The accents they encountered in their classroom and stores outside of campus were two complete different accents

of which they had to acknowledge. Also, Julie stated how African American Vernacular (AAV) is more difficult to understand since African Americans have very heavy accents.

> In the beginning, I couldn't get the Southern accent. I couldn't even get the teacher was telling me very fast and students like me were not able to catch everything. (Mary)
>
> The main problem I discovered over here is the accent. I never felt and imagined there are so many accents. That was the major problem not language but accents. (Mary)
>
> Sometimes I cannot understand what people say when I go to the stores. I get panic because I understand what teachers and classmates say in class, but I cannot understand what clerks say in Walmart. I say clearly but they don't understand me and I don't understand me. (Julie)
>
> I can never understand African Americans. Like 80% I cannot understand. They speak unclearly yeah so when they speak something, always they speak inside their mouth. So I can't understand mostly. (Julie)
>
> I worked in New York during the summer for my internship. There are so many people with different accents. There are many Asians and foreigners in New York. I worked with them. I had no problem understanding them. We could communicate perfectly. But coming back to South, I felt people spoke very differently with strange accent. I have to ask them more than twice to understand what they ask. I feel people here have different accent than people in New York which makes me more difficult….and I felt my English was not good because my listening was bad. (Julie)
>
> I did group work with American people. There were four including me. Two white Americans and one African American. I didn't understand anything what African American classmate said. I felt really bad but I really didn't understand anything he said. I said "sorry?" "repeat, please" so many times, I was really embarrassed to ask again. I don't know why I can understand white Americans but not African Americans. That's very weird. (Mark)
>
> I try to avoid phone conversation here. I can understand their accent better when I talk to them person, but when I talk to them on the phone, I understand 20 % what he says… I don't know why people here have strange accent outside of school. (Amy)
>
> I have noticed accents vary here. I don't know that or maybe I didn't notice this in Russia about that, well, accent vary when you go from big cities to very small towns. Here it seems like people speak with different accents. For example, I perfectly understand and perfectly have understood since I have been here for six

> years. My teachers, my professors, but I have a hard time understanding some, you know, bus drivers, something I can't make out what they say, some people sell stuff in a store, you know. Sometimes they address me and I say "what?" "Sorry?" But I still have a hard time understanding them sometimes. (Tom)

Interestingly, participants believed that their pronunciation represent their English proficiency. Having a native-like pronunciation means their English was better than other people. In order to improve their pronunciation they mimicked native speakers' pronunciation and accents.

> I always watched how Asian people communicate with native speakers because I like to observe their accent. When you are really good at language you can have perfect accent. I mean not really perfect, but it sounds very good and speak fluently. And I am so jealous of them. (Mark)

> I have some friends studying and came to America since they were in high school, so they study high school in America. So their English is better than us because their accent is really good. (Mark)

> When you speak in English, if you have a clear accent and pronunciation, you have more confidence because people can understand you more and can make more friends because you can communicate with them without problems. (Mary)

> I have a lot of international friends who speak English very well but in my opinion, people with good pronunciation is easy to understand. (Julie)

> My husband who is a native speaker pointed out this pronunciation not correct so ridiculous and so funny. He sometimes say that, but I tried to change that but it is hard. I change the sound the sound …I sound really weird. (Julie)

> Maybe people say my pronunciation is good, so they think I speak English very well. Honestly…I don't think so. But people always tell me "wow, your pronunciation is really good." I feel good, but my friends have better pronunciation and they speak better English. (Amy)

> I think it is really hard to change your pronunciation and foreign accent once you have it…I mean if you look at old professors who is from China or other countries. They lived here very long and very smart but they have strange accent so it is really hard to understand them. I think if … if you really try…may..I don't know but maybe you can change it…but I think it is very very hard. (Tom)

> I sometimes watch movies and stop and repeat what they said to practice my pronunciation. Sometimes my English teacher corrects my pronunciation but I

> forget it very fast, so I need to practice more and more to have good pronunciation. (Mark)
>
> I tried to obtain native speakers' pronunciation. (Tom)

Vocabulary learning. It was another difficulty when it comes to learning English. All the participants have stated the importance of vocabulary learning, but they did not know how to improve vocabulary.

> I know vocabulary is very important, so I memorized many words three times a day. In the morning, in the noon, in the night. Repeat again and again. Some words I can use them, but some words are not daily words, so I don't use them every day, so I forget them. And vocabulary learning is really not fun. You spend time memorizing them and forget them so fast. (Mark)
>
> Because of vocabulary. Sometimes you have to explain so long to explain one terminology. Americans will say speed, but I have to say what is speed until to reach my point. So I can use traveling amount of time instead of telling the word speed just speed. (Mary)
>
> I read books to understand new words. But the problem is that I forget them the next day so I have to start over again. Also, some of the academic words I never use in daily life. (Julie)
>
> Some people say I have poor vocabulary. (Tom)

However, all the participants believe that vocabulary learning is really important to improve their English. They stated that knowing more vocabulary will help them do better in school and communicate with people with more confident.

> It is important whether it is general vocabulary or special vocabulary. If it is special vocabulary, it is something whether you work with or something you are familiar with. For example, if I am a physicist, I have to know Physics terms – the special vocabulary. But if I am a physicist and you are talking about, I don't know, political science, I may not be familiar with something and I think that is pretty normal. But knowing more vocabulary will help you communicate with people better. (Tom)
>
> I wish I know more words to express myself sometimes. I feel after living here for two years, my listening skills have improved but my speaking skill is still the same. I think part of it is because of my lack of vocabulary skill. I am used to use

> the same words I know so I don't try to learn new words. If I know more words, I can do better in school since I can explain things better. (Mary)

Summary

In this chapter, both quantitative and qualitative data contributed to present answers to the research questions of this study: (1) What are the language-learning strategies used by international students at a four-year institution?, (2) Do demographic variables such as, gender, age, academic programs, hours of studying English, TOEFL score, self-rated language proficiency, and race/ethnicity affect international students' language learning strategies?, (3) What are the language learning beliefs of international students at a four-year institution?, (4) Do demographic variables such as, gender, age, academic programs, hours of studying English, TOEFL score, self-rated language proficiency, and race/ethnicity affect international students' language learning beliefs?, (5) Is there a relationship between the learners' beliefs about language learning and the language learning strategy use among international students?, and (6) What are international students' English learning beliefs?

To answer the Research Question 1, out of the 85 students, 53 students used many different strategies to enhance their learning, and 31 students reported to have used a moderate amount of strategy use in their English learning. The most frequently used strategy was social (M=3.79) and metacognitive (M=3.69). The least frequently used ones were memory (M=2.83) and affective (2.66). Overall, all of the participants reported to have used different strategies to improve their English learning.

To answer the Research Question 2, while age and academic programs did not affect learners' overall strategy use, study hour significantly influenced student's overall strategy use (F= 3.54, p=.01). Also, depending on how many hours learners study a day affected learner's memory strategy (F= 3.40, p=.013) and affective strategy use (F= 4.50, p=.003). TOEFL score

significantly influenced student's overall strategy use (F= 3.64, p=.009). International students who scored between above 350 used more memory and metacognitive strategies than the students who scored lower than 350.

To answer Research Question 3, factor analysis was conducted to find four factor groups. International students believed that their motivation (M=4.29) was the most important factor influencing their English learning. The least influential belief was the beliefs about formal learning (M=2.96).

To answer Research Question 4, while academic program and age did not affect learner's overall English learning beliefs, study hour significantly influenced student's overall English learning belief. (F= 3.98, p=.02). Also, race/ethnicity influenced learners' English learning beliefs (F= 4.42, p=.01).

To answer Research Question 5, the result of correlation coefficient tests between six strategies and four beliefs about English learning found some correlations at the p<.01 level. Memory strategy had a strong correlation with beliefs about formal learning r= .355, p<.01) and self-efficacy (r= .306 p<.01). Also, cognitive strategy had a correlation with beliefs about language preference (r= .251, p<.05). Compensation strategy had no significant correlations with any of the beliefs about English learning. Metacognitive had strong correlations with beliefs about motivation (r= .314 p<.01) and language preference (r= .436 p<.01). Affective strategy had strong correlations with beliefs about formal learning (r= .344 p<.01) and self-efficacy (r= .339 p<.01). Social strategy had a strong correlation with beliefs about language preference (r= .250 p<.01).

