

**Effects of Self-Efficacy, Belief in Learning and Learning Strategies, on
Language Knowledge and Language Use: A Study of English as a Foreign
Language on Bali**

**自己効力感、学習におけるビリーフ、および学習ストラテジーの言語知識と
言語使用に対する影響 —バリEFL学習者を対象として**

Ph.D. Dissertation

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STATEMENT OF ORIGINALITY

This is to certify that to the best of my knowledge, the content of this thesis is my own work.

This thesis has not been submitted for any degree or other purposes.

The thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the thesis itself.

Putu Ayu Asty Senja Pratiwi

ABSTRACT

Existing studies have shown that psychological foundation based on learners' individual differences (such as self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, and language learning strategies) plays an essential role in the language acquisition and transfer process (Henter, 2014) and predicts success in language learning (Ehrman et al., 2003). Self-efficacy has been said as a prime variable and plays a more vital role in predicting learners' performance than actual ability (Bandura, 1986, 1997) and affects motivation (Pajares, 1996; Schunk, 2003). Learners' beliefs about learning have been said to have a powerful influence on learners' behavior both in terms that are related and affect one another (Pajares, 1996; Riley, 2006); learning strategies have also become one of the main factors that help students learn a second or foreign language (Oxford, 2003).

Despite the significant and positive correlation among learners' individual differences (Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Kim & Lorshbach, 2005; Shell et al., 1989; Suwanarak, 2012; Wong, 2005; Woodrow, 2011; Yang, 1999; Yang & Wang, 2015), there is a lack of research on how individual differences correlate with and influence language knowledge and language use. Furthermore, it has not clarified different types of self-efficacy possessed by learners based on their characteristics and by English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners on the basis of conditions or contexts where acquisition takes place.

Thus, this study aims to explore individual differences such as self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, and learning strategies, as well as the interrelation of language knowledge and language use. This research also investigates whether the learners act differently based on their self-efficacy and whether there is a correlation between individual differences (self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, and learning strategies) and language knowledge and language use.

This study focuses on Balinese EFL learners who are highly efficacious in their speaking and writing skills, and investigates whether any gap exists between their self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, and learning strategies in relation to language knowledge and language use in their English learning development.

While other research focuses on either quantitative or qualitative approaches, this study uses mixed-method approach to further explore and clarify Balinese EFL learners' self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, learning strategies, and the interrelation between language knowledge and language use. Eighty-six students participated in this study.

The instruments used in the present study included self-efficacy interview, self-efficacy assessment, DIALANG language knowledge test, language use test (actual performance test of speaking and writing), Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) questionnaire, Strategy Inventory of Language Learning (SILL) questionnaire, and in-depth interview. The collected data were qualitatively and quantitatively analyzed through several procedures including interview analysis, descriptive analysis, Spearman Rank correlation, and Kruskal–Wallis H Test.

Chapter IV argues that Balinese EFL learners are highly efficacious not only in writing, but also in speaking skills. They are motivated learners, are willing, and do not hesitate to speak in English; they hold similar beliefs about learning, and use similar learning strategies regardless of their self-efficacy. The source of learners' self-efficacy is not only the learners themselves (the learners' personalities), but also their prior learning experience, particularly in school, family, and their surroundings. Despite the importance of self-efficacy in motivating learners toward language learning development, it does not always influence and differentiate learners' beliefs about language learning and their learning strategies.

Chapter V argues that Balinese EFL learners' language knowledge is correlated, but the interrelation may not always be reflected in language use due to the discrepancy in self-efficacy, beliefs about language learning, and learning strategies that inhibits the interrelation between language knowledge and language use. Learners' high scores in language knowledge do not always guarantee their language use. Overall, no significant correlation exists among the learners' beliefs, learning strategies, language knowledge, and language use. Positive and strong self-efficacy and learners' beliefs about language learning should be supplemented with appropriate strategies to support the interrelation of language knowledge and language use.

The present research resulted in the following new findings. First, self-efficacy is the most critical aspect in the EFL learning process. On the one hand, it can increase motivation and support the learners, while on the other hand it can 'harm' learners in terms of high self-efficacy lead to overconfidence which can demotivate the learners and result in a lack of effort in learning.

Second, through the investigation it has been found that the correlation of self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, learning strategies, and the interrelation of language knowledge and language use does not always exist. The result suggests that the correlation among the variables may differ depending on the type of self-efficacy the learners have. Self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, and learning strategies could affect the interrelation of language knowledge into language use; however, discrepancies in these aspects may result in the unsuccessful application of language knowledge to language use.

Third, the present research has found possible causes of discrepancies that have not been found and addressed in the previous studies. The discrepancies are: (1) In the Balinese EFL learners' context, self-efficacy may not necessarily predict and correlate with performance, learners' beliefs about language learning, and learning strategies; (2) Self-efficacious learners behave differently according to the correlation between self-efficacy and language use (actual performance in speaking and writing) and with learning strategies; (3) Learning strategies do not match with learners' beliefs about language learning; (4) A weak significant correlation exists between self-efficacy and beliefs about Learning Style Preference, between beliefs about Learning and Communication with language knowledge, and between Mental Process and Managing Emotion Strategies with language knowledge and writing performance; and (5) Other

possible factors affecting the correlation include time constraints, frequency, and diverse opportunities for using English.

The findings of the current study suggest that the learners should be aware of their self-efficacy, learners' beliefs, and learning strategies to maintain their own motivation to be successful learners. To support their language learning development and improve performance, self-efficacious learners need to control their self-efficacy, maintain positive beliefs about language learning, choose appropriate learning strategies, and avoid inappropriate learning strategies that may inhibit their language learning development; practice should be done repeatedly and effectively.

Keywords: self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, learning strategies, language knowledge, language use.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Abbreviations	Explanation
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SE	Self-Efficacy
LK	Language Knowledge
LU	Language Use
LS	Learning Strategy
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference
SILL	Strategy Inventory Language Learning
BALLI	Beliefs About Language Learning
SD	Standard Deviation
M	Mean Score
N	The number of valid observations for the variable
Df	Degree of Freedom
Asymp. Sig	Asymptotic Significance
Sig.	Significance
P value	Calculated Probability
DLL	Difficulty in Language Learning
FLA	Foreign Language Aptitude
NLL	Nature of Language Learning
LCS	Learning and Communication Strategies
LME	Learning Motivation and Expectation
BLC	Beliefs in Learning and Communication
ME	Motivation and Expectation
LSP	Learning Style Preference
FL	Formal Learning
SOS	Social and Organizational Strategies
GLMS	General Learning Management Strategies
MPMES	Mental Process and Managing Emotion Strategies
MPS	Memory and Practical Strategies
MCM	Metacognitive and Cognitive Strategies
CPLS	Communication and Practical Learning Strategies

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Extensive research has been conducted on foreign language acquisition, with studies stating that the psychological foundation based on the individual differences of learners plays an essential role in the language transfer process (Henter, 2014) and predicts success in language learning (Ehrman et al., 2003). Learning rate and the methods adopted to develop language skills vary among foreign language learners (Dörnyei, 2005). Moreover, learners vary considerably in how successful they are in learning and readily using a foreign language. Researchers have mainly focused their attention on the learners' individual differences in foreign language learning, which encompasses a broad scope of domains including self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about learning, and learning strategies, to understand why some learners are more successful and perform better than others in learning foreign languages (Bandura, 1997; Oxford, 1990). This suggests that learning a language is a highly individual process influenced by a combination of factors.

Existing studies mention that self-efficacy, or individuals' beliefs in their abilities to perform a task, has proven to be a prime variable and plays a more vital role in predicting learners' performance than actual ability (Bandura, 1986, 1997) or aptitude (Schunk, 1996), and affects motivation (Pajares, 1996; Schunk, 2003). According to Bandura (1994), humans have a self-system comprised of attitudes, abilities, and cognitive skills that plays a major role in how they perceive situations and how they behave in response to demanding situations. Self-efficacy is a part of this self-system and serves as a key motivational force to control the cognitive system and psychological aspects (thoughts and feelings); regulate human actions through motivational, affective, and decisional processes (how well they motivate themselves and persevere when they face difficulties, the quality of their emotional life, and vulnerability to stress); and mediate between the development of adequate knowledge and superior performance (Bandura, 1994; Mills et al., 2007). Interdisciplinary research suggests that learner self-efficacy is intertwined with beliefs about learning (Epstein, 1990), and may be seen as a part of beliefs in learning. However, self-efficacy is limited to

individual judgment and self-beliefs in one's ability, whereas belief about learning is a more general cognitive concept about the learner's beliefs in the process of language learning.

Learners' beliefs about language learning can be observed through cognitive, social, and psychological aspects or are based on cultural transmission or experience, and have a powerful influence on the learners' behavior (Pajares, 1996; Riley, 2006). Learners' beliefs about learning vary according to several factors such as age, cultural background, learning environment, stage of learning, and target language (Horwitz, 1999), and are influenced by previous learning experiences (Horwitz, 1987, 1988) and by ethnicity and culture (Horwitz, 1988; Kuntz, 1996; Yang, 1999).

Besides self-efficacy and beliefs about language learning, Oxford (2003) mentioned, learning strategies have also become one of the main factors that help students to become more autonomous, independent, and reasonable, to succeed in learning a second or foreign language. Self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, and learning strategies might be very essential elements in language learning. However, these three factors were not investigated as a whole unit in the learners' language learning development in the existing studies. Due to the importance of these three factors in language learning, so it is essential to investigate these three factors a whole unit.

Self-efficacy and beliefs about language learning have been related to learners' achievements and success (Bandura, 1993; Pajares, 2002), motivation (Genç et al., 2016), and the use of language learning strategies (Horwitz, 1987; Richards & Lockhart, 1994; Yang & Wang, 2015). Based on existing research, there is a positive correlation among self-efficacy, beliefs about language learning, and learning strategies (Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Kim & Lorshbach 2005; Shell et al., 1989; Suwanarak, 2012; Wong, 2005; Woodrow, 2011; Yang, 1999; Yang & Wang, 2015).

Previous studies related to self-efficacy in language use (the productive language skills of speaking and writing) of English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL) learners found that self-efficacy is reflected in learners' achievement and performance. Wong (2005) found out that the Malaysian students who had high writing self-efficacy beliefs spent more time on a writing task, were motivated to earn a good grade and to participate in writing tasks. However, students with lower self-efficacy demonstrated poor

writing performance (Shell et al., 1989). Woodrow (2011) found a significant correlation between Chinese EFL learners' self-efficacy level and their writing performance. Learners with high levels of self-efficacy have more confidence in their speaking ability and show better performance than those with low efficacy beliefs (Kim & Lorshbach, 2005). The lower the learners' anxiety level, the higher their self-efficacy in speaking (Gist & Mitchell, 1992).

In sum, according to the above-mentioned studies, self-efficacy beliefs relate to learners' beliefs, learning strategies, and positive and desired results such as good academic scores or performance. However, a question may be raised about whether the relationship between self-efficacy and performance is always positive (i.e., the more the self-efficacy, the better their performance) or there exists negative or undesirable results under certain conditions.

In spite of the significant correlations among self-efficacy, learners' beliefs, learning strategies, and learners' performance, research has discovered negative significant or insignificant correlations among self-efficacy, beliefs, and learners' performance. For example, Anyadubalu (2010) investigated Thai EFL learners and found no correlation between their English language performance and general self-efficacy, whereas Mullins (1992) found a negative correlation between their affective strategies and some L2 proficiency¹ measures. Among EFL learners in Spain, Turkey, and the Czech Republic, the memory strategies in a test-taking situation were found to have a significant negative relationship with learners' test performance in grammar and vocabulary (Purpura, 1997). These findings are inconsistent with existing theories. Moreover, no significant relationship

¹ The terms performance and proficiency are intertwined and both refer to evidence of what a language user is able to do with a language, yet there are significant differences between performance and proficiency, related to content and context familiarity within the assessment (independent or instruction based assessment, and the criteria of the level assessment). Performance is the ability to use language that has been learned and practiced in an instructional setting. Proficiency is the ability to demonstrate what a language user is able to do regardless of where, when or how the language was acquired; the context may or may not be familiar; the evaluation of proficiency is not limited to the content of a particular curriculum that has been taught or learned. Assessments of both performance and proficiency reflect purposeful communication tasks, mirroring real-world uses of language. The difference is, in performance the learners need to show the ability to use the language that has been practiced in familiar contexts and content areas. However, in proficiency the learners need to show the ability to use a language in spontaneous interaction, in an unfamiliar and non-rehearsed context, and in a manner acceptable and appropriate to native speakers of the language (ACTFL, 2012).

was found between self-efficacy and academic performance² (Cho & Shen, 2013; Gebka, 2014). Self-efficacy is also shown to be negatively related to performance at the within-individual level; it increases overconfidence, which in turn increases the chances of committing logical errors (Vancouver & Kendall, 2006). Insignificant or negative correlations in findings are unavoidable; hence, a single explanation for their non-significance cannot be readily identified; however, the reasons for these differences may be explained based on the operationalization³ of self-efficacy, timing of measurements⁴, and cultural differences⁵ (Honicke & Broadbent, 2016).

Based on the previous studies, regarding the relationship between self-efficacy, beliefs, learning strategies, and performance, contradictions among variables exist. Some research found significant positive correlations, but other researchers could not find similar positive correlations and instead, they found significant negative correlation or no correlation at all. In addition, previous research is also not enough to clarify what different types of self-efficacy are possessed by the learners based on their characteristics and by EFL learners on the basis of the condition⁶ or context where acquisition takes place.

These contradictions in previous findings makes it important to investigate self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, learning strategies, and learners' performance to deepen our understanding of their interrelationship and to find out whether one variable influences or contributes toward others in language learning. Despite various attempts to analyze the relation between self-efficacy, beliefs about language learning,

² There are three ranges of performance namely Novice, Intermediate, and Advanced. Performance can be classified into academic performance, language learning performance, classrooms performance, online-learning performance, such as independent project-based learning, or in blended environments (ACTFL, 2012).

³ The basis of using global rather than specific measures of self-efficacy may differ highly in the operationalization of self-efficacy.

⁴ Non-significant correlations were found when measuring self-efficacy and performance in the early stages of language acquisition due to a lack of mastery and experience in learning.

⁵ Insignificant differences as differences in culture and context in learning may cause different results.

⁶ The EFL learners' condition is highly related to the language environment, input, output, and affective factors that influence the learning process (Lauder, 2008). The traditional way of teaching and learning in EFL context causes the learners become passive and receptive and cannot communicate naturally (Fujiwara, 2018). In addition various shortcomings (e.g. limited number of hours in teaching and learning, teachers' ability to instruct the material effectively, unimplemented curriculum or syllabus, lack of materials and facilities, unsupported learning environment) are causing difficulty in language learning (Lauder, 2008), which cause imbalanced development, such as, the learners having sufficient language knowledge, yet difficulty in transforming it into language use (Kong, 2011).

learning strategies, and learners' performance, little is known about what lies beneath the correlation.

Previous research mentions that self-efficacy can predict performance; highly self-efficacious yet low-skilled learners may achieve higher score on tests than those with low self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). However, whether this finding is applicable to EFL learners in other contexts with various individual differences and learning conditions is questionable.

For EFL learners, language knowledge and language use⁷ are essential as English is an international language. Having good knowledge of and the ability to use language is said to be the bridge to cross cultural experiences that opens the door to better job prospects in the future. Previous studies about language knowledge and language use did not investigate how the learners' language knowledge is transferred into language use. In language learning development, we cannot only see from one aspect (language knowledge only or language use only) because both aspects are important to be investigated to see what is happening in the learners' learning process. Having language knowledge and to use the language is two different things. Knowing the knowledge without being able to use the language is useless. Language use requires the learner to have grammatical knowledge (linguistic competence) about the language as well as the knowledge of how to use it appropriately in a variety of contexts (Latu, 1994). However, discrepancy may exist and inhibit the transfer of language knowledge and language use. Even if the learners have sufficient language knowledge it does not guarantee the learners can use the language well in the actual performance. Despite the influence of language knowledge, English language use is also influenced by the learners' individual differences such as self-efficacy, beliefs about language learning and learning strategies (Lauder, 2008).

The research concerning the interrelation between individual differences (self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, and learning strategies) and language knowledge

⁷ The language knowledge and language use are intertwined with competence and performance as those terms are closely related. Competence is the learners' knowledge of the language and performance is the actual use of language in a concrete situation (Chomsky, 1965). In this research, language knowledge and language use were assessed quantitatively and qualitatively. Tests of the learners' language knowledge in addition to speaking and writing tests were administered. In-depth interviews were also conducted to confirm the questionnaire data.

and language use is limited. A better understanding of how the EFL learners' language knowledge is reflected in language use with relation to individual differences, such as self-efficacy, learners' beliefs, and learning strategies, is needed. This will provide more opportunities to observe discrepancies which might not have been visible through previous research.

The purpose of this study is to explore the individual differences, such as self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, and learning strategies with relation to language knowledge and language use. This research also investigates whether the learners act differently based on their self-efficacy and whether there exists any correlation among self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, learning strategies, language knowledge, and language use. For these purposes, the present study conducted a case study on Balinese EFL learners who are focused on improving their self-efficacy in productive language skills, such as writing as well as speaking which is more closely related to better job prospects and to communicating with native English speakers.

Unlike Asian EFL learners in general, who are passive learners and remain silent because they are shy when it comes to speaking and communicating in English, and learn English only for entrance examinations (Aubrey, 2014), the Balinese EFL learners are active, have a strong desire and motivation to learn English, and are self-efficacious not only in their writing skills but also in their speaking skills. In addition, they do not tend to hesitate to speak and communicate in English (Permatasari & Arianti, 2006). The Balinese EFL learners are different from Indonesian EFL learners in general who are reluctant to speak, rarely respond, and hardly raise questions because their prior learning experience only exposed them to grammar and memorization (Tresnawati & Musthafa, 2015). Balinese EFL learners are also different from Japanese EFL learners, who tend to show a passive attitude and remain silent in class. The attitude toward learning English plays a less important role in Japan because Japanese EFL learners are mainly focused on learning English for entrance examinations (Aubrey, 2014).

Furthermore, speaking is often performed in real time under time constraint conditions. The learners' conscious recognition of their own abilities is more difficult when they speak rather than when they write. This gap causes a discrepancy and results in a difficult

interrelation between language knowledge and language use. This gap and its discrepancy in Balinese EFL learners, which were not found in the previous studies, provide an opportunity to explore the relation of self-efficacy, beliefs, learning strategies, and how the learners transform their language knowledge into language use amid a shortage of opportunities to learn and use the language.

The present research argues that self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, and learning strategies might correlate with language knowledge and language use; however, discrepancies among these aspects may result in the unsuccessful application of language knowledge to language use. It is also argued that the correlation between self-efficacy, beliefs, and learning strategies, and language knowledge and language use does not always exist and that the way these variables are interrelated may differ depending on the type of self-efficacy of learners. In order to examine whether a positive relationship exists between self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, and learning strategies and language knowledge and language use, and whether any discrepancy might occur in these variables, the author conducted an empirical research focused on Balinese EFL learners.

1.2 Research Questions

In order to access the validity of the arguments in the previous section, the following main research questions will be investigated:

“With limited access to English language learning, few opportunities for using the language, and the individual differences in the EFL learners' context, how the EFL learners interrelate their language knowledge with language use. Furthermore, how does self-efficacy affect learners' beliefs about language learning and learning strategies in relating language knowledge to language use.”

To answer the main research question, this study proposes three sub-questions as follows:

1. What is the Balinese EFL learners' self-efficacy regarding their productive English skills?
2. What is the Balinese EFL learners' beliefs about language learning and learning strategies? Whether their self-efficacy relates to and influences their beliefs about language learning and learning strategies?

3. What is the effect of self-efficacy, beliefs about language learning, and learning strategies on the interrelation between language knowledge and language use?

1.3 Contribution to Literature

Theoretically, this study attempts to fill the gap in literature concerning whether self-efficacy affects and influences beliefs about language learning and learning strategies in relating language knowledge to language use, and how discrepancies in these variables inhibit the interrelation between language knowledge and language use.

This study is also expected to have pedagogical significance in that it might contribute to improve the EFL teaching and learning process. Researching the learners' self-efficacy, beliefs in language learning, and learning strategies will help in providing the teachers with a deeper understanding of how to guide, train, and provide learners with a better understanding to avoid misconceptions. This research will also help teachers to explore the effects of students' individual differences on the learning process and development, especially how the learners' language knowledge is related to language use.

1.4 Scope of the Study

As this research is focused on learners' output, the author investigates the correlation between the individual differences in speaking self-efficacy, writing self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, and learning strategies in the interrelation of language knowledge and language use.

The reason for choosing language use in the context of ordinary life is because the researcher wants to observe and analyze language use in communication and interaction in both spoken and written forms. Learners' language use depends on the situation and the context in which communication takes place. In an academic or educational setting, a formal spoken situation may arise in the form of interaction between teachers and students while formal written language use can be seen in the testing or exam setting. However, discussions between students in the classroom or conversation practice outside of the classroom may take place in an informal spoken and written setting as well. In tourism, and work or business

situations, formal and informal spoken and written language use also depends on who uses the language with whom, the setting, and the situation in which the language is being used.

1.5 Organization of the Thesis

This thesis is organized into the following chapters:

Chapter I: Introduction

This current chapter contains the background of the research, the purpose of the research, the research questions, and describes the chapter structure.

Chapter II: Literature Review

This chapter reviews the various issues related to the topic of the study. It contains an overview of self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, language knowledge, language use, the relation between language knowledge and language use, as well as the definitions, terms, and aspects of speaking and writing. The theoretical framework of the research will be developed through the discussion.

Chapter III: Research Design and Methodology

The design of the study, and its strategy and methodology are described in this chapter. It includes a description of the instruments used for the study, the data collection procedures, and the tasks and activities performed during data collection. In this research, both quantitative and qualitative methods are employed. The primary approach is qualitative, with the main data having been collected from the interviews and classroom student observations. The quantitative data was collected from questionnaires and are supplemented by the language knowledge and language use test results and speaking and writing test. The report of the findings contains:

- (1) Descriptive analyses (frequencies, means, and standard deviations) of Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) and Strategy Inventory of Language Learning (SILL) questionnaire.

- (2) Normality Test of the independent and dependent variables to find out whether there is normal distribution in the variables.
- (3) Exploratory factor analysis to reduce BALLI and SILL variables.
- (4) Cronbach Alpha Reliability and Composite Reliability to test the reliability and to find out the consistency of the research variables.
- (5) Kruskal-Wallis H Test, a non-parametric statistic test to test the influence of and difference among different rank groups.
- (6) Spearman rank correlation analysis to test the correlation between different variables.
- (7) Qualitative analysis of the open-ended data to clarify and confirm the results of quantitative analysis.

Chapter IV: Findings and Discussion

This chapter discusses EFL learners' self-efficacy regarding their productive English skills, and how it relates to and influences their beliefs and learning strategies based on the results of self-efficacy interview, self-efficacy assessment instrument, and BALLI and SILL questionnaires. This chapter argues that Balinese EFL learners are highly efficacious in speaking and writing skills, hold strong beliefs in language learning, and are motivated to learn. Based on the Kruskal-Wallis H Test and interview, self-efficacy does not influence learners' beliefs in language learning and learning strategies; self-efficacy is crucial in terms of motivating the learners in their language learning process; and learners need to choose appropriate learning strategies to improve their performance.

Chapter V: Findings and Discussion

This chapter discusses how self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, and learning strategies influence EFL learners' transformation of language knowledge into language use based on results of the DIALANG language knowledge test, language use test, Spearman correlation analysis, and interview analysis.

This research argues that learners' language knowledge is interrelated with but does not always reflect in language use. Self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language

learning, and learning strategies play critical roles in the interrelation of language knowledge and language use; however, discrepancies among these variables may inhibit this interrelation.

Chapter VI: Conclusion, Implications, and Recommendations for Future Research

This chapter integrates conclusions of Chapters IV and V, and provides a thorough conclusion of this thesis. Limitations of this study, and implications and recommendations for future research are also presented.

1.6. Conclusion

The aims of the present study are to bridge the gap in literature related to the effect and influence of self-efficacy on learners' beliefs about language learning, learning strategies, language knowledge, and language use; and to find out the discrepancies in individual differences of self-efficacy, beliefs, and learning strategies that may inhibit the interrelation between language knowledge and language use.

This chapter outlines the background of the present study, followed by addressing the research questions, presenting the contribution and scope of the study, and describing the structure of this study. The next chapter reviews the previous studies on self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, learning strategies, language knowledge, and language use.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to review the previous studies on the learners' beliefs about language learning, self-efficacy, learning strategy, language knowledge, and language use, and to identify what is necessary to better understand the relationships among them.

2.2 Learners' Beliefs about Language Learning

2.2.1 The history and definitions of learners' beliefs

Beliefs have long been investigated in the field of education, sociology, psychology, and anthropology. However, in the field of educational linguistics or applied linguistics, they came under investigation in the middle of the 1980s with Horwitz, Wenden and Holec, as the pioneers in the work of "beliefs" (Barcelos, 2006). The interest in investigating learners' beliefs is the result of a shift in focus on what characterizes good language learners. In the earlier investigations, the observation of good language learners was seen from the perspective of their motivation, aptitude, personality, and learning strategies. Then, researchers considered that beliefs are also included in the individual learners' differences that influence the process and outcome of second/ foreign language learning/ acquisition (Barcelos, 2006). Since then beliefs have also been investigated in the field of applied linguistics to discover the differences in the SLA process.

Learners' beliefs about language learning lie in the context of cognitive, psychology, education, and applied linguistics. Because of the complexities in the human mind, Peng (2011) stated that learners' beliefs have multidimensional concepts and because of the immense interest in beliefs during these four decades, there are many different terms that refer to beliefs created by the researchers as stated in Table 1.

Table 1. Definition of beliefs by previous researchers

Terms and Author	Definitions
Definite viewpoints and Preconceived ideas (Horwitz, 1987, 1988)	“Beliefs as ‘definite viewpoints’ and ‘preconceived ideas’ about how a second (or foreign) language may best be learned” (p.283)
Beliefs (Wenden, 1986)	“Opinions which are based on experience and the opinions of respected others, which influence the way they [students] act.” (p.5)
Metacognitive knowledge (Wenden, 1986)	“The stable, the state of being stable, although sometimes incorrect knowledge that learners have acquired about language, learning and the language learning process; also referred to as knowledge or concepts (person, task, and strategic) about language learning or learner beliefs” (p.163)
Learner representations (Holec, 1987)	“Learners’ entering assumptions about their roles and functions of teachers and teaching materials.” (p.152)
Cultural beliefs (Gardner, 1988)	“Expectations in the mind of teachers, parents and students concerning the entire second language acquisition task.” (p.122)
Various concepts of belief (Pajares, 1992)	“Belief is the attitudes, values, judgments, axioms, opinions, ideology, perceptions, conceptions, conceptual systems, preconceptions, dispositions, implicit theories, explicit theories, personal theories, internal mental processes, action strategies, rules of practice, practical principles, perspectives, repertoires of understanding and social strategy” (p.309)
Folk linguistic theories of learning (Miller & Ginsberg, 1995)	“Ideas that students have about language and language learning.” (p.294)
Culture of learning languages (Barcelos, 1995)	“Learners’ intuitive implicit (or explicit) knowledge made of beliefs. Myths, cultural assumptions and ideals about how to learn languages. This knowledge, according to learners’ age and social economic level, is based upon their previous education experience,

	previous (and present) readings about language learning and contact with other people like family, friends, relatives, teachers and so forth.” (p.40)
Dynamic and social concept (Kalaja, 1995)	“A dynamic and socially constructed concept of the learners in learning language and belief can be changed” (p.192)
Culture of learning (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)
Conceptions of learning and beliefs (Benson & Lor, 1999)	“Conceptions of learning are concerned with what the learners think the objects and processes of learning <i>are</i> ”; beliefs [...] are concerned with what the learner holds to be true about these objects and processes given a certain conception of what they are.” “.... Conceptions of learning characterize learners’ thinking at a higher level of abstraction than beliefs” (p.464)
A form of thought (Barcelos, 2006)	“A form of thought that is not only a cognitive concept but also social constructs born of our experiences and problem.” (p.10)
Personal judgment (Suarez, et al.,2015)	“Beliefs are personal judgments that can be rational or irrational about our reality. Beliefs do not only give sense to reality but they guide our actions. The development of these judgments depends on the interaction of individuals within a context. Thus beliefs can become a powerful influence upon actions and discourses within any given context” (p.141)
Proposition (Gandee, 2016)	“A belief is a proposition which may be consciously or unconsciously held, is evaluative in that it is accepted as true by the individual and is therefore imbued with emotive commitment; further, it serves as a guide to thought and behavior” (p.76)

Definition of beliefs were created by the author based on Barcelos (2006:9-10) and other sources.

Beliefs about language learning can be defined as opinions and knowledge (Wenden, 1986); implicit or explicit knowledge (Barcelos, 1995); assumptions (Holec, 1987);

expectations (Gardner, 1988); ideas (Miller & Ginsberg, 1995); concepts (Kalaja, 1995; Benson & Lor, 1999); representations, values, and thoughts about and related to language learning and the SLA task (Barcelos, 1995; Barcelos, 2006; Benson & Lor, 1999; Cortazzi & Jin, 1996; Gardner, 1988; Holec, 1987; Kalaja, 1995; Riley, 1997; Wenden, 1986). Beliefs come not only from cognitive concepts but also from previous education (Barcelos, 1995), social constructs, experiences, problems (Barcelos, 1995, 2006; Wenden, 1986); and contact with family, friends, teachers, and other people (Barcelos, 1995). The interpretation of the definitions of beliefs by the researchers detailed above argue that beliefs are cognitive concepts in the learners' minds that are related to their opinions, ideas, representations, explicit and implicit thoughts, and investigating beliefs then means focusing on what the students do know instead of on what they need to know. Different beliefs/notions about language learning held by the learners and what they know refer to what they have already learned or acquired from their previous learning experience or have been shaped by their cultural background (Horwitz, 1987). It means that language learning does not only count on the present experience, but also on prior learning experience and cultural background takes a role in shaping the learners' knowledge and beliefs.

Based on the definitions and theories about beliefs as mentioned above, this research defines beliefs as forms of thought, learners' conceptions, assumptions, and opinions about their language learning and as an important factor that influences the learners' behavior, actions, outcomes, and language learning practices. Beliefs are formed in time and come cognitively from the learner's mind. Furthermore, they play a critical role in language learning because they provide motivation for the learner.

2.2.2 Fundamental assumptions on beliefs in language learning

Whereas the other researchers mentioned above see belief from cognitive, social, and psychological aspects, Pajares (1992:324) proposes "fundamental assumptions" concerning the nature, origins, and roles of beliefs as follows:

1. Beliefs are formed early, through a process of cultural transmission, and tend to self-perpetuate, persevering even against contradictions caused by reason, time, schooling, or experience.

2. The earlier a belief is incorporated into the belief structure, the more difficult it is to alter. Belief changes during adulthood are relatively rare.
3. Beliefs are instrumental in defining tasks and selecting the cognitive tools with which to interpret, plan, and make decisions regarding tasks. Beliefs affect an individual's behavior strongly.

Pajares' (1992) fundamental assumptions about beliefs were created in the context of ESL and needed to be observed further to test the nature and role of beliefs in the context of EFL learners to see whether all items are applicable or need to be adjusted based on the setting.

Seen either as cognitive and psychological aspects or based on cultural transmission or experience, thus far beliefs are linked to, and have powerful influence on the behavior of learners in terms of both being related to and affecting one another (Pajares, 1996; Riley, 2006). Riley (2006) stated that if learner beliefs are consistent with accepted good learning practices⁸, or at least the practices of the current learning setting, then the effect of the beliefs is likely to be beneficial and a positive learning outcome is possible. For example, if the learners believe that repetition and practicing are the key to successful language learning (Yeo & Fazio, 2018), they will welcome the opportunity for any activities related to repeating and practicing in formal or informal education. However, if learner beliefs are not consistent⁹ with good learning practices or with the practices of the instruction, then the effect of the beliefs are likely to be harmful, and the learning outcome is more likely to be negative (Riley, 2006). Beliefs affect the learner's behavior and attitude. When the learners have positive beliefs, it is likely that they will behave according to their beliefs. By contrast, if they have negative beliefs, they will also be unconsciously influenced. If the learners always hold positive beliefs at their language learning, they will have positive attitudes and behavior that can lead to good performance. However, negative beliefs may harm learners because they keep thinking negatively, and this will not provide a good result for their

⁸ The good learning practices consist of any technique or method that include teacher and students that can lead to a desired result to ensure student success (Li, 2013). There is no specific or one-fit theory for all because the good learning practice depends on the contextual situation and varies according to the needs of the students.

⁹ There is a self-contradictory between the teacher and learners' beliefs and good learning practice.

language learning development. Learners need to be guided to be aware that they have to control their beliefs and not rely on them in making decisions or in their language learning, because beliefs do not always reflect reality.

2.2.3 Beliefs approaches

Based on the definition of beliefs, methodology, and the relationship between beliefs and action, Barcelos (2006) categorizes studies on beliefs into three approaches: The normative, metacognitive, and contextual approaches.

The Normative Approach

Studies that use this approach describe and classify the types of beliefs and see beliefs about SLA as indicators of students' future behavior as autonomous or competent learners. In this approach, beliefs are defined as "preconceived notions, myths, or misconceptions" (Horwitz, 1987:119; 1988:126) and the learners' beliefs are stated as wrong or false opinions and ideas.

Likert-type questionnaires and descriptive analysis are used as the methodology in this approach to investigate beliefs about SLA. Horwitz's beliefs about language learning inventory (BALLI) questionnaire is the most widely used as well as another Likert-scales (Beliefs about Language Learning Questionnaire by Campbell et al., 1993; Kuntz-Rifkin Instrument by Kuntz, 1996; Modified BALLI by Mantley-Bromley, 1995) that were also created to measure beliefs in this approach (Barcelos, 2006). The intention of the BALLI questionnaire was not to categorize students' opinions as right or wrong, but to illustrate, describe, and discuss specific beliefs and the potential effects of these beliefs on learners' expectations and strategies (Horwitz, 1987). In this approach, beliefs are related to the students' behavior in conceptualizing and interpreting the learning and determining the language learning strategies they use (Horwitz, 1987; Richards & Lockhart, 1994).

The Metacognitive Approach

This approach is supported mainly by Wenden (1985), in which she defined beliefs as "metacognitive knowledge: stable and sometimes fallible; individual, subjective

understandings, idiosyncratic truths, which are often value-related and characterized by a commitment” (Wenden, 1998:517). The methodology used in this approach is semi-structured interviews and self-reports. Rather than using the BALLI questionnaire, the researchers using this approach created their questionnaire, such as Beliefs Questionnaire by Victori, 1992 and Beliefs Questionnaire by Victori & Lockhart, 1995 (as cited in Barcelos, 2006) with the intention of finding other possibilities regarding beliefs about learning that are not covered by the BALLI questionnaire. In this approach, the students’ self-directed learning and learning strategies are related. Furthermore, beliefs and actions are seen as cause-and-effect relationships, if the learners have positive beliefs they will be able to engage in self-directed learning which may lead them to successful strategies. However, negative beliefs will lead them to non-autonomous behavior and unsuccessful strategies. This approach does not infer beliefs from action, only from intentions and statements (Barcelos, 2006).

The Contextual Approach

This approach uses a variety of methods that include ethnographic classroom observations, diaries and narratives, metaphor analysis, discourse analysis, and a mixed method of students’ observation, semi-structured interviews, and open-ended questionnaires. Based on the studies within the contextual approach, learners’ beliefs are described as fluid, continually changing, and context dynamic because they include the students’ individual differences, experiences, specific cultural or social cultural contexts, and educational contexts, and are recognized as part of the learners’ experiences which are interrelated with their environment or interaction with other learners (Abreu, 2015; Peng, 2011; Tanaka & Ellis, 2003; Zhong, 2015). There are many studies using the contextual and normative approaches because the ability to investigate beliefs through many different contexts allows researchers to explore beliefs and their related aspects more.

There are always advantages and disadvantages in each approach, although the distinction between the three approaches may not be straightforward. The three different approaches above have their own characteristics in defining, analyzing, and measuring beliefs. In addition, they also differ in the tools they use to investigate, how they collect and analyze the data, and how they see the relationship between beliefs and action. The normative approach collects data through Likert-scale questionnaires and the BALLI questionnaire is the most frequently used tool as it is seen as the most relevant and reliable instrument. Despite the usefulness of this approach in investigating beliefs in a large number of participants, the investigation responses are limited only to the questionnaire. The metacognitive approach uses interviews and self-reports, allowing learners to reflect their language learning by using their own words. However, it refers only to the students' statements. The contextual approach uses observation, interviews, diaries, case studies, and metaphor analysis. It allows researchers to investigate beliefs by listening to the learners and considering their learning contexts and experience, however, it is time-consuming and therefore suitable only for small samples.

Thus far, beliefs are known as a cognitive, social, and psychological constructs. Beliefs are flexible, which means changes are unavoidable in specific situations (Tanaka & Ellis, 2003). They vary according to several factors such as age, cultural (or ethnic) background, learning environment, stage of learning, and target language (Horwitz, 1999). They are influenced by previous learning experiences (Horwitz, 1987, 1988), and by ethnicity and culture (Horwitz, 1988; Kuntz, 1996; Yang, 1999).

In terms of how beliefs change, the normative and metacognitive approaches view beliefs as generally stable, static, and resistant to change, a good indicator of future students' behaviors, autonomy, and effectiveness as language learners (Horwitz, 1988; Wenden, 1998). However, the normative and metacognitive approaches have failed to consider the experience-based nature of beliefs by looking at the students' own terms, treating beliefs as stable fixed constructs and do not pay attention to the social contexts of beliefs, unlike the contextual approach (Barcelos, 2006). In contrast to the normative and metacognitive approaches, the contextual approach, where the investigation includes the students' experience, learners' specific cultural or social context beliefs, are described as continually

changing and context dynamic (Abreu, 2015; Peng, 2011; Tanaka & Ellis, 2003; Zhong, 2015).

Regarding whether beliefs are stable or change, Hosenfeld (2006) stated:

“Belief can vary along dimensions including stable/ unstable; emerging/fading away; used/unused; new/old; idiosyncratic/universal; evolving/unchanging; recurrent/infrequent.”

(Hosenfeld, 2006:39).

Referring to Hosenfeld's statement, belief is seen as a flexible concept and depends on the treatment or context of the situation. Belief is dynamic, and many factors can influence it. Alexander and Dochy (1995) suggested that belief change agents include education, learning experiences, personality, information, and the nature of the beliefs. The learners' experience during their learning phase might cause a change in their beliefs about learning (e.g. beliefs change before and after study abroad, or because of exposure to a native speaker, or because of special treatment or lessons).

2.2.4. Previous empirical studies on learners' beliefs

Previous studies on learners' beliefs about language learning investigate teachers and learners' similar beliefs about learning (Horwitz, 1987); mismatch between teachers and learners' beliefs (Cephe & Yachin, 2015; Sadeghi & Abdi, 2015); the relation of beliefs to motivation (Kuntz, 1996); the relation of beliefs to educational level and academic achievement (Khodadaddy, 2009); changes in belief in quite complex and critical dynamic transitional periods (Peng, 2011; Zhong, 2015), belief changes because of learners' personal experiences for example study abroad (Tanaka & Ellis, 2003); belief changes because of classroom experiments and treatment (Abreu, 2015); and reading texts inconsistency with learners; and initial beliefs (Wolfe & Williams, 2017). Existing studies have also found that beliefs about learning also correlate to self-efficacy, language learning strategy, and performance¹⁰.

Woods (1997) mentioned that the grounded studies are not enough to provide an understanding of how students actually use beliefs to interpret situations and make decisions

¹⁰ See 2.7 for the details.

in their language learning process in the unique context of the language classrooms. In line with Woods, Barcelos (2006) mentioned that more research is needed to understand learners' beliefs such as what the interrelation of belief and action is, how they interrelate, how belief develops and evolves, how students' personal experiences or social settings help to shape their beliefs and actions, and how learners' beliefs can /cannot change, reflecting belief with social constraint within and outside the classroom.

Previous researchers provide abundant terms and concepts of beliefs in learning. Across previous studies, there is consistent evidence that beliefs are either based on cognitive, psychological, experiential, or cultural transmission, and are linked, shaped, and influenced by the learners' behavior. Thus far, positive beliefs direct the learners to the goal they want to accomplish and negative beliefs demotivate them and lead to failure. Nonetheless, there is a lack of research on how positive beliefs may also demotivate the learners and how learners' beliefs may provide results other than those found in the existing research. Because of the complexities of beliefs about language learning, it is a worthy and promising topic for discussion to examine whether there may be other results that contradict the existing research.

The existing research sometimes uses beliefs in language learning interchangeably with self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is seen as one's belief in one's ability (Bandura, 1986) to accomplish something successfully. Of all individual differences, self-efficacy is seen as the most crucial aspect influencing and predicting the learners' behavior (Bandura, 1994). Therefore, investigating learners' self-efficacy is important to identify whether it affects other aspects of learning. To explore the relationship and the importance of the self-efficacy belief in the learners' language learning development, the next sub-chapter provides further explanation of self-efficacy belief.

2.3 Self-Efficacy Beliefs

2.3.1 Definition of self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is defined in many terms by previous researchers such as:

1. The part of the self-system that serves as a key motivational force to control the cognitive system and psychological aspects (thoughts and feelings); it regulates humans' action through motivational, affective, and decisional

processes (how well they motivate themselves and persevere when they face any difficulties, the quality of their emotional life and vulnerability to stress); and mediates the development of adequate knowledge to superior performance (Bandura, 1994; Mills et al., 2007).

2. Belief in our own ability that provides learners with “staying power” as survival strength when they face obstacles and distractions (Anam & Stracke, 2016).
3. People’s level of confidence (belief) that they can successfully carry out an action to achieve a specific goal in a particular setting under certain conditions (Bandura, 1997; Zimmerman, 2000).
4. People perceive the belief in their capability to perform specific tasks, as their perceived competency level with performing the task and not as what they are actually capable of accomplishing (Bandura, 1986; 1997).
5. Learners beliefs that they create, develop, and hold to be true about themselves are believed to play an important role in helping them succeed or fail; it “revolves around the question of can,” what the learners can do with their knowledge and skills (Pajares & Schunk, 2002);
6. People's judgment of their ability to perform a specific action (Dorney, 1994).
7. Students’ beliefs about their ability to learn the language (Kalaja, 2006)
8. The judgments the learners hold about their capability to organize and execute the courses of action required to master academic tasks (Mills et al., 2007).

The theories provided above defined self-efficacy belief as an individual judgment about the learners’ ability, their level of confidence that provides them with resilience in performing a specific action that could help in succeeding or failing to complete a task. It refers to what the learners think they “can” do considering their own ability and not what they are actually capable of accomplishing. Self-efficacy is owned differently from learner to learner in each situation (Bandura, 1997). Once a strong sense of efficacy is developed, failure may not have much effect (Dörnyei, 1994). When learners have high self-efficacy, even if they face failure they will not give up or be easily stressed out by the condition. Self-efficacy helps them to gain their motivation and attempt to find a way to accomplish the task.

Compared with students who doubt their learning capabilities, those who feel efficacious in learning or performing a task participate more readily, work harder, persist longer when they encounter difficulties, and achieve at a higher level (Schunk, 2003).

Adopting the theories and definitions above, self-efficacy is defined in this study as an individual judgment, self-belief, level of confidence, and personal determination of one's own ability, and what the learners think that they "can" do, considering their own ability and is not what they are actually capable of accomplishing. Self-efficacy provides resilience in performing a specific action that could help in succeeding in or failing to complete a task.

There are many factors that influence learners' self-efficacy. The detail is presented in the following subsection.

2.3.2 The factors that influence the learner's self-efficacy

Prior research identifies factors that influence self-efficacy such as the source of self-efficacy and the learner's personality.

2.3.2.1. The source of self-efficacy

Bandura (1997) and Schunk (2003) identified the source of self-efficacy as follows:

1. Actual performance and mastery of experience (past experience of success or failure). Students' own performances offer reliable guides for assessing efficacy. In general, successes raise efficacy and failures lower it.
2. Vicarious (observational) experiences/ appraisal abilities. Students acquire efficacy information by socially comparing their performances with those of others (models, peers). Others who are similar offer the best basis for comparison. Students who observe similar peers perform a task are apt to believe that they, too, are capable of accomplishing it.
3. Social persuasion (encouragement or discouragement) from others. Learners are often judged by others and often receive information and verbal persuasion from parents, teachers, coaches, and peers that they are capable of performing a task ("You can do this"). Positive persuasive information raises efficacy, although this increase will be temporary if students subsequently perform poorly.

4. Physiological reactions as affective indicators. Students also acquire efficacy information from such physiological indicators as sweating, heart rate, and emotion. Symptoms signaling anxiety may convey that one lacks skills; experiencing decreased anxiety may raise self-efficacy; and stress can reduce self-efficacy.

The source of self-efficacy is a factor that influences how the learners' hold their self-efficacy in language learning. Both the learners' own and other observational experience along with the learners' physiological and persuasion from other people have been said to influence the learners' self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997; Schunk, 2003). Besides the aforementioned factors, the learner's personality is also seen as a factor that influences their self-efficacy.

2.3.2.2. Five basic personality dimensions

Besides the source of self-efficacy, Djigić (2014) mentioned that the learner's self-efficacy is also influenced by the five basic personality dimensions:

1. Neuroticism differentiates people in terms of stable-instable emotions. Neurotic people are predisposed to experience negative emotions such as sadness, fear, anxiety, wrath, and guilt.
2. Extraversion relates to sociability and activity. People with high scores are talkative and friendly, active, cheerful, optimistic, outgoing, and full of energy. By contrast, introverts are closed, reserved, more independent, and sensitive by nature.
3. Openness refers to intellectual curiosity, preference of diversity, a need for a change and tendency towards experimenting, and an inclination to new ideas and non-conventional values. Open people are characterized by open-mindedness, they question authorities and dogmas, and are liberal and open to novelty.
4. Agreeableness refers to people's trust, altruism, and compassion for others. People with low agreeableness levels tend to be cynical, selfish, suspicious of other's people's intentions, egocentric, and competitive; whereas high levels show a tendency to be cooperative, altruistic, and empathetic.

5. Conscientiousness represents the ability of self-control in the sense of a disciplined inclination towards goals and duties, or a strict holding to one's own principles. Therefore, this dimension is connected to academic and professional success.

According to the previous research, self-efficacy is not only developed and influenced by personal judgment and personality, but also by social experiences. This study attempts to find other factors that may influence the self-efficacy of learners such as their prior learning experience and actual performance. This means that self-efficacy may be the answer to why different individuals' performances differ markedly despite possessing similar knowledge and skills (Bandura, 1986, 1993), or why the same learner performs differently at different times (Bouffard – Bouchard, 2001).

As part of the learners' beliefs about learning, self-efficacy beliefs also have similar characteristics as beliefs, such as the attributions of past accomplishments, prior learning experience, observational experiences (e.g., by observing friends, colleagues and other people), persuasion, reinforcement, and evaluation by others, especially teachers or parents in the learners' present and future learning development. The same learner may perform differently at different times because of their self-efficacy. For example, when learners take an English test for the first time, they may have strong or weak self-efficacy or beliefs about their own ability. If they have strong self-efficacy and knowledge, they may pass the test with a good score. Then when they take another test, and do not prepare well, they may find their self-efficacy is lower than before. Or in another case, when they take an English test without preparation or enough study, their self-efficacy will be low, contrary to when they prepare well for another test and their self-efficacy is higher. Therefore, positive self-efficacy maximizes the level of success students ultimately achieve (Pajares & Valiante, 1999).

What learners believe “will influence their learning much, much more than what [instructors] believe, because it is their beliefs that influence attitudes and learning procedures” (Riley, 2006:152). On the one hand, the self-efficacy belief concept could give the learners an advantage as they will have higher levels of motivation in completing their task. On the other hand, having confidence without realizing their actual performance can

harm them as they rely only on what they believe in rather than finding this truth in their actual performance.

2.3.3 Previous empirical studies on self-efficacy

The existing studies on self-efficacy have found that self-efficacy affects how a person thinks, feels, acts, and is motivated; it is a mediator between people's beliefs and their behaviors, people's knowledge and action (Bandura, 1994, 1997). Self-efficacy enables learners to be more cognitively, behaviorally, and motivationally engaged in their learning processes (Linnerbrink & Pintrich, 2003). It has a powerful influence on the learners' capability to perform a specific task and on their choice and direction of behavior (Bandura, 1986). Wang (2004) identified that students' self-efficacy beliefs are malleable instead of fixed and students with high self-efficacy are more likely to succeed in subsequent tests. He also found that students' behavior such as hand-raising in the classroom, willingness to engage in language activities, and persistence in performing the task were identified as possible evidence of their self-efficacy beliefs.

Previous research focuses on the relation of self-efficacy with achievement (Barton, 2018; Wang, 2004; Zhang, 2018); performance (Sanders-Reio et al. 2014; Stone, 1994; Vancouver et al., 2001, 2002; Vancouver & Kendal, 2006; Whyte et al., 1997); belief mismatch (Sadeghi & Abdi, 2015); achievement and success (Bandura, 1993); and motivation (Genc et al. 2016).

Various disciplines have shown strong positive effects and relations between self-efficacy and performance and other variables; however, over the past decade a number of researchers have questioned the use of correlational studies when examining the relationship between self-efficacy and performance (Stone, 1994; Vancouver et al. 2001, 2002; Vancouver & Kendal, 2006; Whyte et al., 1997).

There are some studies that have shown the negative consequences of self-efficacy on performance. For example, Stone (1994) discovered that high self-efficacy leads to overconfidence in one's abilities. Instead of contributing more of their resources to the task, individuals with high self-efficacy actually contribute less. Whyte et al. (1997) postulated that self-efficacy may act as a source of inappropriate persistence; that is, the individual who

has been successful in the past in those domains in which he/she displays high self-efficacy may develop overconfidence. In line with Stone (1994) and Whyte et al. (1997), Vancouver et al. (2002) also found that self-efficacy led to overconfidence and hence increased the likelihood of committing logic errors. Vancouver et al. (2001) concluded that high self-efficacy creates relaxation and reduces future performance. In their longitudinal study with students, they found a significant and negative relationship between self-efficacy and subsequent performance (at the within person level). That is, the more self-efficacy students had regarding exams, the worse their performance became in later examinations over time. Vancouver and colleagues (Vancouver, et al., 2002; Vancouver & Kendall, 2006) subsequently obtained more findings to support the idea that self-efficacy may have negative consequences on behavior.

More evidence is provided by Anyadubalu's (2010) study on Thai EFL learners, which could not find a correlation between English language performance and general¹¹ self-efficacy. Drawing on these findings, it can be hypothesized that the level of specificity of self-efficacy and performance being examined may affect the relationship between them.

One reason for the negative self-efficacy effect relates to goal discrepancy. That is, an increase in self-efficacy typically allows one to set more challenging goals, which creates a goal discrepancy. However, if individuals believe they are making more progress than is necessary to meet such goals (because of high efficacy beliefs) then they may reduce their efforts in terms of goal pursuit (Vancouver et al. 2002).

2.4. Language Learning Strategies

2.4.1 The history and the definition of learning strategies

The history of language learning strategies started in 1975 when the pioneer in this field, Joan Rubin, published an article "What the 'Good Language Learner' Can Teach Us" presenting her findings about what differentiates a learner and what makes someone a good learner. She determined that successful language learners consistently used certain types of learning strategies, techniques, and approaches in their learning process (Oxford, 2017;

¹¹ Students' self-perception of self-efficacy

Rubin, 1975). There are processes that directly and indirectly contribute to language learning that are related to the strategies in learning to support the learners to be so called “good learners” (Rubin, 1975). Since Rubin’s investigation of good language learners and the role of language learning strategies as an important supporting factor in the acquisition of a language, many researchers have attempted to investigate and explore learning strategies from different perspectives and add definitions of the term “learning strategies.” Table 2 compiles some definitions of learning strategies from the first inventory to the present.

Table 2. Existing Definitions of Learning Strategies

Author	Definition
Rubin (1975:43)	“The technique or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge”
Stern (1983:339)	“General tendencies or overall characteristic of the approach employed by the language learner, leaving technique to refer to particular forms of observable learning behavior”
Rubin (1987:22)	“Strategies which contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affect learning directly”
Oxford (1990:8)	<p>“Specific action taken by the learners to make learning faster, easier, more enjoyable, more self-directed, and more transferrable to the new situations”</p> <p>Prototypical-definitional features of language learning strategies:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Contribute to.....communicative competence 2. Allow the learners to become self-directed 3. Expand the role of teacher (to guide and to facilitate) 4. Are problem-oriented, because learning involves problem solving 5. Are specific action taken by the learner 6. Involves many aspects of the learners (cognitive, emotional, social) 7. Support learning both directly and indirectly 8. Are not always observable; some are purely mental and hence unobservable 9. Are often conscious (this was later change to remove “often”) 10. Can be taught 11. Are flexible

	12. Are influenced by a variety of factors, such as task requirements, teacher expectations, learning style, personality, traits, motivation, culture and others
Cohen (1998:4).	The processes which are consciously selected by learners and which may result in action taken to enhance the learning or use of a second or foreign language, through the storage, retention, recall, and application of information about that language.
Oxford (2011:12)	Self-regulated learning strategies: “deliberate, goal-oriented attempts to manage and control effort to learn; teachable actions that learners choose from among alternatives and employ for L2 learning purposes” Prototypical-definitional features of self-regulated learning strategies: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “Are employed consciously, involving four elements of consciousness (awareness, attention, intention and effort” 2. “Make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, and more effective” 3. Are manifested through specific tactics in different context and different purposes 4. Reflect the whole, multidimensional learner, not just the learners’ cognitive and metacognitive aspects
Griffith (2013:15)	“Activities consciously chosen by learners for the purpose of regulating their own language learning” Prototype-definitional features of learning strategies are activity; consciousness; choice; goal-orientation; regulation; learning focus
Horwitz (2013:274)	“Activities or techniques that learners can use to improve or enhance their target language ability”
Dörnyei and Ryan (2015:146)	“Strategic in a strict sense, that is..... Involving appropriate and purposeful behavior to enhance the effectiveness of learning”
Griffiths (2017) in Oxford (2017:17)	“Actions chosen by learners (either deliberately or automatically) for the purpose of learning or regulating the learning of language”
Oxford (2017:48)	“ <i>L2 Learning Strategies</i> are complex, dynamic thoughts and actions, selected and used by learners with some degree of consciousness in specific context in order to regulate multiple aspects of themselves (such as cognitive, emotional, and social)

Existing definitions of learning strategies were cited from Oxford (2017)

Oxford did an amazing job of collecting and discussing hundreds of studies on language learning strategies covering more than four decades. She is consistent with her definition of language learning strategies from her first proposed theory in 1989 that strategy relates to the behavior, thought, and actions of the learners to support their language learning development, improve performance, and to gain proficiency. In choosing learning strategies, she argued that the learners are somewhat conscious, and the strategies chosen are also related to the learners' cognitive, emotional, and social contexts and conditions. She added that learners choose and use the strategies in various flexible and creative ways to achieve their goal yet still feel the enjoyment and excitement in learning. She found that strategies are teachable, observable, and contextual.

Table 2 shows the similarities among researchers' views on or definitions of language learning strategies. Forty-five years ago, strategy was defined as a technique or device (Rubin, 1975). Then it was defined as tendencies or characteristics of approaches (Stern, 1983); behavior, action, and thought (Cohen, 1998; Oxford, 1990); activity (Griffith, 2017); activity and techniques (Horwitz, 2013); attempt and effort (Oxford, 2011); and strategies (Dörnyei & MacIntyre, 2015; Rubin, 1987). All these different yet relatable learning strategy terms have the same focus or goal, that is to support language learner in acquiring, storing, decoding, remembering, comprehending, and using the knowledge; and take the learners from semi to fully consciously making learning easier, and more enjoyable, with the ultimate goal of becoming a successful learner. The large body of research over the last forty years proves that learning strategies are seen as a crucial factor for language learners.

The reasons that learning strategies are important (Oxford, 2013) are stated below:

1. Students will feel responsible for their own progress.
2. Students who can choose the appropriate strategies tend to learn more effectively. Effective learners use strategies more frequently and know how to choose the appropriate strategies for the right task.
3. Students who use correct strategies for the right task will experience success and this will improve their motivation for further learning.
4. Learning strategies will enable students to cope with their learning which leads to boosting their learning autonomy and will help make them independent of

classroom interaction to continue studying outside the school or classroom. In short, it also helps them to be more autonomous and independent as learners.

Language learning strategies are important for helping learners to be more autonomous, independent, responsible, and to succeed in their learning. However, the emphasis is not only on the strategy itself, but also on the learner who uses it. If the learner consciously chooses the right strategy, or chooses the strategies that fit his or her learning styles, and then uses them frequently and effectively, then these strategies become a “useful toolkit for active, conscious, and purposeful self-regulation of learning” that can lead people to becoming successful learners (Oxford, 2003:2)

There are various classifications in language learning strategies:

1. Resnick and Beck (1976) divided learning strategies into general strategies, which refer to general learning behavior considering learning as activities connected with reasoning and thinking, and meditational strategies, which refer to specific skills or tactics used when completing a task.
2. Kirby (1984) defines two types of strategies: micro strategies that deal with specific tasks in a specific learning activity, dependent on and responsive to the task; and macro strategies that relate to cultural and stylistic differences among individuals and which are more difficult to change by instruction.
3. O’Malley et al. (1985) classified language learning strategies into three major categories: metacognitive (strategies of managing learning, including planning, thinking, monitoring, and evaluating); cognitive (key to understanding and being able to use the language defined as repeating, translating, grouping, note taking, and deduction); and socio-affective (including cooperation and questions for clarification; this refers to learning behaviors that involve interaction with others) strategies.
4. Rubin (1987) classified learning strategies into three major categories: learning, communicative, and social. Learning strategies fall into two sub-categories, direct and indirect, each of which can be classified into a number of more specific strategies.
5. Oxford (1990) classified language learning strategies into two major categories: direct and indirect. These categories are further divided into some subcategories such as memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies in the direct category, and

metacognitive, affective, and social strategies in the indirect. Each of these strategies can be subdivided into other more specific strategies that make up a total number of 35 distinct strategies under direct and 27 others under indirect.

From the existing definitions and classifications of learning strategies, this study defines learning strategies as particular actions taken or created by the learners to help them in enhancing their learning development, inside and outside the classroom, formally and informally. In relation to the definition of the language knowledge in this study, learning is not only a matter of formal learning in the classroom situation, but also of informal learning outside of the classroom.

Among the numerous types of language learning strategy classified by the previous researchers, this study uses Oxford's language learning strategy because it is the most certain and efficient method for investigating learners' language learning strategies. In addition, this classification was chosen because it provides a comprehensive explanation of learners' learning strategies, complete with the inventory to assess them. The following section describes Oxford's language learning strategies in detail.

2.4.2 Oxford's Learning Strategies

Oxford (1990) gathered a large number of language learning strategies and based on factor analyses, divided them into direct and indirect strategies and then classified them into six sub-groups.

Direct Strategies

- I. Memory strategies are techniques to remember more effectively, to retrieve and transfer information needed for future language use. They help students to store important information gathered from their learning in their memory. They help learners to link one second language (L2) item or concept with another but do not necessarily involve deep understanding. They comprise learning strategies that enable the learners to remember more effectively. This type of strategy enables the creation of mental linkages; grouping, applying, and representing images and sound in memory, reviewing well, employing

action to learn and retrieve information in an orderly string (e.g., acronyms); whereas 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 page or blackboard).

II. Cognitive strategies enable the learner to manipulate the language material in direct ways. They include not only reasoning, analysis, and drawing conclusions, but also note-taking, summarizing, synthesizing, outlining, receiving and sending messages, repeating, reorganizing information to develop stronger schemas (knowledge structures), practicing in naturalistic settings, and creating and practicing the structure of input and output and sounds formally. Oxford (1990) regards cognitive strategies to be responsible for understanding and producing the target language. She indicated that cognitive strategies could be crucial to learning a new language, because they allow learners to manipulate and use the input immediately.

III. Compensation strategies help the learner make up for missing knowledge. They allow the students to use language to speak and write in the target language even when their vocabulary is limited. Some examples are guessing intelligently from the context; overcoming limitations by using synonyms and “talking around” the missing word to aid speaking and writing; switching to the mother tongue, using gestures or pause words; and using other clues.

Indirect Strategies

I. Metacognitive strategies help students to coordinate the learning process by centering, arranging, planning, and evaluating their learning.

This is related to organizing and learning strategies. Examples of these strategies include identifying one’s own learning style preferences and needs

planning for an L2 task, gathering and organizing materials, arranging a study space and a schedule, self-monitoring mistakes, evaluating task success, and evaluating the success of any type of learning strategy. These strategies are actions that go beyond, beside or with purely cognitive devices, and provide a way for learners to coordinate their own learning process.

- II. Affective strategies are related to identifying and managing one's mood and anxiety level to control emotions, attitudes, motivations, and values. These comprise lowering anxiety, encouraging learners by giving rewards or having positive self-talk, taking the emotional temperature, and discussing feelings with others.

- III. Social strategies are related to social interaction and expose the students to an environment where practice is possible. These strategies help learners to work with others and understand the target culture as well as the language. They include asking questions to get verification; cooperating with others, for example, asking for help in doing a language task; talking with a native-speaking conversation partner; empathizing with others in asking for clarification of a confusing point; and developing and exploring cultural understanding of social norms.

Based on this classification, Oxford (1990) developed an inventory named the strategy inventory for language learning (SILL). This instrument aims to assess the frequency of students' use of language learning strategies. Since its development, the SILL has been used to assess the learning strategy use of more than 10000 learners worldwide and has been translated so far into a large number of languages including Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Greek Japanese, Korean, Portuguese, Russian, Serbo-Croatian, Spanish, Swedish, Thai, Ukrainian, and Greek (Oxford, 1990, 1996). This inventory has been used globally with varying results depending on the cultural background of the subject of study (the complete items of the SILL questionnaire can be seen in Appendix 8).

Oxford (1990) uses the SILL to demonstrate the strong relationships among learning strategies factors, self-rating language proficiency, and language motivation. It is used extensively to measure strategies and other variables, and has also been adjusted by other researchers in the ESL/ EFL context for a great deal of research in the learning strategy field. These self-reports are seen as “easy and quick to give, the most cost-effective, provides immediate learner feedback, reliable and valid across many cultural groups and are seen as “the most comprehensive classification of learning strategies” (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995:2).

The learners need to be exposed to different learning strategies (Oxford, 1990, 2011). Every learner needs to be guided to choose which strategies fit their learning development. A specified strategy is useful only when the strategy addresses the L2 task at hand, which means that the strategy’s relevance depends on the task demands and on the learners employing it effectively and linking it to other relevant strategies (Oxford & Schramm, 2007). The learners need to be taught the language and the proper strategies for effective learning (Rubin et al., 2007). Learners will not easily find the most appropriate strategies and be successful unless they are aware of and select strategies based on some task, skill, and goal (Gu, 2003).

2.4.3 Previous empirical studies on learning strategies

Previous research on language learning strategies found that L2 learning strategy use is significantly related to L2 learning motivation, gender, age, culture, brain hemisphere dominance, career orientation, academic majors, beliefs, and the nature of L2 tasks (Oxford, 1999). Other research also found that there are significant relationships between strategy use and course level (Griffith, 2003); learning strategies and beliefs about learning (Horwitz, 1987; Zhong, 2015); learning strategies and motivation (Richards & Lockhart, 1994); and among learning strategies, motivation, beliefs about learning, and proficiency (Ghvamnia et al., 2011).

Regarding the correlation between learning strategies with performance, cognitive psychologists have mentioned the mental processes involved in creating new memories and the recovery of memories as encoding and retrieval, affecting learning, thinking, and

behavior (Markovits & Weinstein, 2018). Emotional intelligence and learning strategies are among the major requirements for success and academic achievement, and there is a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence components and learning strategy components, namely self-efficacy, rehearsal, critical thinking, cognitive self-regulation, time and study environment management, peer learning, and help-seeking (Sheikhbardsiri et al., 2020).

Learning strategies have also been linked to each of the four language skills of listening, reading, speaking, and writing (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995:2); and there are significant different strategies used by good learners (Yilmaz, 2010).

Despite the large number of significant correlations among self-efficacy, learning strategies, and learners' performance, there are some studies that find them insignificant. Some findings that are partially inconsistent with the existing theories including the negative link between affective strategies with some measures of L2 proficiency in Thailand EFL learners (Mullins, 1992); and the negative relationship between memory strategies and the learners' test performance in grammar and vocabulary in a test-taking situation of EFL learners in Spain, Turkey, and the Czech Republic (Purpura, 1997).

The differences in findings are unavoidable because of the operationalization¹² of self-efficacy, the timing of measurement, and the cultural differences (Honicke & Broadbent, 2016). In addition, the learners, situations, and learners' goals also differentiate the relationship amongst variables (Bandura, 1997; Pintrich, 2000; Vancouver et al., 2001). For example, in *context A* the learners learn a language for the purpose of communicating with native speakers of that language; whereas, in *context B* the main goal for the learners is to become proficient writers. Learners also show different perceptions of what is considered easy and difficult in language learning. Some may consider grammar the most difficult task and others consider speaking the hardest. Regarding learning strategies, learners are found to use different strategies because they may have different expectations about language learning. Different expectations and goals in learning cause learners to apply different strategies. Oxford (2003) stated that in evaluating the success of any strategies, instruction

¹² This refers to how the self-efficacy hold by the learners; their confidence about what they can do regarding their target behavior.

teachers should look for individuals' progress toward L2 proficiency and for signs of increased self-efficacy or motivation.

Based on the literature review, the correlation of self-efficacy and learning strategies should be further analyzed to clarify the relationship among these variables, and whether different contexts, conditions, and types of self-efficacy differentiate the learners' use of learning strategies.

Having discussed the concepts of learners' beliefs about learning, self-efficacy, and learning strategies, the next section explores the concepts of language knowledge and language use.

2.5 Language Knowledge

2.5.1 Definition and categorization of language knowledge

There are many definitions of language knowledge according to different researchers, authors, and scholars, including the conventional level of linguistic descriptions which include pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and discourse (Bygate, 1987); mastery of the language (Otwinowska, 2015); and knowledge that is gleaned from prior language experience (Willits et al., 2015).

However, Platonic conception proposes that,

“Knowledge of a particular language grows and matures along a course that is in part intrinsically determined, with modification reflecting observed usage, rather in the manner of the visual system or other bodily “organs” that develop along a course determined by genetic instruction under the triggering and shaping effects of environmental factors.”

(Platonic conception as cited in Chomsky, 1986:2)

In defining language knowledge, Plato analyzed it through a deeper thought through cognitive and psychological aspects. The process of achieving knowledge of language is based on a course and process of knowing and learning something in which this process is adjustable and can be grown, generated, and determined because of experimental use in the surrounding.

In line with the Platonic concept, which sees language knowledge from cognitive and psychological aspects, Chomsky (1982:3) proposed that knowledge of language is constituted by a theory concerned with the state of the mind or brain of the person who knows a particular language, later called generative grammar. Chomsky (1982:3) stated “knowledge of language [is] the knowledge of a certain rule system, often stated as internal language and what is known by the learner.”

There are three aspects of knowledge: (1) the internalized system of knowledge of the language, (2) knowing how to speak and understand, and (3) knowing what sentences mean and what they do (Chomsky, 1997). Chomsky defined knowledge only from the grammatical point of view; however, in this study, knowledge is not only related to grammar but also to the entire knowledge that the learners acquire in their learning that they need in production and communication. Chomsky’s theory is a little abstract, and the focus is more on cognitive psycholinguistics. He also put more emphasis on grammar and the construction of words.

Criticizing Chomsky's work, Matthews (2006) conceptualized knowledge as the foundation of competency. He stated that without knowledge, the learner will not become a competent user. “The constitutive role of knowledge follows directly from the nature of knowledge as a capacity for the sorts of actions that competent individuals are capable of performing” (Matthews, 2006:212). This means that it is knowledge that enables the learners to become competent in action. Furthermore, this means that knowledge is related to what the learners know and motivates them in their actions (in this case, in their communication).

Otto’s (1982) theory as introduced below gives more detailed information regarding the terms of language knowledge and language use. According to Otto (1982), language knowledge is the knowledge of a language that is acquired during language learning development, and it consists of five aspects that are related and do not develop separately. These five aspects are phonetic, semantic, syntactic, morphemic, and pragmatic knowledge. He categorizes language knowledge as:

1. Linguistic level knowledge

Linguistic level knowledge is the first development knowledge of language. This is the “know-how” or being able to use language in a communicative context.

This linguistic level of language knowledge can be documented in the acquisition of each of the five aspects of language knowledge.

- Phonetic knowledge is the ability to articulate and discriminate different sounds and words when using language to communicate.
- Semantic knowledge is the ability to comprehend the semantic meanings of others' speech and to create one's own meaningful speech.
- Syntactic knowledge allows learners to express their ideas in a form that is grammatically appropriate to their dialect or language.
- Morphemic knowledge is the ability to use appropriate plural forms of nouns or use prefixes and suffixes.
- Pragmatic knowledge is demonstrated by the use of "please" and "thank you" in social situations.

2. Metalinguistic Knowledge

Metalinguistic knowledge is the higher level of linguistic knowledge. At this level, the learner consciously manipulates phonemic, semantic, syntactic, morphemic, and pragmatic knowledge to form the desired message. Metalinguistic knowledge is indicated when a child can respond to questions about words and other linguistic concepts such as sounds, consonants, vowels, and word parts.

3. Metalinguistic verbalization

Metalinguistic verbalization happens when the learners begin to verbalize their metalinguistic knowledge, they are at the most conscious and complex level of language knowledge. For example, when children are asked to explain how the words mug and hug sound alike, they must be able to verbalize their awareness of the rhyming that is present, thus requiring verbalization of their knowledge about a specific feature of language.

According to Otto's language knowledge definition, all aspects of language knowledge are interrelated and cannot stand alone. The learners need to understand all the

aspects of language knowledge to produce an utterance. Supporting Otto's theory of language knowledge, Matthews (2006) stated that "the linguistic knowledge is constitutive of linguistic competence, and what speakers acquire when they acquire a language is categorized as the knowledge of their language, and they use this knowledge in language production and understanding" (p.203).

Thus, Otto's theory is clear and supportive enough to define language knowledge and its aspects and how language knowledge is constructed from linguistic and metalinguistic knowledge and metalinguistic verbalization. Slightly similar to Otto's classification, Bachman and Palmer (1996) divided language knowledge into two models that supplement each other to achieve communicatively effective language use (Bagarić & Djigunović, 2007; Wolf & Butler, 2017). These are:

1. Organizational knowledge

This refers to knowledge about the formal structure of a language at the sentence level, that is, grammatical knowledge¹³ or discourse or textual¹⁴ level (Bagarić & Djigunović 2007).

2. Pragmatic knowledge.

Pragmatic knowledge is needed for the language user to produce and/ process language appropriately concerning other variables such as the language users' intention and situational factors (Wolf & Butler, 2017).

This study focuses on language knowledge in grammar, structure, and vocabulary. Speakers and writers who intend to express an idea or message to readers need to have some vocabulary knowledge of the language they need to speak or write because vocabulary influences the quality of the text or speech (Schoonen et al., 2003). Speaking and writing performance that are mainly related to vocabulary include one element of fluency (speaking speed), accuracy in a task, one aspect of syntactic complexity, and lexical complexity (Koizumi, 2005). Limited lexical resources will most likely reduce the possibility of expressing ideas. The speaker and writer's level of expression of words and grammatical

¹³ Consist of vocabulary, morphology, syntax, phonology, and graphology.

¹⁴ The knowledge of conventions for combining sentences or utterances into texts; and knowledge of rhetorical organization

structures that connect words into clauses, phrases, and sentences also indicates their depth and length of knowledge.

Grammar is important because organizing conversation, engaging with one another, keeping the conversation going smoothly, and maintaining the right kinds of relationship are an integral part of practicing speaking (McCarthy, 2018). Learning grammar is useful for judging someone's speaking or writing proficiency; complex grammatical features, a high degree of written language, fluency and accuracy in speaking are expected and highly valued (Luoma, 2004). Whereas much traditional grammar teaching had little direct effect on language use or language development, some aspects of grammar can help pupils understand that language is a coherent system and a means of expression, and as such, do have a place in the English curriculum (Keen, 1997).

Vocabulary has long been considered an essential and fundamental component of communication and communicative language ability, a good indicator of second language proficiency and fundament (Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Koizumi, 2005).

Bachman and Palmer's (1996) classification is quite similar to Otto's (1982) language knowledge. Otto defined language knowledge into five aspects (phonetic, syntax, pragmatic, semantic, and morphemic) and categorized three levels of knowledge (linguistic, metalinguistic, and metalinguistic verbalization), in which linguistic and grammatical theory are inserted at the linguistic level. Bachman and Palmer (1996) define two categories (organizational and pragmatic). In their language knowledge model, the grammatical component is part of organizational knowledge. Unlike Otto who classified pragmatic knowledge as part of the linguistic level of knowledge, Bachman and Palmer classify pragmatic knowledge separately.