To answer Research Question 6, there were four emergent categories of learner's English learning beliefs: (1) Beliefs about English learning situation, (2) Beliefs about English learning

external factors, (3) Beliefs about English learning internal factors, and (4) Beliefs about difficulty of English learning (See Appendix L).

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents the summary of this study, conclusions based on the data analysis, implications of the findings and results, and recommendations for the future research.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the English language learning beliefs and English language learning strategies used by international students at a four-year institution. It will also examine the relationship between English language learning beliefs and the English language learning strategies. For instance, how the learners' language learning beliefs influenced the choice of what language learning strategy use they employed and vice versa. To illustrate, students who believe in memorization tend to make an effort to spend more time memorizing new words or grammar rules from textbooks; while, students who believe that spending more time with native speakers will improve their English skills and will be more likely to make friends with whom they can practice English. The study will also determine if background variables such as gender, self-rated English proficiency, TOEFL score, race/ethnicity, and the academic program in which students are enrolled, influenced learners' beliefs about language learning and their use of language strategies.

This study employed four questionnaires in order to investigate international students', studying at a four-year institution, language learning beliefs and English learning strategies. The four questionnaires used in this study were: the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL,

ESL/EFL 7.0 version) by Oxford (1990), the Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI, ESL/EFL version) by Horwitz (1987), the Individual Background Questionnaire (IBQ), and the follow-up interview questionnaire adopted from Zhong (2012).

Research Questions

In order to reach the goals of this study, the following research questions were addressed:

1. What are the language-learning strategies used by international students at a four-year institution?
2. Do demographic variables such as, gender, age, academic programs, hours of studying English, TOEFL score, self-rated language proficiency, and race/ethnicity affect international student's language learning strategies?
3. What are the language learning beliefs of international students at a four-year institution?
4. Do demographic variables such as, gender, age, academic programs, hours of studying English, TOEFL score, self-rated language proficiency, and race/ethnicity affect international student's language learning beliefs?
5. Is there a relationship between the learner's beliefs about language learning and the language learning strategy use among international students?
6. What factors influence international student's learning English?

Summary

The current study used a mixed-method research design. In order to examine international students' language strategy uses and their language learning beliefs, two online questionnaires, the SILL (Oxford, 1990) and the BALLI (Horwitz, 1987) were distributed to international students who were taking the IEP classes, undergraduate courses, and graduate

courses. The purpose of using the SILL was to investigate international students' English learning strategy uses, and the purpose of using the BALLI was to determine international students' English learning beliefs. There were more male students (*n*=52) than female students (*n*=32) who participated in the online survey. Among the 84 participants, 27 were from the IEP classes, 28 were from undergraduate classes, and 29 were from the graduate classes. Seventy five participants took the TOEFL test, and 54.7% of the participants who took the TOEFL test scored over 500, which refers to participant's high intermediate proficiency level. There were 52 Asians, 20 Middle Eastern, nine South Americans, and 3 Europeans.

Once international students, who were over 19 years old, voluntarily completed the online survey, they had an option to decide to participate in a follow-up interview, which would provide additional insights of learner's language learning beliefs and strategy use. There were nineteen participants who volunteered to participate in the follow-up interview, but only ten responded to the follow-up interview e-mail invitation. The investigator then selected six participants based on their academic program, race/ethnicity, and gender to diversify the ratio of the participants.

The quantitative data were analyzed by using the SPSS software employing different statistical descriptive analyses, one-way ANOVA analyses, t-test analyses, factor analyses, Pearson *r* correlation analysis, and Scheffe post-hoc tests. The qualitative data were transcribed and analyzed using a phenomenological approach. The investigator analyzed the data using coding technique to elicit emergent themes. This chapter presents a discussion of the findings of the data analyses, conclusions, implications, and recommendations for future research.

Discussion

Online Survey

Research Question 1. The first research question identified language learning strategies used by international students. International students who participated in this study reported to have used different English learning strategies to enhance their learning. According to Oxford (1990), a mean score in the range above 3.5 on all the SILL questions was consider reflecting high use of a given strategy, 2.5 to 3.4 showed moderate use, and below 2.4 indicated low use of strategy. In this study, 63.1% of international students used six different strategies (cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, memory, affective, and social) to enhance their English learning. Thirty six point nine percent of the participants reported to have used moderate use. It was apparent that all the participants have used different strategies frequently to improve their English.

Among the six categories of strategies, international students used social, metacognitive, compensation, and cognitive strategies more frequently than memory and affective strategies. O'Mally and Chamot (1990) revealed that metacognitive strategies were hierarchical skills that involved planning, organizing, monitoring, and evaluating. The responses from Julie and Mike from the follow-up interview indicated that the importance of using social and metacognitive strategies to improve English. They both highlighted the importance of socializing with American friends who could help them correct their mistakes and improve their vocabulary and expressions. International students were more likely to socialize with people to practice English and learn new culture in order to adapt to the new society. They were also constantly seeking out ways to improve their English.

Oxford and Ehrman (1995) found that compensation strategy to be the most frequently used strategies among 520 EFL learners. Similarly, studies with EFL students from different linguistics settings reported to have the compensation strategies to be the most or the second most popular strategies (Al-Otaibi, 2004; Bremner, 1998; Chou, 2002; Kim, 2001; Lee, 1998; Mullin, 1992; Wang. 1996; Wharton, 2000; Yang, 1992). Studies in ESL contexts also found that compensation strategy to be popular among ESL students (Chnag, 1990; Osani, 2000; Philips, 1991). Indeed, all these previously mentioned studies either in EFL or ESL settings reported that English learners selected the compensation strategy to be their one of the most popular strategies to use when learning English. Like the aforementioned studies, this study also found that compensation strategy to be the second most frequently used strategy by international students. International students relied on compensation strategy such as making gestures and making guesses in order to make communicate with people. Compensation strategy uses are encouraged in classroom since "making informed guesses is strongly encouraged because of the test-oriented nature of learning environment" (Hong, 2006, p. 151). International students, who were taking the IEP classes prepared to take the TOEFL tests in order to enter University, and undergraduate and graduate students, taking the test in their second language, had to make informed guesses in order to answer questions. If they did not make guesses, use synonyms and clues, and get extra help, they might have had a difficult time performing in their classes.

International students preferred to use cognitive strategies, related to practicing, reasoning, analyzing, and summarizing ideas. Oxford (1990) indicated that language learners tended to use cognitive strategies the most since cognitive strategies could be the crucial part in a new language learning, for it allows learners to manipulate and use the input immediately. The response from Amy from the follow-up interview confirms this finding. She explained that

whenever she had free time, she watched TV shows in English with subtitles so that she could be exposed to the language and learned new words and even spellings.

The least used strategy by international students was affective, which involved dealing with positive and negative feelings while studying English. International students in this study did not use many stress-dealing strategies. This might be due to the other factors such as, different learning situations, educational settings, and learning stages (Ehrman, Leaver, & Oxford, 2003; Mcintyre, 1994).

Research Question 2. The second research question examined if demographic variables such as, age, gender, academic program, hours of studying English, TOEFL score, self-rated language proficiency, and race/ethnicity affected international students' language learning strategies. Some researchers such as, Green and Oxford (1995), Oxford and Nyikos (1989), and Politzer (1983) reported that females used more strategies than males. However, researchers such as, Hashim and Sahil (1994), Wharton (2000), Kim (2001), and Chou (2002) revealed that there were no significant differences between gender. Similarly, the result of this study revealed that there were no statistically significant differences between males and females. Therefore, the findings of this study concluded that international student's language learning strategies were not affected by gender.

In terms of academic program, there was no statistically significant difference among he academic programs (IEP, undergraduate, and graduate) and overall language learning strategy use despite some studies such as Chang (1990), Chou (2002), Mullins (1992), Oxford and Nyikos (1989), Yang (1992), Osanai (2000), and Politzer and McGorarty (1983) who found that academic programs had a strong influence on strategy use. However, the previous studies divided the academic programs based on the majors and departments rather than the IEP,

undergraduate, and graduate level courses. Even though there was no significant effects on overall strategy use among academic programs, there were statistically significant effect on certain strategy categories such as, metacognitive strategy and affective strategy among academic programs.