Chomsky, Otto, Bachman and Palmer, and Matthews have their own perspectives about language knowledge and what it comprises. Despite the similarities and differences, they all include the learners' insight on how to define language knowledge. However, they do not mention the source of that knowledge and how learners can acquire it.

By contrast, Ellis (2008) divided the types of language knowledge from the perspective of where the learners acquire it:

1. Explicit knowledge is metalinguistic knowledge in conscious attention. It is often stated as declarative and anomalous knowledge of phonological, lexical, grammatical, pragmatic and socio-critical features.
2. Implicit knowledge is the acquisition and knowledge of the underlying structure of a language by a process that takes place naturally and without conscious attention.

In the process of acquiring a language, learners might acquire knowledge consciously or unconsciously. Conscious learning means learning and acquiring knowledge in the classroom setting through the teacher's explanation. Unconscious learning happens when the learners acquire knowledge from informal discussion or conversation outside of the classroom context. Both Ellis's processes of learning as stated above are important because the learners learn not only formally, but also informally; not only consciously, but also unconsciously.

As discussed thus far, Otto provides a clear and complete explanation and categorization of language knowledge and its components. By using her categorization, this study also considers language knowledge as not only the mastery of grammar but also other related components such as vocabulary and structure that are necessary for language use. In addition, Ellis's theory of explicit and implicit knowledge is important to include because the source of knowledge is also determined and differentiates the level of the knowledge acquired by the learners.

Based on the discussion above, this study defines language knowledge as the knowledge of English language that learners possess that covers the mastery of language at the linguistic and metalinguistic knowledge and metalinguistic verbalization levels; that come from either prior or present learning experiences, consciously and unconsciously in the formal and informal learning settings. Language knowledge can be seen as the foundation of language use because without a basic level of language knowledge, communication and conversation cannot be attained. Knowing about language as a grammatical system, which involves knowing the rules underlying syntax, semantics, and phonology, is not a sufficient condition for knowing how to use the language functionally.

2.5.2 Previous empirical studies on language knowledge

Previous empirical studies that have investigated language knowledge, focus mainly on the relation of language knowledge to prior language learning and world knowledge (Willits et al., 2015); or on metalinguistic knowledge as correlated with linguistic knowledge (Alipour, 2014).

Willits et al. (2015) examined how semantic knowledge is used in language comprehension and in making judgments about events in the world and focused on the relationship of language knowledge to the world knowledge that the learners possess. Their research neither investigates the use of that knowledge in real life nor explores the source of that knowledge. However, additional information¹⁵ can be obtained from their findings regarding the relation of language knowledge with world knowledge in understanding the context of use.

Alipour (2014) investigated the relationship between metalinguistic and linguistic knowledge in Iranian EFL learners, in which the learners took two tests of metalinguistic and linguistic knowledge. The findings showed that although the linguistic test is harder for the students; it provides a similar result to the metalinguistic knowledge test. The statistical analysis in Alipour's research proved that metalinguistic and linguistic knowledge are correlated. Alipour's research also aimed to identify the relationship between L2 proficiency and L2 metalinguistic knowledge; however, because the research was limited to quantitative methods, the correlation only presents covariance and cannot reveal the direction of any cause-effect relationship. Consequently, no firm conclusion about the contribution of metalinguistic knowledge to proficiency can be drawn.

Willits et al.'s (2015) and Alipour's (2014) research has shed light on the relationships between language knowledge and other related components. Thus far, the research on language knowledge remains within its own components and does not explore other elements such as how the learners use their knowledge in actual performance or how

¹⁵ Language knowledge also affects the representation of semantic memory, which is commonly taken to encompass both linguistic and nonlinguistic aspects of conceptual representations

language knowledge is related to individual differences such as self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, and learning strategies.

Learners may not realize that they do not only acquire language knowledge conscious or unconsciously. Prior learning experience is also considered an essential element in the process of acquiring language knowledge.

Knowing a second language does not only mean knowing the theory of the language's grammatical system (linguistic competence), but also means having the ability to retrieve such knowledge and use it to perform various functions with language skills (Latu, 1994; Matthews, 2006). This indicates that the practical aspect is also crucial. In this regard, this study must also be concerned with the concepts of language use.

2.6 Language Use

2.6.1 Definition of language use by previous researchers

As mentioned in the previous sub-chapter, language knowledge cannot stand alone and is impractical without language use because both are the foundation of communication. As cited in Chomsky (1988:5), Descartes and his followers observed that

“The creative aspects of language use or the normal use of language is constantly innovative, unbounded, apparently free from control by external stimuli or internal states, coherent and appropriate to situations. The normal use of language is thus free and determined yet appropriate by other participants in the discourse situation who might have reacted in similar ways and whose thought, evoked by this discourse, corresponds to those of the speakers. The creative aspects of language use were also used as one central argument to establish the conclusion that humans are fundamentally different from everything else in this physical world. The creative aspects of language use were often offered as the most striking examples of this fundamental aspect of human nature.”

(Descartes in Chomsky, 1988, p.5)

According to Descartes and his followers, the normal or creative aspects of language that are used by humans differentiate them from others. Their theory on language use refers to the use of language that is innovative, creative, and flexible, evoked by and depending on the correspondence of the speakers. The theory stated above reviews the characteristic and creative aspects of language use without explaining the purpose and situation in which the language is used.

Language use embracing language learning comprises the actions performed by people who as individuals and social agents develop a range of communicative language competences in various contexts, under various conditions, and under various constraints to engage in language activities. Language use also involves language processes to produce and/or receive texts concerning themes in specific domains, activating those strategies which seem most appropriate for implementing the tasks to be accomplished. The monitoring of these actions by the participants leads to the reinforcement or modification of their competences (CEFR, 2020).

Regarding the definition of language use, CEFR provides a broader and more elaborate explanation of language use. In addition, a more elaborate categorization of language use from other researchers is provided in the next sub-section.

2.6.2 Categorization of language use

Chomsky (1988) with his cognitive and psychological concepts, defined two language use categories:

1. That which has true aesthetic value with what is called true creativity as in the work of a fine poet or novelist or an exceptional stylist;
2. The ordinary use of language in everyday life, with its distinctive property of novelty, freedom from control by external stimuli and inner states, coherence and appropriateness to situations, and its capacity to evoke appropriate thoughts in the listener.

Chomsky's language use theory is a little abstract and leads us more to cognitive psycholinguistics. He also put more emphasis on grammar and word construction. From Chomsky's two categories of language use, the definition of language use in true aesthetic value such as in poems or novels leads us to another genre that is literature. For the poet or novelist, the aesthetic value of language knowledge and use is vital in producing their work. However, the scope is limited because when we attempt to analyze further, the discussion is heavily mired in the literature genre instead of concerning language learning areas.

Chomsky's ordinary use of language in everyday life category is considered broad, and we need to define it more clearly. This aspect of language use is the way language is used to achieve a particular communicative goal in the specific situational context of communication (Bachman, 1990). In the EFL context, young learners' target language use domain is primarily bound to the school context where significant interactions take place with peers and teachers in English classrooms. Wolf and Butler (2017) suggested three domains related to the purpose of language use in the school or educational setting:

- (a) The social and interpersonal domain encompasses the use of language for establishing and maintaining personal relationships. For example, casual conversations, including a simple and familiar topic or personal experience using the informal register.
- (b) The navigational domain refers to the need for students to "navigate" information.
- (c) The academic domain entails the language activity performed to learn academic content in English. Language functions such as summarizing, describing, analyzing, and evaluating are typically needed to learn academic content. Language use for this purpose typically involves more formal and technical registers with increased syntactic complexity (Wolf & Butler, 2017).

Whereas Wolf and Butler's (2017) domains are limited to school and educational contexts, Kashima's (2020) work enlarges the purpose of language use and analyzes it in terms of several dimensions. Unlike Wolf and Butler (2017), who divided language use into three general domains, Kashima (2020) proposes nine broader, and slightly overlapping functions of language use:

1. The use of language in daily life (Language use in communication within the household, which is the most vital and basic use for every individual).
2. The language used in the immediate neighborhood (Similar to that used in the home, but the frequency is different).
3. Language use in public affairs (This covers an individual's dealings in a wider area, for example, in a market town).
4. Language use in business, trades, and occupations (More specific or technical language in business and the workplace).

5. Language use in government (This embraces the use of language in all operations of government at all levels: debates in parliament, laws and decrees, government correspondence, courts).
6. Language use in the press (This includes not only the use in newspapers and magazines, but also in books of a general nature such as nontechnical, nonliterary, and nonreligious, as well as use on the radio and television).
7. Language use in education (This covers language used as a medium of instruction at all levels, from kindergarten to graduate school).
8. Technical language use (This embraces all language use in science and technology; characterized by a high degree of specialization in vocabulary).
9. Language use in religion (The use of language where linguistic expression is an end in itself as a literary use of language such as liturgy, prayers, sermons, sacred texts, and so on).

Kashima (2020) pointed out that the categories mentioned above should not be considered clear-cut, and there may be some overlapping. In all functions, language may be used in either spoken or written form. However, the relative importance of speaking and writing may differ considerably from function to function, speaking predominating in some and writing in others. Language functions may be considered from a more general viewpoint and classified as either informal or formal. This type of classification provides us with categories of function.

Kashima's (2020) classification of language use can be implemented in both the native speaker and ESL learner contexts. However, in terms of the EFL context, not all dimensions can be applied because of the limited use of English and the existence of national, local, and mother tongue languages in the EFL context. In general, English is only used for educational purposes in this context. However, in the Balinese EFL context, English is used not only in the educational context, but also in the trade, business, and occupation contexts as well the navigational (navigate information) and social and interpersonal (establishing and maintaining personal relationships) contexts, which are all related to the use of English in

tourism. In this case, English is used not only at school, but also in work and socializing with foreigners.

2.6.3 Language use in this study

In this research, language use is defined as the use of the English language in ordinary life in education and tourism that comprises the learners' actual performance in productive language skills of speaking and writing. Language use in the ordinary life context is chosen because the language use observed in this research is in the scale of communication and interaction. Hence, this study is unable to accommodate true aesthetic language use. The learners' language use depends on the situation and the communication counterpart. In the academic or education setting, the formal spoken situation may come from the interaction between teachers and students and formal written language use is seen in the test or exam setting. However, the informal spoken and written setting may arise in discussions between students in a classroom or in conversation practice outside of the classroom. In the tourism work or business situation, such as the case of Bali Island which is the focus of this study, formal and informal spoken and written language use also depends on to whom, where, and in which situation the language is being used.

Because the focus of language use referred to in this research is in the communicative situation and related to the productive language use of speaking and writing, these two concepts will be further investigated below.

2.6.3.1 Defining speaking

Speaking is defined as the ability to express an idea orally, coherently, fluently, and appropriately in a given meaningful context using correct pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary and adopting the pragmatic and discourse rules of the spoken language (Torky, 2006). It is an interactive process of the construction of meaning, involving producing and receiving as well as processing information (Luoma, 2004). In addition, speaking is defined as the process of producing and receiving. It means that in speaking the speaker and the interlocutor are involved and they take turns in the part of speaking and listening. Besides that in speaking, making decisions about

communication and “motor-perceptive skill (perceiving, recalling, and articulating in the correct sounds and structures of the language)” are also involved (Bygate, 1998: 23). Brown and Yule (1983:3) stated that speaking has two main functions: “transactional (transfer of information) and interactional (maintenance of social relationships)” and depends on the context and the counterpart of speaking. Speaking as a transactional function happens when teachers transfer knowledge or information to their students or when giving information to a stranger who has lost their way in the street. By contrast, speaking as an interactional function occurs in communication with friends or family in social relationships. The function of speaking to transfer information and maintain social relationship is aligned with speaking as a productive skill where it is always connected with communication and needs the interlocutor or the counterpart. Therefore, speaking is also seen as a two-way process involving communication of ideas, information, or feelings in real life (Howarth, 2001). Whether it is categorized as transactional or interactional, people produce something (utterances, speeches, information, etc.) in which the main purpose is to transfer the message to the interlocutor and to build communication with others.

Speaking has usually been compared to writing, both being considered "productive skills," as opposed to the "receptive skills" of reading and listening (El Menoufy, 1997: 9). However, speaking requires skills, structures, and conventions different from writing (Cohen, 1996). Both speaking and writing need to implement language knowledge in the formation of oral or written production. According to Torcky (2006:30), the speaking skill requires mastery of the following sub-competencies/ skills:

- Linguistic competence includes the skills of using intelligible pronunciation, following grammatical rules accurately and using a relevant, adequate, and appropriate vocabulary range.
- Discourse competence includes the skills of structuring discourse coherently and cohesively, managing conversation, and interacting effectively to keep the conversation going.

- Pragmatic competence includes the skill of expressing a range of functions effectively and appropriately according to the context and register.
 - Fluency means speaking fluently and demonstrating a reasonable rate of speech.
- These sub-competencies or skills are similar to the components of the linguistic level of language knowledge proposed by Otto (1982) and Bachman and Palmer (1996). According to Torkey (2006), in mastering the speaking skill, learners need to show the competencies mentioned earlier, which means that they do not only know or understand the knowledge, but also can use and show it in actual performance. Knowing or only learning and understanding the theories are not enough to acquire the speaking skill.

The process of speaking consists of internal as well as external decisions. The first is often referred to as psycholinguistic decisions which means that speakers have to make internal decisions such as what to say and how to say it. By contrast, they also have to make external or sociolinguistic decisions concerning how to participate in an interaction by considering the interlocutor's utterance.

This study defines speaking as an ability and an interactive process or activity in delivering thought or ideas orally, encompassing interactional and productive skills. In speaking, the speaker only has limited time to listen, think about the reaction, and respond. However, because speaking is direct communication, speakers can also read and understand the listeners' feelings when they respond. Therefore, speakers can easily adjust their manner or way of speaking to manage the communication. The conditions in speaking are different from writing, which will be discussed in the next sub-section below.

2.6.3.2 Defining writing

Writing is a complicated process and skill for second language learners to master and requires several activities simultaneously; a writer has to generate, organize, and review ideas using the correct grammar, vocabulary, and rules of the written language (Richard & Renandya, 2002). Writing is seen as a complex process that requires

extending learning, thinking, and communication with others via the written word. The writer needs to be careful in expressing ideas to avoid the reader experiencing ambiguity. Writing also allows people to participate in society, contribute their ideas and information, and make critical comments to what happens around them in a written media. To write comprehensibly, second language learners have to simultaneously pay attention to higher-level skills of planning and organizing as well as the lower skill of spelling, punctuation, and word choice, among others (Richard & Renandya, 2002).

Unlike speaking, where the speaker has to receive the signal, process, and produce the speech in a matter of seconds, in writing, the writer has more time to think and prepare before writing.

According to Hedge (2014) the strategies that the writer needs to prepare before writing are:

- (1) The planning, thinking, and composing phase;
- (2) The drafting phase, which could take the form of notes, lists, and diagrams;
- (3) The writing process, where the writer starts to write, then re-reads their work to revise, add information, delete unnecessary sentences, or add more detail to their writing, and then moves on to write more;
- (4) The finishing phase, where the writer will re-read the writing from beginning to end, this being the last chance to add more information and re- check.

This study considers writing as a complex skill to learn as speaking. In writing, writers need to put their ideas into a written piece through several stages (Hedge, 2014). Hedge (2014) also mentioned that brainstorming is part of the process that the writer needs to prepare before writing along with other phases including planning, thinking, and composing. In writing, writers have more time to think, draft, write, and revise their writing and they need to be more careful to reach the readers' minds and make their writing enjoyable and readable.

The terms language knowledge, language use, beliefs, and learning strategies have been presented above. The next sub-chapter discusses the existing research on the interrelation of all these aspects.

2.7 Interrelation

Whereas previous research has been mainly concerned with how language knowledge or linguistics competence is acquired, this study examines the relationship between linguistic competence or language knowledge and performance or language use. The relation between the individual differences in self-efficacy, beliefs, and learning strategies with the interrelation of language knowledge and use will be discussed based on the previous empirical research and the authors' perspective.

2.7.1. Self-efficacy with learners' beliefs

Learners' belief systems cover several aspects, including beliefs about the nature of English, the speaker of English, the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), teaching activities, language learning, appropriate classroom behavior, the learners' ability, and the goals for language learning (Richards & Lockhart, 1994). Compared with the attention given to L2 learners' beliefs about language learning and self-belief, there has been less research on the beliefs about specific aspects of language learning such as reading (Richards & Lockhart, 1994); writing (Zhang, 2018); listening (Graham, 2006); studying grammar and error correction, and vocabulary (Moir & Nation, 2002); belief and speaking (Dincer, 2017); beliefs about pronunciation and speaking anxiety (Nabei & Yasuda, 2016); and beliefs about writing and writing self-efficacy (Sanders-Reio et al., 2014).

The significance of beliefs and self-efficacy beliefs about language learning has been related to mismatches between teachers' and learners' beliefs about learning in the classroom (Sadeghi & Abdi, 2015); students' use of language learning strategies (Horwitz, 1987; Richards & Lockhart, 1994; Yang & Wang 2015); investigating learners' anxiety (Cheng, 2001); observing autonomous learning (Kalaja & Barcelos, 2006); investigating students' determination in the work (Lent et al. 1984); determining learners' achievements and success along with skill and knowledge (Bandura, 1993; Pajares, 2002). Genç et al. (2016) found that

EFL students have medium scores in their English self-efficacy and hold the strong belief that motivation factors have a great role on their learning process. Moreover, they found that students' beliefs about language learning are affected by their English self-efficacy.

2.7.2 Self-efficacy with learning strategies

Wang (2004) used a qualitative case study to investigate Chinese children's self-efficacy beliefs and their use of self-regulated learning strategies in the process of learning English as a second language. Through interviews with the participants, he found that each child's self-efficacy is task-specific. Factors that influenced the development of their self-efficacy beliefs were expertise in the content area, self-perception of English proficiency, task difficulty level, past experience of success associated with effort, social persuasion, physiological or emotional state, interest, attitude toward the English language and the English-speaking community, and the social cultural context. In his study, the most commonly used strategies employed by all participants across different learning contexts were seeking social assistance, seeking information, and environmental structuring.

Wong (2005) investigated Malaysian ESL learners and found a significant positive relationship between language learning strategies and self-efficacy. The interview findings corroborated the findings above. High self-efficacy pre-service teachers reported more frequent use of more various language learning strategies than low self-efficacy pre-service teachers did.

In line with Wong (2005), Yang and Wang (2015) found that there is a positive correlation between language learning strategies and English self-efficacy. Learners who apply more strategies in their language learning are possibly those who possess higher levels of self-efficacy. They also found that language learning strategies are teachable and learnable. After the strategy instruction, learners claimed to apply more language learning strategies, especially memory strategies, and their self-efficacy in learning increased.

2.7.3 Self-efficacy, language knowledge, and language use

In this study, the terms language knowledge and language use are intertwined with linguistic competence and the learners' performance. Chen (2020) found that self-efficacy

influences the selection of environment and behavior; students with strong self-efficacy can use various cognitive and learning methods flexibly and achieve excellent self-management and regulation; students with good English performance have high self-efficacy scores, revealing a positive correlation between self-efficacy and English performance. His research findings also lay a theoretical basis for improving English performance based on self-efficacy.

Chen (2007) conducted a study to ascertain the influence of foreign language self-efficacy on language performance and the relationships among language self-efficacy, language anxiety, and the perceived value of language and culture for Taiwanese students learning English as a foreign language. She suggested that the students' language achievement would increase substantially if they perceived themselves as efficacious in performing given language tasks. Her research was in line with Bandura's (1986, 1997) who claimed that students' perceived efficacy predicts their subsequent academic performance and that students' academic anxiety and perceived value of the academic subjects are determined by their efficacy beliefs. These findings suggest that self-efficacy beliefs play a crucial role in affecting foreign language learning outcomes and brings into question the effects of foreign language anxiety and instrumental/integrative motivation on foreign language achievement.

In terms of self-efficacy in productive language skills, research about self-efficacy in speaking found that student satisfaction with speaking classes and their self-efficacy beliefs about their speaking skills had significant positive correlations with their achievement in speaking skills (Asakereh & Dehghannezhad, 2015).

Dincer (2017) investigated the beliefs of EFL learners about speaking in English and being a good English speaker through metaphor analysis. Findings showed that learners mostly perceived speaking as a skill requiring much effort and also giving pleasure. They use metaphors to describe a competent English speaker as someone fluent in speaking, universal¹⁶, disarming¹⁷, wise, privileged, and hardworking. The findings gave language

¹⁶ Related to the role of English in today's world and the learners thought that speaking English makes people unique in society.

¹⁷ The learners metaphorically describe a good speaker mesmerizes listeners and makes them fully listen.

educators an insight into what the students' understanding of speaking skills is and what they believe necessary to be a good English speaker.

Nabei and Yasuda (2016) found that although participants showed relatively high speaking anxiety, there was no significant correlation between their pronunciation belief or awareness and their foreign language anxiety. Their pronunciation belief and awareness did not predict the participants' anxiety about speaking in a foreign language.

Leeming (2017) found that the learners' initial speaking self-efficacy was low and then gradually improved. They felt nervous when they initially engaged in classroom speaking tasks, but because of their reasonably large receptive knowledge of English, once they began speaking they were able to make large gains in a relatively short period. The students grew in self-efficacy, although there were different individual growth rates.

Sanders-Reio et al. (2014) tested a model in which beliefs about writing, writing self-efficacy, and writing apprehension predicts writing performance. They found that the participants' beliefs about writing predicted unique variance in their writing performance and related to their writing self-efficacy and writing apprehension. Beliefs about writing predicted variance in writing scores beyond that accounted for by writing self-efficacy and apprehension. Writing self-efficacy modestly predicted performance. These results support the possibility that beliefs about writing could be a leverage point for teaching students to write.

The experiment or experiences the learners receive, such as adopting process-genre¹⁸ writing and peer-tutoring models on writing, elevate learners' self-efficacy and increase their positive attitude to writing along with their writing skills (Barton, 2018; Zhang, 2018).

Unlike the previously mentioned study on the positive significant correlation with learners' self-efficacy, Anyadubalu (2010) discovered a negligible relationship between students' self-efficacy and performance in English which signifies that self-efficacy per se does not directly affect Thai students. Thai students' performance in English can be regarded as average because they demonstrate moderate levels of both English language anxiety and self-efficacy. In other words, students' perceived level of self-efficacy is not related to their

¹⁸ Practicing writing through different types of genre

performance in English. Students who feel shy, nervous, and afraid to speak English in class invariably decrease their self-efficacy level. In essence, this affects their overall performance in English class.

Whitcomb et al. (2020) confirmed that learners' self-efficacy is not reflected in their performance through their investigation of women majoring in engineering with lower self-efficacy but higher performance than men. In their research, the women's varying self-efficacy levels did not stop them from performing better than the men who, on average, had higher self-efficacy but performed more poorly than the women.

The previous research about the relation between self-efficacy and productive language skills, did not find any interrelation between language knowledge and language use.

2.7.4 Learners' beliefs and learning strategies

Most of the researchers found that beliefs about learning influence the learners' use and choice of learning strategies (Ghvamnia et al., 2011; Horwitz, 1987, 1988; Kalaja & Barcelos, 2003; Richards & Lockhart, 1994; Riley, 1996; Rubin, 1987; Wenden, 1986; Yang, 1999).

Rubin (1987) affirmed that students' beliefs about learning influenced the variety of strategies used and their ability to use them effectively. The significance of learners' beliefs can be related to many processes and outcomes of SLA, including their use of language learning strategies, their anxiety, autonomous learning, and mismatches between teachers' and students' expectations in the classroom (Kajala & Barcelos, 2003). Learners' beliefs influence the ways students approach their learning, choose and employ learning strategies, and, as a result, correlate with their learning success (Riley, 1996).

According to Wenden (1986:4), the learners' belief systems can not only determine the language learning strategies, but also influence their approach to learning in terms of the kinds of strategies they use, what they attend to, and the criteria they use to "evaluate the effectiveness" of learning activities and of the social context that gives them the opportunity to use or practice the language.

Learners' preconceived beliefs about language learning are likely to affect the way they use their learning strategies and learn a second language (Horwitz, 1987, 1988; Wenden,

1986). Sometimes the learners develop “preconceived beliefs” (views, thoughts, or personal beliefs or judgments that are not founded on proof or certainty) about their language learning. This is a two-sided coin. On the one hand, preconceived beliefs could increase learners’ development, but on the other, they could harm them because believing in something that is not proven might inhibit their learning development.

Some examples of the preconceived beliefs that harm the students include believing that they should not speak unless they can speak fluently and believing that memorizing vocabulary is the best way to learn a foreign language. Students operating under these preconceived beliefs will only learn a foreign language through memorizing vocabulary without even daring to practice. Moreover, they will choose to be quiet or remain silent because of their insecurity about their fluency causing them to avoid speaking practice. Then these preconceived beliefs will harm them and their language learning will be stuck in only memorizing vocabulary and no practice. Another example of a preconceived belief is that learners who believe that the best way to learn a foreign language is through interaction tend to have a positive attitude towards natural communication with native speakers of the language. This is a good improvement in terms of the learners’ communication skill but when they have to take proficiency tests such as TOEFL, TOEIC, IELTS, they will face difficulty because their preconceived belief only focuses on the communication skill. Self-efficacy and beliefs about learning can increase learners’ development, but at the same time, believing in something that is not proven may inhibit their learning development.

Horwitz developed the SILL to investigate learners’ beliefs and their relation to language learning strategies and this idea has partly been tested by other researchers. For example, Yang’s (1999) research in Taiwan observed the relationship between college EFL students' beliefs about language learning and their use of learning strategies. His study supports Horwitz’s (1988) theory, based on BALLI questionnaires, which identified four types of beliefs: self-efficacy and expectations about learning English; the perceived value and nature of learning spoken English; beliefs about foreign language aptitude; and beliefs about formal structural studies. His factor analysis on SILL items identified six factors for learners' language learning strategies. These were functional practice, cognitive-memory, metacognitive, formal oral-practice, social, and compensation strategies. In his research,

Yang found that Taiwanese EFL learners had a strong belief in mastering speaking and listening and the students' self-efficacy beliefs about learning English were strongly related to their use of all types of learning strategies.

Ghvamnia et al. (2011) investigated the relationship between language learning strategies, belief, motivation, and proficiency in EFL learners in Iran through three types of tests. They found that Iranian EFL learners were active strategic users and familiar with language learning strategies. The more proficient and motivated students were, the more language learning strategies they used and the more positive their language learning beliefs, the more strategies they used.

Using the contextual approach, Zhong (2015) investigated the changes in learners' beliefs and learning strategies and examined the effect of the interactions between learners' beliefs and learning strategies on the learning attainment of two Chinese immigrants in New Zealand. She concluded that beliefs are changing, fluid, and context dynamic. Individual differences in their responses to the social-cultural and educational contexts are stated as the cause of the variation in belief and learning strategy changes during the learning development.

2.7.5. Learners' beliefs, language knowledge, and language use

Previous studies that investigate the relation between beliefs and language knowledge have focused on the definition and characteristics of both terms, whether they are related, contradict each other, or have the same meaning. Wenden (1986) once mentioned that beliefs and knowledge are similar; however, other researchers (Abelson, 1979; Alexander & Dochy, 1995; Pajares, 1992; Yero, 2002) have confirmed that beliefs are different from knowledge by defining the differences between the terms. Belief is seen to be dissimilar from knowledge because it is an opinion that is based on experience and is viewed as an individual subjective understanding or idiosyncratic truth. In addition, the difference between belief and knowledge is value-related and characterized by commitment (Alexander & Dochy, 1995; Wenden, 1998). The other characteristic of belief that differentiates it from knowledge is its' affective, experiential, and irrational nature, which can be related to either an actual context or an ideal context that a person wishes for (Abelson, 1979). Pajares (1992) also added that

belief is more related to personal judgment and assessment and depends highly on experiences and the sense people make of them.

Unlike belief, which is related to learners' opinions and personal judgments, knowledge is related to facts and based on the use of reason and logic, it can be proved wrong, and is subject to change (Pajares, 1992). Knowledge also refers to the ultimate source of objective truth and theories tend to be stable in time and more resistant to change (Yero, 2002). Knowledge is factual, objective information that is acquired through formal learning (Alexander & Dochy, 1994).

Even though belief is different from knowledge, researchers have agreed that belief and knowledge play a major role in education in understanding students' different linguistic and cultural backgrounds and how to respond to them (Furman, 1998). Belief and knowledge have an integral relationship and can motivate action (Ilosvay, 2012).

Regarding belief changes, Yero's (2002) argument about the resistance of belief to change is also questionable. There are many empirical studies that mention that the learners experience changes after treatments such as dynamic transitional periods (Peng, 2011; Zhong, 2015), study abroad (Tanaka & Ellis, 2003), or intensive English courses (Abreu, 2015). We can also find evidence that belief remains stable because of the consistency in the context of the learners' situations and no treatments being included in the studies (Wenden, 1998). Therefore, we need to investigate the type of condition and the context of the situation given to the learners closely to know whether the belief status changes or remains stable.

Researchers also pay attention to investigating the relation between the classification of language knowledge (as Otto's definition: linguistic knowledge, metalinguistic knowledge and metalinguistic verbalization) and beliefs about language learning (Faerch, et al., 1984). They have found that the teaching of metalinguistic knowledge is typically motivated by the teachers' learners' belief that conscious knowledge will assist learners in developing their proficiency in the foreign language. This means that metalinguistic knowledge is taught as a means to an end (proficiency), not as an end in itself.

Ilosvay (2012) investigated learner beliefs and linguistic knowledge, and unlike Tanaka and Ellis (2003) who found two categorizations of belief, she revealed the belief systems that are constructed in linguistics and education such as language acquisition, language systems,

and verbal culture. In language acquisition, she found that the participants believe in exposure to languages earlier in life, the influence of the native language, environment, individualization of language acquisition, and language neural pathways¹⁹. In language systems, the participant believes that language is a system of meaning, and is an expressive system of communication that creates mutual understanding. In terms of communication, the participants believe in the importance of comprehension, teachers' responsibility in classroom communication, the importance of pronunciation, student reception of teacher speech, use of dialects in the classroom, and the relationship between communication and identity. In verbal culture, beliefs about learning were observed in multiple languages; belief in dialects spoken in the classroom and in society; belief in multiple languages creating negative or positive effects for all students, and belief in language as culture and culture as language. Faerch et al.'s (1984) research implied that metalinguistic knowledge is a factor that determines the proficiency of the learners. Moreover, Ilosvay (2012) created a holistic description of belief and linguistic knowledge that relates experiences, knowledge, and philosophies of language, from the perspectives of articulation, psychology, neurology, sociology, and education. This concludes that belief has a significant importance in language learning and many kinds of beliefs depend on the point of view that we investigate from.

2.7.6. Language knowledge and language use

Findings show language knowledge to comprise dynamic constellations of linguistic resources, the shapes and meanings of which emerge from continual interaction between internal, domain-general cognitive constraints on the one hand and one's pragmatic pursuits in the everyday world on the other, that is, through language use. In other words, particular grammatical and other linguistic elements of language knowledge are not a priori components belonging to stable and contextual systems. Instead, they emerge as relatively automatized structures or schemas of expectations that are used to both represent and respond to the human experience. As the language use changes, the substance of our language knowledge also changes. Crucial to the specific shaping of individual language knowledge

¹⁹ Language processing in brain.

are the distribution and frequency with which we encounter specific components in our everyday interactions with others. The more frequent and reliable the appearance of particular patterns is, the more likely the patterns will be stored and remembered (Hall et al., 2006).

The ability to use language may improve or decline without any change in knowledge (Chomsky, 1986); and language knowledge can be decreasing and increasing without affecting the language use (Matthews, 2006:217). Using our language knowledge through interaction and communication is necessary to activate it and create any significant improvement, otherwise it will just remain in our brain and no improvement will happen (Ellis, 2008).

Matthews (2006) argues that learners' levels of understanding can reflect the degree of their knowledge. However, using the language knowledge we have is not as simple as it may seem. Having higher levels of language knowledge does not mean we can produce higher levels of language in communication. Knowing word meanings, and grammar and structure rules does not mean that learners can apply that knowledge quickly, automatically, express it smoothly, and use it competently (TESOL, 2017).

Only having language knowledge is not enough. Learners also need to be skilled in using it (Bygate, 1987). Both language knowledge and skill can be understood and memorized, but only skill can be imitated and practiced.

According to Chomsky (1986), the amount of language knowledge that learners possess does not affect their language use. Two people may share precisely the same knowledge of the language but differ markedly in their ability to put this knowledge to use (Chomsky, 1986). From the discussion above, language knowledge and language use depend on the context of the situation. Regarding the correlation of language knowledge and language use, Elman (1999) argues that language use shapes language knowledge. Tomasello (2003) contributed evidence that despite being stored in the learners' brain, language knowledge also comes from learners using the language.

A prime influence on the continual re-structuring of language knowledge is frequency of use. According to Bybee (2003), frequency has two main effects:

1. The processing effect whereby the specific meanings of frequent words become generalized and their phonetic shape reduced with use.

2. The storage effect whereby the more frequently constructions are used, the more entrenched they become and the more likely it is that they will be preserved and accessed as whole units.

Frequency of use also affects language knowledge; the more learners are exposed to and participate in different types of language use, the wider the range of language knowledge they encounter and store (Thompson & Hopper 2001). This effect of frequency and diversity of exposure is illustrated in Frisch and Zawadeh (2001). The more frequent and varied the practices are that learners participate in, the more expansive their language knowledge is likely to be as compared with those with fewer and less varied experiences. Language knowledge does not only associate with language use, and this study attempts to find the relations among language knowledge, language use, and other elements such as individual differences in language learning.

Besides the learner's ability, practice, and frequency, the learner's feelings are also important in transforming language knowledge into language use. Learners usually feel anxious when learning a foreign language. The anxiety causes the learners to have a mental block against learning English, which psychologists describe as a state of apprehension or a vague fear, perceived intuitively by many foreign language learners that negatively influences language learning (Horwitz, 2001). The anxiety will be reduced if the learners are motivated and have confidence in their ability. Without sufficient motivation, even individuals with the most remarkable abilities cannot accomplish their goals and strong self-confidence makes the learners want to improve in the language, which leads to a positive result in learning (Tsymbal, 2019).

Thus far, there is no research on the whole relationship among self-efficacy, beliefs, learning strategies, language knowledge, and language use, regarding how these individual variables affect the language knowledge transfer into language use. This study aims to fill this gap. For this purpose, we conducted empirical research focused on Balinese EFL learners. The following section explains why Balinese EFL learners were suitable subjects for this research.

2.8 Research on Indonesian EFL Learners

In general, Indonesian learners find delivering their ideas in front of audiences, especially in a classroom setting, difficult; they lack confidence, are shy to express their ideas, and are afraid of making mistakes. They lack vocabulary, fear negative evaluation, and have difficulty in encouraging themselves to keep on writing during the sessions of expressive writing; moreover, students need more effort at the beginning of the expressive writing sessions (Lengkanawati, 2004; Tresnawati & Mustafa, 2015).

The learners' lack of autonomy is also a big issue. Autonomous learners show active and creative participation, which is an indicator of their positive attitude towards language learning activities and themselves as learners (Lengkanawati, 2017). If one person has the ability to organize and control himself or herself, it can be said that he/she is autonomous. Compared with other foreign countries contexts, learner autonomy is not yet common in the Indonesian setting. Most Indonesian students confessed that they only studied before a test and that they just waited for the teachers to tell them to do so (Lengkanawati, 2017). This indicates Indonesian learners' high dependency on tests and their teachers and their lack of autonomous power in their learning.

Lengkanawati's (2017) research is in line with Dardjowidjojo (2001), who pointed out that learners' autonomy theories emphasize the roles of second language learners as active participants and teachers as facilitators in the teaching-learning process. However, he argued that these roles may work very well in Western contexts but not in Indonesian contexts because the standard norm in the Indonesian culture is total respect of teachers and other people, not to ask questions in class, having a concept that older people know everything, and that the teacher cannot be wrong (Dardjowidjojo, 2001).

Tresnawati and Mustafa (2015) assigned an expressive writing task to explore students' ideas before they performed a speaking test. The findings showed that the students actually had many ideas to express; however, when it came to writing in English they had difficulty. It took a long time for them to finally finish their writing, and then they had to present what they had written in front of the other students. The writing task and speaking test combination showed that a writing task can lower the students' anxiety in speaking in public; unlike their first experience when the students were asked to speak without any

writing preparation. This shows that Indonesian students in general do not have a problem in arranging their ideas but rather that their problem is related to their anxiety about speaking in front of many people.

Sawir (2005) investigated adult Indonesian learners learning English in Australia focusing on the relation among learners' beliefs about language learning, their prior language learning experience, and their cultural background. She found that (1) the learners have a strong belief about the nature of the environment of English language learning and that it is best to learn English in English-speaking countries; (2) the learners have beliefs about learning strategies concerned with the process of learning a language and showed a strong preference for repeating and practicing a lot in language learning; and (3) the learners believe that communication strategies are related to actual language learning practice. Sawir's finding is in line with Tanaka and Ellis's (2003) that the experience of studying foreign languages in foreign countries seems to contribute to fluency and naturalness of speech; however it has no effect on accuracy and grammar improvement.

Pratolo (2014) investigated changes in students' beliefs about language learning strategies, the nature of the changes, and the type of reflections that bring about change. Pratolo's research approves that Indonesian learners generally believe that practice is better than only having theories and that learning strategies can be a contributor to belief changes.

The closest research related to this study is Anam and Stracke (2016), who found that young Indonesian learners reported high use of socio-affective and metacognitive strategies and moderate use of cognitive strategies. The preferred strategies involve learning with/from others and regulating one's own learning; whereas, the less preferred strategies deal mainly with memorizing words and practicing outside the classroom. The results also indicated significant differences in strategy use between students who perceived themselves capable of performing English tasks and self-regulating their learning and students who did not.

The studies above did not mention or include Bali Island in the research setting. Instead of investigating Indonesian learners, this study is focused on Balinese EFL learners. In general, Balinese learners do not have similar symptoms to the Indonesian learners because they have more pressure and exposure in English because of the island dependency on tourism, making the learners familiar with using English in public. Moreover, in Bali,

English is very important and is learnt from early childhood, because there are millions of domestic and foreign tourists that come to Bali. English First (EF, 2018) made a survey of English skill levels in Indonesia. Bali topped the list with a score of 54.46.

Unlike Indonesian and other EFL learners in general, Balinese EFL learners are highly efficacious in their speaking and writing skills and English is vital to them because these skills are related to their future jobs and the goal to communicate with native speakers. There are, however, gaps in speaking and writing skills that may cause discrepancies in the transfer of language knowledge into language use. Because the previous research did not identify the gaps and discrepancies, it is important to explore how EFL learners transform their language knowledge into language use, and whether the learners' individual differences such as self-efficacy, beliefs, and learning strategies affect the interrelation of language knowledge and language use.

2.9 Conclusion

This chapter provides an overview of the previous studies on self-efficacy, beliefs, learning strategies, language knowledge, and language use and their definitions of the terms.

Thus far, the existing research on self-efficacy has found contradictions between positive and negative self-efficacy. However, the interrelation of language knowledge, language use with self-efficacy, beliefs, and learning strategies have not yet been explored. Little has been learnt about the interrelation of language knowledge and language use with self-efficacy, beliefs, and learning strategies especially in the context of EFL learners.

The research to date on language knowledge, language use, and the relation between them provides us with an understanding that language knowledge is related to language use, and they are mutually connected in advancing the communication process. However, the effects of self-efficacy, beliefs about language learning, and learning strategies with the interrelation of language knowledge and language use have not yet been explored.

The following chapters will discuss the empirical study the author conducted to shed light on these effects.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

In the previous chapters, the concepts of self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, learning strategies, language knowledge, and language use have been explored. This chapter presents the design and methodology of the present empirical study conducted in order to find out how these variables correlate with each other. It includes a description of the participants, the procedure to collect the data, and the method to analyze the data. The assessment instruments used are also described.

3.2 Research Design

The current study used the mixed-method approach, applying both quantitative and qualitative methods. As Dörnyei (2007) states, the purposes of mixed methods research are to achieve a fuller understanding of a target phenomenon and to verify one set of findings against the other.

This study also focuses on individual participant's perspectives, assumptions, and conventional ways of perceiving a target phenomenon. The personal perspectives and interpretations of the learners' self-efficacy are also stated as an important aspect. The interviews conducted in this research are adequate to gain more information about the learning processes as well as learners' ability.

This study uses a combination of the normative and contextual approaches to investigate learners' self-efficacy, beliefs, learning strategies, language knowledge, and language use. To this end, the following instruments were used: questionnaires, self-efficacy assessment, language knowledge and language use tests, and in-depth interviews (See 3.4).

An official letter²⁰ asking for the permission to conduct the research was sent to a university in Bali, and after obtaining the university's approval, the research was conducted in August and September 2018. Letters of introduction and consent forms²¹ for participants

²⁰ See Appendix 1

²¹ See Appendix 3

were distributed and the purpose of the study was explained to the study subjects. After the participants signed the consent form, the research began.

The flow of the study, and research design and method are presented in Figure 1 and Figure 2, respectively.

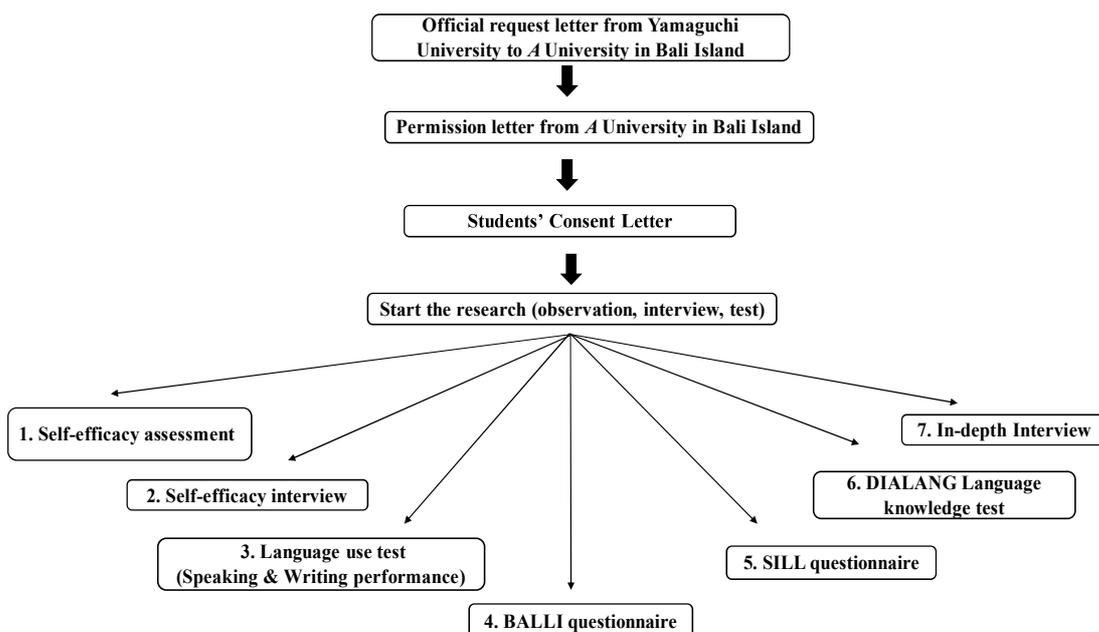


Figure 1. The flow of the present study

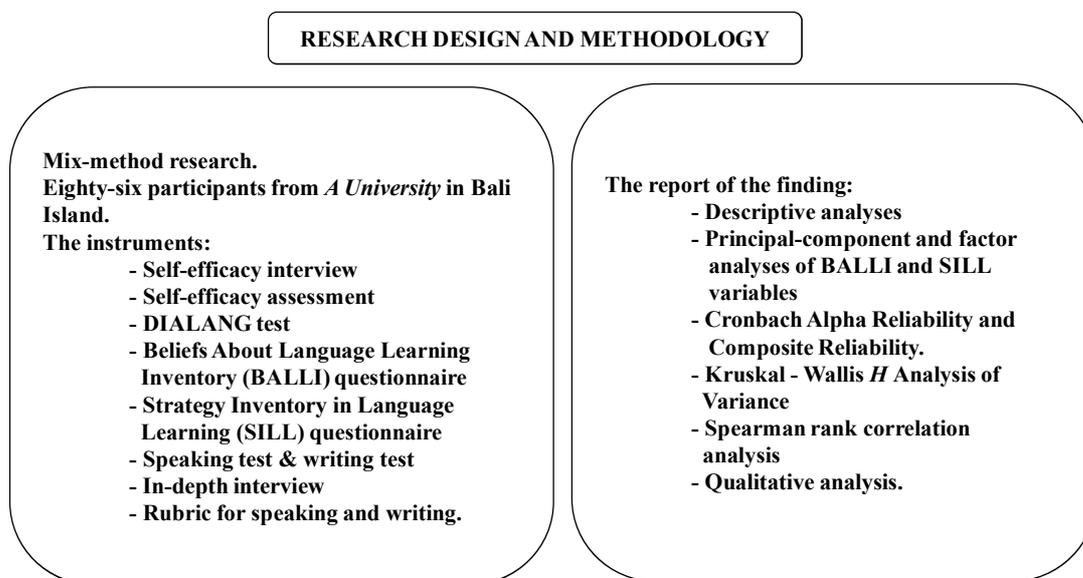


Figure 2. Research design and methodology of this study

3.3 Participants

The participants were fifth semester EFL students studying in a national university in Bali, Indonesia; eighty-six Balinese EFL learners aged 19–23 years (24% male and 76% female), with low to advanced level of proficiency in English, participated in the study. All the participants had studied English for around 10–12 years since elementary school. In their current studies, they had already completed 117 credits in general and were taking courses worth 27 credits in their fifth semester.

The participants were assured of anonymity and confidentiality. The researcher also explained that this research would not affect their grades and they were free to choose whether to participate in the research or not.

During the initial recruitment process, the researcher did not classify the learners as high or low achievers. The classification was done after the actual performance assessment (language use tests of speaking and writing). From the eighty-six students, twenty were randomly selected to be interviewed. The semi-structured interview lasted around 20–25 minutes. All students voluntarily participated without any material reward offered as an incentive to participate.

3.4 Instruments

The instruments used in this study consist of the self-efficacy assessment, self-efficacy interview, language use test (speaking and writing test), BALLI questionnaire, SILL questionnaire, DIALANG language knowledge test, interview, and rubric for speaking and writing. These instruments were used to measure learners' language knowledge, language use, self-efficacy, beliefs about language learning, and learning strategies, and to find the interrelation among these variables. The questionnaires used in this study were not original, but were adjusted according to the Balinese context. Although the participants in this study had sufficient knowledge of English, the questionnaire and the related instructions were provided in Indonesian language in order to avoid any ambiguity and to increase the understanding of learners concerning the items in the statements.

3.4.1 Self-efficacy assessment

For the self-efficacy assessment, learners were asked to assess their self-efficacy in speaking and writing based on the grid illustrate in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Teaching, Learning, and Assessing (CEFR), which has multiple scales that can be used for (self) assessment. These illustrative descriptors are divided into different competences, strategies, domains, and activities, which is the so-called “horizontal mapping” of the Framework (CEFR, 2001: 16). The vertical dimension, however, is the aspect that the Framework is most widely known for. Each scale has a minimum of six levels, from A1 being the lowest to C2 being the highest, that further define certain competencies (See Appendices 12 and 13 for the detailed description of the competencies).

3.4.2 Self-efficacy interview

Besides administering self-efficacy questionnaire, this research also conducted initial self-efficacy interview in order to explore the learners’ self-efficacy, their learning phases and development. In addition, it also aims to validate the self-efficacy questionnaire’s answers. See Appendix 6 for the detail interview questions.

3.4.3 Language use test (speaking and writing actual performance tests)

The speaking and writing tests were created using the CEFR guidelines. For the speaking test, students were required to participate in an interactive mode of speaking assessment in the form of an interview test between the examiner and the examinee. The researcher asked questions based on an already prepared outline; all questions had the same level of difficulty and explored the speaking skills of the students. During the writing test, students were asked to write a short essay about a given topic (see Appendices 10 and 11 for the tests).

3.4.4. BALLI questionnaire

The Beliefs About language Learning Inventory (BALLI) questionnaire, developed by Horwitz (1987), measures students’ beliefs about language learning, accommodating their learning and the perceptions they have toward learning. Though the original BALLI questionnaire does not focus on EFL learners specifically, researchers in EFL countries adapt the original version to the local and cultural

aspects of language learning, such as Yang (1999) in Taiwan, Nikitina and Furuoka (2014) in Malaysia, Sadeghi and Abdi (2015) in Iran, and Bachri et al. (2017) investigating Indonesian students relating to Kanji and Japanese language learning. The BALLI questionnaire was chosen for this research because it was designed to assess learners' opinions on a variety of issues. The questionnaire has proved effective in investigating EFL learners' beliefs worldwide (Cui, 2014; Hong, 2006; Kuntz, 1996; Lee, 2014; Li, 2010; Sawir, 2002; Yang, 1999) and is assumed to be adequate in Balinese context. The original questionnaire comprises 34 items scored on a 5-point Likert scale as: (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) neither agree nor disagree, (4) agree, and (5) strongly agree. However, considering the needs and the academic context of the Balinese EFL learners, some items were added. The BALLI questionnaire²² in this study consisted of 40 items relating to the learning conditions in the research area.

3.4.5 SILL questionnaire

The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) was developed by Rebecca L. Oxford in 1986 and first published in 1990 in her book, *Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher Should Know*. Oxford developed two different versions of the questionnaire: one for native speakers of English who are learning a foreign language, and one for students learning English as a second or foreign language. The questionnaires meet the psychometric qualities which deal with utility, reliability, and validity as a good instrument (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). SILL is well accepted and has been recognized as one of the most comprehensive learner strategy survey methods (McDonough, 1999; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). Based on Oxford's classification, learning strategies are grouped into the following six categories: memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social. There were originally fifty items in the questionnaire; however, the present study added five more items related to the academic context in the place where the data were collected. The questionnaire uses five Likert-type responses for each

²² The complete questionnaire is presented in the Appendix 7

strategy ranging from 1 to 5 (1 = never or almost never, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often, and 5 = always) to analyze how often participants use these strategies.

An Indonesian translation of this instrument was used to maximize the ease of administration and ensure greater accuracy of results, especially with the less advanced students.

3.4.6 DIALANG tests

DIALANG is an online diagnostic language assessment system that informs learners of their levels of language learning, and gives information about the strengths and weaknesses in their learning proficiency. It was developed by several European higher education institutions, and has been in operation since 2006 from Lancaster University's server. It offers tests and instructions in 14 European languages (Alderson, 2005). The first step, before taking the test, is the preliminary test or the placement test. This consists of 75 verbs in the Vocabulary Size Placement Test (VSPT), which needs to be answered in order to gauge the learner's level of knowledge. The learners have to tell the real or existing words from the pseudo words. This test categorizes the learners into six levels. The main part of the test comes in three difficulty levels (Alderson, 2005: 33-34). The DIALANG offers no numerical scores but assessments based on the six levels of the CEFR: A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, and C2.

3.4.7 In-depth interview

In-depth interviews were conducted to explore the learners' learning phases and development, and to validate the answers to the questionnaires. Liamputtong and Ezzy (2007) suggested the following advantages of using an in-depth interview method:

- This method is an excellent way to discover the subjective meanings and interpretations that people give to their experiences. It can be used to investigate the complexity and in-process nature of meanings and interpretations.
- In-depth interviews open the possibilities for aspects of social life such as social processes and negotiated interactions to be explored.

- Responses gathered tend to be free from the influence of other peers because in-depth interviews are conducted on a one-on-one basis.

3.4.8. Rubric for speaking and writing

Rubrics are an important instrument in speaking tests which include specific, observable, and measurable descriptors that define expectations at each level of performance for each criterion (Hutson et al., 2017). The type of rubric used in this research was the analytic scale rubric. It assessed specific aspects in each component of communicative competence such as grammar, vocabulary, fluency, pronunciation, and discourse (CEFR, 2001). This research used the CEFR guidelines as a basis to develop the rubric for the speaking and writing test. The outline and the rubric for the speaking and writing test were taken, adjusted, and adapted from the CEFR guidelines by considering the condition and context of the Balinese EFL learners (see Appendix 13 for the speaking and writing rubrics).

3.5 Data Collection Procedure

As already shown in Figures 1 and 2 in Section 3.2, the data collection procedure consisted of seven stages, arranged sequentially as follows:

1. The learners undertake self-efficacy assessment.
2. An initial interview is conducted regarding the learners' self-efficacy.
3. The learners participate in the actual performance test (speaking and writing test) for assessment of their language use.
4. The learners answer the BALLI questionnaire (to assess beliefs in leaning).
5. The learners answer the SILL questionnaire (to assess learning strategies).
6. The learners participate in DIALANG tests for the assessment of their language knowledge.
7. The last stage is the in-depth interviews in which the students express their comprehension verbally regarding language knowledge, language use, self-efficacy, beliefs in their English skills, and learning strategies.

Classroom observation was done during the whole process of the research, start from the self-efficacy assessment to the in-depth interview stage by observing and taking note in how the students react and express their answers during the test and interview. In addition, the data gathered from observations include illustration of individuals' practices, actions, attitudes, and interaction.

Regarding students' self-efficacy, the initial interview results indicated that there are groups of learners with speaking self-efficacy, writing self-efficacy, and balanced self-efficacy (learners who are self-efficacious in both speaking and writing). However, since the number of balanced learners is too small to be calculated statistically, the present research focuses on the self-efficacy assessment data.

Concerning the learners' actual performance, learners took part in speaking and writing tests. The speaking test was in the form of an interview, whereas the writing test comprised writing a descriptive text.

The learners then answered the BALLI and SILL questionnaires to explore their beliefs about language learning and learning strategies. The original versions of the questionnaires were in English; however, in this study, their Indonesian translations were used to ease difficulty, maximize understanding, and ensure greater accuracy of results, especially with the less advanced students.

To explore the learners' language knowledge, DIALANG test was conducted and the learners were ranked based on the highest scores of their language knowledge test.

The data were analyzed and the results were used as the basis of in-depth interviews. Semi-structured interview questions were developed and the interviews were conducted on one-on-one basis on the campus. The interviews were audio-recorded and the interviewer also took notes regarding the students' answers. Overall, the interviews were mostly conducted in Bahasa Indonesia to make the participants feel relaxed and find it easy to answer all questions, but some students choose to speak in English.

The results of the interview were then transcribed and translated from Indonesian into English, and finally analyzed.

3.6 Data Analysis Procedure

The collected data were analyzed using several methods. Figure 3 presents the flow of data analysis in the present study.

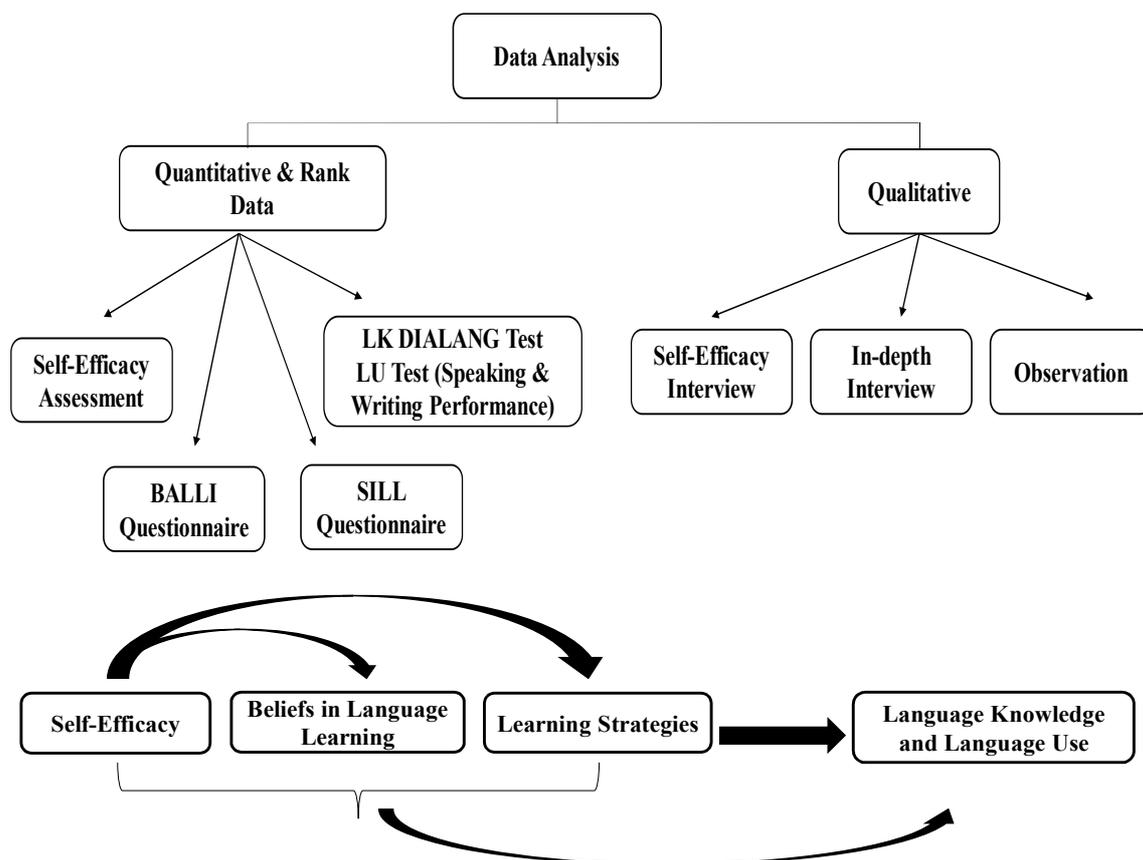


Figure 3. The flow of data analysis in the present study.

Data analyses followed the compilation of data into qualitative and quantitative based on the type of test. The quantitative data were manually compiled, and Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 26 was employed for analyzing the questionnaires (self-efficacy assessment, BALLI, and SILL) and the rank data (language knowledge and language use tests). The qualitative data from the self-efficacy interview, in-depth interview, and classroom observation were grouped together with the transcribed and translated data. Both the quantitative and qualitative data were given equal importance in analyses. Once

each section of the data was individually analyzed, both the quantitative and qualitative data were integrated for interpretation of the results.

3.6.1 Quantitative data analysis

The questionnaire data were analyzed using SPSS Version 26. 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 beliefs about language learning and learning strategy use.

The researcher next coded the data and ran the factor analyses to identify the underlying dimensions of factors, reported by students in the SILL and BALLI questionnaires. The factor scores were computed for each composite variable of beliefs and learning strategies to be used as new variables in further analyses. Both BALLI and SILL comprised six factor scores.

Cronbach Alpha test was conducted in order to determine the internal reliability of the two questionnaires (SILL and BALLI) before the factor analysis was conducted, and after the new factor scores were developed, composite reliability was confirmed.

In order to examine how self-efficacy influences and differentiates beliefs about language learning and learning strategies, Kruskal-Wallis H test was conducted using self-efficacy as independent variable and the six factors of BALLI and SILL as dependent variables. Finally, the factors with statistically significant differences in beliefs and learning strategy and the variations within groups were determined.

For the rank data of DIALANG language knowledge test and language use test of speaking and writing performance, descriptive statistics and analysis of frequency were conducted. The correlation between individual differences and language knowledge and language use was investigated using Spearman rank correlation. From the analysis results, the variables with significant and non-significant correlation can be found.

3.6.2 Qualitative data analysis

Qualitative data were collected from three sources: initial interview regarding self-efficacy with the participants; in-depth interview regarding self-efficacy, beliefs about language learning, learning strategies, language knowledge, and language use with twenty randomly chosen participants; and classroom observation. The interview data were audio-recorded and transcribed and translated into English. Classroom observation data collected by observing the students' reactions and emotions, from the very beginning of the research process up to the in-depth interview, were compiled and described based on the discourse pattern noticed in the classroom.

The findings of this study are presented as follows:

1. Descriptive analyses.

It contains the frequencies, means, and standard deviations of BALLI and SILL questionnaires.

2. Cronbach alpha reliability and composite reliability.

The reliability tests were conducted to find the consistency of a research variable either in the BALLI and SILL original questionnaire results or in the restructured factors. The reliability of the BALLI and SILL questionnaires ranged from .66 to .84, which signifies the questionnaires were reliable.

3. Normality test.

Tests of normality, namely the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test and Shapiro-Wilk Test, were conducted to determine whether the independent and dependent variables had normally distributed data or not. In the Shapiro Wilk Test, a significance value greater than 0.05 indicates normal distribution of data. If the value is below 0.05, the data deviates significantly from a normal distribution. The result of normality test was used to determine whether further analyses should be parametric or non-parametric in nature.

4. Principal component analysis of BALLI and SILL variables.

Principal Component Analysis was used to reduce a large set of variables into a smaller set which accounts for most of the variance in the original variables, to combine input variables in specific ways, to exclude the least important

variables, and to decide and retain the most valuable parts of all the variables. Factor extraction was carried out with the eigenvalue 2.0 and *Varimax Rotation* to find the factor loading and to increase the underlying factor interpretability.

5. Kruskal-Wallis H analysis of variance.

The Kruskal-Wallis H test or “one-way ANOVA on ranks” is a non-parametric statistics analysis technique to test the influence and any significant mean difference between different groups. To conduct Kruskal-Wallis H test, use Legacy Dialogs and then select K Independent Samples, select and transfer the dependent and independent variables to the test variable list and grouping variable box, respectively, and define the range based on the data.

6. Spearman rank correlation analysis.

This correlation analysis is a non-parametric statistics analysis used to examine the relationship among different variables, such as that between self-efficacy and beliefs about language learning and learning strategies, and between language knowledge and language use. The analysis was done through the bivariate correlation in SPSS.

7. Qualitative analysis.

This is done to analyze open-ended data in order to clarify and confirm the results of quantitative analysis.

3.7 Conclusion

This chapter described the methodology used to achieve the research purposes. This study selected a mixed-methods approach, and quantitative and qualitative data were collected in a sequential manner. To answer the research questions, various analytical methods for quantitative data were utilized using SPSS Version 26. With reference to the BALLI and SILL questionnaires, various statistical techniques were selected to analyze and evaluate the inventories. The qualitative data analysis of the interview responses was conducted to refine and discuss in detail the quantitative results.

CHAPTER IV

BALINESE EFL LEARNERS' SELF-EFFICACY, BELIEFS, AND LEARNING STRATEGIES

4.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on a discussion based on the results of a questionnaire and interview data related to Balinese EFL learners' self-efficacy regarding their productive English skills and its relationship with and influence on their beliefs about language learning and learning strategies. This chapter is to address the research question one, regarding the Balinese EFL learners' self-efficacy in productive language skills; and research question two regarding the Balinese EFL learners' beliefs about language learning and learning strategies, and whether self-efficacy relates to and influence the learners' belief and learning strategies.

The aims of the present study are to investigate (a) the learners' self-efficacy regarding their productive language skills and their perspective about their self-efficacy, as well as (b) their beliefs about language learning and their learning strategies, based on their self-efficacy.

Self-efficacy is investigated using the self-efficacy assessment instrument and interview. Learners' beliefs are observed using the BALLI questionnaire. The learners' learning strategies are examined using the SILL questionnaire. For clarifying the underlying factors that cannot be obtained from the questionnaire responses, in-depth interviews are used.

The findings include: (1) descriptive analyses (frequencies, means, and standard deviation) of the BALLI and SILL questionnaires, (2) Kruskal-Wallis *H*-test analysis of variance of the BALLI and SILL questionnaires based on the learners' self-efficacy level and type, and (3) qualitative analysis of the interviews with the learners about their self-efficacy, their beliefs, choice of learning strategies, and whether their self-efficacy determines their learning strategies.

Based on the analysis, this chapter tests the argument that self-efficacy is important to motivate learners in their language learning development, but it does not always influence and differentiate learners' beliefs and learning strategies. The Balinese EFL learners' positive

self-efficacy in productive language skills and their strong beliefs about learning will be identified first; their learning strategies will be presented later.

4.2. The Learners' Self-Efficacy in Productive Language Skills

The aims of this section are to examine Balinese EFL learners' self-efficacy in speaking and writing skills, and reveal their perspective and the main source of their self-efficacy. Eighty-six students participated in the self-efficacy questionnaire and the in-depth interview about speaking and writing skills. It became clear that the Balinese EFL learners are highly efficacious in their productive skills in speaking and/or writing.

Table 3. Balinese learners' self-efficacy in speaking and writing

		A1	A2	B1	B2	C1
Self-efficacy	Speaking	9	21	22	14	20
	Writing	4	12	22	19	29

Table 3 presents the learners' self-efficacy in speaking and writing. The assessment was adjusted in accordance with CEFR guidelines. Based on the CEFR descriptors at each level, the Balinese EFL learners consider themselves to be highly self-efficacious learners in both speaking and writing. Mostly, the learners are efficacious at Level B. However, they are also sufficiently confident to judge themselves as proficient learners; according to the self-efficacy assessment, there are twenty Level C1 learners with speaking self-efficacy and twenty-nine learners with C1 writing self-efficacy.

The interviewees were asked about their perspectives and their reasons for choosing their level and for having their existing self-efficacy. The transcript below shows the learners' self-efficacy, how they chose their self-efficacy, how they feel, and the reason behind their decision to be self-efficacious. All names are pseudonyms.

The transcript below presents the learners' perspective about their self-efficacy:

Mari : *I speak more than I write; that's why I have a strong belief in my speaking skills. I have a part-time job as a hotel receptionist; for that, I need to speak a lot, and I meet foreigners quite often, so I have confidence in my speaking skills.*

Resa : *I have a strong belief in my speaking skills because I really love and am really into speaking. I think my speaking is much better than my writing. Writing is not my passion, and I don't feel comfortable writing.*

- Dewa : *Since I was in elementary school, I have believed in my speaking skills because I am more confident speaking rather than writing. I am confident expressing something directly, although sometimes I speak ungrammatically, but so far, communication is going well.*
- Masya : *Since I was in elementary school, I have been more confident speaking than writing. When I am speaking, I can express something directly, but when I am writing, I have to think first. Although I sometimes speak ungrammatically, so far, communication is going well.*
- Lina : *Since I was a senior in high school, I have believed in my writing skills because I feel more confident and comfortable expressing my ideas in writing. I wrote a lot at that time. I feel nervous in speaking, so I always have anxiety at the beginning of a conversation.*
- Rini : *I really enjoy when I have to describe something in writing, and I can do it frequently and continuously without any doubt; but I don't feel comfortable in speaking.*
- Geri : *I am a shy person, so I focus on learning to write rather than speak. Since I was a junior in high school, I have felt more comfortable and confident writing rather than speaking, and I realize that I believe in my writing skills. It motivates me to learn more.*
- Maya : *Since I was a senior in high school, I chose to put my confidence in writing because I like it. I feel more confident and comfortable expressing my ideas in writing.*
- Moka : *I am a shy person. Since I was young, I focused on learning to write rather than speak. Since then, I realize my confidence is in my writing skills.*
- Arik : *In Bali, we believe "depang anake ngadanin," which is a proverb that means "I cannot say how good I am, as that would be egoistical." The judgment should come from other people. So, following that quote, and based on the fact that my score is balanced in both speaking and writing, I think I am a balanced learner.*
- Azka : *Based on my impression, my learning experience, and the fact that I always get an A on my speaking and writing tests, I'm a balanced learner.*

The interview data indicate that there are many factors influencing Balinese EFL learners' self-efficacy, including personality, previous education, and experience, especially at school. This is in line with Barcelos (1995), Wenden (1986), and Caprara et al. (2011). This finding supports the existing theories that self-efficacy is related to individual judgment, i.e., whether learners think they are capable of accomplishing something, their level of confidence, and what they believe they can do; learners' personality also influences their self-efficacy in productive English skills (Bandura, 1997; Caprara, et al., 2011; Kalaja, 2006).

The data gathered from the in-depth interviews reveal that feelings, pleasure in learning, and learners' personality are the reasons behind their learning beliefs. Djigić et al.

(2014) mentioned that learners' personality can influence their self-efficacy; based on five basic personality dimensions,²³ the Balinese EFL learners show a tendency to exhibit the extraversion dimension, which includes the extroverted and introverted personality. Extraversion relates to sociability and activity. Extroverts are confident, talkative, friendly, and active; they like to express their ideas directly, do not feel anxiety about speaking in public, and mostly choose speaking as their self-efficacy. Mari, Resa, Dewa, and Masya are examples of extroverted learners. In contrast, introverts are closed, reserved, and sensitive; they do not feel confident, they are shy to speak in front of groups, and they choose writing as their self-efficacy. Moka is an example of an introverted learner whose personality caused her to focus on writing skills since she was young and resulted in her having writing as her self-efficacy into adulthood. She prefers writing over speaking because she is anxious about facing others; this makes it difficult for her to explain her ideas directly. Another type of learner is self-efficacious not only in speaking but also in writing; for example, Arik and Azka may be considered balanced learners.

The other aspect that influences learners in choosing their self-efficacy is their experience. Prior learning experience, especially from school, can be seen as the most influential factor in the foundation and development of self-efficacy. As Bandura (1997) and Ellis (2008) mentioned regarding the source of self-efficacy,²⁴ Maya, Lina, and Geri built their self-efficacy since they were at secondary school, while Masya's and Dewa's self-efficacy came earlier during primary school. Other experiences that may contribute to the development of self-efficacy are getting a high score in speaking and writing. For instance, Azka believes that he possesses balanced skills because he attained balanced speaking and writing scores.

The frequency of language skill use also influences learners' self-efficacy. Mari mentioned that she speaks more frequently than she writes in order to develop her self-efficacy in speaking. On the contrary, more frequent writing developed Lina's and Rini's writing self-efficacy.

²³ Further explanation can be seen on page 24

²⁴ The detail of source of self-efficacy can be seen on page 25

It has become clear that personality and prior learning experience both inside and outside of school (e.g., Mari's experience) are the Balinese EFL learners' source of efficacy.

4.3 Strong Beliefs in Learning to Motivate Learners

The aim of this sub-section is to explore the Balinese EFL learners' beliefs about learning in order to show that they have strong beliefs, particularly in terms of learning motivation and expectation.

A descriptive analysis of the BALLI questionnaire is conducted to illustrate a full picture of the learners' beliefs about language learning. The structure, content, and order pertaining to belief in language learning in the BALLI questionnaire have been slightly modified. Some items have been omitted for irrelevancy, while some have been inserted to suit the academic situation in the Balinese EFL context. The questionnaire sheet used for this research and the detailed results of the questionnaire are attached in the Appendix 7. The additional twelve items inserted into the BALLI questionnaire are:

- It is easier to learn speaking than writing.
- I think my speaking is better than my writing.
- I believe I will learn to write English very well.
- Balinese people can learn English easily and they are good at English.
- Indonesian people can learn English easily and they are good at English.
- I enjoy speaking and practicing English with native speakers.
- I feel timid speaking English with native speakers.
- I brainstorm ideas before I start to write.
- If in the beginning, students are allowed to make mistakes in speaking, it is hard to speak correctly in the future.
- It is important to learn English from movies and music.
- Learning English is a matter of memorizing.
- I want to have native speakers of English as friends.

Beliefs about language learning can be divided into several classifications according to the BALLI Questionnaire. They are:

- DLL : Difficulty in language learning (Items: 1, 4, 22, 32)

- FLA : Foreign language aptitude (Items: 2, 7, 8, 14, 21, 26, 27, 29, 36)
- NLL : Nature of language learning (Items: 10, 12, 15, 19, 24, 25, 33, 34, 35, 39)
- LCS : Learning and communication strategies (Items: 9, 11, 13, 16, 17, 18, 23, 28, 30, 31)
- LME : Learning motivation and expectation (Items: 3, 5, 6, 20, 37, 38, 40)

Before analyzing the findings, a reliability test was done to examine the questionnaire items' reliability. The internal consistency of the BALLI questionnaire ($\alpha = .713$) indicates sufficient reliability, signifying that the questionnaire is reliable for research purposes.

Table 4 provides the SPSS analysis results, i.e., mean, median, standard deviation, and variance, for the BALLI questionnaire. Mean is relevant to this research because the higher the mean score, the stronger the student's belief in a given statement. Conversely, a low mean score would indicate that the student's belief in the given statement is weak. A mean score above 3.5 in the BALLI questionnaire is considered to be a high mean score, indicating strong belief; the 2.5 to 3.4 range is interpreted as medium or average belief, and a score below 2.4 is taken as low or weak belief.

Overall, the learners, regardless of their self-efficacy, hold strong beliefs about language learning. For example, NLL 24 "*I brainstorm my ideas before I start to write*" reached fifty-four percent agreement, with thirteen percent of the learners strongly agreeing with the statement. This suggests that self-efficacious learners, regardless of whether they possess speaking self-efficacy or writing self-efficacy, believe that they brainstorm their ideas before they start to write. Hence, it is not just learners with writing self-efficacy who practice brainstorming before writing. This is in line with Hedge (2014), who stated that brainstorming is part of learners' writing preparation process, along with other phases, such as planning, thinking, and composing. The learners in this study believe in and are aware of the importance of brainstorming, regardless of their individual self-efficacy. The details of the belief questionnaire results will be presented in the next section.