Oxford (1990) indicated that cognitive strategies were crucial in language learning and were considered to be one of the most popular strategies among adult learners. However in the current study, adult English learners in different academic programs did not prefer using cognitive strategies. Instead, international students in these three different programs preferred using metacognitive and affective strategies to improve their English. Among three different programs, there were no significant differences between undergraduate and graduate students, but there was a significant difference between ESL students and undergraduate and graduate students. A possible reason for the ESL students to use more metacognitive and affective strategies can be explained by the nature of English learning environment. ESL classes require students to monitor their own English learning through different classroom activities and take more chances to talk about their English progress with other students and teachers. In contrast, international students who are taking regular academic classes tend to spend more time studying their major subjects than English language itself.

International students overall English learning strategy uses were affected by how many hours they spent a day to study English outside of their regular classes. Among the six different strategy categories, memory strategy and affective strategy were affected the most by the number of hour studying English. There was a statistically significant difference among international students who studied more than 30 minutes every day than the students who studied less than 30 minutes on memory and affective strategy uses.

The findings of the previous studies such as, AlOtaibi (2004), Bremner (1998), Chou (2002), Wharton (2000), and Yang (1992) indicated that Asian students have strong preferences for memory strategies. Similarly, international students in this study spent more time outside of their class studying English and using more memory strategies to memorize new vocabulary, expression, and class materials to prepare for their tests. One possible reason for this result is that more than 50 % of the participants in this study were Asians.

The findings of the current study revealed that there was no statistically significant difference among international student's overall strategy uses by self-rated English proficiency despite previous studies such as, Bremner (1998), Green and Oxford (1995), Griffiths (2003), Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995), Wharton (2000), Sheory (1999), and Park (1997) who reported that self-rated English proficiency influenced learner's language learning strategy use. However, among six different strategy categories, the findings of the current study indicated that there was a significant difference among learners who identified themselves as beginner, intermediate, and advanced learner. These three different groups of learners used more compensation strategies than the other strategies to improve their English.

Park's (1995) study revealed that there was a linear relationship between strategy use and language proficiency measured by the TOEFL test. The findings of Park's (1995) study indicated that higher language proficiency learners used more strategies than the lower language proficiency learners. Similarly, Wharton (2000) and Griffiths (2003) revealed in their studies that advance learners used more strategies. In this study, there was also a statistically significant difference among international students' language learning strategy use based on their TOEFL score. The findings of this study indicated that the international students who scored more than 350 on the TOEFL test used more metacognitive and memory strategies than the students who

scored below 350. O'Malley et al. (1985) explained in their study that students from all different levels claimed to have used different strategies, but higher level students use more metacognitive strategies.

One possible reason for international students who scored higher on the TOEFL test to use more metacognitive and memory strategies is because intermediate and advanced level students spend more time evaluating and controlling their own learning. Also, they need to use more memory skills to memorize test taking strategies and new words to do well on the test, so they rely on memorization skills to get higher scores on tests.

Research Question 3. The third research question identified language learning beliefs of international students. International students who participated in this study reported to have strong English learning beliefs. Based on the factor analysis, four categories of English learning beliefs were found. They were motivation, learning preference, formal learning, and self-efficacy. A mean score in the range above 3.5 on all the BALLI questions was considered to be a reflection of strong language learning beliefs, 2.5 to 3.4 showed moderate language learning beliefs, and below 2.4 indicated weak language learning beliefs. In this study, 60.7% of international students had strong English learning beliefs related to motivation, learning preference, formal learning, and self-efficacy. Thirty nine point three percent of the participants reported to have moderate English learning beliefs related to motivation, learning preference, formal learning, and self-efficacy. It was apparent that all the participants believed that motivation, learning preference, formal learning, and self-efficacy affected their English learning.

Based on the findings of this study, English learning beliefs related to motivation was reported as the strongest belief held by international students. This finding was similar to

previous studies by Daib (2000), Kim-Yoon (2000), Park (1995), and Truitt (1995). Since international students who came here to study English have a strong desire to learn English to succeed in their academic career or personal satisfaction, they rated motivation the highest. From the follow-up interview data, Mike emphasized the importance of motivation and how it was the key to his success. Also, most of the international students who participated in this study were from Asia and Middle East where English education has become very important recently. Their main goal in studying English is to get their degrees and either find a job in the United States or in their home country. International students in this study wanted to make English-speaking friends and get to know them better.

International students in this study rated beliefs about learning preference as high. They believed that it was best to learn English in an English speaking country since they could interact with other people who spoke English and be more exposed to the language. They also believed practicing English with other people is very important in learning English.

Another highly rated English learning belief was about self-efficacy and confidence. Many international students indicated that they had low confidence in learning English. Based on the follow-up interview data, Mike stated the importance of having an outgoing personality in order to practice English with other people. He stated that “I am sometimes jealous of people who are very outgoing and not afraid of making mistakes. For me, I always worry about making mistakes.” Like Mike, many international students who participated in this study reported to have low self-efficacy and did not believe that self-efficacy was an important factor in learning English.

International students were asked to rate whether English language was a difficult language to learn, and the findings indicated that they did not strongly believe that English was a

difficult language to learn. Other studies by Diab (2000), Kim-Yoon (2000), Kunt (1997), Park (1995), Truitt (1995), and Yang (1992) indicated that students believed that English was a medium difficult to difficult language to learn.

The least strongly believed language learning belief held by international students was beliefs about formal learning. International students who participated in this study believed that learning grammar was not important. However, studies by Diab (2000) and Kunt (1997) revealed that the students in their studies believed that learning the grammar was very important. One way of explaining why international students in this study believed that grammar lessons were not really important was due to the fact that more than half of the participants were taking undergraduate and graduate level courses, where they do not necessarily study grammar to improve their English. Therefore, students in undergraduate and graduate programs believed that vocabulary learning and reading comprehension skills were more important.

Research Question 4. The fourth research question examined if demographic variables such as, age, gender, academic program, hours of studying English, TOEFL score, self-rated language proficiency, and race/ethnicity affect international students' language learning beliefs. Unlike the previous studies by Truitt (1995), Kim (2001), and Kunt (1997), whose studies found that there were significant differences between males and females in terms of language learning beliefs, there was no statistically significant difference between gender and their beliefs about language learning. In Kunt's (1997) study, more female Turkish students believed in self-efficacy and confidence and social interaction. However, males believed that English was an easier language to learn than females. One possible explanation for the difference in the findings of this current study from the previous studies is that the participants of this study were

international students from different cultural and language backgrounds; whereas, the previous studies' participants were from the same cultural and language background.

Based on the findings of the current study, international student's English learning beliefs were affected by the specific academic program they were enrolled in. Since the previous studies have separated the academic programs by academic majors and departments, there was no reference to compare the findings of this study. There was a statistically significant difference among international student's English learning beliefs about motivation based on the academic program. International students who were taking ESL classes in the IEP believed that motivation was an important factor to enhance their English learning than the other two academic programs, undergraduate and graduate. One possible reason for this was due to the fact that many international students who were taking ESL classes had to pass the TOEFL test and improve their English in order to start their regular undergraduate and graduate program at the university. Moreover, students taking ESL classes have not lived in the United States longer than the students taking undergraduate and graduate courses, so they still had a high expectation and motivation to improve their English.

Studies by Hong (2006), Kunt (1997), and Diab (2000) revealed that student's self-rated proficiency affected their English learning beliefs. However, this study did not indicate any statistical significance of international students' English learning beliefs based on their self-rated proficiency or the TOEFL score. The finding implies that whether students were advanced or not they had similar beliefs about English learning. However, international student's beliefs about self-efficacy were influence by their self-rated English proficiency. Studies by Bandura (1997), Merier, et al. (1984), and Prawer (1974) revealed that advanced students tended to have more confidence in English learning.