Table 4. The Overall Mean Score of BALLI Questionnaire

	DLL	FLA	NLL	LCS	LME
Mean/ M	3.1563	3.1616	3.6670	3.2705	4.2386
Std. Deviation/ SD	.43436	.47795	.33105	.31737	.36995

n= 86

Descriptive statistics were calculated to assess the students' language learning beliefs and derive the group means and standard deviations. Considering the mean values shown in Table 4, it can be concluded that the strength of the learners' language learning beliefs varies. None of the categories have a low mean score, which suggests that the learners have a positive attitude toward language learning and strong language learning beliefs. The mean scores range from medium (DLL, FLA, and LCS) to high (NLL and LME). LME has the highest score ($M = 4.24$), indicating that the belief statements obtained "very strong agreement." LME is followed by NLL ($M = 3.67$), LCS ($M = 3.27$), FLA ($M = 3.16$), and DLL ($M = 3.15$). These findings show that Balinese EFL learners generally believe that motivational factors play a major role in their learning process; beliefs related to the difficulty of the English language are not their main concern.

All learners agree that their strongest beliefs are in LME, such as the beliefs about learning and practicing speaking and writing, in having native speakers as friends to help them improve their English skills, in learning English for the sake of their future, and in their speaking and writing abilities. Beliefs will vary with learners' motivations, attitudes, and learning procedures, and may have an influence on their learning strategies and learning outcomes (Riley, 2006; Sadeghi & Abdi, 2015). Learners' motivation be intrinsic or extrinsic (Dörnyei, 1998). BALLI questionnaire items such as wanting to master English and have native English speakers as friends are considered intrinsic motivation. Learner beliefs that reflect learners' extrinsic motivation to learn English, which is stronger, pertain to ideas that their future will be better if they master English because speaking English will help them secure a good job. For this reason, they are highly motivated to learn English, and they have high expectations; they believe in learning through practicing, repeating, and acquiring vocabulary.²⁵

The second highest mean score is in NLL, with 3.67. The item with the highest mean score in the NLL category is "*It is important to learn English from movies and music.*"

²⁵ Practicing, repeating and learning vocabulary are beliefs in learning that the self-efficacious learners possess which gain high mean score in the questionnaire (LCS 13 "*I enjoy practicing English with the native speakers of English*" with $M = 3.85$; LCS 16 "*It is important to repeat and practice a lot*" with $M = 4.49$; and NLL 15 "*The most important part of learning a foreign language is learning vocabulary words*" with $M = 4.01$). The higher mean score represents the higher and the stronger belief of the learner in their learning process.

Learning English by memorizing vocabulary from books, including dictionaries, is very common in the EFL classroom. The tediousness of this learning strategy can cause a reluctant learning attitude that can become an obstacle preventing learners from enjoying the language learning process (Linares, 2018). However, when learners find amusing ways to learn, they progress faster and achieve better results. For example, learning through songs and movies can provide several benefits. Strong beliefs in the nature of language learning also mean that learners believe strongly in the importance of learning vocabulary and grammar, translating from their native language into English, learning about English-speaking cultures, and memorizing theory, grammar, and other language knowledge. The learners also believe in brainstorming ideas before writing. In addition, the learners believe that paying attention to an utterance's context and meaning is more important than the grammatical pattern. In this case, they are focusing more on communication rather than grammaticality.

The Balinese EFL learners obtained a medium mean score for the statement "*It is best to learn English in English-speaking countries.*" The discrepancy in the learners' belief in the statement caused the medium mean score. This finding differs from Sawir's (2002), who investigated Indonesian learners in Australia and found that they believed strongly in the nature of the English language teaching and learning environment in English-speaking countries. The medium mean result indicates that for the Balinese EFL learners who participated in this study, English can be learned outside of English-speaking countries.

The third category is LCS, with a mean score of 3.27. The Balinese EFL learners believe that having native speakers as friends can give them more opportunities to speak and practice English. The Balinese EFL learners are highly self-efficacious learners who believe in developing their skills in both speaking and writing. This is evident in their responses to LME 37 "*I want to master speaking*" ($M = 4.58$) and LME 38 "*I want to master writing*" ($M = 4.44$). The EFL learners also believe that learning a language means learning about the culture of the countries where English is spoken. The mean scores for the beliefs shown in Table 6 demonstrate that the Balinese EFL learners are open, warm, and welcoming to native English speakers; the items related to native English speakers, such as "*I like to talk to native speakers*" and "*I enjoy practicing English with native English speakers,*" have high mean scores. This finding supports Yang's (1999) research on Taiwanese EFL learners in which

she promotes functional practice, such as interacting with native speakers. She concluded that teachers should provide more opportunities for students to interact with native speakers, in addition to using English with non-native learners. The Balinese EFL learners' beliefs about learning and communication strategies include social and interactional strategies and discussion not only with native speakers, but also with friends, teachers, and other people.

The last two categories, with the lowest mean scores compared to the other categories, are FLA ($M = 3.16$) and DLL ($M = 3.15$). The mean score for these categories are similar, indicating that the learners focus less on foreign language aptitude and difficulty in language learning.

Based on the overall results of the BALLI questionnaire, out of the forty questionnaire items, twenty (fifty percent) have high mean scores,²⁶ seventeen (forty-two point five percent) have medium mean scores,²⁷ and three (seven point five percent) have low mean scores.²⁸ The LME category scored the highest, with "*I want to have native speakers as friends*" (BALLI 40) reaching 4.59. The lowest score is in the LCS category (BALLI 11, "*I shouldn't say anything in English until I can say it correctly*"), with only 2.32.

The highest mean score indicates that the Balinese EFL learners are highly motivated to learn English and that they have high expectations. They want to have native English speakers as friends, so that they get the opportunity to practice speaking English because they realize the importance of improving their English communicative ability and skills by practicing with native speakers. In contrast, the lowest mean score indicates that most of the students disagree with that questionnaire item. Low scores do not always mean that the learners have a negative belief; rather, a low score indicates a weak belief in the given statement, as evidenced with Item 11 "*I shouldn't say anything until I can say it correctly.*" A low mean result refers to the opposite belief or the learners' disagreement with this statement; that is, they believe that even though they cannot produce a grammatically correct utterance, they have to keep practicing and trying to express their opinions and thoughts. In

²⁶ The items in the questionnaire that resulted in high mean scores are 2, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 13, 15, 16, 20, 23, 24, 25, 28, 33, 34, 37, 38, 39, and 40.

²⁷ The items in the questionnaire that resulted in medium mean scores are 1, 3, 4, 8, 12, 14, 17, 18, 19, 21, 22, 26, 30, 31, 32, 35, and 36.

²⁸ The items in the questionnaire that resulted in low mean scores are 11, 27, and 29.

the interviews, they mentioned their belief that they do not have to wait to produce grammatically perfect sentences because aiming for perfection could cause them to lose confidence and experience trauma.

This sub-section describes the Balinese EFL learners' beliefs in general. The descriptive statistics show that the learners have strong beliefs in LME. The next section provides a detailed description of learners' beliefs by category and compares learners' beliefs based on their self-efficacy in productive English skills.

Table 5. DLL Items Response Distribution

ITEM		Based on Speaking Self-Efficacy					Based on Writing Self-Efficacy				
		A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1
1. It is easier to learn speaking than writing.	M	3.33	3.71	3.18	3.35	3.45	3.75	3.67	3.36	3.36	3.34
	SD	1.00	.956	1.22	.744	.825	.50	.778	.09	.955	1.04
4. The difficulty of English.	M	3.22	3.00	3.27	3.00	3.15	3.25	3.08	3.27	3.00	3.10
	SD	.440	.774	.455	.679	.366	.50	.514	.455	.471	.724
22. It is easier Reading and Listening English than Speaking and Writing it.	M	3.22	3.09	3.36	2.71	3.15	3.50	3.17	2.86	2.89	3.41
	SD	.971	.830	.726	.825	.670	1.29	.717	.774	.737	.732
32. It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language	M	3.00	3.14	2.63	3.35	2.9	4.00	3.17	2.72	2.89	3.00
	SD	.122	.727	1.00	.841	.788	.816	.937	.631	.875	1.03

Table 5 presents the descriptive analysis results of speaking and writing self-efficacy in learners in the DLL category. The mean scores range from medium to high ($M = 2.63$ to $M = 4.00$), and the differences among groups of learners are not too significant. The highest mean score (3.71) in speaking self-efficacy is from A2 learners on DLL 1 (“*It is easier to learn speaking than writing*”). For writing self-efficacy, A1 learners have a mean score of 4.00 for DLL 32 (“*It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language*”). Those learners have the highest mean score for that belief items category, scoring even higher than the Level B and C learners.

Fifty percent of the learners agree and strongly agree with DLL 1 (“*It is easier to learn speaking than writing*”). This means that there is a contradiction regarding the learners' view of the statement “*It is easier to learn to speak than write.*” This result is due to the

existence of two self-efficacious groups; the speaking and writing self-efficacious groups may have different perspectives on the difficulty of learning speaking versus writing. The learners may believe that speaking is indeed easier to learn or that writing is easier for them to learn; alternatively, they may think that it is either easy or difficult to learn both speaking and writing. Once each learner has their own belief, they will enjoy the language learning process. This is a good sign because in learning, we must first like the subject, and then it will be easier to absorb the knowledge.²⁹

Overall, twenty percent of the learners are confident that English is an easy language, seventy-three percent among the self-efficacious groups regard English as a moderately difficult language, and only two percent view English as being a very difficult language. Weak beliefs and poor confidence in learning could prevent learners from progressing. On the other hand, a high level of confidence is a good sign (Bandura, 1997), since it means the learners enjoy and are capable in their English learning. When learners have a strong belief and a high level of confidence, they will be able to express their knowledge to others. However, learners' self-efficacy cannot guarantee a language production capability because holding strong beliefs is not a measurement of whether someone can behave or act in accordance with their beliefs.³⁰

The next item in this category is "*It is easier to read and listen than to speak and write*" (DLL 22). For this item, all the self-efficacious learners have a medium mean score in the range of 2.86–3.50, revealing similarities among the groups of learners. It also reflects that the learners do not want to underestimate other English skill categories, such as receptive language skills (reading and listening). Those two skills are also complicated to learn, although they are not as complex as using productive language, which demands that learners produce an utterance or writing.

The next item in the DLL category is "*It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language*" (DLL 32). For this item, the range of mean scores for learners with speaking self-

²⁹ The evidences are presented at the next chapter about the relation of belief in applying the language knowledge into language use.

³⁰ This section is discussing the self-efficacy of the learners. The next section presents the evidence whether the learners' self-efficacy is reflected in their actual performance.

efficacy is 2.9–3.35, suggesting that they believe moderately in this statement. Even the C1 learners who judge themselves as highly efficacious in speaking only have a 2.9 mean score, signifying moderate belief in the statement. In contrast, the A1 learners with writing self-efficacy have a high mean score ($M = 4$), which means that they strongly believe that speaking is easier than understanding. This result indicates that the A1 learners are overconfident and that they overestimate their ability, while the C1 learners are more conscious of their ability, as reflected by their moderate belief in the statement. Speaking requires comprehension of oral communication and basic language knowledge and skills. Since to speak means to understand, it is surprising that the learners believe that speaking is easier than understanding language. In the interviews, the learners elaborated on their opinions about the statement. They explained what *speaking* and *understanding* mean based on their learning belief. They mentioned that *to speak* means to make an utterance, while *to understand* means to comprehend the grammar and the pattern of the English language. For them, speaking means communicating, but understanding is related to grammar patterns (syntax, morphemic, semantic, phonetic and phonemic). The learners focus on communication by using simple words or phrases that are easy to understand. Sometimes, people can speak without understanding the grammar and the pattern; consequently, their utterances are unstructured or disorganized. Krashen and Terrel (1983:31) stated that “When students are focused on communication, they are usually unable to make extensive use of their conscious knowledge of grammar, they cannot monitor and their error patterns primarily reflect the disoperation of the system in acquiring the language.” On one hand, people can understand the grammar and the pattern, but for them, it may not be easy to speak. On the other hand, there are many cases where learners understand without being able to speak the language (Erard, 2018), and the reason is a lack of confidence and competence regarding performing in front of other people (Lengkanawati, 2004). For DLL 32, approximately forty-three percent of the learners neither agree nor disagree with the statement because they consider both speaking and understanding a foreign language to have equal value. When students have the ability to speak, it means that they can also understand the language that they are using. However, when students understand the language, it cannot be inferred that they can also speak it. Speaking and understanding are two different yet related processes in

language learning. The results show that the learners do not think that speaking is easier or that understanding is more difficult; they perceive both as parts of the whole foreign language learning process, which consists of all four skills.

Table 6. FLA Items Response Distribution

ITEM		Based on Speaking Self-Efficacy					Based on Writing Self-Efficacy				
		A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1
2. Some people have a special talent for learning English	M	4.11	3.95	3.50	3.92	4.1	4.25	3.83	4.04	3.73	3.83
	SD	.927	1.16	1.18	1.07	1.02	.500	1.11	.722	1.24	1.31
7. People from Bali Island are good at learning English	M	3.22	3.67	3.72	3.57	3.35	3.50	3.33	3.50	3.47	3.72
	SD	.440	.795	.702	.646	.587	.577	.651	.597	.772	.701
8. People from Indonesia are good at learning English	M	3.22	3.14	3.45	3.42	3.35	3.25	3.17	3.36	3.15	3.48
	SD	.440	.573	.509	.513	.587	.500	.577	.492	.501	.574
14. I have a special ability in learning English	M	3.22	3.33	3.31	2.92	3.05	4.00	3.33	3.00	3.21	3.13
	SD	1.09	.795	.646	.828	.825	.816	.887	.755	.854	.742
21. People who speak English fluently are very intelligent	M	3.55	3.14	3.45	3.35	3.40	4.00	3.25	3.22	3.10	3.58
	SD	.726	.853	1.01	.841	.994	.816	.753	.869	1.10	.824
26. It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one	M	3.33	3.19	3.59	3.21	3.40	3.25	3.08	3.36	3.26	3.55
	SD	7.07	.928	.734	.578	.502	.957	.996	.657	.733	.572
27. People who are good at mathematics or science are not good at learning foreign languages	M	2.67	2.33	2.04	2.71	2.15	3.00	2.33	2.40	1.94	2.37
	SD	.866	1.31	.950	.825	1.08	.816	.123	.796	1.08	1.17
29. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages	M	2.44	2.23	2.22	2.81	2.55	3.25	2.23	2.59	2.10	2.45
	SD	1.13	1.26	1.19	1.40	1.23	1.25	1.15	.959	1.33	1.40

The learners who have self-efficacy in both speaking and writing have a high mean score for FLA 2 “*Some people have a special talent for learning English.*” In the in-depth interviews, the learners mentioned that they believe some people have a special talent for learning English. They believe that this talent is related to self-efficacy. For example, when someone says that a person is self-efficacious in speaking, the learners believe that person has a special ability in speaking.

Forty-eight percent of the learners agree and six percent strongly agree with the statement “*People from Bali Island are good at learning English.*” As a tourism island, the demand for English-speaking workers to staff the tourism and travel industry in Bali is increasing, leading to an increase in EFL learners on Bali Island. Workplace development requires good English that covers language expressions, vocabulary, grammar, fluency, and other language components (Sari, 2016). Balinese students learn English formally at school or informally by talking to foreigners. Interacting with foreigners is a great opportunity and privilege for Balinese EFL learners, and it is the reason they believe themselves to be good at learning English. Bandura (1997) mentioned that social persuasion (encouragement or discouragement from others) is a factor that influences the establishment of self-efficacy. In this case, the experience of communicating with foreigners, combined with the high demand for English speakers in the workplace, encourages Balinese EFL learners.

Table 7. NLL Items Response Distribution

ITEM		Based on Speaking Self-Efficacy					Based on Writing Self-Efficacy				
		A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1
10. It is important to know about English-speaking cultures in order to speak English	M	3.55	4.14	3.59	3.78	3.95	3.75	4.25	3.64	3.68	3.93
	SD	.881	.478	1.00	1.12	.759	.957	.452	.847	.945	.923
12. It is best to learn English in an English-speaking country	M	3.55	3.67	3.27	3.14	2.95	3.75	3.75	3.27	3.37	3.03
	SD	1.42	1.23	1.24	1.56	.759	.957	1.13	1.20	1.25	1.29
15. The most important part of learning a foreign language is learning vocabulary.	M	3.88	3.95	4.00	4.00	4.05	3.75	4.17	4.00	3.84	4.03
	SD	.600	.804	.534	.877	.759	.500	.577	.873	.602	.731
19. The most important part of learning a foreign language is learning the grammar	M	3.44	3.38	3.40	3.28	3.55	3.50	3.58	3.09	3.42	3.59
	SD	.881	.864	1.00	.913	.759	.29	.668	.811	1.07	.779
24. I brainstorm my ideas before I start to write	M	3.88	3.90	3.50	3.78	3.80	3.75	3.67	3.63	3.74	3.89
	SD	.781	.700	.741	.801	.615	.957	.778	.726	.653	.724
25. I pay attention to the contexts and meaning rather than to	M	4.00	3.85	3.59	3.57	3.75	4.00	3.67	3.77	3.58	3.79
	SD	.866	.654	.796	7.55	.550	1.15	.651	.528	.837	.726

the grammatical pattern.												
33. It is important to learn English from song and movie	M	4.66	4.52	4.09	4.21	4.1	4.75	4.50	4.23	4.31	4.14	
	SD	.50	.749	.526	.801	.640	.500	.674	.611	.671	.742	
34. Learning a foreign language is different than learning other academic subjects.	M	4.00	3.47	3.54	3.50	3.45	4.00	3.83	3.64	3.31	3.45	
	SD	.70	.872	.800	.759	.686	.816	.717	.657	1.05	.631	
35. The most important part of learning English is learning how to translate from my language or from my native language to English	M	3.00	2.90	3.63	3.42	3.25	2.50	3.33	3.18	3.31	3.37	
	SD	.122	.109	.726	1.89	.716	1.59	1.23	.906	1.05	.775	
39. Learning English need a lot of memorizing	M	3.33	3.38	3.63	3.57	3.7	3.25	3.50	3.55	3.42	3.69	
	SD	.707	.804	.726	.646	.571	.500	1.00	.671	.692	.604	

The BALLI questionnaire items that all the self-efficacious learner groups agree on, believe in, and have high mean scores for (≥ 3.50) are NLL 10, NLL 15, NLL 24, NLL 25, and NLL 33. Approximately fifty-one percent of the learners agree and twenty-one percent strongly agree on the importance of learning about the culture of English-speaking countries (NLL 10) as part of English language education, especially to improve their English speaking ability.

The statement related to the role of learning vocabulary (NLL 15) is clearly supported. The statement has a high level of agreement, with sixty-one percent of the students agreeing and twenty-one percent strongly agreeing.

All the self-efficacious learners strongly believe in NLL 25 (“*I pay attention to the context and meaning rather than the grammatical pattern*”). Fifty-four percent agree and twelve percent strongly agree with this statement. Ideally, every learner has to be concerned with context and meaning as well as the grammatical pattern. However, since the Balinese EFL learners are more focused on the communicative aspects of learning, instead of paying equal attention to both aspects, they place more emphasis on the context and meaning. For the Balinese EFL learners, learning grammar is not a popular choice. Their responses to NLL 25 evidence that grammar is not their learning focus. This is also supported by their responses

to NLL 19 (“*The most important part of learning a foreign language is learning the grammar*”); forty-five percent of the learners neither agree nor disagree and thirty-six percent agree. The self-efficacious learners’ comments on this belief statement are neutral. This is in contrast to NLL 15, for which the majority of the learners agree that learning vocabulary is the most important part of learning a foreign language.

Item 33, “*It is important to learn English from songs and movies,*” has a high mean score in the self-efficacious groups. The integration of movies and songs is academically proven to improve students’ language learning, especially for learning oral communication skills, such as pronunciation, listening, and speaking. In addition, learning through songs and movies may provide authentic language input and learning material (Martín & Jaén, 2009; Seferoğlu, 2008), facilitate comprehension and understanding, and improve language learners’ communicative skills (Khan, 2015).

The self-efficacious groups have a moderate mean score for NLL 12 (“*It is best to learn English in English-speaking countries*”). This indicates that the Balinese EFL learners do not think it is necessary to learn English in English-speaking countries; however, they also do not mean to reject the belief contained in this statement. In this, they differ from other EFL learners who have the common perception that studying in English-speaking countries is the best way to improve their English language proficiency, fluency, and experience (Genc et al., 2016; Wood, 2007). Turkish learners have a positive belief about studying abroad due to the experience of learning a foreign language in different settings, such as a new classroom, a new city, or a new country; making native English-speaking friends from other countries and gaining knowledge about the culture of various English-speaking countries may arouse all students’ interest in and enthusiasm for learning English (Genc et al., 2016). However, for the Balinese EFL learners, enthusiasm for and interest in learning English do not only come from studying abroad because Balinese EFL learners have a lot of opportunities to practice English with tourists visiting Bali Island. These opportunities increase the frequency at which these learners use English, and the more frequently EFL learners use English, the more fluent they will become.

The learners also have a moderate mean score for NLL 35 (“*Translating from L1 to English is the most important part of learning English*”). The average mean score for this item indicates that the learners’ interest in learning English is to produce outputs.

Table 8. LCS Items Response Distribution

ITEM		Based on Speaking Self-Efficacy					Based on Writing Self-Efficacy				
		A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1
9. It is important to speak English with an excellent pronunciation.	M	4.33	4.28	4.05	4.07	4.15	4.25	4.17	4.27	4.00	4.17
	SD	.50	.717	.834	.730	1.08	.50	.577	.702	1.00	.928
11. I shouldn't say anything in English until I can say it correctly.	M	2.33	2.57	2.31	2.5	1.95	2.00	2.33	2.36	2.42	2.27
	SD	.707	.810	1.04	1.09	.825	.816	.492	.726	1.12	.109
13. I enjoy practicing English with the native speakers of English.	M	3.78	3.95	3.72	3.85	3.90	4.00	4.08	3.95	3.78	3.69
	SD	.971	.920	1.03	1.02	.718	1.15	.514	.843	.787	1.13
16. It is important to repeat and practice a lot	M	4.55	4.47	4.50	4.5	4.60	4.50	4.83	4.36	4.31	4.65
	SD	.527	.813	.511	.759	.598	.577	.389	.841	.749	.669
17. I feel timid speaking English with other people	M	2.55	2.57	2.59	2.64	2.40	2.25	2.58	2.50	2.63	2.55
	SD	.881	.978	.666	.928	.820	.500	.792	.740	1.01	.869
18. I feel timid speaking English with native speaker	M	2.67	2.47	2.36	2.5	2.40	2.50	2.58	2.31	2.58	2.41
	SD	1.00	.980	.657	.940	.940	1.00	.792	.779	1.07	.866
23. I like to talk with native speaker	M	4.00	4.04	3.86	4.21	3.85	4.00	3.92	4.18	3.78	3.96
	SD	.707	.497	.639	.801	.875	.816	.514	.664	.713	.778
28. It's O.K. to guess if you don't know a word in English.	M	3.44	3.61	3.77	3.54	3.65	3.75	3.75	3.31	3.42	4.00
	SD	.881	.864	.611	.928	.670	.500	.621	.779	.837	.654
30. If in the beginning students are permitted to make errors in English, it will be difficult for them to be revised later on.	M	2.33	2.95	2.22	2.78	2.55	2.25	2.67	2.45	2.84	2.51
	SD	1.00	1.35	1.19	1.36	1.05	.957	.137	.126	1.30	1.15
31. If in the beginning students are permitted to make errors in English, it will be difficult for them to speak correctly later on.	M	2.44	2.71	2.31	2.78	2.85	2.25	2.67	2.68	2.89	2.45
	SD	1.13	1.27	1.17	1.25	.988	.957	.137	1.08	1.24	1.12

Four out of the ten items in the LCS category have high mean scores, which indicates that the learners strongly believe in the importance of speaking English with excellent pronunciation (LCS 9) and utilizing repetition and engaging in other forms of practice frequently, especially practice with native speakers (LCS 16). The learners also enjoy talking with native speakers (LCS 13, LCS 23).

The low to medium mean scores for LCS 30 and LCS 31 indicate that the learners have a weak to average belief in the statement “*If in the beginning students are permitted to make errors in English, it will be difficult for them to correct their mistakes and speak correctly later on.*” This reveals the learners’ passive attitude to correcting their errors. At the beginner level, compensatory strategies are used, and errors that do not cause a communication breakdown are not a focus of concern (Allen & Waugh, 1986). At the lower level of learning, the first learning goal, as stated in Communicative Language Teaching, is to be understood; hence, mistakes are tolerated as long as the meaning is clear to avoid demotivating beginners or low proficiency learners by putting too much emphasis on grammar and accuracy (Allen & Waugh, 1986). The learners in this study believe that errors and mistakes are part of learning and that they can learn from the mistakes they make. This implies that their emphasis is on producing outputs rather than achieving accuracy. However, the learners are also afraid that their errors will be fossilized. While tolerance and communication are the focuses for beginners, perfecting grammar is the focus at higher levels of learning.

A low mean score does not necessarily indicate a negative view for some BALLI questionnaire items. Item 11, “*I shouldn’t say anything in English until I can say it correctly,*” is an example. In the data, all three types of learners have low mean scores for this item, which indicates that they do not agree with the statement. They speak to demonstrate their ability, although the structure or pattern may not be perfect. This means that the learners are training themselves to express their ideas and build their self-confidence. As shown in Table 8, it is not only the speaking groups that agree with the statement; the writing group also believes that every learner needs to practice and that they do not have to refrain from speaking while learning English. This shows that the learners’ priority is on production rather than accuracy.

Other examples that indicate that self-efficacy does not influence and differentiate learners' learning beliefs are items 17 and 18, which deal with timidity when speaking English to others, including native English speakers. Items 17 and 18 have low to medium mean scores, indicating that the learners' belief in these statements is weak to average. There is no substantial difference between groups related to the degree of enjoyment in practicing English with native English speakers. The learners with speaking and writing self-efficacy do not feel timid when they have to speak English to other people, especially native English speakers. This may be explained by Bali's economic reliance on tourism. Balinese people are aware that English is important for them, so they learn English more and try to find opportunities to practice speaking it. This implies that self-efficacy has the potential to play a key role in the learning process by helping or hindering learners' progress. When a learner believes that they are capable of doing a task, their confidence will help them overcome obstacles. Self-efficacy can increase learners' confidence, help to sustain their learning efforts, increase their persistence and resiliency, and lower their apprehension about writing.

Responses to the item that addresses the students' perception of the importance of accepting guessing do not differ much between groups. Most of the learners (61%) believe that it is acceptable to guess the meaning of an unknown English word (LCS 28). The implication is that the learners guess because they do not have time to check the meaning, suggesting that their emphasis is on fluency rather than accuracy.

Table 9. LME Items Response Distribution

ITEM		Based on Speaking Self-Efficacy					Based on Writing Self-Efficacy				
		A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1
3. I think my Speaking skill is better than my writing	M	3.11	3.28	2.90	2.87	2.95	3.75	2.92	2.91	2.95	3.10
	SD	.927	1.05	1.15	.949	.887	.500	.793	1.10	1.07	1.01
5. I believe that I will learn to speak English very well	M	4.44	4.33	4.31	4.28	4.35	4.75	4.25	4.18	4.37	4.41
	SD	.726	.577	.646	.611	.587	.500	.621	.732	.495	.568
6. I believe that I will learn to write English very well	M	4.55	4.04	4.18	4.14	4.20	4.75	4.00	4.27	4.16	4.14
	SD	.527	.740	.732	.662	.767	.500	.738	.702	.602	.789

20. If I speak English very well, I will have bigger and better chance to find a good job.	M	4.77	4.38	4.54	4.50	4.40	4.75	4.50	4.36	4.52	4.52
	SD	.440	.669	.595	.650	.598	.500	.522	.726	.696	.508
37. I want to learn Speaking very well	M	4.66	4.71	4.54	4.21	4.70	4.75	4.75	4.54	4.47	4.62
	SD	.500	.560	.595	.801	.470	.577	.621	.595	.696	.561
38. I want to learn Writing very well	M	4.44	4.33	4.50	4.14	4.70	4.00	4.41	4.41	4.42	4.55
	SD	.726	.795	.597	.770	.470	.816	.900	.666	.692	.572
40. I want to have native speakers as friends	M	4.67	4.71	4.45	4.64	4.50	4.75	4.67	4.54	4.37	4.69
	SD	.50	.560	.509	.633	.606	.500	.492	.670	.597	.471

Compared with the other BALLI questionnaire categories, LME has the most items, with a high mean score for almost all the statements. This indicates that the learners have strong beliefs related to their learning motivation and learning expectations. Unlike other learning belief categories, LME is the only one where the learners agree on the majority of the items. The responses from each group are very similar, and the mean score differences are not statistically significant. The items that all the self-efficacious learners approve of are related to wanting to master speaking and writing and have native English speakers as friends as well as to the belief that if they speak English very well, they will have a better chance of getting a good job.

Of the seven items, there are only different between-group responses for one, LME 3, which is about the level of speaking and writing skills. The majority of the self-efficacious learners have a medium mean score for this item, which means that they have moderate confidence in their speaking skills. Only the A1 writing self-efficacy learners have a high mean score for LME 3, which reflects their confidence in their speaking ability. This shows that the A1 learners with writing self-efficacy are overconfident about their speaking skills. The A1 level is the lowest level in the CEFR assessment; however, the learners believe strongly in their speaking ability, more so than the other learners, including the higher-level B and C learners. The learners' self-assessment of their skills exceeds the objective accuracy of those judgments because the ones who feel confident about their speaking skills come from the writing self-efficacy learner group with the lowest speaking proficiency.

Despite their self-efficacy differences, all the learners agree with most of the BALLI items. Moreover, self-efficacy does not inhibit the learners in their language learning

development. More than eighty percent agree with Items 37 and 38 regarding the desire to speak and write English very well. Those beliefs imply that regardless of their individual self-efficacy, the learners realize that in learning English, they should master speaking as well as writing. The learners have strong beliefs that motivate them to learn English for the sake of their future career. They also strongly believe that people from Bali and Indonesia are good at learning English.

The results show that the Balinese EFL learners, regardless of what their individual self-efficacy may be, mostly have the same beliefs regarding their learning motivation and learning expectations. For the learners with speaking self-efficacy, their belief about learning and communication strategies is less critical than their belief in motivation and expectation. Motivation is a crucial facet of the language learning process and is related to a learner's willingness or desire to be engaged in or commit effort to completing a task (Gardner, et al., 2004). Motivation and expectation are the driving force in the Balinese EFL learners' learning development. They provide encouragement to learn, while strategy refers to the techniques or devices a learner uses to gain knowledge (Feng & Chen, 2009). There are many factors influencing motivation inside and outside of the individual learner, but what matters the most is learners' intrinsic motivation because when learners are intrinsically motivated,³¹ they can find satisfaction and drive themselves in the learning process (Alshenqeti, 2018).

Taiwanese EFL learners' self-efficacy lies in speaking and listening, and they believe in foreign language aptitude; however, the Balinese EFL learners' self-efficacy lies in speaking and writing, and their learning beliefs are related to learning motivation and learning expectations. Beliefs are generally "contextualized and associated" with particular situations or circumstances (Zheng, 2015:17). The findings of the present research indicate that Balinese and Taiwanese EFL learners' different cultural contexts and settings differentiate their perspectives regarding beliefs and self-efficacy.

³¹ Motivation is the combination of a positive attitude, the enjoyment of the task and putting forward effort toward learning, desire to learn, and the engine that drives the system (Gardner et al., 2004). There are three elements of motivation: effort, desire, and attitudes towards learning the language (Takač & Medve, 2015). They added, the elements of motivation were originated from the learner visualization of himself or herself as an effective L2 speaker, from the learner's environment that could evoke the social pressure for the learner, and from learning experiences (including the prior and present learning experience).

Based on descriptive analysis, in most cases, learners' self-efficacy do not differentiate learners' beliefs to a great degree. This implies that despite the learners' self-efficacy differences, they mostly possess the same beliefs.

4.4. The Limited Influence of Self-Efficacy on the Learners' Beliefs

This subsection focuses on the Balinese EFL learners' self-efficacy regarding productive English language skills and aims to show that the learners' self-efficacy does not always influence and differentiate them; rather, it serves as the motor that can motivate the whole process of English language learning.

To explain the relational structure among various beliefs in learning variables, a large number of BALLI questionnaire items were extracted using principal components analysis (PCA). Extracting items reduces the number of variables by eliminating small irrelevant variables, reveals underlying patterns, and identifies the relationships between belief variables. PCA provides a valuable insight that goes beyond descriptive statistics and identifies the belief components with the largest share of variance and the belief features that correlate with the most important components (factor loading).

The forty BALLI questionnaire items were subjected to exploratory factor analysis: principal components extraction with factor loadings of absolute values ≥ 0.30 that are considered to be acceptable indicators for a factor (Cui, 2014). Factors with loadings ≤ 0.30 were seen as irrelevant or as failing to measure what they were supposed to measure; these were suppressed. Based on the principal component analyses and a scree plot test, the investigation used a fixed method to confirm six factors pertaining to the BALLI questionnaire. The six factors accounted for forty-eight point four percent of the total variance. A varimax rotation test was used to make the factors more interpretable. As shown in Table 10, items with loading factors below $\pm .30$ in the BALLI questionnaire were eliminated from the factor analysis. The items are: BALLI22DLL (-.282), BALLI2FLA (.247), BALLI7FLA (-.283), BALLI8FLA (.148), BALLI14FLA (.083), BALLI10NLL (.099), BALLI15NLL (.116), BALLI19NLL (.250), BALLI24NLL (.172), BALLI25NLL (.201), BALLI9LCS (.145), BALLI16LCS (.266), BALLI6LME (.262), and BALLI20LME (-.169).

After the PCA and the factor analysis, which divided beliefs into six different belief factors, a Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to compare self-efficacious learners' mean scores on their beliefs about learning.

Table 10 presents the rotated factor structures and the mean scores of the BALLI variables. Six beliefs about learning with factor loading above .30 were discovered.

Table 10. Beliefs Factor Loading, Mean Score and Standard Deviation

Category	Learners' Beliefs about Learning			
	Item	Loading	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Beliefs in Learning and Communication (BLC)	I feel timid speaking English with native speaker	-.825	2.46	.877
	I feel timid speaking English with other people	-.763	2.57	.847
	I enjoy practicing English with the native speakers of English	.692	3.87	.892
	I like to talk with native speaker	.636	3.98	.686
	The difficulty of English	.377	3.12	.562
	It is best to learn English in an English-speaking country	.352	3.31	1.24
	I want to have native speakers friends	.344	4.59	.561
Difficulty in Language Learning (DLL)	If in the beginning students are permitted to make errors in English, it will be difficult for them to be revised later on	.892	2.62	1.22
	If in the beginning students are permitted to make errors in English, it will be difficult for them to speak correctly later on	.885	2.66	1.15
	It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language	.596	2.95	.879
Motivation and Expectation (ME)	I want to learn Writing very well	.898	4.44	.679
	I want to learn Speaking very well	.745	4.58	.603
Learning Style Preference (LP)	I think my Speaking skill is better than my writing	.843	3.05	1.00
	It is easier to learn Speaking than Writing	.843	3.44	.965
	It is important to learn English from song and movie	.440	4.29	.684
	Learning English need a lot of memorizing	.377	3.55	.730
Foreign Language Aptitude (FLA)	I shouldn't say anything in English until I can say it correctly	-.767	2.33	.938
	Women are better than men at learning foreign languages	.690	2.43	1.23
	People who are good at mathematics or science are not good at learning foreign languages	.619	2.31	1.07
	It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one	.416	3.35	.732
Formal Learning (FL)	People who speak English fluently are very intelligent	.761	3.91	1.11
	Learning a foreign language is different than learning other academic subjects	.620	3.55	.777

The most important part of learning English is learning how to translate from my language or from my native language to English	.407	3.27	.963
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Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

As shown in Table 10, there were six beliefs factor groups, which then yielded six language learning beliefs categories, namely beliefs about learning and communication (BLC), difficulty in language learning (DLL), motivation and expectation (ME), learning style preference (LSP), foreign language aptitude (FLA), and formal learning (FL), based on the factors' loadings, which were above .30. This indicates that these categories are perceived more among the Balinese EFL learners. The learners believe that their learning motivation and expectations constitute the most important factor influencing their English learning, so this factor has the highest mean score and the highest loading. The second most important factor that affects Balinese EFL learners is learning style preference. The third beliefs factor that influence learners' English language acquisition is formal learning. Beliefs about learning and communication is the fourth factor influencing English learning, and the two least influential factors, in the view of the Balinese EFL learners, are beliefs about language learning difficulty and foreign language aptitude.

Factor 1, beliefs about learning and communication in English (BLC), consist of items 18, 17, 13, 23, 12 and 4). The items that load highest on this factor primarily address belief about learning and communication in English. The learners agree on and moderately believe in some of these items, such as wanting to have native speakers as friends because they enjoy practicing English with native speakers and that it is best to learn English in an English-speaking country. The majority of the learners share the belief that learning English is moderately difficult. Items 18 and 17 within Factor 1 are negatively correlated to the statement about feeling timid when speaking English with others, especially native speakers. This means that the stronger the learners' beliefs, the less uncertain they are when speaking English. These results also suggest that the stronger the learners' beliefs, the less timid they are about speaking English with others, including native speakers. The factor load reliability is 0.781.

Factor 2 loads 0.841 reliability for difficulty in English language learning. There are three items in this factor in which learners have moderate beliefs. Almost fifty percent of the

self-efficacious learners disagree and strongly disagree with Item 30 “*If in the beginning students are permitted to make errors in English, it will be difficult for them to be revised later on.*” There is disagreement among the self-efficacious learners about Item 31 “*If in the beginning students are permitted to make errors in English, it will be difficult for them to speak correctly later on.*” More than forty percent disagree with this statement.

Two items with high loadings on Factor 3 are related to learners’ motivation and expectations. There is a strong relationship between the items in this factor and the learners, regardless of their self-efficacy. The majority of the self-efficacious learners either agree or strongly agree with this statement, which means that they believe strongly in the content of the items. More than fifty percent of the learners, regardless of their self-efficacy, want to learn to write and speak very well. The learners are aware that both speaking and writing skills will help them get a good job. The reliability for this factor is 0.819.

Factor 4, with 0.736 reliability, is closely linked to the learners’ learning style preference regarding the importance of learning English through songs and movies, and memorizing grammar patterns and vocabulary. Most learners agree on the importance of learning English from songs and movies, as evidenced by the one hundred percent frequency. This is related to the learners’ usage and real-life orientation.

In Factor 5, Item 11 is negatively correlated with other items, which implies that the learners do not believe strongly in the statement “*I shouldn’t say anything in English until I can say it correctly.*” This item is not realistic for Balinese EFL learners’ learning, and it has a low mean score, which means that few learners who participated in this study agree with the statement. The Balinese EFL learners disagree with this item, and it is clear that they recognize the need to build their self-confidence and keep practicing and communicating often for the sake of improving their English language proficiency, even if they cannot say something correctly as yet. The other items in this factor are related to the beliefs that some learners have a special ability to learn math and science but are not good at learning foreign languages, gender superiority in language learning, and the relative ease of learning a particular language. This factor loads 0.722 reliability.

Factor 6, with 0.718 reliability, consists of beliefs related to formal learning, where the learners perceive differences between learning a foreign language and other academic

subjects; translation as one of the important methods of learning English; and the characterization of learners who hold a specific skill as intellectual learners. The learners believe that learning a foreign language is indeed different from learning other subjects because when we learn a language, in addition to learning the theory, we must also apply that theory to real communication.

The analysis so far indicates that overall, self-efficacy does not make a difference to the Balinese EFL learners' beliefs. Learners with high and low self-efficacy do not differ significantly in their beliefs. After PCA and factor rotation, a Kruskal-Wallis *H*-test was conducted to derive the mean difference in learners' beliefs by type of self-efficacious learner. For this purpose, the results of the speaking self-efficacy group and the writing self-efficacy group are discussed separately in the following analysis.

Table 11. Speaking and Writing Self-Efficacy Mean Score Difference in Beliefs in Learning

BALLI		BLC	DLL	ME	LSP	FLA	FL
Self-efficacy	Speaking	4.151	10.199	5.648	11.735	7.039	3.910
	Df	4	4	4	4	4	4
Kruskal-Wallis H	Asymp. Sig	.386	.037*	.227	.019*	.134	.418
	Writing	1.638	12.027	3.191	10.170	4.157	8.214
	Df	4	4	4	4	4	4
	Asymp. Sig	.802	.017*	.526	.038*	.385	.084

Note:

* $p < .05$

BLC= Beliefs about Learning and Communication

DLL= Difficulty in Language Learning

ME= Motivation and Expectations

$N = 86$

LSP= Learning Style Preference

FLA= Foreign Language Aptitude

FL = Formal Learning

As Table 11 shows, in the results for the speaking self-efficacious group, a Kruskal-Wallis *H*-test revealed that self-efficacy is not statistically significant in BLC ($H = 4.151, p = .386$), ME ($H = 5.648, p = .227$), FLA ($H = 7.039, p = .134$), and FL ($H = 3.910, p = .418$). There are two learning belief factors that differ significantly based on learner self-efficacy. They are DLL ($H = 10.199, p = .037$) and LSP ($H = 11.735, p = .019$).

The influence of writing self-efficacy on the mean difference in learning beliefs is discussed based on Table 11. A Kruskal-Wallis *H*-test revealed that BLC ($H = 1.638, p = .802$), ME ($H = 3.191, p = .526$), FLA ($H = 4.157, p = .385$), and FL ($H = 8.214, p = .084$)

are not statistically significant among the writing self-efficacious learners. However, the *H*-test showed statistically significant mean differences in DLL ($H = 12.027, p = .017$), and LSP ($H = 10.170, p = .038$).

Like the learners with speaking self-efficacy, the learners with writing self-efficacy also exhibit a significant difference in two learning belief factors: DLL and LSP. Although there are two belief factors that have a statistically significant mean difference among the self-efficacious learners, Table 11 does not indicate in which group of learners the significant difference in mean scores exists. Further observation is needed to find out which group has a significant mean difference regarding the questionnaire items. Table 12 provides the ranking differences in mean within the self-efficacious group.

Table 12. Mean rank difference in belief in learning

		Mean Rank Difference in Belief in Learning							
		Level	N	BLC	DLL*	ME	LSP*	FLA	FL
Speaking Self-efficacy	A1	9	35.89	29.78	42.17	36.67	33.06	34.72	
	A2	21	42.50	47.14	37.02	36.83	49.55	37.62	
	B1	22	50.64	38.02	47.55	36.16	35.73	48.82	
	B2	14	47.07	37.54	37.46	48.50	52.82	43.82	
	C1	20	37.63	56.05	50.68	58.15	43.88	47.55	
Writing Self-efficacy	A1	4	29.50	4.38	52.38	42.38	21.00	29.50	
	A2	12	45.04	39.38	43.17	59.42	45.42	27.29	
	B1	22	43.30	46.73	40.16	49.86	43.75	49.23	
	B2	19	46.55	50.18	38.79	38.16	41.26	45.92	
	C1	29	42.95	43.78	48.03	35.74	47.09	46.21	

Table 12 shows that out of six belief in learning factors, there were only two factors that have significantly different mean scores among the speaking self-efficacious learners, namely DLL and LSP.

The findings suggest that learners' level differentiates their beliefs in learning. For DLL, the A1 learners with speaking and writing self-efficacy have the lowest belief. The strongest belief for this factor is held by the C1 learners with speaking self-efficacy and the B2 learners with writing self-efficacy. This can be explained as follows: the high-level learners' are conscious of their mistakes and try to avoid them when they talk; hence, they find language learning difficult.

There is also a mean difference in LSP. The C1 learners in speaking and writing have different beliefs. The C1 learners with speaking self-efficacy hold the strongest belief in this factor, while the C1 learners with writing self-efficacy hold the lowest belief. Also in this learning factor, the B1 speaking self-efficacious learners hold the lowest belief and the A2 writing self-efficacious learners hold the strongest belief. These results contradict Genç et al. (2016), who concluded that students' beliefs about learning are affected by self-efficacy. According to the findings of this empirical study, the highest level of self-efficacy does not correspond with the most strongly held learning belief and the weakest level of self-efficacy does not indicate a very weakly held learning belief.

Except for DLL and LSP, the self-efficacious learners have the same beliefs characteristics overall, evidenced by low significance in the between-group mean difference.

4.5 Learners' Various Types of Learning Strategies

The previous sub-section explored the learners' self-efficacy in terms of their beliefs and clarified that regardless of their type and level of self-efficacy, the learners have the same beliefs. Regarding individual differences, an investigation of learning strategies is needed to find out whether self-efficacious learners use different learning strategies and whether there is a relationship between self-efficacy and language learning strategies.

This sub-section presents the findings on the Balinese EFL learners' learning strategies. The SILL questionnaire was administered to the Balinese EFL learners who participated in this research. Based on the results of the analysis, this sub-section argues that self-efficacy does not influence learners' choice of learning strategies and that unless the learners choose appropriate strategies, it is unlikely that their performance will improve.

The report on the findings includes (1) descriptive analyses (frequencies, means, and standard deviation) of the SILL questionnaire, (2) a Kruskal-Wallis *H*-test analysis of variance of the SILL questionnaire based on the learners' type and level of self-efficacy, and (3) qualitative analysis of the interviews with the learners about how they choose and use their learning strategies and whether their self-efficacy determines their learning strategies.

As explained in Chapter 2, Oxford gathered a large number of language learning strategies and, on the basis of factor analyses, divided them into six groups:

- (1) Memory strategies (M) : Items 1 to 9
- (2) Cognitive strategies (Cog) : Items 10 to 25
- (3) Compensation strategies (Comp) : Items 26 to 31
- (4) Metacognitive strategies (Meta) : Items 32 to 40
- (5) Affective strategies (Aff) : Items 41 to 46
- (6) Social strategies (Soc) : Items 47 to 55

A mean score above 3.5 on all SILL items is considered high use of a given strategy. A score in the range of 2.5 to 3.4 indicates medium use, and one below 2.4 points to low use of a particular strategy (Oxford, 1990). Cronbach's alpha reliability for the SILL questionnaire is high ($\alpha = .893$). This sub-section covers the minimum and maximum mean result for each category of strategies and indicates the highest and lowest frequency of strategy use among the learners.

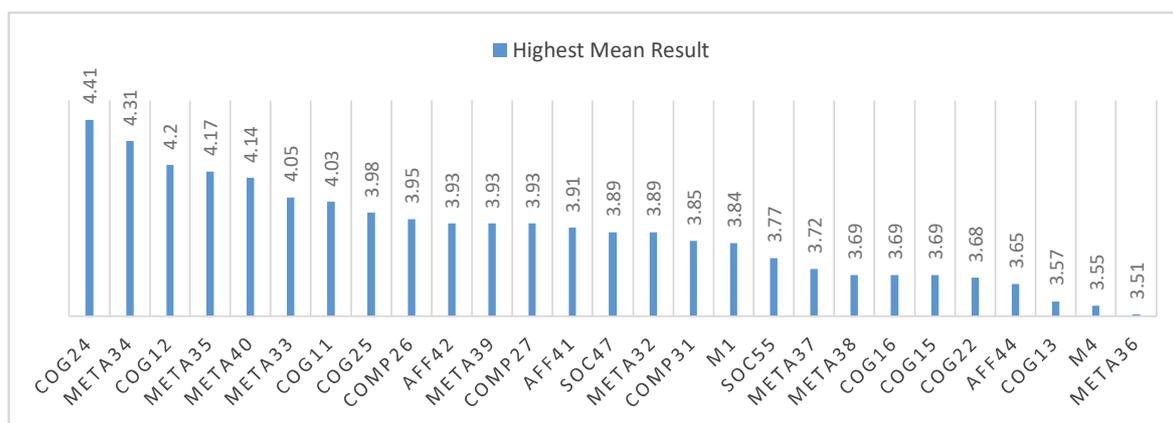


Figure 4. Highest mean result of overall SILL Questionnaire

From fifty-five SILL items, twenty-seven strategies are classified as frequently used by the learners. This indicates that the Balinese EFL learners frequently use nearly fifty percent of the total number of learning strategies.

From twenty-seven statements, the strategies that the learners use the most frequently are metacognitive strategies (nine items), which are related to how students manage the learning process, followed by cognitive strategies (eight items), which are related to how

students acquire knowledge about language, and affective strategies (three items), which are related to students' feelings about learning. Compensation strategies (three items) enable students to make up for limited knowledge, and social strategies (two items) involve learning through interacting with others. Oxford (2003) explained the frequent use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Cognitive strategies enable the learner to manipulate the language material directly, for example 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. Metacognitive strategies regulate language learning, including higher-order executive skills and functions such as planning, monitoring, and self-evaluation.

The highest mean score ($M = 4.41$) is for Cog 24 (“*I like to learn English by listening to English songs*”). Seventy-two percent of the learners use this strategy “often” or “always.” Two items in the memory category have the lowest mean scores. They are the Item 5 (“*I use flashcards to remember new English words*”), with a mean of 2.17, and Item 6 (“*I use rhymes to remember new English words*”), with a mean of 2.48. These low mean scores indicate that the learners use these two strategies less frequently. Flashcards and rhyming are outdated strategies that are not suitable for adult learners; however, they are preferable for young learners to ease them into memorizing vocabulary (Shakouri et al., 2014).

Table 13. The Overall Mean Score of SILL Questionnaire

	Memory	Cognitive	Compensation	Metacognitive	Affective	Social
M	3.1357	3.5581	3.4864	3.9444	3.3062	3.2661
SD	.50341	.40920	.54185	.51067	.58347	.54494

n= 86

Based on the descriptive statistics for the learning strategies item, the Balinese EFL learners use the learning strategies in the range of medium to high frequency. From the six categories of learning strategies, the most frequently used strategies among the Balinese EFL learners are metacognitive and cognitive strategies, as reflected in their high mean scores, while the other learning strategies have medium mean scores. These results show that the Balinese EFL learners' frequently used learning strategies involve planning, organizing,

monitoring, and evaluating and are related to practicing, repeating reasoning, analyzing, finding patterns, and summarizing ideas and target language information.

Unlike Balinese EFL learners who frequently use metacognitive and cognitive strategies, other studies involving EFL and ESL learners from different linguistic settings found that compensation strategies are among the most popular (Lee, 2014; Yang, 1999). The Balinese EFL learners in this study use compensation strategies significantly more frequently than affective and memory strategies but significantly less frequently than metacognitive and social strategies. Compensation strategies enable learners to guess intelligently using linguistic cues and other cues, overcome limitations in speaking and writing, switch to their mother tongue, get help, use miming or gestures, avoid communication partially or totally, adjust or approximate the message, and use synonyms (Oxford, 1990). Compensation strategies are encouraged in the classroom on the premise that “making informed guesses is strongly encouraged because of the test-oriented nature of [the] learning environment” (Hong, 2006, p. 151). If students face difficulty or hesitate to answer questions on a test, it is better for them to make an informed guess. Taking the risk of making a guess is part of the compensation strategy in a test situation; it is important that students avoid leaving test questions unanswered.

The Balinese EFL learners in this study use this strategy at a medium frequency to compensate for the gap in their target language knowledge and act strategically to make progress in language learning. Frequent use of compensation strategies is linked to learners who struggle with lower competence. If these learners do not use compensation strategies, such as guessing, using synonyms and clues, and getting extra help, they might have a difficult time performing in their classes.

The affective strategy the Balinese students use involves dealing with positive and negative feelings while studying English. The low usage frequency of affective strategies means that the learners do not use many stress-coping strategies due to their low levels of anxiety and stress. The infrequent use of affective strategies among the Balinese EFL learners in this study may be due to a few unusual strategy items in the SILL questionnaire, such as Items 41, 43, and 44, which are, respectively, “*I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English,*” “*I write down my feelings in a language learning diary,*” and “*I talk to someone*

else about how I feel when I am learning English;” these items are the least favored by the participants in this study.

Based on Oxford’s (1990) definition, social strategies help students learn through interacting with others. Strategies in this category mainly entail asking questions for correction or clarification, cooperating with other proficient language users, and developing a cultural understanding. Logically, one might expect infrequent use of social strategies among EFL learners, since learners do not have abundant opportunities to communicate in the target language outside of the classroom setting. However, the Balinese EFL learners in this study have a medium mean score for this strategy, indicating average usage frequency.

The least frequently used strategy among the Balinese EFL learners in this study is the memory strategy. Based on Oxford’s (1990) definition, memory strategies enable learners to create mental linkages, group, associate, elaborate, and contextualize new words. Memory strategies also allow learners to make connections between images and sounds. Some strategies in this category enable learners to use keywords and represent sounds in memory, while some other memory strategies enable students to perform structured reviews. Oxford believes that language learners might not be aware of how often they actually employ memory strategies. It is likely that the participants in the present study underestimated how often they use memory strategies.

From the fifty-five items on the SILL questionnaire, the self-efficacious learners have a similar mean score for thirty-four items, ranging from a high mean score (twenty-two items), to a medium mean score (eleven items) and a low mean score (one item). Over sixty-two percent of the items have an equal score amongst the self-efficacious learners, while the remaining thirty-eight percent of the items have varied mean scores, signifying that self-efficacy only influences a small percentage of the learners regarding their choice of learning strategies. Since the self-efficacious learners’ strategy item selection is largely similar, it can be said that self-efficacy influences learning strategies but does not fully differentiate the learners’ learning strategy choices. There is only a slight difference in the pattern of learning strategies and an insignificant difference in mean scores.

Based on the SILL questionnaire results, it is found that the self-efficacious learners try to become better English language learners and attempt to find as many opportunities as

they can to use English, such as reading, listening to music and taking note of the songs' lyrics, trying to speak like native English speakers, practicing English sounds, paying attention when someone is speaking English, watching movies and TV shows in English, and trying not to translate word for word. The learners also have clear goals, and they think about how to improve their English skills. When the learners cannot think of a word or cannot understand unfamiliar words, they use gestures and make guesses or they ask their interlocutor to speak more slowly. The learners also think about the relationship between what they already know and the new things they learn. When they are afraid of using English and making mistakes, they try to relax and encourage themselves to speak. When they make a mistake, they take note of it and use it to improve their performance. However, based on the interview data, not all learners use this latter strategy because some, especially those who are focusing on communication and fluency, do not pay attention to the mistakes they make.

The self-efficacious learners often implement the learning strategies reflected in the statements “*I try to speak like a native English speaker*” (Cog 11) and “*I practice English sounds*” (Cog 12). In the interviews, the learners stated that they often try to speak like native English speakers by practicing their pronunciation and imitating English sounds, so that they sound more fluent and intelligent. They revealed that people mostly focus on fluency rather than accuracy. Hence, the learners try to interact with native English speakers as much as possible in order to acquire material for imitation. Another strategy that learners use to mimic native English speakers' pronunciation is watching English-language TV shows and movies (Cog 15). Frequent use of this learning strategy is reflected in the high mean score for the related questionnaire items.

Through the “*reading for pleasure*” (Cog 16) strategy, learners can obtain the input that is necessary for producing language outputs. An unconscious process occurs when a learner reads material in English; they indirectly add new vocabulary items to their personal lexicon or learn the sentence structure and pattern present in the reading material, which will be beneficial later in their speaking and writing.

The Balinese EFL learners try not to translate word for word (Cog 22), and they prefer to guess (Comp 26) or use gestures (Comp 27) when they encounter unfamiliar English words. These strategies are included in the compensation strategy category, which aims to

maintain communication between speakers and their interlocutors. Learning a foreign language in an environment where the target language is not spoken is a great challenge for the learners. Since the main goal of learning strategies is to assist learners, so that they can engage in meaningful and authentic communication and “stimulate the growth of [their] communication competence” (Oxford, 1990:8), compensation strategies are useful for maintaining communication in times of shortage.³² The Balinese EFL learners’ frequent use of compensation strategies indicates that they recognize the importance of compensation strategies to maintain communication when they encounter a difficult situation.

The Balinese EFL learners frequently use the strategy reflected in Cog 24, “*I like to listen to English songs to learn the English language,*” as evidenced by the high mean score for this statement. Their preference is based on choosing a learning strategy that allows them to enjoy the learning process. Listening is a creative skill that integrates several other skills, for example, comprehension, attention, and appreciation, which could unconsciously improve language skills, such as mastery of pronunciation, vocabulary, writing, speaking, and reading (Rivers, 1978). Listening to English songs is a beneficial strategy for learning English that not only covers listening skills but other skills too.

Related to the learners’ beliefs about learning motivation and learning expectations, the SILL questionnaire results show that even though Balinese EFL learners focus on fluency in speaking, they also have a clear goal to improve their English skills (Meta 35). Therefore, they try to find as many opportunities as possible to use their English (Meta 32) in order to become better learners (Meta 35). There are contradictory questionnaire and interview results for some learning strategy items. The learning strategy items “*Pay attention to the form of speech and look for grammatical accuracy*” and “*Noticing mistakes and using feedback to correct the mistake in order to become a better learner*” have high mean scores based on the questionnaire results. However, based on the interview data, the speaking self-efficacious learners indicated that their focus is on fluency and communicating, so they do not pay much attention to grammatical accuracy and their mistakes. In contrast, the writing self-efficacious

³² Lack of vocabulary, grammatical structure, and anxiety in speaking.

learners' focus is on accuracy rather than fluency. Consequently, when they are speaking, they aim for accuracy rather than fluency.

The Balinese EFL learners often think about how to improve their English proficiency (Meta 40), thus they pay attention when someone is speaking English (Meta 34). By paying attention to people who speak English, many things can be learned unconsciously, such as listening, getting used to pronunciation, how to organize ideas, and diction choices.

There is a learning strategy that contradicts the learners' expressed learning belief. Based on the SILL questionnaire results, the learners pay attention to the form of their speech and look for grammatical accuracy, and they correct what they are saying by noticing their own mistakes and using feedback to become better learners (Meta 33). However, the learners only hold an average belief in BALLI questionnaire item NLL 25; that is, they pay more attention to context and meaning than they do to the grammatical pattern. They believe that they do not focus much on grammatical patterns, but in the learning strategy, they look for grammatical accuracy.

The SILL questionnaire results indicate that the self-efficacious learners try to relax when they experience anxiety about using English (Aff 41), and they encourage themselves to speak English even though they are afraid of making a mistake (Aff 42). Speaking English, especially for EFL learners, may come with considerable pressure and anxiety due to the fear of making mistakes. However, the Balinese EFL learners in this study use strategies to cope with this problem. Although they notice that they get nervous when studying or speaking English, and they are afraid of making mistakes, they try to relax and encourage themselves to use English for the sake of their fluency. Moreover, when they do not understand someone's utterance, they ask the person to slow down or repeat what they said (Soc 47). The aforementioned strategies have high mean scores for use among the self-efficacious learners.

The self-efficacious learners also have a medium mean score for the items M 3, M 8, Cog 19, Cog 21, Aff 46, Soc 49, and Soc 53. Those items indicate moderately used learning strategies, such as remembering English words, connecting sounds with images or pictures of words, searching for L1 words that are similar to new English words, and deriving the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts. In addition, the learners also use

strategies such as reviewing English lessons regularly, talking to someone when they have difficulty learning English, asking their lecturer to correct them when they speak, and asking questions in class. Those strategies are related to memorizing English vocabulary items.

The strategy with the lowest mean score (1.83) is “*I use flashcards to remember new English words*” (M 6). The low score indicates that the strategy is used infrequently. In the interviews, the learners revealed that the strategy is not suitable for use in their learning process because they believe that acting out new English words, like using flashcards, is more suitable for young and beginner learners. Using flashcards is not a popular choice among the Balinese EFL learners in this study, since they are university students. This research finding is in line with Shakouri et al. (2012). Their analysis results indicated quite clearly that using flashcards plays no significant role in promoting vocabulary knowledge among college freshmen and that the use of flashcards seems not to be a good strategy to learn words, especially abstract words, because it does not lead to word retention and does not help to consolidate forms and meanings in memory.

This sub-section noted that the Balinese EFL learners who participated in this study frequently use more than fifty percent of the total number of tested learning strategies. The learners use various learning strategies, regardless of their type or level of self-efficacy. A detailed exploration of the learning strategies self-efficacious learners use is presented in Section 4.6.

4.6 The Influence of Self-Efficacy on Learning Strategies

This sub-section investigates whether self-efficacy influences and differentiates learners' choice of learning strategies.

It is argued that self-efficacy does not influence and differentiate learning strategies and that there is no significant difference in the strategies the learners use. Overall, there is no significant difference between the low and high self-efficacy learners in terms of using learning strategies.

To conduct an analysis of variance in learning strategies, it was necessary to restructure the SILL questionnaire in order to describe the underlying characteristics of language learning strategies. PCA was performed to describe the underlying characteristics

of language learning strategies in this research. The SILL questionnaire was then restructured using principal component analyses and a scree plot test. An investigation using a fixed method was then conducted to confirm six factors pertaining to the SILL questionnaire and make its interpretation easier and more reliable. With the fifty-five items in the SILL questionnaire, the fixed method investigation was done using principal component analyses. The scree plot, with an eigenvalue of 2.0, yielded six components that fill the requirement; those with an eigenvalue below 2.0 were deleted. This research confirms six factors in the SILL questionnaire, accounting for forty-five point six percent of the total variance. A varimax rotation test was used to make the factors more interpretable. As shown in Table 14, items with a loading factor below $\pm .30$ in the SILL questionnaire were eliminated from the factor analysis because they do not contribute to a simple factor structure and fail to meet the minimum criteria of having a primary factor loading of .30 or above. The deleted items are: SILL5 (.274), SILL7 (.131), SILL8 (.145), SILL15 (.159), SILL16 (.268), SILL17 (.185), SILL23 (.130), SILL25 (.195), SILL27 (.215), SILL28 (.249), SILL29 (.104), SILL32 (.238), and SILL36 (.197). Table 14 presents the rotated factor structures of the SILL questionnaire variables and the mean scores of the learning strategies variable.

Table 14. Rotated factor, factor loading and mean score of the learning strategies variables

Category	SILL			
	Item	Loading	M	SD
Social and Organizational Strategies (SOS)	I ask the native speakers to correct me when I talk	.853	2.61	1.15
	I ask for help from the native English speakers	.738	2.87	1.32
	I ask my lecturers to correct me when I talk	.751	2.88	.975
	I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand	.618	2.95	1.05
	I write my feeling in a diary in English language	.599	2.62	1.31
	I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English	.591	2.73	1.22
	I ask my friends to correct me when I talk	.358	3.40	1.01
	I try to guess what the other person will say next in English	.311	3.09	.965
General Learning Management Strategies (GLMS)	I pay attention when someone is speaking English	.809	4.31	.723
	I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better	.685	4.04	.630
	I try to find out how to be a better learner of English	.608	4.18	.774
	If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing	.559	3.86	.769
	I like learning English through discussion with others	.463	3.79	.921

	If I do not understand something in English, I ask the person to slow down or say it again	.350	3.89	.920
	I like to learn English by listening to English songs	.325	4.40	.831
	I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully	.715	3.46	.903
	I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.	.609	3.40	.998
Mental Process and Managing Emotion Strategies (MPMES)	I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English	.552	3.89	.826
	I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English	.459	3.84	.789
	I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake	.365	3.93	.878
	To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses	.360	3.95	.750
	I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or speaking English	.345	3.93	.878
	I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word	.808	3.25	1.09
Memory and Practical Strategies (MPS)	I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them	.554	3.44	.791
	I practice English with other students	.515	3.50	.979
	I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used	.429	3.55	.953
	I use the English words I know in different ways	.482	3.58	.846
Metacognitive and Cognitive Strategies (MCS)	I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English	.768	3.70	.943
	I have clear goals for improving my English skills	.659	3.94	.937
	I say or write new English words several times	.440	3.48	.942
	I'm thinking of my improvement in English	.409	4.13	.842
	I practice the sounds of English	.353	4.22	.601
	I try to talk like native English speakers	.795	4.04	.765
Communication and Practical Learning strategies (CPLS)	I ask questions in English	.658	3.50	.850
	I start the conversation in English	.345	3.29	.838
	I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English	.326	3.02	1.31
	I look for people I can talk to in English	.320	3.74	.922

Note : n : 86.

Table 14 presents the rotated factors category, factor loading, mean score, and standard deviation.

The first factor, social and organizational strategies, indicates that the Balinese EFL learners have a tendency to seek or create opportunities to actively interact with native and non-native English speakers in order to learn English through practice. Factor 1 is highly correlated to items concerning social strategies, such as learners asking other people, including lecturers, native speakers, and friends, to correct their utterances and talking to

other people about learning English. Organizational strategies, such as finding the meaning of English words, writing in an English diary, and trying to anticipate what people will say next in order to maintain the conversation, are also loaded on Factor 1. Besides social and organizational strategies, Factor 1 also loads strategies related to the learners' emotions while learning, such as talking to others and writing their feelings down in a language learning diary. This factor loads the lowest mean score ($M = 2.89$) compared to other factors, which references those strategies' average usage frequency. The reliability of this factor is 0.83.

The second factor, general learning management strategies, has a reliability of 0.75 and loads factors related to how to become a better English language learner. General learning management strategies have the highest loading ($M = 4.07$) amongst all the factors in the learning strategies, indicating that this is the strategy that the Balinese EFL learners use the most frequently. The strategies are as follows: paying attention when other people speak English, noting mistakes and utilizing that knowledge to avoid making the same mistake again in order to become a better learner, discussing learning English with others, and learners asking interlocutors to repeat utterances when they have difficulty understanding. When the learners cannot think of a word, they use the strategy of elaborating or finding another word or phrase with the same meaning. Learning using a fun method is an integral part of enjoying language learning and an important means of increasing learners' intrinsic motivation. The Balinese EFL learners make their learning fun by listening to music. This way they can derive a double benefit by learning English and relaxing at the same time.

Factor 3, mental process and managing emotions, is mostly correlated with affective strategies and the mental process in learning. The reliability is 0.69, and the mean score is 3.73. These strategies are related to how learners feel during the language learning process. As EFL learners, anxiety about speaking and learning English is unavoidable. To cope with this problem, the learners use affective strategies, which are related to how to manage their emotions during learning. The Balinese EFL learners in this study use these strategies quite frequently, so Factor 3's loading is high. When the learners are studying or speaking English, they notice that they feel nervous. In response, they try to relax and encourage themselves because they have strong learning beliefs regarding learning motivation and learning expectations. Other strategies that are included in this factor are guessing unfamiliar words,

remembering words from reading, and skimming before scanning when approaching a reading passage.

The fourth factor, memory and practical strategies, is correlated with how the learners use methods of recall to support their language learning. Reliability for this factor is 0.69, and the mean score is 3.46. The memory strategies the learners use are connecting sounds to words or images/pictures of words and using new English words in a sentence and creating a mental picture of where the word might be used. The learners also use English words in different ways and practice with other students.

Factor 5, metacognitive and cognitive strategies, has the second highest loading compared to the other factors, signifying frequent usage of this strategy. When the learners have clear goals for improving their English, they practice English sounds. These strategies are related to the four skills, such as practicing new words, reading frequently, and thinking, speaking, writing, and practicing English sounds. The reliability is 0.66, and the mean score is 3.9.

Factor 6 is related to communication and practical learning strategies, such as starting a conversation in English, asking a question in English, looking for people to talk to in English, and self-rewarding for their good language learning performance. The reliability is 0.62, and the mean score is 3.50.

General learning management strategies have the highest mean score, meaning that the learners use them frequently. Social and organizational strategies are the least used.

Based on the rotated factor of the learning strategies, six more reliable factors were identified. A further investigation of the learners' choice of learning strategies can be conducted. Table 15 provides evidence that the speaking and writing self-efficacious learners do not differ in terms of the learning strategies they use and that self-efficacy does not influence the learners' choice of learning strategies. Table 15 and 16 show whether self-efficacy influences language learning strategies.

Table 15. The mean difference of learning strategies by the self-efficacious learners

SILL		SOS	GLMS	MPMES	MPS	MCS	CPLS	
Self-efficacy	Speaking	3.315	7.282	15.826	1.458	8.266	6.493	
	Df	4	4	4	4	4	4	
	Asymp. Sig	.507	.122	.003*	.834	.082	.165	
	Kruskal-Wallis H	Writing	8.368	1.300	15.430	3.999	3.902	2.487
		Df	4	4	4	4	4	4
		Asymp. Sig	.079	.861	.004*	.406	.419	.647

Note

$N = 86$

SOS = Social and Organizational Strategies

GLMS = General Learning Management Strategies

MPMES = Mental Process and Managing Emotion Strategies

* $p < .05$

MPS = Memory and Practical Strategies

MCS = Metacognitive and Cognitive Strategies

CPLS = Communication and Practical Learning Strategies

A Kruskal-Wallis H -test was run to determine whether there was any significant difference in the learners' use of learning strategies as a function of their self-efficacy in speaking. As shown in Table 15, the Kruskal-Wallis H -test revealed that there is no statistically different mean score for the learners with speaking self-efficacy regarding SOS ($H = 3.315, p = .507$), GLMS ($H = 7.282, p = .122$), MPS ($H = 1.458, p = .834$), MCS ($H = 8.266, p = .082$), and CPLS ($H = 6.493, p = .165$). The H -test indicated statistical significance only for MPMES ($H = 15.826, p = .003^*$).

Table 15 also shows how writing self-efficacy differentiates and influences six learning strategies. A non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis H -test revealed that there is no statistically different mean score for the learners with writing self-efficacy regarding SOS ($H = 8.368, p = .079$), GLMS ($H = 1.300, p = .861$), MPS ($H = 3.999, p = .406$), MCS ($H = 3.902, p = .419$), and CPLS ($H = 2.487, p = .647$).

Similar to the learners with speaking self-efficacy, the learners with writing self-efficacy also do not show a statistically significant difference in terms of the learning strategies they use. Overall, the learners with low and high levels of self-efficacy use similar learning strategies. The only factor that differentiates the learners is shown in Factor 3, that is MPMES ($H = 15.430, p = .004^*$). For these strategies, there is a significant difference in the mean between the learners with speaking self-efficacy and those with writing self-efficacy regarding usage frequency.

A further investigation was done to find out at which level of self-efficacious learners the significant difference in these strategies exist.

Table 16 provides evidence about the ranking difference in the mean score for the self-efficacy groups regarding the learning strategy variables.

Table 16. Learning Strategies Means Rank Different

		Learning Strategies Means Rank Different							
		Level	N	SOS	GLMS	MPMES*	MPS	MCS	CPLS
Speaking Self-efficacy	A1		9	56.78	37.67	15.44	41.72	27.89	49.56
	A2		21	43.19	32.43	39.43	40.14	37.38	37.26
	B1		22	41.82	46.82	51.20	45.89	50.73	36.77
	B2		14	44.43	48.36	45.68	40.04	41.71	46.18
	C1		20	39.05	50.70	50.40	47.63	50.25	52.85
Writing Self-efficacy	A1		4	70.75	38.25	13.75	32.75	23.75	53.88
	A2		12	53.96	47.79	29.25	41.08	41.25	49.96
	B1		22	40.39	40.25	39.11	41.52	41.27	38.43
	B2		19	38.03	41.82	51.61	38.84	49.05	42.34
	C1		29	41.36	46.02	51.52	50.53	45.21	44.00

The Balinese EFL learners are self-efficacious in both their speaking and writing skills. Table 16 presents the mean score ranking difference amongst learners with speaking and writing self-efficacy in terms of their use of learning strategies. The data show that, overall, there is no statistical difference between the speaking and writing self-efficacious learners and their use of learning strategies. The low and high self-efficacy learners do not show a statistical difference in the learning strategies they use, except for mental process and managing emotion strategies. Among the self-efficacious learners, the A1 learners use these strategies less frequently compared to the other groups; however, the B1 learners with speaking self-efficacy and the B2 learners with writing self-efficacy use these strategies the most.

Based on the Kruskal-Wallis *H*-test, the results of which are shown in Tables 15 and 16, this finding partially contradicts previous research findings that self-efficacy influences learning strategies (Hong, 2006; Pintrich, 2000; Suwanarak, 2012; Yang, 1999), that good learners use significantly different strategies (Yilmaz, 2010), that learners who use more language learning strategies are possibly those who possess higher levels of self-efficacy (Wong, 2005; Yang & Wang, 2015), and that the more proficient and more motivated

students use learning strategies more frequently (Ghvamnia et al., 2011; Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001). The findings of this empirical study show that self-efficacy does not influence learning strategies because there is only one factor for which there is a significant mean difference among the self-efficacious learners, namely mental process and managing emotion strategies. In addition, this empirical study's results imply that the learners with the highest level of self-efficacy do not necessarily use this learning strategy more frequently. For instance, B-level learners use this strategy more often than C-level learners, but it is A1 learners, who are at the lowest level among the self-efficacious learners, that use this learning strategy the least.