Race/ethnicity was another factor that influenced international student's English learning beliefs. Even though there were no significant differences among the four race categories: Asia, Middle East, South America, and Europe, motivation was a statistically significant factor that affected international students from these different racial backgrounds learning English. One possible explanation for this was that most of the Asian students who were studying in the United States were dependent financially on their parents and therefore had higher motivation than the students from Middle East who were on scholarships. Also, the findings imply that students from different cultural and language backgrounds had different English learning beliefs in terms of their motivation to learn English.

Research Question 5. The fifth research question was to identify if there was a relationship between the learners' beliefs about English learning and the language learning strategy use among international students. Studies by Park (1995), Wen and Johnson (1997), and Hong (2006) revealed that there was a correlation between learner's language learning beliefs and their language learning strategy use. Like these studies, the results of the current study indicated that six strategy categories (cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, memory, affective, and social) and four belief categories (motivation, learning preference, formal learning, and self-efficacy/confidence) were significantly correlated with one another at the $p<.01$ level. Except compensation strategy, the remaining five strategies were closely related to all the four beliefs about English learning. The findings indicated that international students who used metacognitive strategies frequently had a strong belief about motivation and language learning preference. In other words, international students who were highly motivated and believed in using different learning instructions would help them improve English employed more metacognitive strategies to monitor their own learning.

International student's memory strategy use had a strong correlation with beliefs about formal learning and self-efficacy. One possible explanation for this is that students who used more memory skills had more confidence since they spent more time memorizing new words and grammatical rules to prepare for tests. Also, students who got high scores on the TOEFL had more self-efficacy and used more memorization strategies.

Follow-up Interview

Research Question 6. The follow-up interview data were used to answer this question to ascertain what other factors influence international student's learning English. The findings revealed that (1) language learning situation, (2) external factors, (3) internal factors, and (4) difficulty of English learning.

Language learning situation played an important role in student's beliefs about English learning. Previous English learning in their home country affected how learners perceived English learning. The findings revealed that all of the participants experienced English lessons that were heavily focused on grammar and reading instructions. This finding also indicated that the international students had more experience with understanding reading passages and analyzing grammar structures in isolated sentences. When they came to the United States, they experienced different learning environments where they were constantly exposed to English language and had to use English to communicate with other people. The findings also pointed out that the English education system in their home and the United States was different in terms of instruction style, teaching materials, and focus of learning.

In terms of the external factors, participants in the follow-up interview indicated the importance of being exposed to the language as much as possible. In order to be exposed to English, they used different strategies such as, watching TV with English subtitles on, listen to

music, and socialize with friends. The result showed that they preferred socializing with American friends since they could correct their errors. They strongly believed that error correction was very important in learning English. They found correcting their mistakes would help them improve their English skills since they would not make the same mistakes again. According to Mike, “I think every time I make mistakes, people have to correct me. I think if they correct my mistakes…then…I can change that next time so I don’t make same mistake again.” Also, Tom said, “I want my teachers and American friends to correct me.” Both Mike and Tom indicated that they would appreciate if other people corrected them instead of feeling embarrassed or ashamed.

The other external factors are: knowing the culture, translating, and taking standardized tests. The findings showed that if international students were interested in American culture, they were more likely to learn English. In other words, Julie said in her follow-up interview that “ I never hear tailgate party when I was in Korea…that was the first word I learned after coming to America, so if I have never got the chance of tailgate party, I am never gonna memerize that word.” Once she was exposed to American football culture, she was able to learn more words related to the football culture. The participants also mentioned translating from their mother tongues to English and vice versa. As Julie mentioned in the follow-up interview, “I cannot speak naturally. As a foreigner, when I want to speak something, I just…first step is I think of Korean…and then I translate that into English.” Translating was inevitable for most of the beginner to intermediate English learners, but sometimes translating can be helpful even for advance learners especially learning new words and expression in English.

Internal factors that influence English learning for international students were motivation and personality. Findings from the qualitative data revealed that motivation was one of the most

important keys to learner's English learning success. Mike stated during the follow-up interview, "What I want, I need to kind of use English and learning it because this is the motivation there, because motivation is the basic step I mean." Similarly, Mary explained that "myself is the most important when it comes to learn English, because I have to do more efforts to be around the world and get out from my house." International students believed that it was important for them to use all different strategies to enhance their English learning; however, without motivation, learning becomes meaningless and ineffective.

Personality was the other factor that influenced learners' beliefs about English learning. Mike explained it during the interview by saying that "You have to be more open-minded like don't be afraid to show yourself. Be confident to talk to other people." Being open-minded and outgoing were similar responses from the interview data. Participants in the follow-up interview showed that they were timid and afraid of making mistakes that other people considered them stupid. Even though they believed that having more outgoing and confident personality would help them improve their English, they feared of making mistakes and being judged by other people.

Learner's perception about how poor accent and pronunciation could become a hindrance when learning English was believed by all the participants in the current study. According to Tom, he explained that "if your English is heavily accented and that accent is non-native…they will probably have a hard time understanding let's say Vietnamese accent because English is not native language…if you have a heavy foreign accent, which would impede understanding." He thought not having a native-like accent hindered other people's understanding in conversation since he believed a heavy foreign accent was the main cause of this problem.

Other findings revealed international students having a hard time comprehending the Southern accents and African American Vernacular (AAV). As Mary explained, “In the beginning, I couldn’t get the Southern accent…the main problem I discovered over here is the accent.” Similarly, Amy said that “I try to avoid phone conversation here. I understand 20 % of what he says…I don’t know why people here have strange accent outside of school.” Also, Tom stated that “I have a hard time understanding some you know, bus drivers…some people sell stuff in a store…” One of the obstacles international students face when learning English in the South is the southern accent they hear outside of campus such as in stores and on the street.

International students who participated in the follow-up interview believed that their pronunciation represented their English proficiency. For them, having a native-like pronunciation meant their English was better than other people’s English. As Mark explained, “When you are really good at language, you can have perfect accent. I mean not really perfect, but it sounds very good and speak fluently. And…I am so jealous of them.” Like Mark, other participants also expressed their desire to have a native-like accent and pronunciation. They were also worried about not being able to change their accent and pronunciation since they came to the United States when they were adults. Tom explained it that “I think it is really hard to change your pronunciation and foreign accent once you have it…I mean if you look at old professors who is from China or other countries. They lived here very long and very smart, but they have strange accent so it is really hard to understand them.” Interestingly, all the participants in this follow-up interview expressed their concerns about not being able to change their accent, but they also showed high desire to change their pronunciation to be more like native-like. In other words, international students, who come and study in the United States, want to be part of the mainstream and does not want to be differentiated from others.

Conclusions

The conclusion of this mixed-method research study was that adult international students who are studying at a four-year educational institutions in the United States had different perspectives and opinions in terms of English learning. International students also employed different language learning strategies to enhance their learning. This study has presented empirical evidence reflecting the relationships between language learners' strategy use and their English learning beliefs. In addition, this study investigated how individual demographic variables such as, age, gender, academic program, self-rated proficiency, TOEFL score, and race/ethnicity affected their English learning beliefs and English learning strategies.

First, 84 international students who participated in this study employed various English learning strategies to enhance their learning. Sixty three point one percent of the participants reported to have frequently used a variety of different learning strategies to improve their English. Among the six strategy categories, social strategy, metacognitive strategy, and compensation strategy were the most frequently used ones. A comparison of the findings of the previous studies such as studies with EFL students from different linguistics settings reported to have the compensation strategies to be the most or the second most popular strategies (Al-Otaibi, 2004; Bremner, 1998; Chou, 2002; Kim, 2001; Lee, 1998 Mullin, 1992; Wang. 1996; Wharton, 2000; Yang, 1992). Studies in ESL contexts also found that compensation strategy to be very popular among ESL students (Chang, 1990; Osani, 2000; Philips, 1991). All of these previously mentioned studies either in EFL or ESL settings reported that English learners selected the compensation strategy to be their one of the most popular strategies to use when learning English.

Additionally, the number of hours students study outside of their regular classes affected their use of different strategies. Students who spent more than 30 minutes daily incorporated different strategies than the students who spent less than 30 minutes studying. Also, based on the different academic programs students were enrolled in affected their use of metacognitive and affective strategy uses. Self-rated proficiency reported by the international students also affected students' use of compensation strategy. This finding was similar to the previous studies by Park (1995), Wharton (2000) and Griffiths (2003).