The learners with high self-efficacy are likely to use mental process and managing emotion strategies more frequently than the low self-efficacy learners because many of the items in this category are related to how learners control their mental state and emotions when they are studying and speaking English. This finding indicates that overall, the self-efficacious learners use the same strategies with similar frequency, since there is a significant difference in mean for only one factor. This also contradicts the previous research, in which there is no significant difference in learning strategies among learners. The Balinese EFL learners in this study use similar learning strategies, regardless of their type and level of self-efficacy. In addition, even though they do not have the same proficiency, the learners are motivated to learn, and they apply similar learning strategies.

This sub-section reveals that the learners' self-efficacy does not differentiate and influence their use of learning strategies. The evidence is presented via statistical analysis using a Kruskal-Wallis *H*-test. The next sub-section provides analysis interview transcript as evidence that the learners do not depend on their self-efficacy when choosing learning strategies.

4.7 The Role of Self-Efficacy in Choosing Learning Strategies

According to the interview data, the learners do not choose their learning strategies based on self-efficacy. Instead, they choose any strategy that makes their learning easy and enjoyable. The Kruskal-Wallis test results mentioned in the previous sub-section, in combination with the interview data, show that most of the learners utilize many learning

strategies that do not always relate to their self-efficacy and cannot reflect their self-efficacy in performance.

The existing research on EFL learners found that self-efficacy is related to learning strategies and that it predicts learners' actual performance (Hong, 2006; Suwanarak, 2012; Yang, 1999). However, this study's findings regarding the Balinese EFL learners' show that self-efficacious learners behave differently in their relationship with learning strategies. Little is known about the relationship between learners' self-efficacy and their learning strategies. The existing studies have not clarified whether learners choose learning strategies based on their self-efficacy or whether there is the possibility of another reason to explain why there are different learning characteristics among self-efficacious learners.

In addition to quantitatively investigating the role of self-efficacy in learners' choice of learning strategies, this research emphasizes the qualitative aspect by interviewing the learners. The interview data reveal no connection between the learners' self-efficacy and the learning strategies they choose to use. However, the interview data show that there is a relationship between their self-efficacy, their choice of learning strategies, and their prior learning experience. Most of the learners have been receiving an English education since they were in elementary school. Some even began learning English earlier, in kindergarten. On average, the Balinese EFL learners study English formally and informally for about 6 hours per day. Although the learners have different self-efficacies, most have similar ideas about learning strategies as well as similar beliefs about language learning.

The data reported below are based on transcripts of interviews with the self-efficacious learners. The content proves that the learners choose and apply many kinds of learning strategies that do not always relate to and are not always based on their self-efficacy. Furthermore, their learning strategies are not directly related to their performance.

Putu, a learner with high self-efficacy in speaking and writing, said that his prior English language learning experiences when he was in elementary and junior high school were not interesting because the teachers only focused on memorizing the tenses and vocabulary. He could not enjoy the learning process and did not see any personal improvement. When he was a senior in high school, he tried to find other learning strategies in an attempt to become a better learner. In this endeavor, he uses all the strategies he knows

about, for example, speaking with native speakers to improve his speaking skills, listening to music so that he can get used to native pronunciation, and watching movies and reading books to improve his vocabulary. He likes to imitate the way native speakers talk to become more fluent and sound more native-like. He described himself as a highly motivated person and said that when he encounters difficulty, instead of giving up, he tries his best to persist. He reported that his self-efficacy does not determine his learning strategies. He learns from every aspect and uses all the learning strategies he knows about to improve his skills.

Ananta, a speaking self-efficacious learner, said that his learning strategy choices depend on the skills he wants to improve. When he wants to improve his listening skills, he listens to the news broadcast on CNN or to English songs. To improve his speaking skills, he finds friends with whom to practice speaking English. He reported that it is not necessary to have a native English speaker as an interlocutor, as long as his partner can give him feedback and correct his English. To improve his reading skills, he reads books other than his school textbook. Ananta believes that learning and practicing will improve his skills. For him, self-efficacy is not very helpful without practice.

Purnama, a writing self-efficacious learner, spends more than six hours per day engaged in classroom activities to learn English. At home, she learns English by reading her textbook, listening to music, watching movies in English, and speaking with friends or native speakers at her part time job. She also often discusses learning English with her friends, especially how to speak and write it better, how to understand the grammatical pattern, and how to memorize vocabulary. Her self-efficacy in writing comes from her prior learning experience. She was a shy girl when she was younger, so she pushed herself to study other skills as well, such as reading, speaking, and listening, and now she can perform well in those areas. However, her self-efficacy remains in writing.

Arik, a speaking and writing self-efficacious learner, says that he studies English at university for more than twenty hours per a week. At home, he studies for at least two and a half hours per day. He watches English movies without subtitles and listens to music then writes the lyrics down, so that he can improve his listening skills and expand his English vocabulary. He has a part-time job as a tour guide, so he learns to speak English from native speakers and foreigners. He reported that he used to memorize vocabulary by using

flashcards when he was younger, but he stopped using that technique since he was a senior in high school. He said that flashcards are more suitable for kids.

Pradnya, a speaking self-efficacious learner who scored low on her speaking and writing tests, said that she only learns English at university under the guidance of her lecturers and from her friends. She said that speaking is dynamic and interesting, especially if she can speak like a native speaker. She believes that being able to pronounce English words like a native English speaker will distract people from other aspects of her language proficiency. She uses many learning strategies, such as learning grammar from her textbook, practicing speaking English with her friends, watching movies in English, listening to English songs, and reading English-language books. She spends little time writing because she does not enjoy the activity.

Gusti, a writing self-efficacious learner whose actual performance is poor in both speaking and writing, reported that he learns English by watching English movies, listening to English music, reading English-language novels, searching for English words in the dictionary, and practicing speaking through discussions with his friends. He pays a lot of attention to grammar because for him, it is the most difficult subject. He is unsure which strategies are the most effective learning strategies for enhancing his skills, and he reported using all the learning strategies.

Azka, a speaking self-efficacious learner who attained high scores in his speaking and writing tests, said that since he was a child, he learned English by practicing with his family. The first formal English education he received was in elementary school, and it did not meet his expectations because the teacher always pushed him to learn grammar and memorize vocabulary. He hated English during primary school but liked learning it at home where he could communicate in English with his family. At secondary school, his teacher made learning English interesting through playing games. Azka reported that playing games helped him learn new English vocabulary; listen, read, and understand the game instructions in English; and unconsciously speak in English as the character in the game and also communicate with his teammates and opponents in English. In addition, his part time job at a hotel helps him improve his English, and he believes he has become more fluent since he started working there. He is also learning how to write correctly and with proper structure,

as well as how to organize his ideas in writing. However, he said that he is more interested in speaking, and he believes that his self-efficacy is reflected in his actual performance. In fact, he could attain good scores in both speaking and writing on the actual performance test.

In the interviews, the self-efficacious learners reported using all the learning strategies to improve their English language skills. The learning strategies that they mentioned the most are watching English movies, listening to English songs, reading books in English, and practicing speaking and writing. The interview data are in line with the questionnaire results in that there are no significant differences between the learning strategies used by the low and high self-efficacy groups.

This finding means that the self-efficacious groups use similar learning strategies. It rejects the existing studies' assertions that self-efficacy belief is related to choice of learning strategies (Hong, 2006; Pintrich, 2000; Suwanarak, 2012; Yang, 1999) and that learning strategy functions depend on the task, the physical context, and the learners' internal context, such as self-efficacy beliefs, mindsets, and autonomy (Oxford, 2017). In the Balinese EFL learners' case, self-efficacy is not related to the students' learning strategy choices. They choose all types of learning strategies that they think can develop their skills and lead to progress in learning. There are no significant differences in mean scores for the learning strategies used by learners with high versus low self-efficacy. The Balinese EFL learners are self-efficacious in their learning development, and they have strong beliefs about learning. They also consider their mental state and manage their emotions while learning. Consequently, they choose various types of learning strategies without considering whether the strategies will be beneficial to their language learning development.

4.8 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the relationship between learners' self-efficacy and their productive language skills, learners' beliefs, and choice of learning strategies. Based on the descriptive analysis and the interview data, it was found that the Balinese EFL learners are highly efficacious in their productive language skills of speaking and writing, that they have strong beliefs about learning motivation and learning expectations, and that they dedicate little focus to the difficulty of language learning. The learners' goals in learning and their

expectations of a better job in the future motivate them to study English. This finding also indicates that self-efficacy is crucial to motivate learners in the language learning process. According to the results, the learners' self-efficacy does not inhibit them from learning English and practicing their skills, regardless of what they believe in.

For the learners, self-efficacy is only a matter of what they think and feel about their ability, but it does not reflect their real ability. It is also related to their behavior, what they think and feel, and what makes them comfortable and uncomfortable. After the performance assessment, the students were asked whether they want to change their self-efficacy based on their actual performance test score. They did not elect to change their self-efficacy because it reflects their vision, taking into consideration their likes and dislikes, and their feelings and personality.

From the learners' perspective, self-efficacy is influenced by personality, previous education, prior learning experience, and learning frequency. Based on the learners' personality and the in-depth interviews, self-efficacy refers to deriving enjoyment from learning, and this is one of the reasons underlying the learners' learning beliefs. Regarding the learners' personality, the extraversion dimension exists among the Balinese EFL learners that participated in this study, including extroversion and introversion. The other aspect that can be seen as highly influential in the foundation and development of learners' self-efficacy is experience, especially prior learning experience in school.

The learners' self-efficacy and their strong beliefs build self-confidence; however, when the learners feel confident about their English-language communication, they do not pay attention to the grammatical structure. The learners view speaking as a matter of communication and interaction. They assume that they are successful learners when they can convey a message and make an interlocutor understand it. When they face problems conveying messages, they believe they can cope by guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words.

Even though Balinese EFL learners have different perspectives and are highly efficacious in their speaking and writing skills, self-efficacy does not influence and differentiate the learners' beliefs and learning strategies.

This empirical study finds that the Balinese EFL learners are self-efficacious in learning and that they use many kinds of strategies regardless of their type and level of self-efficacy. The learners do not choose their learning strategies based on self-efficacy; rather, they choose any type of strategy that makes their learning easy and enjoyable.

Learners' different self-efficacies do not fully differentiate and reflect their beliefs and learning strategies. Overall, there is no significant influence of self-efficacy on learners' beliefs and learning strategies. The learners hold similar beliefs about language learning and use similar learning strategies, despite their high or low self-efficacy in speaking or writing skills.

From the interviews, it is clear that the Balinese EFL learners do not depend on learning strategies to achieve high performance in their productive skills; however, they rely on their self-efficacy. The learners do not choose their learning strategies based on self-efficacy; rather, they choose any kind of strategy that makes their learning enjoyable and easy.

The present research investigated whether learners' self-efficacy is reflected in students' real performance. Although the language use test does not match the learners' self-efficacy, learners' belief is stated as an important factor in students' learning development.

CHAPTER V

DISCREPANCIES IN INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES THAT INHIBIT THE INTERRELATION BETWEEN LANGUAGE KNOWLEDGE AND LANGUAGE USE

5.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses in detail the result of statistical and interview data analysis to answer the research question three about the effect of self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, and learning strategies in the interrelation of language knowledge and language use³³ based on statistical and interviews data. This chapter also discusses the discrepancies in self-efficacy, beliefs, and learning strategies that inhibit the interrelation between language knowledge and language use.

Based on the analysis of the empirical data, it is argued that Balinese EFL learners' language knowledge is correlated, but the interrelation may not always be reflected in language use due to the discrepancies in self-efficacy, beliefs about language learning, and learning strategies that inhibit the interrelation between language knowledge and language use.

It is also argued that the learners' high score in language knowledge does not always guarantee their language use, and positive and strong self-efficacy and learners' beliefs about language learning should be supplemented with appropriate learning strategies to support the interrelation between language knowledge and language use. Moreover, learners' beliefs about language learning and learning strategies were found to have no significant correlation with language knowledge and language use.

³³ Language knowledge and language use are intertwined with competence and performance as those terms are closely related. Competence is the speakers – hearers' knowledge of their language, and performance is the actual use of language in a concrete situation (Chomsky, 1965). In this research, language knowledge and language use were assessed quantitatively and qualitatively. Test on learners' language knowledge and also speaking and writing tests were administered. An in-depth interview was also conducted to confirm the questionnaire data.

5.2 Correlation between Language Knowledge and Language Use

This sub-section presents the results of the language knowledge and language use test of the Balinese EFL learners and discusses the correlation and discrepancies between their language knowledge and language use. The results indicate that high score in language knowledge does not guarantee high language use of Balinese EFL learners.

The results were evaluated using a rubric based on the CEFR scale (see Appendix 9 for the material of the language knowledge, appendix 10 and 11 for language use test, and appendix 13 for the rubric). The results of Balinese EFL learners' language knowledge and language use test are presented in Figure 5.

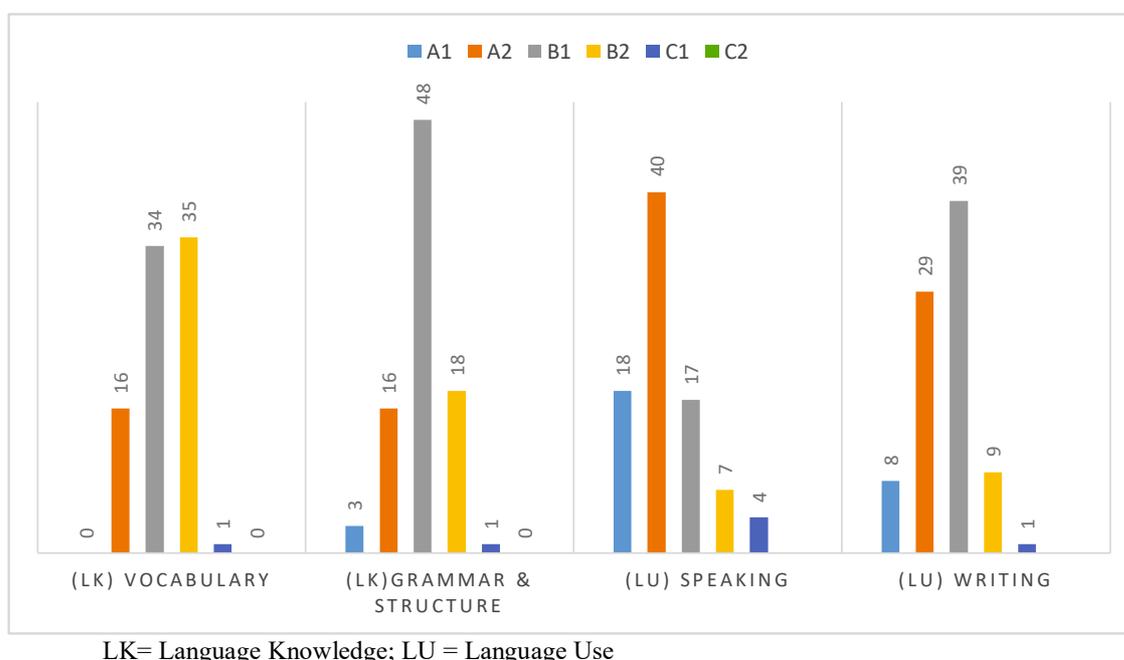


Figure 5. The Result of Language Knowledge and Language Use Test

CEFR classified the learners into three groups (basic, independent, and proficient users), with each having two subgroups (basic: A1 and A2; independent: B1 and B2; proficient: C1 and C2).

Based on the DIALANG Vocabulary Test results of the eighty-six participants, no student was at the A1 level, sixteen were at A2 level; thirty-four at B1 level, thirty-five at B2 level, and one at C1 level. Most students scored remarkably high (eighty percent) at the B

level, indicating that the learners have good knowledge of vocabulary. Only one learner could get the highest test result in the DIALANG Vocabulary Test and reached the C1 level.

As for the DIALANG Structure Test, the learners' scores were slightly more distributed; more than half of the learners (seventy-seven percent) were at the B level, especially the B1 level. The majority of the learners scored at B1 level (forty-eight learners), followed by B2 (eighteen learners), A2 (sixteen learners), and A1 level (three learners); only one learner was at the C1 level.

In terms of language use, eighteen students were at A1 level of speaking, forty at A2 level, seventeen at B1 level, seven at B2 level, and four at C1 level. More than half of the learners (sixty-seven percent) were A-level learners, followed by twenty-eight percent at B level; only five percent learners reached the C level.

In the writing test, eight students were at A1 level, twenty-nine at A2 level, thirty-nine at B1 level, nine at B2 level, and one at C1 level. Of all the learners, forty-three percent were categorized as A-level learners and fifty-six percent as B-level learners; one percent reached the C level.

More learners obtained the B1 level in the writing test compared to the speaking test: thirty-nine learners (forty-four percent) were classified as B1-level learners in writing. Similar to the DIALANG Vocabulary and Structure tests, only one student could reach the C1 level in writing. If we compare the structure and vocabulary test score distribution in Figure 5, there is an evident discrepancy between language knowledge and language use. In the language knowledge test, more students reached B level and fewer obtained A level compared to the results of the language use test. The number of B1 and B2 learners are almost equal in the vocabulary test. Although the difference between B1 and B2 learners is quite evident in the structure test, overall, the learners are quite competent.

Based on language knowledge, most of the learners are categorized as B-level learners capable of coping with a more complex communication situation in speaking and writing forms.

In the language knowledge test, fewer learners obtained low test results of A level. In contrast, in the language use test, many learners were at the A level, especially in the speaking test; only a small number of learners reached the B level. However, a greater number (though

not significant) of learners reached the C1 level in the language use speaking test than in the language knowledge test.

Thus, the learners' language knowledge is related to but is not always reflected in language use. Before exploring this discrepancy, here is how the Balinese EFL learners define language knowledge and language use:

- Arik : ...*kind of knowledge or information that you have to know if you want to learn a language. I think language use is a pattern or the way you apply language in daily life*
- Masya : ...*knowing about particular language, either it's a simple or a complex thing about the language. Language use is the use of language that you already know, not the one you never know.*
- Bagus : *language knowledge means I know grammar, vocabulary, and technique with regard to writing, reading, and listening. Language use is when I can use the language well even though I don't really know the exact grammar or vocabulary.*

The Balinese EFL learners mostly thought about language knowledge as knowledge (including grammar and vocabulary) or information relating to language, whether simple or complicated, which will later be the foundation for language use. Even though the learners' understanding of language knowledge is slightly different from Otto's definition, and their concept of language use is pretty straightforward compared to Descartes and Chomsky's definition, they realize that knowing a language is not only about knowing the grammar of the language (linguistic competence) but also having the ability to retrieve such knowledge and use it to perform various functions in that language skills (Latu, 1994; Matthews, 2006).

However, learners' perception of the relationship between language knowledge and language use is contradictory in nature. On the one hand, the learners believe that having language knowledge means they can use the language, and that language use depends on the level of language knowledge the learners possess. On the other hand, the learners disagree that the use of language depends solely on having language knowledge. There are other aspects to be considered regarding language knowledge and language use. The transcriptions below provide the learners' answers regarding their perspective about the relationship between language knowledge and language use.

- Ista : *Without language knowledge, we cannot communicate. Knowledge*

comes first, then its use.

- Arta : *There's definitely a relation between language knowledge and language use, because if the learners have sufficient language knowledge, they can use the language according to the language knowledge they possess.*
- Ananta : *I think there is a strong relation between the two. If we have good level of language knowledge, we can do better in language use.*
- Ima : *Language knowledge and language use are related to one another because I think if we want to speak or use the language, we must first master the language knowledge/theory.*
- Komang: *When people know how to use the language, it implies that they already have language knowledge. If learners can use the language, it means they have the knowledge and can apply it. To use the language, we must have language knowledge.*

The transcription above shows the importance of language knowledge for the learners, as they mentioned that language knowledge is related to and is the determinant factor behind their language use. Learners believe that to use the language, they first need to know the language, and the level of language knowledge they possess becomes the parameter of their language use.

However, other learners were of a different view. For them, practice is a crucial factor affecting the interrelation between language knowledge and language use. The learners argue that it will be difficult to transform language knowledge into language use without practice.

- Rini : *...even though the learners have high language knowledge, if they never practice, they will not be able to use it.*
- Ciri : *If the learners only know the theory without any practice, they really cannot use the theory in communication.*
- Putu : *If we know the theory, we will be more careful while using the language. However, knowing too many theories without ever practicing can make one hesitate to talk and afraid of making mistakes.*
- Soma : *It is not good if the learners have high knowledge about grammar and vocabulary but seldom use it. The most important thing is that the learners must practice it often because the language that we are learning is aimed to be used in daily life.*
- Maya : *Vocabulary and grammar are important, but if we don't practice, it will become difficult to use that knowledge in writing or speaking.*
- Arik : *I think if someone only knows the theory without practicing it, s/he cannot speak or be fluent because using English needs practice.*

The learners mentioned that they are aware that both language knowledge and language use are essential. However, having knowledge about a language does not mean that one can use it effectively in a communication situation; it only strengthens our understanding of human communication. Therefore, theory and practice must go hand in hand.

Besides practice, the learners mentioned that feelings also play an essential role in applying language knowledge to language use. If the learners are nervous and are not confident in their skills, they will hesitate to talk and will not achieve fluency even though they possess sufficient language knowledge.

- Purnama: *If the learners have good vocabulary knowledge and mastery in grammar, they can structure the sentences in writing, but if they get tense, they will hesitate to talk.*
- Gusti : *I think nervousness can be one reason the learners cannot apply language knowledge to language use. When the learners feel anxious, it is a poor indicator of their learning process.*
- Arik : *If the learners lack confidence and never practice, although they know the grammar and vocabulary, they will not become fluent.*

The learners use terms such as “*tense*,” “*nervous*,” and “*anxious*,” which are all synonymous and reflect the psychological struggle the learners undergo in their learning development. In addition to knowledge and practice, feelings also play a major role in language learning and need to be taken seriously (TESOL, 2017). It is important to manage feelings such as nervousness, because negative feelings will reduce the effectiveness of most language learning; therefore, the learners need to use cognitive strategies more to counter the negative feelings and emotions (Ehrman et al., 2003).

Qualitative analysis of the Balinese EFL learners’ interview revealed that they have different perspectives toward the interrelation between language knowledge and language use. Furthermore, the DIALANG language knowledge and language use test revealed that there is a discrepancy between the learners’ language knowledge and language use. Scoring high in language knowledge does not necessarily result in high language use scores. However, the quantitative analysis shows a different aspect of the interrelation between language knowledge and language use. Table 17 presents Spearman rho analysis to

investigate whether language knowledge and language use are dependent on each other or not.

Table 17. Language Knowledge and Language Use Correlation

			Language Use- Speaking	Language Use - Writing
Spearman rho	Language Knowledge Vocabulary	Correlation Coefficient	.323**	.534**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.000
	Language Knowledge Grammar & Structure	Correlation Coefficient	.371**	.580**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000

N = 86

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

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

As is evident from Table 17, language knowledge and language use are interrelated and have a positive significant relation ranging from moderate to strong. There is a moderate relationship between vocabulary and speaking ($\rho = .323$, $p = .002^{**}$) and a strong relationship between vocabulary and writing ($\rho = .534$, $p = .000^{**}$). Grammar and structure is correlated moderately with speaking ($\rho = .371$, $p = .000^{**}$) and strongly with writing ($\rho = .580$, $p = .000^{**}$). Both speakers and writers must be aware of how to express their communicative intentions. This refers to realizing the importance of vocabulary and grammar and structure knowledge in their productive language skills.

According to the literature (Bygate, 1987; Ellis, 2008; Matthew, 2006), language knowledge is related to language use. The two are inseparable in that it refers to how individuals use their language knowledge to construct their communicative activities and how, at the same time, these activities serve to construct personal knowledge. The results of quantitative analysis in this study are in line with these findings. Though not quantitatively verified, the qualitative analysis of interviews in this study helped to add complexity and nuance to this simple direct association between language knowledge and language use, stating that practice, learners' characters, and their feelings also critically influence this interrelation. The learners mentioned that factors such as having more time to practice,

building self-confidence, and reduction in anxiety while learning would help to successfully apply language knowledge to language use.

The present research found that language knowledge is related to but is not always reflected in language use. As mentioned before, despite the shortcomings in English language teaching and learning in formal education, informal circumstances have provided the Balinese EFL learners with exposure in learning English. They do not hesitate to use English no matter how insufficient their knowledge is.

The three domains³⁴ of Wolf and Butler (2017) are related to language use in the school or educational setting. However, this research focuses on another setting, which is learners' exposure to real language use outside of classroom. The Balinese EFL learners acquire their language knowledge from the real encounters with foreigners. They focus their English language learning on communication and are highly efficacious in their speaking and writing skills.

Furthermore, Figure 5 and Table 17 show that self-efficacy plays an important role, but does not fully influence the interrelation between language knowledge and language use. These results will be further investigated in the following sub-sections. Moreover, it is suggested that the existence of several discrepancies caused by the learners' self-efficacy, learners' beliefs, and learning strategies hinders the interrelation between language knowledge and language use.

5.3 Discrepancies Hindering the Interrelation between Language Knowledge and Language Use

Self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, and learning strategies are individual differences that play important roles in language learning development, especially in motivating the learners. However, discrepancies among these variables inhibit the interrelation between language knowledge and language use. These discrepancies that contradict the existing research are the finding and contribution of this study.

³⁴ Cf 2.6.2 at page 68 Wolf and Butler's (2017) three domains the purpose of language use

5.3.1 Self-Efficacious Learners' Different Behavior Regarding the Interrelation between Language Knowledge and Language Use

This sub-section argues that self-efficacious learners behave differently with regard to the interrelation between language knowledge and language use. On the basis of the results of the correlation analysis and in-depth interviews with the learners, various types of learners can be identified based on their self-efficacy and the interrelation between language knowledge and language use. As mentioned before, learners' language knowledge was tested using the DIALANG Vocabulary and Structure test and their language use was tested through speaking and writing tests. The results of the language knowledge and language use test and the classification of the learners based on these results are presented in Table 18.

Table 18. The learners based on the language knowledge and language use test

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Interrelated High	24	27.9
	Interrelated Low	13	15.1
	High score in LK; low score in LU	17	19.8
	High score in LK and LU writing; Low score in LU speaking	24	27.9
	High score in vocabulary test	3	3.5
	High score in speaking test	2	2.3
	High score in vocabulary and speaking test; Low score in structure and writing test	1	1.2
	High score in LK and speaking test; Low score in writing test	1	1.2
	High score in structure and writing test; low score in vocabulary and speaking test	1	1.2
	Total	86	100.0

Note: LK = Language Knowledge
LU = Language Use

Based on Table 18, the following categories of learners on the basis of their test results regarding the interrelation between language knowledge and language use, can be proposed:

1. Interrelated Learners

Interrelated learners are those who can relate their language knowledge and language use. In this research, interrelated learners are divided into two groups: interrelated high learners and interrelated low learners. The former includes the learners who obtain high scores in language knowledge and language use tests, while the latter includes those scoring low in these tests. High as well as low

scores in both language knowledge and language use tests are indicative of an interrelation between the learners' language knowledge and language use. The more the learners' language knowledge, the higher their scores in the language use test. Conversely, the less the language knowledge of the learners, the lower their scores in the language use test.

2. Diverse Learners

Diverse learners are those who cannot interrelate their language knowledge and language use. The various categories of diverse learners are as follows:

- Those who score high in language knowledge but cannot apply it, and as a result, score low in language use tests.
- Those who obtain high scores in language knowledge and writing tests, but their speaking test results are poor.
- Those who get high scores only in language knowledge vocabulary test, while their scores are low in language knowledge structure test, speaking test, and writing test.
- Those who get high scores only in speaking test, while their writing and language knowledge test scores are low.
- Those who get high scores in language knowledge vocabulary and language use speaking tests score low in language knowledge structure and language use writing tests.
- Those who get low scores only in language use writing test, while they obtain high scores in language knowledge and language use speaking tests.
- Those who get low scores in language knowledge vocabulary and speaking tests but obtain high scores in language knowledge structure and writing tests.

Of the total eighty-six learners, twenty-four are classified as interrelated high learners that is they could balance their knowledge and use of the language and gained high scores in the language knowledge and language use tests.

Thirteen learners are classified as interrelated low learners. In contrast to interrelated high learners, interrelated low learners are learners who have limited language knowledge and obtain a low score in the language knowledge test, and consequently score low in the language use tests.

From the in-depth interviews, it has been found that interrelated high learners invest more time in studying. They choose the appropriate learning strategies that can improve their learning development, are capable of controlling their passion in learning, and are aware of the importance of productive language skills (speaking and writing). They study and make an effort in practicing both speaking and writing skills and are enthusiastic and excited about learning. Even though these learners are self-efficacious only in one aspect of their language use, they can control and manage their learning and hence could interrelate their language knowledge and language use.

Furthermore, seventeen learners obtained high scores in the language knowledge tests, but scored low in language use tests. Twenty-four learners are categorized as learners who scored high in language knowledge and writing tests but gained low scores in the speaking test. The majority of these learners have writing self-efficacy, which influences their language use.

Three learners gained high scores only in the language knowledge vocabulary test and two got high scores in the language use speaking test.

One of the possible reasons which inhibits the learners from performing to the best of their competence and ability is their self-efficacy. It has been found that in cases where learners' self-efficacy affects the interrelation between language knowledge and language use, learners only gain scores in the aspect related to their self-efficacy in the language use tests. For example, if the learners have speaking self-efficacy and their self-efficacy influences the interrelation between language knowledge and language use, they will gain high scores in the language use speaking test, whereas the learners who are self-efficacious in writing will only get a good score in the language use writing test regardless of their language knowledge score.

Table 18 shows that self-efficacy does not relate to and influence the interrelation between language knowledge and language use, indicating that there is a discrepancy

between self-efficacy and learners' performance. It has been found that the learners cannot apply their high language knowledge into language use, especially in the speaking test.

During interviews with the self-efficacious learners, different ideas and perspectives came to the fore. The learners who could interrelate their language knowledge and language use revealed that they recognize the importance of both aspects in their language development.

Maya : *Language knowledge is about knowing a particular language, whether it's a simple or a complex thing about the language. Language use is the use of language. I realize that to use the language, I have to first learn and get knowledge about it. I learn every aspect of language knowledge so that I can use it in my communication. Because I obtain the knowledge and practice to use it, I feel more comfortable in using both skills and have started to build self-efficacy beliefs in both skills.*

Putu : *A learner who masters grammar and vocabularies does not necessarily speak fluently and write accurately if s/he lacks practice. So even though I am a writing self-efficacious learner, it is important to practice speaking too. I realize the more I practice speaking, it helps me in my writing skills. Recently, I have often obtained good scores in my speaking and writing tests.*

Komang: *I am a speaking self-efficacious learner. I pay more attention on improving my speaking skill rather than my writing skill. When I was younger, I used to communicate using casual language but since I came to study to this faculty, I realized that language knowledge is important and more academic. Both speaking and writing are important skills to learn and they support the development of each other. Having knowledge about a language makes me more careful and respectful in using it. I can avoid misusing a language by obtaining knowledge about the language.*

Despite their self-efficacy, the interrelated high learners showed similar characteristics in handling foreign language learning. The learners can control their self-efficacy. They realize that it is important to improve their ability, focus on learning both aspects of language use, and are actively working to gain high scores in both speaking and writing tests. Practice is the keyword to describe the interrelated high learners because they maintain their engagement in language learning, regardless of the type of self-efficacy they possess. Based on the classroom observation, during the tests, and in the interviews, the interrelated high learners also showed greater effort and better classroom performance than other students.

Maya, Putu, and Komang represent interrelated high learners, whereas Gusti, Bagus, Ananta, and Geri are interrelated low learners. The transcriptions below reveal their perspectives on the language knowledge and language use tests.

Gusti: *Both language knowledge and language use tests were difficult. Grammar was the most difficult test in language knowledge because I cannot form a sentence if I do not know grammar. Besides, I do not have enough vocabulary, so I found the tests really difficult. Though I said that my self-efficacy was in writing, I realized that my writing was far from good-quality writing. I feel both of them are difficult and I lack understanding of both skills. I have a problem with my writing as well as speaking. I chose writing as my self-efficacy, although my writing skill was not good because I feel anxious while facing other people.*

Bagus: *Speaking is too complicated because I don't have time to think. I also must have good pronunciation, and have to face other people. When I speak in front of other people, I easily forget what I'm going to say. My mind suddenly becomes totally blank when I have to speak. Because it is hard for me to speak, I think I am better at writing because I don't have to meet people. However, in writing, my biggest problem is grammar, but at least I have more time to think about what I'm going to write.*

Ananta: *The language knowledge test is as much difficult as the language use test. Speaking and writing are complicated. Ever since elementary school, I am more confident in speaking rather than writing. I prefer speaking because I can express my opinion directly than overthinking while writing. Although sometimes I speak using wrong grammar and have to search for the correct vocabulary, the communication goes well.*

Geri : *Grammar is one of my favorite subjects and I also like to read. But I think the more I study, the more anxious I become. I could answer the language knowledge test but found the language use test very difficult. I thought the more I know, the easier it will be. But I was wrong.*

The biggest problem the learners faced was their lack of mastery in vocabulary and understanding in grammar, which was reflected in their low scores in both the language knowledge and language use tests. The speaking self-efficacious learners prefer to face other people directly than to spend much time in expressing their ideas by writing. Gusti and Bagus felt anxious while facing other people, and consequently tried to avoid speaking in English. They chose writing as their self-efficacy not because they had beliefs in their ability but because they avoid speaking.

Geri is an introvert and a writing self-efficacious learner who learns grammar and reads many books to memorize vocabulary. Although she made many efforts to learn English, she found it difficult to use the language. She said that the more she learns, the more confused and tensed she gets. She hesitated to talk and had a tendency to overthink while writing; therefore, she could not get a high score in her language use test. Another problem is Geri's perspective toward learning. She believes that the more she studies, the easier it will be to use the language.

Geri's case suggests that anxiety is one reason behind the learners' inability to interrelate their language knowledge and language use. Anxious students usually do not perform as well as they should. When the learners become anxious, they start to underestimate their ability and do not get maximum results (MacIntyre et al., 1997). This result is in line with Hashimoto's (2002) claim that language anxiety reduces perceived communicative competence. Some language learners may feel anxious about speaking in English, while for others, writing in English is a cause of anxiety. Some students may worry about their low self-confidence in speaking English, while others are generally influenced by their concerns about the possibility of failure, negative evaluation of themselves, and other people's views about them (Wang, 2004).

Unlike the respondents above, below has been shared the views of a speaking self-efficacious learner who scored high in the writing test instead of the speaking test. Arta is a speaking self-efficacious learner who gained high scores in the language knowledge test. However, in contrast to his self-efficacy, he gained high scores in the writing test and low scores in the speaking test.

Arta: *I often join and help my father when he is working as a tour guide. So far, I can communicate in English with international tourists, both native and non-native speakers. Speaking is expressing what we have in mind spontaneously without overthinking about grammar, as long as the hearer can understand what we are saying. Writing is conveying something in written form, and we have more time to pay attention to grammar and vocabulary. In speaking, we also use grammar, but as long as we can convey our intention and the hearer understands the meaning, we can say that the communication is going well.*

The interview reveals that Arta's focus is on communication while speaking. His only intention is to convey his message and make the interlocutor understand that message. In the speaking test, Arta could answer simple questions, but faced difficulty in answering the more complex questions. When he was asked to answer the interview questions that go beyond the daily conversation, he could not answer spontaneously, needed time to think, made grammatical mistakes, and repeated himself. However, in the writing test, he used time effectively to think and create an outline of what he wanted to write and consequently obtained a higher score than that in the speaking test. Since speaking is done impromptu without any revision and correction, a speaker should be quick in thinking and responding. Unlike in writing, in which a writer can create a draft and make plans, in speaking, the speaker has to simultaneously make drafts and plans in his/her mind and watch the interlocutors for their reaction and to predict their next utterance.

The interview data reveal the role self-efficacy plays in affecting the interrelation between language knowledge and language use. It has been found that the learners' self-efficacies do not always influence and affect the interrelation between language knowledge and language use.

In the interrelated learners' group, no matter the type of self-efficacy the learners possess, if they can interrelate their language knowledge and language use, self-efficacy does not affect the interrelation. The higher the language knowledge test score, the higher the language use score. Conversely, low language knowledge test scores result in low language use scores. If the learners have high scores in language knowledge and language use tests (perform well in both the speaking and writing tests), it means the learners' self-efficacy does not affect and influence their language learning development. The interrelated high learners can control their self-efficacy and balance their language knowledge and language use. However, the interrelated low learners cannot reflect their self-efficacy in their language use due to poor language knowledge.