Second, international students who participated in this study had different beliefs about English learning compared to the American students who were learning foreign languages in the previous studies by Horwitz (1988), Kern (1995), and Oh (1996) and ESL university students in the previous studies by Horwitz (1987) and Siebert (2003). This finding might be explained by the language learning context and educational, cultural, and language backgrounds of the participants.

Furthermore, international student's beliefs about English were different based on their academic program. ESL students believed in motivation when learning English than the undergraduate and graduate students. The nature of ESL classes mainly focused on improving English, so ESL students were more motivated to learn English than the students in regular academic programs. Also, many of the ESL students' goals to study English were to enter University to start their regular academic, so they were highly motivated to learn English. Based on racial and ethnic background, international students held different beliefs about English learning. Since the half of the international students who participated in this study were from Asia, they were more motivated than the students from other racial background due to the high expectations from their family and society.

Third, there was a statistically significant correlation between international student's English learning beliefs and their use of language learning strategies. This finding of this study was consistent with the studies by Park (1995), Wen and Johnson (1997), and Hong (2006). International students who used memory strategy had beliefs about formal learning and self-efficacy. Students who used metacognitive strategies strongly believed in motivation and language learning preference. All the English learning beliefs of international students in the current study were positively correlated to the use of different language learning strategies. The findings of this study revealed that there was a reciprocal correlation between learner's beliefs about English learning and their strategy use. This finding was similar to the findings of Yang's (1992) study.

Finally, follow-up interview data revealed that individual demographic variables such as, academic program, self-rated proficiency, and race/ethnicity affect international students' beliefs about English learning and their use of language learning strategies. However, other variables such as, personality, language exposure, and accent/pronunciation also had an impact on international student's beliefs about English learning and their strategy use.

Implications

The findings of this study suggest important implications for ESL instructors, administrators, and policy makers to improve ESL curriculum and instruction methods in order to provide a learning environment where international students can enhance their English learning.

ESL Teachers

ESL instructors should be aware of their student's beliefs about English learning and how learner's incorporate different language learning strategies to improve their learning. Also,

teachers should acknowledge that international student's language learning beliefs and their use of different strategies based on gender, age, academic program, self-rated proficiency, and race/ethnicity. Knowing learners' beliefs about English learning and language learning strategies they employ can help instructors understand why certain students prefer using different strategies to learn and why students hold certain beliefs about English learning. ESL educators need to develop and design course materials and curriculum that provide substantial opportunities for students to practice and interact with other students.

It is vital for teachers to embed different strategies in their lesson plan to meet diversified students' needs. For instance, the class should not be teacher-centered or just student-centered. Some students learn from teachers' explicit explanation and correction while other students learn from talking to other people. Therefore, teachers should encourage students to interact others to develop communicative competence and give them specific and detailed instruction in order to achieve accuracy. Indeed, teaching grammar structures will aid students more only if they could apply the new grammatical rules to their writing, reading, listening, and speaking. Moreover, it is crucial to include vocabulary and pronunciation component in their lesson plan since a lot of international students find improving their vocabulary and pronunciation to be one of the most important factor when learning English. Especially having a clear and correct pronunciation boosts their self-efficacy and confidence. Also, it is imperative to include critical thinking even though ESL classes mainly emphasize the language. Students who do not practice critical thinking, critical reading, and critical writing skills when they are in the ESL classes may face challenges and difficulties when they are taking regular university classes in the United States. Therefore, instructors should include these components in their instruction to help students prepare to take regular university classes and to perform well in their work.

It is imperative for teachers to include strategy instruction to help students how to use "more relevant and more powerful learning strategies" (Oxford, 2003, p. 11). There has been research about how teaching students different learning strategies can create positive influence on students reading proficiency (Park-Oh, 1994) and speaking proficiency (Dadour & Robbins, 1996). Therefore, to facilitate students L2 proficiency, teachers should know how to incorporate different language learning strategies into their lesson plans.

Administers of ESL Programs and International Student Programs

Administers should offer more extra-curricular activities in which international students could interact with American students not only to learn the language but also to be familiar with culture by exploring and exposing to the language naturally. One way of doing it is to provide a short-term homestay opportunity where international students could learn the culture and meet local families. In doing so, the host family could help students adapt to new culture and language by living with them. Moreover, students can be exposed to the local accent, so their fear of talking to local people on the street or at the markets will be curtailed. Providing more opportunities to make friends is one of the best ways to practice English in authentic situation; therefore, it is imperative for administers to acknowledge including more social activities where students can meet and socialize.

Administers should create curricula where adult ELLs can exploit and use different language learning strategies to interact and monitor their own learning. Instead of teaching four domains of English – reading, listening, writing, speaking – separately, English language classes should incorporate these four domains. Also, Intensive English Programs (IEP) should offer different language programs to meet student's need. Even though they are all international students not all of them are studying in the IEP to enter universities in the United States.

Therefore, IEP should provide programs for academic tracks to students whose goal is to pursue higher education in the United States, for daily English usage to students whose goal is to learn language and culture for short-terms, and business English to students whose goal is to improve their business English skills.

ESL Policy Makers

ESL policy makers should advocate the importance of understanding different English learning beliefs held by students and their use of different learning strategies to ESL instructors and ESL administers. Since more and more international students come to the United States to study English for academic purposes, personal reasons, and business-related reasons, it is crucial for ESL policy makers to understand what factors affect students to learn English and how to help them to be successful language learners. Having more understanding about different learning strategies used by students can help ESL instructors and administers to create curriculum and lesson plans that promote a better student's learning environment. Thus, the policy makers must include mandatory training sessions and conferences for ESL educators and administers to help develop better understandings of what students' needs are and how to incorporate them into instructions to meet the overall English language education policy and share information to assist students productively.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, this study had made significant contributions to the field of adult English language learners' beliefs about English learning and their strategy uses. Upon completion of this study, the study recommends the following areas for future research:

1. The current study used a simple mixed-method research with two self-reported questionnaires and follow-up interview. Thus, more studies need to incorporate other

methodologies such as observation, diaries, and in-depth interviews in order to provide more comprehensive understanding of adult ESL learners' beliefs about English learning and their strategy uses.

2. The current study was carried out with 84 participants and 6 follow-up interview participants. Hence, more studies with a large number of participants to examine adult ESL learners' English learning beliefs and their strategy use are needed.
3. More studies using an experimental research design (control vs. experimental) need to be conducted in order to have in-depth understanding of how these two groups are similar and different.
4. More mixed-method research to investigate adult ESL learners' English learning beliefs and their strategy uses including diverse nation-wide universities.
5. More mixed-method research to investigate adult EFL learners' English learning beliefs and their strategy uses.
6. A long-term case study with students from different academic programs such as the IEP, undergraduate, and graduate programs.
7. A long-term case study with international students from different majors such as, Engineering, Education, Mathematics, and Business.
8. Mixed-method research to examine language learning beliefs and language learning strategy uses other than English.
9. Long-term quantitative research with pre-test and post-test to investigate how using different language learning strategies promote their English learning.
10. A comparison study with adult ESL learners and children to investigate how their language strategy use is different based on their English learning beliefs.

11. Mixed-method research to examine ESL and EFL learners English language learning strategy use.
12. More mixed-method research to examine English learners' beliefs about English learning and their strategy uses in less formal environment such as, private language institution, library, community centers, and church.
13. More studies on international student's academic programs (IEP, undergraduate, and graduate) and how they influence learners' English learning beliefs and their strategy use.
14. More studies comparing language teacher's beliefs about language learning and student's beliefs about language learning should be carried out.
15. More qualitative research should be conducted to determine what factors influence language learning beliefs and strategy use besides age, gender, academic major, and self-rated English proficiency. Studies should investigate the relationship among other variables such as, culture, learning styles, first language, previous English learning experience, and anxiety.

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Appendix A

Individual Background Questionnaire

Q1 How old are you?
- ❍ 19 -21 (1)
- ❍ 22-26 (2)
- ❍ 27-30 (3)
- ❍ 31+ (4)

Q2 Are you?
- ❍ Male (1)
- ❍ Female (2)

Q3 What program are you enrolled now?
- ❍ ESL (1)
- ❍ Undergraduate (2)
- ❍ Graduate (3)

Q4 How many hours do yous study English outside of class per day?
- ❍ Less than 30 minutes (1)
- ❍ 30 minutes to 1 hour (2)
- ❍ 1 to 2 hours (3)
- ❍ 2 to 3 hours (4)
- ❍ More than 3 hours (5)

Q5 Have you ever taken the TOEFL test?
- ❍ Yes (1)
- ❍ No (2)

Q6 How much did you make on the TOEFL test?
- ❍ Lower than 350 (1)
- ❍ 350-429 (2)
- ❍ 430-499 (3)
- ❍ 500-550 (4)
- ❍ 550 + (5)

Q7 What do you think is your overall proficiency level in English?

- ❍ Beginner (1)
- ❍ Intermediate (2)
- ❍ Advanced (3)

Q8 Where are you from?

Q9 Do you want to participate in the follow-up interview?

- ❍ Yes (1)
- ❍ No (2)

Q10 If yes, can you please leave your e-mail address and name?

Name? (1)

E-mail add? (2)

Comments or questions? (3)

Appendix B

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

	Never or almost never (1)	Not usually (2)	Sometimes (3)	Usually (4)	Always or almost always (5)
I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them. (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I use rhymes to remember new English words. (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I use flashcards to remember new English words. (5)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I physically act out new English words. (6)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I review English lessons often. (7)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the (8)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I say or write new English words several times. (9)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I try to talk like native English speakers. (10)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

I practice the sounds of English. (11)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I use the English words I know in different ways. (12)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in (13)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I read for pleasure in English. (14)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English. (15)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I try to find patterns in English. (16)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand. (17)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I try not to translate word-for-word. (18)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English. (19)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses. (20)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
When I can' t think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures. (21)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I read English without looking up every new word. (22)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English. (23)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better. (24)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I try to find out how to be a better learner of English. (25)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English. (26)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I look for people I can talk to in English. (27)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English. (28)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I have clear goals for improving my English skills. (29)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I think about my progress in learning English. (30)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English. (31)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake. (32)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English. (33)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

studying or using English. (34)					
I write down my feelings in a language learning diary. (35)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English. (36)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or repeat it. (37)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk. (38)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I practice English with other students. (39)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I ask for help from English speakers. (40)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I ask questions in English. (41)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I try to learn about the culture of English speakers. (42)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Appendix C

The Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) : ESL Version 2.0

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language. (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Some people have a special ability for learning foreign languages. (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Some languages are easier to learn than others. (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
People from my country are good at learning English. (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
English is a difficult language to learn. (5)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I believe that I will learn to speak English very well. (6)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
It is important to speak English with an excellent accent. (7)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
It is necessary to know about English-speaking cultures in order to speak English. (8)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
You shouldn't say anything in English until you can say it correctly. (9)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
It is easier for someone who already speaks a	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

foreign language to learn another one. (10)					
It is best to learn English in an English - speaking country. (11)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English. (12)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I enjoy practicing English with the people I meet. (13)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
In order to speak English, you have to think in English. (14)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
It is OK to guess if you don't know a word in English. (15)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I have a special ability for learning English. (16)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
The most important part of learning English is learning vocabulary words. (17)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
It is a good idea to practice speaking with other people who are learning English. (18)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
It is better to have teachers who are native-speakers of English. (19)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
If I learn to speak English very well, I will have better opportunities for a good job. (20)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
The most important part of learning English is	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

learning the grammar. (21)					
It is important to practice English with multi-media. (22)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Women are better than men at learning English. (23)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I want to speak English well. (24)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I can learn a lot from group activities with other students in my English class. (25)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I would like to learn English so that I can get to know English speakers. (26)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I can learn a lot from non-native English speakers. (27)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Learning English is different from learning other academic subjects. (28)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
It is impossible to learn English on your own without a teacher or a class. (29)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
The most important part of learning English is learning how to translate from my native language. (30)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Students and teachers should only speak English during English classes. (31)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I can find a lot of useful materials to practice	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

English on the Internet. (32)					
It is easier to read and write English than to speak and understand it. (33)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I have to spend so much time preparing for big English tests, that I don't have time to actually learn English. (34)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
It is important to speak English like a native speaker. (35)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
People who are good at mathematics and science are not good at learning English. (36)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
People in my country feel that it is important to speak English. (37)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I would like to have English-speaking friends. (38)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I feel shy to speak English with other people. (39)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Tests like the TOEFL or the IELTS are good tests of my English ability. (40)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Appendix D

Semi-structured Interview Questionnaire

1. How did you learn English in your country?
2. Could you please describe a typical English lesson for me? For example, your classroom activities, materials taught in class, and your role in the lesson and your teacher's role?
3. Each person has his/her particular way of learning. Could you tell me some of the things you did to help learn English? And how did they help you and why?
4. How did you like your English learning experience in your country?
5. Let's talk about your learning experience in the USA:
    - Why did you choose to study here?
    - Are there any differences in English teaching between the USA and your country?
    - What are some of the things about learning and teaching in the USA that surprised/impressed you?
6. Why are you studying English?
7. Have you made progress in English? What skills, in your opinion, have you improved a lot? And what helped you improve it?
8. What do you think of English language? What is the most difficult part in your learning English? And why?
9. In your opinion, what is the best way to learn English well?
10. Do you have any American friends? What do you think of them?
11. How often do you use English outside of the classroom?
12. How good would you like your English to be? And why?
13. What do you think of yourself as a language learner? Do you think you can learn English well ultimately? How would you rate yourself between 1 and 10 raging from the least confident to the most confident?

14. What do you expect teacher to do to help your English learning?
15. When you make a mistake in your English, how important is it, in your opinion, to be corrected?
16. Please describe what you do every day to help you learn English?
17. What do you think you should do to improve your English more?
18. What is more important for the success of your language learning? Your teachers? Your own efforts? Your practice using the language? Could you arrange them in order of importance?
19. How do you think of the role of standardized tests or class tests in your learning? Do you think they measure your English?
20. How do you assess your English progress?
21. What do you think of vocabulary in your learning? Is it important to look up every word?

Appendix E

Authorization Letter from the assistnat director of Student Life of Auburn University

GREEK LIFE

AUBURN UNIVERSITY
DIVISION OF STUDENT AFFAIRS

INTERCULTURAL PROGRAMS

June 25, 2013

Institutional Review Board
c/o Office of Human Subjects Research
307 Samford Hall
Auburn University, AL 36849

Dear IRB Members,

After reviewing the proposed study, "An examination of language learning beliefs and language learning strategies used by international students and adult ESL learners at a four-year institution," presented by Ms. Seungheui Lee, an AU graduate student, I have granted authorization for international students to be *recruited* from the International Student Life and the International Student Organization.

The purpose of the study is to examine the preferred language learning strategies and commonly held language learning beliefs among international students who are taking ESL classes and regular academic classes, and how these factors affect students' learning English. Ms. Seungheui Lee will conduct the following activities from the International Student Life and the International Student Organization to contact, recruit, and collect data. It is understood that this project will end no later than May, 2014.

To ensure that the students are protected, Ms. Seungheui Lee has agreed to provide to me a copy of any Auburn University IRB-approved, stamped consent document before she *recruits* participants in the above-listed sites. *Ms. Seungheui Lee has agreed to provide a copy of his study results, in aggregate, to our department.* Any data collected by Ms. Seungheui Lee will be kept confidential and will be stored *in a locked filing cabinet in her AU office.*

If the IRB has any concerns about the permission being granted by this letter, please contact me at the phone number listed above.

Sincerely,

Charus Campbell
Assistant Director - NPHC Advisor
Multicultural Programs Advisor
Auburn University
334-844-1296

Auburn University Student Center, 255 Duncan Drive, Suite 3130, Auburn, AL 36849-5384
Telephone: 334-844-4600; Fax: 334-844-4347
www.auburn.edu/greek

Appendix F

Authorization letter from Dr. Horwitz

Seung Lee

From: Horwitz, Elaine K <horwitz@austin.utexas.edu>
Sent: Friday, June 21, 2013 9:30 AM
To: Seung Lee
Subject: Re: Asking for your permission to use BALLI in my dissertation

best wishes on your project.

On Jun 21, 2013, at 9:25 AM, Seung Lee wrote:

Dear Dr. Horwitz,

Thank you so much for your quick response. I will acknowledge your authorship of the BALLI and share my findings with you.
Once again, I really appreciate it.

Best wishes,

Seungheui Lee

From: Horwitz, Elaine K [mailto:horwitz@austin.utexas.edu]
Sent: Friday, June 21, 2013 8:54 AM
To: Seung Lee
Subject: Re: Asking for your permission to use BALLI in my dissertation

It's nice to meet you, and I appreciate your interest in my work. Subject to the usual requirements for acknowledgment, I am pleased to grant you permission to use the Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory 2.0 in your research. Specifically, you must acknowledge my authorship of the BALLI in any oral or written reports of your research. I also request that you inform me of your findings.
I'm not sure if you know that I recently published a revised version of the BALLI in the second edition of my book Becoming a Language Teacher (2013). I will attach a copy of the BALLI 2.0 to this message.This book also includes some scoring information.
Best wishes on your project,
Elaine Horwitz

1

Appendix G

Authorization letter from Dr. Oxford

Seung Lee

From: Seung Lee
Sent: Monday, June 24, 2013 10:24 AM
To: 'Rebecca Oxford'
Subject: RE: Asking your permission to use SILL in my dissertation

Thank you so much Dr, Oxford.

Best wishes,

Seungheui Lee

From: Rebecca Oxford [mailto:rebeccaoxford@gmail.com]
Sent: Friday, June 21, 2013 2:17 PM
To: Seung Lee
Subject: Re: Asking your permission to use SILL in my dissertation

Hello. You have my permission to use the SILL and also to change some of the elements for use in your study.

I wish you all the best!
Dr. Oxford

On Thu, Jun 20, 2013 at 10:34 PM, Seung Lee <shl0003@tigermail.auburn.edu> wrote:

Dear Dr. Rebecca Oxford,

My name is Seungheui Lee, and I am a Ph.D. student at Auburn University. I hope this email finds you well. I am currently working on my dissertation on the relationship of language learning beliefs and language learning strategies used by international students and adult ESL learners at a four-year institution.

I am emailing to ask for your permission to use the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) questionnaire you developed in my study. I also would love to get your permission to change some of the elements that may work better with the sample students I am studying.

I am looking forward to hearing from you soon.

Sincerely,

Seungheui Lee

Appendix H

Authorization letter from Dr. Zhong

Seung Lee

From: Maggie Zhong <mzhong@unitec.ac.nz>
Sent: Sunday, July 21, 2013 6:06 AM
To: Seung Lee
Subject: Re: Asking for your permission to use your interview questionnaire in my study

Dear Seungheui Lee
I apologize for the delay as I was overseas on my annual leave and didn't come back until yesterday.

I don't have problems for you to use my interview guide and my findings as long as you cite my work properly and give adequate reference of my work in your study.

All the best with your study!
Regards
Qunyan

Qunyan Maggie Zhong, PhD.
Lecturer
Unitec New Zealand
Department of Language Studies / Te waka o nga reo
Faculty of Social and Health Sciences

Phone +64 9 815 4321 ext 8554
Facsimile +64 9 815 2906
Email mzhong@unitec.ac.nz
www.languages.unitec.ac.nz

Appendix I

Consent form for the follow-up interview

AUBURN UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS, LEADERSHIP AND TECHNOLOGY

INFORMED CONSENT FOR
"An examination of language learning beliefs and language learning strategies used by international students and adult ESL learners at a four-year institution"

You are invited to participate in a research study of "Language learning beliefs and language learning strategies used by international students and adult ESL learners at a four-year institution" to be conducted by Seungheui Lee, a graduate student in the Department of Educational Foundations, Leadership and Technology at Auburn University. I hope to learn more about language learning beliefs and language learning strategies used among international students and ESL students and how these factors influence one's learning English language.

If you are 19 years old or older and agree to participate, you will be asked to be interviewed. The interview consists of 21 questions with follow-up questions, and should take no more than an hour. The interview will be recorded, and the recordings will be destroyed within a year of the conclusion of the study. The recordings will be transcribed without any of your identifying information which will make your responses anonymous. Whether you participate in the interview or not, it will not influence your grades in any of your courses nor will it affect your relationship with Auburn University, now or in the future. If you change your mind about participating and wish to withdraw, we will conclude the interview and I will destroy the tape. If you wish to withdraw later, I will destroy any data associated with you that is still identifiable. The results of the study will be presented at professional conferences and in published articles in scholarly journals. The information will be aggregated so that your individual responses will remain confidential.

If you have any questions before, during, or after this research, contact Seungheui Lee by phone at 334-782-1971, by e-mail at shl0003@auburn.edu, or by regular mail at the address: English as a Second Language 310 Foy Hall, Auburn University, AL, 36849. For more information regarding your rights as a participant you may contact the Auburn University Office of Human Subjects Research or the Institutional Review Board by phone (334) 844-5966 or e-mail at hsubjec@auburn.edu or irbchair@auburn.edu.

HAVING READ THE INFORMATION PROVIDED ABOVE, YOU MUST DECIDE WHETHER OR NOT TO OFFER YOUR CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS RESEARCH AND ALLOW THE INVESTIGATOR TO CONDUCT AN INTERVIEW. YOUR SIGNATURE INDICATES YOUR WILLINGNESS TO PARTICIPATE.

Participant's signature	Date	Investigator obtaining consent	Date
Printed Name		Printed Name	

4036 Haley Center, Auburn, AL 3684-5221; Telephone: 334-844-4460: Fax: 334-844-3072

www.auburn.edu

Appendix J

Initial Invitation Letter

Initial E-mail Invitation

My name is Seungheui Lee, a graduate student from the Department of Educational Foundations, Leadership and Technology at Auburn University. I would like to invite you to participate in my research study to examine language learning beliefs and language learning strategies among international students whose first language is not English. You may participate if you are 19 years old or older. Please do not participate if you are 18 years old or younger.

As a participant, you will be asked to complete an online survey which will not take more than 20 minutes. At the end of this survey, there is a sign-up form for the follow-up interview where I hope to find more details about individual experiences.

There is no potential compensation or cost for your participation. Your responses to the survey questions will be anonymous, and completing this survey will not in any way influence your grade of the classes in which you are enrolled.

If you would like to participate in this research study, please click on the link in this e-mail and check on "I am 19 years old or older AND agree to participate."

If you have questions later, please contact me at shl0003@auburn.edu or you may contact my advisor, Dr. Maria M. Witte, at wittemm@auburn.edu.

Sincerely yours,

Seungheui Lee

Appendix K

Final Email Notification

Final E-mail Invitation Reminder

My name is Seungheui Lee, a graduate student from the Department of Educational Foundations, Leadership and Technology at Auburn University. I would like to thank those who have already completed the online survey, and I would also like to remind those who have not taken the survey to spare some time to complete it. The online survey will close at 11:59PM CTS tonight.

I would like to invite you to participate in my research study to examine language learning beliefs and language learning strategies among international students whose first language is not English. You may participate if you are 19 years old or older. Please do not participate if you are 18 years old or younger.

As a participant, you will be asked to complete an online survey which will not take more than 20 minutes. At the end of this survey, there is a sign-up form for the follow-up interview where I hope to find more details about individual experiences.

There is no potential compensation or cost for your participation. Your responses to the survey questions will be anonymous, and completing this survey will not in any way influence your grade of the classes in which you are enrolled.

If you would like to participate in this research study, please click on the link in this e-mail and check on "I am 19 years old or older AND agree to participate."

If you have questions later, please contact me at shl0003@auburn.edu or you may contact my advisor, Dr. Maria M. Witte, at wittemm@auburn.edu.

Sincerely yours,

Seungheui Lee

Appendix L

Codebook

The Beliefs about English Learning Situation

Open codes	Axial codes
Focus on grammar and reading English education has some problems Importance of learning English Translation from mother language to English Vocabulary learning Prepare for English tests Analyze grammar and reading passage From the government side, English is very important High school English classes are very poor quality English is not spoken by many people No use in English Textbooks Not good at speaking English Seldom speak English in class Private English institutes on weekends Pay a lot of money to learn Parents want children to learn English Not a good student For college To get a good job	Learning situation in their country
Discussion Communicate with others Comfortable environment Speaking is more important than other domains in English learning	Learning situation in the US

The Beliefs about English Learning External Factors

Open codes	Axial codes
Expects teachers to give more time	Teachers
Help you learn new expressions More practical Meet friends and practice	Friends
American education is different Online resources are useful Listening exercises Reading exercises Practice English Taking ESL classes Group work	Class resource
Need time to understand Need time to answer the question Practice and practice	Time/practice
Socialize with American people Memorize new words Listen to music Read lyrics Vocabulary learning is very important Express myself stressful	Language exposure
I don't know if it is accurate or exact my English skill TOEFL test measures academic English but not every day English Meet test requirement Not accurately but roughly Students with high score know English more	Tests
Knowing a second or third language doesn't help learn English Helps learn English	Knowing another language
Culture is different Knowledge of the culture Everything is based on the culture Asian group, white group, black group Same backgrounds New terms young generations use	Culture
Very important Not to make the same mistakes again Embarrassed Translation appreciate	Error correction

Live here forever Finish school Get a job	Survival

The Beliefs about English Learning Internal Factors

Open codes	Axial codes
What do you need to do with English I want to learn English I am interested in how people speak English Motivation of yourself Depending on you You want to do this Try own effort Study alone I have to change No interest, impossible to improve it	Motivation/desire
Open-minded Outgoing Not afraid of Worry Free to use Weakness Confident	personality

The Beliefs about Difficulty of English Learning

Open codes	Axial codes
Good accent = good English speaker Perfect accent Different accent = hard to understand Slight accent is ok Southern accent is very hard to understand Big cities and small cities have different accents British pronunciation Native-like pronunciation AAV is very hard to understand	Accent/pronunciation

Appendix M

Approval letter from Office of Research Compliance of Auburn University

Office of Research Compliance
115 Ramsay Hall, basement
Auburn University, AL 36849

AUBURN
UNIVERSITY

Telephone: 334-844-5966
Fax: 334-844-4391
IRBadmin@auburn.edu
IRBsubmit@auburn.edu

October 18, 2013

MEMORANDUM TO: Ms. Seungheui Lee
Department of Educational Foundations, Leadership, and Technology

PROTOCOL TITLE: "An Examination of Language Learning Beliefs and Language Learning Strategies Used by International Students and Adult ESL Learners at a Four Year Institution"

IRB AUTHORIZATION NO: 13-270 EP 1307

APPROVAL DATE: February 16, 2013 EXPIRATION DATE: February 15, 2014

The referenced protocol was approved as "Expedited" by the IRB under Sections 45 CFR 46.110 (6 and 7) of the Code of Federal Regulations (http://www.hhs.gov/ohrp/humansubjects/guidance/45cfr46.html)

By accepting this approval, you agree to the following:

1. **Changes to your protocol** *must* be approved in advance by submitting a modification request to the IRB. The use of any unauthorized procedures may result in penalties.

2. **Unanticipated problems** involving risk to participants *must* be reported *immediately* to the IRB.

3. A **renewal request** *must* be submitted three weeks before your protocol expires.

4. A **final report** *must* be submitted when you complete your study, along with copies of any consents used.

5. **Expiration** – If you allow your protocol to expire without contacting the IRB, it will be administratively closed. The project will be suspended. You will then need to submit a new protocol to resume your research.

6. You must **use only the approved, stamped version** of your **information letter.** A copy must be given to participants.

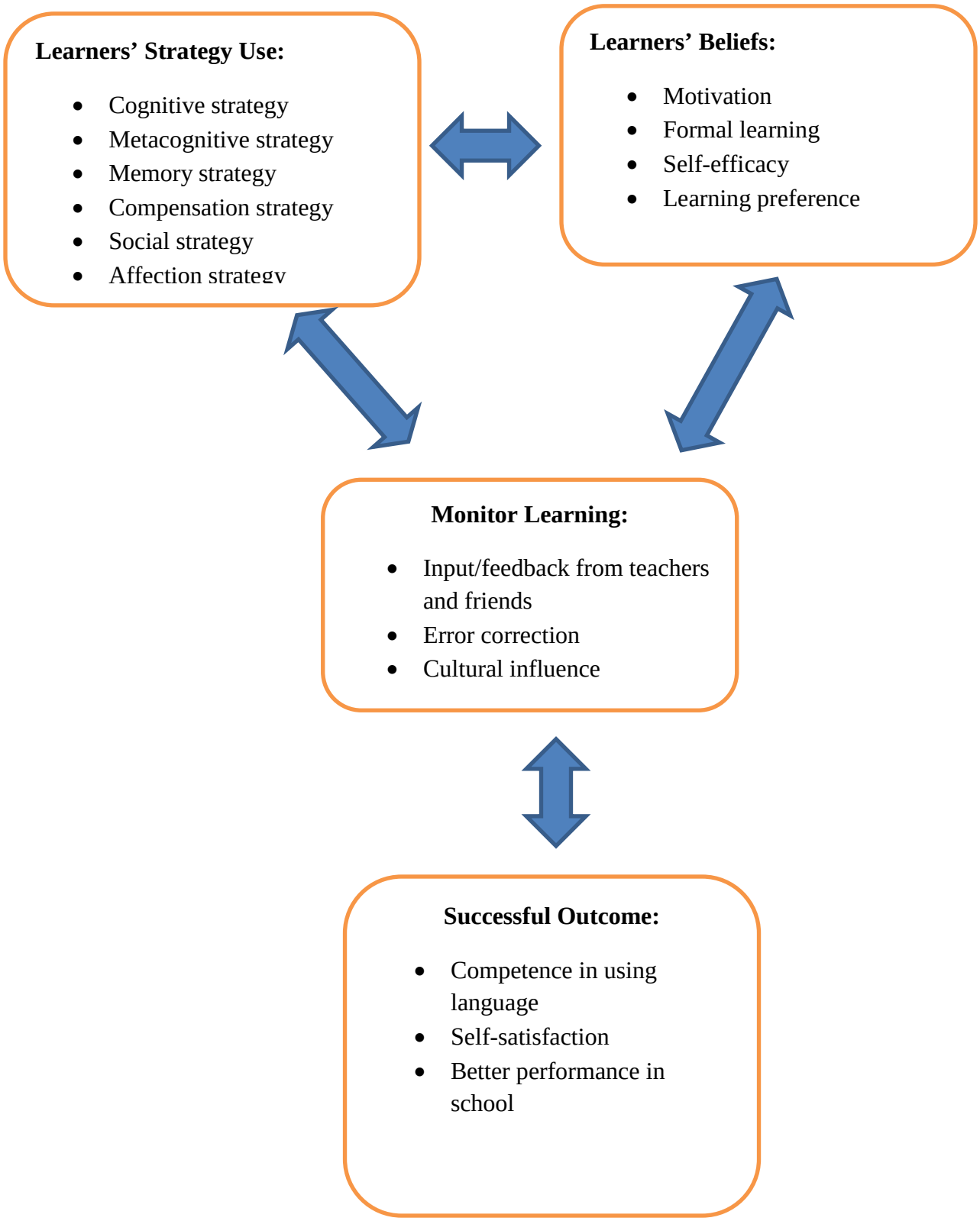
All forms can be found at http://www.auburn.edu/research/vpr/ohs/index.htm. Questions concerning this Board action may be directed to the Office of Research Compliance

Sincerely,

Christopher Correia, Ph.D.
Chair of Institutional Review Board #2
for the Use of Human Subjects in Research

Appendix N

A Proposed Model of How Adult ESL Learners Learn English Successfully


Learners' Strategy Use:
Cognitive strategy
Metacognitive strategy
Memory strategy
Compensation strategy
Social strategy
Affection strategy
Learners' Beliefs:
Motivation
Formal learning
Self-efficacy
Learning preference
Monitor Learning:
Input/feedback from teachers and friends
Error correction
Cultural influence
Successful Outcome:
Competence in using language
Self-satisfaction
Better performance in school