Furthermore, there are cases when the type of learners' self-efficacy does not influence the interrelation between their language knowledge and language use, such as when the speaking self-efficacious learners get low scores in the speaking test or the writing self-efficacious learners get low scores in the writing test. On the other hand, in some cases,

learners' self-efficacy has an evident interrelation with their language knowledge and language use. For example, the speaking self-efficacious learners get high scores in the speaking test and the writing self-efficacious learners obtain high scores in the writing test. This indicates that the learners' self-efficacy inhibits their language learning development because development only occurs in the skill based on their self-efficacy.

Moreover, it is evident that self-efficacy does not fully inhibit the application of language knowledge to language use. Learners' limited language knowledge is one reason behind their minimum level of interrelation. Regardless of their self-efficacy, the interrelated high learners can interrelate their language knowledge and language use. They can control their self-efficacy, which then does not inhibit their language learning development. As for the interrelated low learners, despite their self-efficacy, the interrelation occurs at the minimum level due to their limited language knowledge.

In contrast to the interrelated learners, there are learners whose language knowledge cannot be transferred into language use. The interrelation between language knowledge and language use may not occur because of several reasons, such as having confidence in one's language competence can lead to overconfidence and lack of efforts, focusing on the development of only one aspect of language, lack of mastery in vocabulary and grammar, feelings and anxiety toward different aspects of learning, and avoiding speaking in public.

Of the eighty-six learners, twenty percent got high scores in language knowledge and writing tests but scored low in the speaking test. Most of the learners were self-efficacious in writing skills alone. In this case, the learners' self-efficacy caused unbalanced development in their speaking and writing skills. The learners could not develop their speaking skills and only made progress in their writing skills. The writing self-efficacious learners are more likely to take responsibility for their choices and decisions. They choose writing as their self-efficacy and only focus on developing their writing skills. As a result, they do not practice using other skills, which may hamper their language learning development.

Control on self-efficacy is for learners to develop and interrelate their language knowledge and language use, and improve their language proficiency. Self-efficacy is useful for motivating the learners to study, but control is needed to become more proficient learners. Self-control, regarded as a crucial component of self-efficacy, is correlated positively with

self-efficacy, which means that people with high self-control tend to pay more attention to their intended goals and possess stable self-efficacy concerning future tasks. It might also contribute to various types of positive outcomes, such as better academic grades (Bandura, 2012).

This sub-section revealed that the self-efficacious learners behave differently with regard to the interrelation between language knowledge and language use. In the next sub-section, the research results which contradict the findings of previous studies on the existence of an interrelation between the learners' self-efficacy and performance will be explained.

5.3.2 Self-Efficacy may not Necessarily Predict Actual Performance

Self-efficacious learners see difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than threats to be avoided as self-efficacy beliefs help learners determine how much effort is needed, and influence the choices learners make and the course of action they need to take (Pajares & Schunk, 2002). The Balinese EFL learners hold strong positive beliefs about language learning, and have strong self-efficacy beliefs about the skills they are good at. However, according to the present study, self-efficacy may not necessarily predict actual performance and the learners behave differently regarding their self-efficacy and language use (the actual performance of speaking and writing). Furthermore, self-efficacy may act as a two-sided coin. On the one hand, it provides motivation for the learners, but on the other hand, it may increase their overconfidence.

The result of actual performance test (see Table 19) shows that there are many discrepancies between the learners' self-efficacy and their actual performance.

Table 19. The mismatch classification of the self-efficacy and actual performance

		A1	A2	B1	B2	C1
Self-efficacy	Speaking	9	21	22	14	20
	Writing	4	12	22	19	29
Actual performance	Speaking	18	40	17	7	4
	Writing	7	30	39	9	1

In the self-efficacy questionnaire, the learners showed high self-efficacy in speaking and writing skills. However, discrepancies were found between the learners' self-efficacy and their actual performance at all levels (basic user level of A1 and A2, independent user level of B1 and B2, and proficient user level of C1). In the speaking self-efficacy questionnaire, only thirty students indicated that they were basic users (A1 and A2 level learners). However, in the actual performance test, most of the learners turned out to be basic users. At the independent user level (B1 and B2 level learners), there were thirty-six speaking self-efficacious learners; however, in the actual performance test, only twenty-four learners reached this level. Twenty learners mentioned that their speaking ability is at proficient level (C1 level), but only four could reach this level in the actual performance test.

Similar results were observed regarding writing self-efficacy. In the writing self-efficacy questionnaire, sixteen learners believed themselves to be at the basic user level (A1 and A2 level); however, thirty-seven learners reached this level in the actual performance test. There were forty-one writing self-efficacious learners as independent users which increased to forty-eight in the actual performance test. There is only a slight mismatch in the writing independent user level compared to other levels. Furthermore, twenty-nine learners believed that they were highly self-efficacious at the C1 level in writing. However, only one learner could reach this level in the actual performance test. Overall, in contrast to the learners who categorized themselves as basic users (A1 and A2 level) and proficient users (C1 level), those who believed themselves to be independent users (B1 and B2 level) were more conscious of their abilities and could reflect their self-efficacy into speaking and writing performance with only a slight mismatch. However, learners at all levels had huge discrepancies between their self-efficacy and actual performance. For example, Dewa, a speaking self-efficacious learner, scored low in the speaking test. Meanwhile, Komang obtained high scores in both speaking and writing tests despite categorizing himself as a speaking self-efficacious learner.

The following transcription from the aforementioned interview on self-efficacy provides the responses of students who are highly efficacious in speaking, but scored low in the actual performance test of speaking.

Mari: *I feel more comfortable and confident in expressing myself*

- directly, although I know I might make a lot of mistakes, but people understand, so I keep talking.*
- Masya: *As the main point of speaking is communication and interaction with other people, although the grammar and structure of the sentence are not correct, as long as other people understand what I'm saying, I think it's fine.*
- Dewa: *In writing, people (the reader) can re-read to recheck, and if I make a mistake, it is clearly visible, and the reader will know it. In speaking, I can hide it.*
- Ista: *In speaking, fluency comes first, and then accuracy. If I'm fluent, people will not notice whether I am accurate or not.*

The students who believed that they were good at speaking but had low actual performance were aware that their self-efficacy could not be reflected in their actual performance. They were of the view that speaking is only a matter of communication and interaction with other people and did not care much about the grammar. For them, when the listener or interlocutor understands what they are saying and the messages are conveyed, their goal in communication is accomplished. This kind of students prioritize fluency over accuracy because they believe that when they are fluent, people will not notice their inaccuracy.

The Balinese EFL learners' case indicates that having encouragement, strong beliefs, and self-efficacy are positive signs of progress in learning since these elements elevate students' motivation and make them excited to learn. However, whether students' self-efficacy can be reflected in their actual performance needs to be discussed. The interview above reveals why the students with speaking self-efficacy did not score high in the speaking test. These type of learners are confident in their skills; however, without any knowledge about the language (i.e., mastery in grammar and structure, and sufficient vocabulary), they only become "not proficient" speakers. Being fluent is a good thing in learning a foreign language as it may raise students' confidence in communication; however, fluency without accuracy can cause miscommunication.

The interview results signify that self-efficacy and learners' beliefs about language learning play crucial roles in motivating the learners. At the same time, a negative effect in the form of increased overconfidence and decreased performance has also been observed.

The transcription below³⁵ presents the views of speaking self-efficacious learners who obtained high scores both in the speaking and the writing test.

- Resa : *Speaking is effortless. I just say what comes in my mind. When I speak, I rarely think too much about grammar because the more I think, the more I'll hesitate to speak and make mistakes.*
- Ima : *I believe in my speaking skills because I think my speaking is much better than my writing.*
- Komang: *I can write well, but I speak better.*
- Ciri : *Speaking is a lot easier because I can express my thoughts spontaneously. In speaking, I can revise the mistakes directly, and people does not bother because they understand that it is not my first language. Although many people are afraid of speaking, I prefer to speak than to write.*
- Putu : *I realize I'm good in speaking and writing, but I think I'm more comfortable in speaking, and I like to express something directly rather than taking a long time to write it.*

The interview results showed that the learners who claimed that they were good in speaking but scored high in both the speaking and writing tests were highly proficient learners in both skills. Because of the beliefs they had in their speaking skills, they chose to focus on only one productive language use rather than both. Ciri represents the learners who feel that it is easier to express something through speaking because if they make mistakes, they can quickly revise them. It is evident from the interview that the learners know that they are qualified in both skills. However, when they were asked about their self-efficacy, they chose only speaking. These learners prefer spontaneity, and are comfortable in expressing or saying something directly rather than thinking hard to express their thoughts in the written form. Avoiding complicated grammar is also part of their logic, since they do not care much about grammar when speaking. They just say what is in their mind and correct mistakes immediately. However, in writing, they have to pay more attention to the grammar, which makes them hesitate and afraid of making mistakes.

³⁵ Because of the big amount of interview data and limited space, the whole transcription will not be presented in the thesis. The similar interview finding will be represented in the data that is currently presented.

At the end of the in-depth interview, the students were asked whether they want to change their self-efficacy from speaking to a more balanced one after seeing their results. All the students refused because they had found their passion, comfort, and joy in speaking.

The following transcriptions share the viewpoints of writing self-efficacious students who showed good performance in both speaking and writing:

- Soma : *I'm actually an introvert. I feel more comfortable in writing, so that I don't have to deal with other people. I know that I'm also good in speaking. I can compile a well-structured sentence. But I feel more anxious while speaking than writing. That's why I say I believe in my writing skills.*
- Maya : *I have a problem in giving a quick response. Sometimes I lose my spontaneity if I have to speak in front of other people. In writing, I can express what I have in mind and have time to write, re-write, and check my work, unlike in speaking, where I have to respond spontaneously.*
- Moka : *My weakness is in speaking spontaneously. I don't have courage to speak in front of many people, and when speaking publicly, I'm afraid to speak without written text. In writing, I have more time to write my ideas down. So, I feel more comfortable and confident in writing than speaking.*
- Lina : *I believe in my writing skills. Ever since I was in elementary school, my writing skills have been better than my speaking skills. I know that speaking is my weakness. Since starting studying in university, I have focused more on speaking to overcome my shortcomings, and my speaking score has also improved. However, I still prefer writing to speaking because I believe that my writing is better than my speaking.*

The above responses show that speaking requires courage and that the learners need to overcome their anxiety and maintain spontaneity in responding to other people. The personality of the respondents also plays a role when choosing the self-efficacy that makes them comfortable.

Though the learners spare no effort to achieve high scores in tests or while undergoing a class review, in their everyday lives, they do not feel comfortable or enjoy speaking. The spontaneity that is required in speaking causes many learners stress, especially the introverts. They prefer to express their ideas in writing, which they can edit and revise. The writing self-efficacious learners focus more on accuracy.

Another evidence which shows that the self-efficacious learners behave differently with regard to the interrelation between language knowledge and language use is the

correlation between language knowledge and language use and learners' self-efficacy. Spearman correlation was conducted to quantitatively confirm the interview results concerning the impact of learners' self-efficacy on their language knowledge and language use.

The correlation between self-efficacy, language knowledge, and language use is presented in Table 20.

Table 20. Self-Efficacy, Language Knowledge, and Language Use Correlation

		Language Knowledge - Vocab	Language Knowledge - Structure	Language Use - Speaking	Language Use - Writing
Speaking Self-efficacy	Correlation Coefficient	.256*	.107	.392**	.174
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.017	.328	.000	.110
Writing Self-efficacy	Correlation Coefficient	.205	.183	.243*	.234*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.058	.091	.024	.030

N = 86

Correlation : Spearman's rho

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

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

As is evident, speaking self-efficacy has a significant weak positive correlation with vocabulary knowledge ($\rho = .256$, $p = .017^*$), but it does not correlate with structure knowledge. The significant value of correlation coefficient ($\rho = .392$, $p = .000^*$) shows a weak positive significant correlation between speaking self-efficacy and actual performance in speaking.

Writing self-efficacy shows no correlation with vocabulary and structure knowledge, but it correlates with speaking and writing. This result signifies that the learners' language knowledge does not relate to their writing self-efficacy. Furthermore, writing self-efficacy has a weak significant correlation with speaking performance ($\rho = .243$, $p = .024^*$) and writing performance ($\rho = .234$, $p = .030^*$), indicating that high self-efficacy in writing leads to higher speaking and writing performance. However, higher speaking self-efficacy may only result in higher speaking performance, and has no effect on writing performance.

Based on these results, there is an unbalanced correlation between speaking and writing self-efficacious groups' language learning development. The learners with speaking

self-efficacy appear to reflect their actual performance in speaking only and may not reflect in their writing performance. This is in contrast to the writing self-efficacious learners who can reflect their actual performance not only in writing but also in speaking based on their self-efficacy.

This research found that the learners with writing self-efficacy could better reflect on their self-efficacy, may control their self-efficacy, and showed significant correlation between self-efficacy and language use. They are more conscious of their abilities, and may use their self-efficacy to improve their speaking and writing performance.

In contrast, the learners with speaking self-efficacy may believe themselves to be good in speaking because they feel they are fluent. However, to perform well, both fluency and accuracy matter. Writing self-efficacious learners tend to be more conscious of accuracy, while the speaking self-efficacious learners prioritize fluency but are aware of the inaccuracy in their language use. This may be the reason why speaking and writing self-efficacious learners behave differently.

In an academic setting, self-efficacy helps determine what the learners do with the knowledge and skills. Consequently, other influences on academic performance result from what the learners believe they can accomplish (Pajares, 1996). Learners' judgment about their self-efficacy affects what they do by influencing their choice, their effort, the persistence they apply when facing an obstacle, and the thought patterns and emotional reactions they experience (Pajares, 1996). When a learner has a strong sense of confidence, s/he may work well in accomplishing a task. It does not mean that the learner is a better writer or speaker, but it shows his/her interest, attention, strong effort, and remarkable perseverance to face the challenging task.

Existing research proposes multiple factors that align self-efficacy with performance (Bandura, 1997; Zimmerman, 2000). A central source of self-efficacy is prior performance feedback (Bandura, 1997). Furthermore, self-efficacy can influence performance (Bandura, 1997; Zimmerman, 2000). Lastly, factors that directly influence self-efficacy can also influence performance. The present study partially agrees with the factors mentioned in these previous studies. For instance, though prior performance feedback is an important aspect in the case of Balinese EFL learners, their personality is also a central source of their self-

efficacy. Moreover, self-efficacy did not fully influence their performance. Even though the writing self-efficacious learners can reflect their self-efficacy in speaking and writing performance, the speaking self-efficacious learners may not behave the same. These factors may influence performance and self-efficacy in different ways; therefore, success may not fully align with self-efficacy. Whyte et al. (1997) postulated that self-efficacy may act as a source of inappropriate persistence; that is, individuals who have been successful in the past in the domains where they display high self-efficacy may develop overconfidence.

In sum, self-efficacy plays an essential role in the interrelation between language knowledge and language use of the learners. However, self-efficacy does not completely influence and correlate with this interrelation. Furthermore, self-efficacy and learners' beliefs about language learning play crucial roles in motivating the learners; however, these may also affect the learners negatively by making them overconfident and hindering their effort in learning.

Overall, self-efficacy does not correlate with language knowledge. As for language use in speaking and writing performance, speaking self-efficacy correlates with only speaking performance, whereas writing self-efficacy correlates with both speaking and writing performance. It is assumed that learners' beliefs about language learning and learning strategies are related with the learners' inability to correlate their self-efficacy with language knowledge and language use.

Bandura (1997) and Zimmerman (2000) mentioned that performance and self-efficacy relationships may be distinct from learning strategies. Therefore, the interrelation between learning strategies, self-efficacy, and performance is worth exploring to determine whether this theory is also applicable in the context of Balinese EFL learners. The next subsection provides evidence of the relationship between self-efficacy and learning strategies.

5.3.3 Correlation between Self-Efficacy and Learning Strategies

The result of correlational analysis between learners' self-efficacy and learning strategies (see Table 21) shows that the learners behave differently with regard to the correlation between self-efficacy and learning strategies.

Table 21. The correlation of the learners' self-efficacy with learning strategies

		SOS	GLMS	MPMES	MPS	MCS	CPLS
Speaking Self-efficacy	Correlation Coefficient	-.138	.256*	.320**	.080	.237*	.157
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.206	.017	.003	.464	.028	.149
Writing Self-efficacy	Correlation Coefficient	-.191	.044	.381**	.174	.134	-.043
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.078	.687	.000	.110	.219	.697

N= 86

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

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

As shown in Table 21, there are three learning strategies that have positive weak correlation with speaking self-efficacy. This signify that overall, speaking self-efficacy is significantly correlated with learning strategies, especially General Learning Management Strategies (GLMS; $\rho=.256$, $p=.017^*$), Mental Process and Managing Emotion Strategies (MPMES; $\rho=.320$, $p=.003^{**}$), and Metacognitive and Cognitive Strategies (MCS; $\rho=.237$, $p=.028^*$). Thus, the higher the learners' self-efficacy, the more frequently they use these learning strategies.

These strategies include items that mostly relate to speaking skills and speaking activities such as paying attention when someone is speaking English, learning through discussion, encouraging themselves when they are afraid of making mistakes, noticing the tense when studying and speaking English, practicing English sound, and trying to talk like native speakers.

It may be possible that since the questionnaire items concerning GLMS, MPMES, and MCS closely relate to the act of speaking, the speaking self-efficacious learners are more likely to use these strategies. Thus, the result indicates the effect of self-efficacy on the choice of learning strategies, which eventually affects learners' actual performance. In addition, based on the in-depth interviews, it has been found that speaking self-efficacious learners use several strategies not mentioned in the questionnaire, such as "*breaking grammatical rules to maintain communication*," "*teaching English in private courses*," "*working as a volunteer to teach in non-governmental organizations*," "*mirroring*," "*travelling abroad*,"

“studying abroad,” and *“playing games online.”* As speaking self-efficacious learners focus more on communication, they use several strategies to enhance their speaking fluency.

Unlike speaking self-efficacy which has a positive significant correlation with learning strategies, writing self-efficacy has no significant correlation with learning strategies except for MPMES as seen in Table 21.

This points to another difference between speaking and writing self-efficacious learners. Although both speaking and writing self-efficacious learners use learning strategies in similar frequency and the only significant learning strategy is MPMES, the correlation differs among the self-efficacious learners. As per the results of analysis, when speaking self-efficacy increases, the use of learning strategies also increases. However, increase in writing self-efficacy does not lead to an increase in the use of learning strategies.

The analysis of Table 20 had revealed the correlation between the learners’ self-efficacy and actual performance, indicating that writing self-efficacy is correlated to both speaking and writing performance, whereas speaking self-efficacy correlates with only speaking performance. Based on the analysis of Table 21, learning strategy is assumed as one of the reasons behind this partial correlation. There are evidences that the speaking self-efficacy is correlated to learning strategies. These strategies are closely related to speaking activity and may be the cause behind the speaking self-efficacious learners’ inability to perform well in writing tests.

Although speaking self-efficacy correlates with learning strategies, the number of learning strategies used does not affect the degree of the learners’ self-efficacy. Moreover, the correlation between learners’ self-efficacy and performance can only be found in writing self-efficacy and partially in speaking self-efficacy.

In sum, this subsection found that self-efficacy partially correlates with learning strategies: speaking self-efficacy correlates with three of the six learning strategies, thus indicating a significant correlation between speaking self-efficacy and learning strategies. However, writing self-efficacy correlates with only one learning strategy. The next subsection presents the other discrepancy that exists in the correlation between self-efficacy and learners’ beliefs about learning.

5.3.4 Self-Efficacy does not Correlate with Learners' Beliefs

The Balinese EFL learners have strong beliefs about language learning and Learning Motivation and Expectation. This sub-section presents the correlation analysis to determine whether there exists any relationship between self-efficacy and learners' beliefs about language learning. Table 22 shows that despite the learners' strong beliefs in learning, self-efficacy does not influence and differentiate the learners' overall beliefs about language learning.

Table 22. Correlation between self-efficacy with learners' beliefs

		BLC	DLL	ME	LSP	FLA	FL
Self-efficacy Speaking	Correlation Coefficient	-.005	.198	.149	.328**	.065	.166
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.963	.068	.171	.002	.554	.127
Self-efficacy Writing	Correlation Coefficient	.031	.152	.070	-.301**	.111	.181
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.778	.163	.521	.005	.309	.095

N = 86

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

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

A correlation was found between self-efficacy and beliefs in language learning only with regard to learning style preference (LSP). There is a positive significant correlation between speaking self-efficacy and LSP ($\rho = .328$, $p = .002^{**}$) and a negative significant correlation between writing self-efficacy and LSP ($\rho = -.301$, $p = .005^{**}$).

A positive correlation signifies positive or direct relationship between two variables; that is, increase in one variable results in an increase in the other variable and vice versa. Based on the results in Table 22, an increase in Balinese EFL learners' speaking self-efficacy increases their belief in LSP. When speaking self-efficacy decreases, the learners' beliefs in LSP will also decrease.

On the other hand, a negative correlation signifies negative or inverse relationship between self-efficacy and beliefs in learning variables. An increase in Balinese EFL learners' writing self-efficacy results in a decrease in their beliefs in LSP. In contrast, when the learners' writing self-efficacy level decreases, their beliefs in LSP will increase.

Beliefs in LSP is heavily related to how the learners judge their self-efficacy, especially their skills. For instance, the learners believe that their speaking skill is better than their writing skill, they believe that speaking is easier than writing, they believe in the importance of learning English through songs and movies, and they believe that they have to memorize grammar patterns and vocabulary. Of all these items in this category, learning English from songs and movies hold 100% agreement among all learners.

Based on the statistical analysis, if only one out of six factors significantly correlates, that does not point to the overall correlation. The findings in the present study show a weak correlation between self-efficacy and LSP; therefore, overall, self-efficacy does not correlate with beliefs about language learning.

Thus, the discrepancies that inhibit the interrelation between language knowledge and language use include mismatch between self-efficacy and actual performance, different behavior of self-efficacious learners regarding the interrelation between language knowledge and language use and the learning strategies, and insignificant correlation between self-efficacy and beliefs about language learning. Other findings or discrepancies are presented in the next sub-section.

5.3.5 Beliefs in Learning and Learning Strategies do not affect the Interrelation between Language Knowledge and Language Use

Mismatch between learners' beliefs about language learning and learning strategies is another discrepancy that may affect the performance of Balinese EFL learners. As mentioned in the previous chapter, learners' belief in language learning is related to their motivation to learn English and expectation to have a better career in tourism industry. Therefore, the learners are expected to use practical learning strategies to improve their speaking and writing skills. However, the findings in Table 14 in Chapter IV indicate that the learners use Social and Organizational learning strategies the least frequently.

The results of the correlation between six belief factors (Beliefs about Learning and Communication, Difficulty in Language Learning, Motivation and Expectation, Learning Preference, Aptitude in Foreign Language, and Formal Learning) and two categories each of

language knowledge (vocabulary, and grammar and structure) and language use (speaking and writing) have been shown in Figure 6 and Table 23.

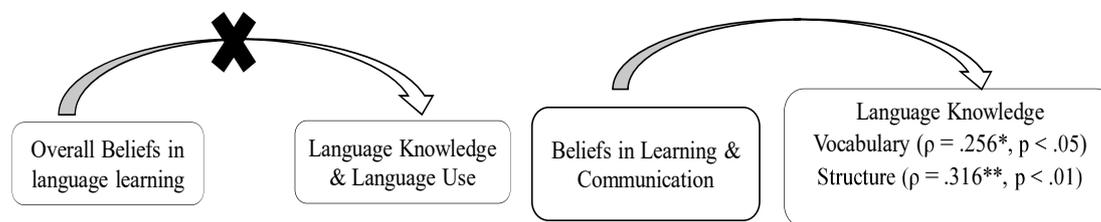


Figure 6. The Correlation of Learners’ Beliefs with Language Knowledge and Language Use

Table 23. Learners’ Beliefs, Language Knowledge and Language Use Correlation

		BLC	DLL	ME	LSP	FLA	FL
Language Knowledge - Vocab	Correlation Coefficient	.256*	.113	-.014	-.021	-.007	-.089
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.017	.302	.898	.847	.951	.413
Language Knowledge - Structure	Correlation Coefficient	.316**	.067	-.038	-.123	.040	-.119
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.537	.731	.258	.712	.276
Language Use - Speaking	Correlation Coefficient	.140	.072	-.017	.086	.150	-.032
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.197	.511	.876	.430	.168	.767
Language Use - Writing	Correlation Coefficient	.070	.023	-.017	-.173	-.091	-.092
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.524	.834	.874	.112	.405	.398

N = 86

Correlation : Spearman’s rho

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

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

Based on Table 23, Beliefs about Learning and Communication (BLC) significantly correlates with knowledge about vocabulary ($\rho = .256, p < .05$) and structure ($\rho = .316, p < .01$). However, weak positive significant correlation for one out of the six belief in learning factors does not represent an overall relationship between language knowledge and learners’ belief. Thus, there is no significant relationship between the learners’ language knowledge and learners’ beliefs about learning; that is, an increase in the learners’ beliefs will not affect their language knowledge.

Language use was also found to have no correlation with beliefs about language learning; that is, learners' beliefs does not correlate with speaking and writing performance. This finding is contradictory to Riley's (2006) assertion that positive beliefs will lead to positive behavior and good performance, while negative beliefs will result in poor language learning development. In the case of Balinese EFL learners, though the learners hold positive beliefs about learning, there is no relationship between their beliefs and performance.

In sum, learners' beliefs about language learning does not correlate with and affect language knowledge and language use, that is, learners' beliefs variables cannot be controlled by or control language knowledge and language use.

Thus, contrary to the author's assumption that learners' beliefs about language learning and learning strategies are correlated and support the process of language knowledge transfer into language use, this study found that there is no correlation between learners' beliefs about language learning, language knowledge, and language use. To further clarify the relationship among these variables, investigation about learning strategy and its correlation with language knowledge and language use is needed. Figure 7 and Table 24 present the correlation between learning strategies, language knowledge, and language use.

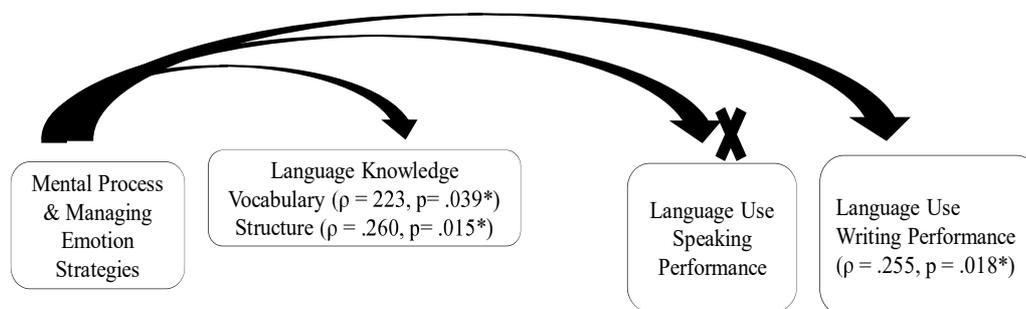


Figure 7. Learning strategies, language knowledge and language use correlation

Table 24. Correlation of Learning Strategies, Language Knowledge and Language Use

Language Knowledge & Use		Language Knowledge - Vocab	Language Knowledge - Structure	Language Use- Speaking	Language Use - Writing
SILL					
SOS	Correlation Coefficient	-.052	-.004	.088	-.069
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.636	.972	.422	.529
GLMS	Correlation Coefficient	-.007	.000	.038	.063
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.946	.998	.728	.563
MPMES	Correlation Coefficient	.223*	.260*	.165	.255*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.039	.015	.130	.018
MPS	Correlation Coefficient	.073	.135	.050	.106
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.503	.214	.650	.333
MCS	Correlation Coefficient	.092	.059	.126	.136
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.397	.588	.247	.211
CPLS	Correlation Coefficient	.010	.174	.038	.017
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.926	.108	.731	.878

N = 86

* : $p < .05$

Table 24 presents the correlation between language knowledge and language use and learning strategies. Of the six learning strategies, only mental process and managing emotion strategies (MPMES) significantly correlates with language knowledge and language use. MPMES has a positive weak correlation with vocabulary ($\rho = .223$, $p = .039^*$), structure ($\rho = .260$, $p = .015^*$), and writing performance ($\rho = .255$, $p = .018^*$). However, MPMES does not correlate with speaking performance. In fact, speaking performance does not correlate with any of the six learning strategies.

Though MPMES shows correlation with language knowledge and writing performance, the analysis below shows that it is not appropriate for supporting learning development.

The Spearman rank correlation result indicates no relationship between learning strategies and learners' performance in speaking. Though a weak significant correlation has been found between learners' writing performance and the learning strategy MPMES, it does not represent the overall correlation between learners' actual performance and their learning strategies. This empirical study found that learning strategies do not determine learners'

performance, and self-efficacy does not influence learners' learning strategies. Table 24 signifies that no matter how frequently the self-efficacious learners use learning strategies, it does not have any relation with their actual performance.

The findings of this sub-section are as follows: self-efficacy does not influence and differentiate between the learning strategies, and there is no significantly different strategy used by the learners. Whatever be the learners' self-efficacy, they choose similar learning strategies; however, these learning strategies are not necessarily appropriate to support their actual performance and language learning development.

Oxford (1990) highlights the contribution of using appropriate language learning strategies in language learning development. The application of inappropriate learning strategies will hinder the improvement of learners' language proficiency. Thus, learning strategies may be among the main factors that help to determine how, and how well the learners learn a foreign language.

As mentioned in the previous chapter, the Balinese EFL learners have strong beliefs about learning and are especially motivated to learn English because it is related to their future career and job. They try to use every strategy taught by their teachers, learnt from school, and learnt by imitating friends. They look for learning strategies that can improve their English competence. However, the strategies they choose are considered to be inappropriate to help them improve their performance as seen from the results of the self-efficacious learners in the actual performance test. The speaking self-efficacious learners only scored high in the speaking test, while the writing self-efficacious learners scored in both the speaking and writing tests.

The in-depth interviews with the learners revealed the underlying assumption and pattern of learning strategies that could not be observed from the analysis of the questionnaires. Based on the interview data, speaking self-efficacious learners focus on fluency over accuracy. They apply more strategies relating to how to become more fluent speakers, and frequently use these strategies. They use strategies such as practicing to become more fluent speakers, practicing how to speak as a native speaker, practicing to pronounce words, and practicing to have a native speaker accent. These strategies are appropriate for the learners who focus on improving their speaking skills only, but are inappropriate and

ineffective for the speaking self-efficacious learners who want to improve both speaking and writing skills.

Findings in Chapter IV indicate that both speaking and writing self-efficacious learners believe that they can become better learners and are willing to learn speaking and writing efficiently. However, speaking self-efficacious learners choose inappropriate learning strategies that are not effective in balancing their writing and speaking performances. Such learners lack consciousness and awareness to balance their speaking and writing abilities. These findings are indicative of the possibility that learners' application of strategies was inappropriate or not well managed.

Learning strategies indeed play an important role in language learning development and the interrelation between language knowledge and language use. Some learners effectively apply their language knowledge, while others are unable to do so. However, discrepancies in the learning strategies inhibit the interrelation between language knowledge and language use.

In Balinese EFL learners' case, the use of learning strategies is quite frequent; however, there is no significant difference between self-efficacious learners based on the learning strategies. As mentioned above, the frequency of strategies used, their appropriateness, context of the situation, and learners' goals are critical factors and need to be considered in choosing and using the learning strategies. Inappropriate learning strategies might cause discrepancies in the learning process and inhibit the progress. Every student has his/her preferences regarding the learning methods as well as the types of strategies s/he likes to use (Rubin et al., 2007). Based on the interview analysis, the Balinese EFL learners choose the strategies that make the learning process enjoyable and make them feel comfortable. However, this tendency may cause problems because the learners do not always use the learning strategies appropriate for their performance development. While learners use many strategies to support their learning development, some are effective, and others are ineffective. Consequently, there are cases where the learners cannot interrelate their language knowledge and language use.

Furthermore, it has been found that the learners do not use social and organizational learning strategies, but frequently employ MPMES. Based on the Kruskal-Wallis test, there

existed significant mean differences with regard to MPMES in self-efficacious Balinese EFL learners. In addition, Spearman correlation analysis found MPMES to be the only strategy that correlates with learners' language knowledge and language use. This finding indicates that the Balinese EFL learners are more concerned about how to manage their mental and emotion strategies while learning, how they feel during the learning process, and how to enjoy the learning process. As they are mainly focused on the learning process, they rarely think about the results. Moreover, the learners state that in learning English, they focus more on communication.

Tables 23 and 24 show that there is no correlation between learners' beliefs, learning strategies, language knowledge, and language use. As mentioned in Table 17, positive significant correlations exist between language knowledge and language use. However, learners' language knowledge and language use do not have any correlation with learners' beliefs and learning strategies; that is, the stronger (or weaker) the learners' beliefs about learning, the more (or less) the learning strategies applied them, but this does not affect their language knowledge and language use.

Based on the qualitative aspects of the findings, it can be suggested that the learners have different perspectives in interpreting the role of self-efficacy, beliefs in language learning, and learning strategies on the interrelation between language knowledge and language use. While some believed that all these variables are correlated, others found no correlation between them.

Ima : *I think language knowledge, language use, and learning strategies are related to one another. But I don't know if self-efficacy and beliefs in learning are related with language knowledge and language use. I think those aspects are not related to the learners' language knowledge and language use. In my opinion, without knowledge, people will not be able to use the language properly. In using the language, the learners need to devise efficient strategies to make the learning process easier. This will make the learners understand and use the strategies appropriate for them to gain more knowledge about language and enable them to use the language with confidence.*

Soma : *Before we can use the language, it is important to gain language knowledge. We need different strategies to gain knowledge about language and to use the language.*

Putu : *Language knowledge is related to what we know about a language,*

for example, grammar and diction. The more language knowledge we have, the easier it is to apply it in the real life either in spoken or written form. There are many ways to learn English such as reading books, listening to music, and watching TV. The more we practice, the more we will be able to use the language. Moreover, if we have special talent or ability in learning language, we will master the language faster and become a fluent speaker.

Ciri : *Language knowledge and language use are interrelated. They support each other. A language can be easily used depending on the knowledge and ability we have. Learning strategy plays an important role as it refers to how to learn and understand a language.*

The transcriptions above show that the learners realize that language knowledge, language use, and learning strategy are related, but they do not know if beliefs in language learning are related with these variables. Mostly, the learners refer to grammar and vocabulary as part of language knowledge. Moreover, they mention that learning strategies are essential in learning development. There are many kinds of learning strategies: either the learners devise their own strategies or follow the existing ones. Ima, a speaking self-efficacious learner, stated that the learners need to devise their own strategies to ease their learning process. This will help the learners in understanding which learning strategies are appropriate for them. This type of learner is called a good language learner (Chamot & Rubin, 1994). The authors add that a good language learner cannot be described in terms of a single set of strategies, rather such learners are distinguished through their ability to understand and develop a personal set of effective strategies. Thus, the use of learning strategies cannot determine whether the learners are good language learners or not. However, it does not mean that the learners who use various types of learning strategies can be called good language learners. A good language learner is one who knows and understands what s/he needs, and what is good for her/his learning improvement, and can use her/his ability to create effective learning strategies.

Ima also added that the learning strategies created by the learners will help them find more about language knowledge and they will feel more confident in using the language. She realizes that the learners should understand what they lack, what they are good at, what they need, and their learning goal. Therefore, in the language learning process, the one who should

create learning strategies based on the learners' condition and situation is the learners themselves.

Soma mentioned that language knowledge is important for using the language and that different strategies are needed in dealing with language knowledge and language use. Different learning strategies improve learning differently; therefore, learners need to think and know their learning goal, then match it with various effective learning strategies to enhance their learning (Yeo & Fazio, 2018).

Putu mentioned that the more the learners practice, the more they will be able to use the language. Learners need much practice to learn to speak (Yahay & Sadegh, 2015). Both speaking and writing require the learners to practice because it is essential in developing the learners' abilities. The learners think that the more language knowledge they have, the better their language use. However, practice is needed to use knowledge in real life.

Another interesting finding is that talent or special ability has been mentioned as a factor influencing the use of language knowledge. Putu believe that having special ability or talent in learning benefit the learners in mastering the language knowledge faster and becoming a fluent speaker. This belief is in line with Taiwanese EFL learners who mentioned that the more they believed in their special ability to learn foreign languages, the more they enjoyed practicing English with their American friends (Yang, 1999).

In contrast to the aforementioned respondents who did not find any relationship between self-efficacy and beliefs about language learning with language knowledge, language use, and learning strategy, the following respondents found the variables to be related.

- Pradnya : *Language knowledge, language use, belief, and learning strategies are important for improving the learners' proficiency.*
- Arik : *I think language knowledge, language use, self-efficacy, belief in learning, and learning strategies influence one another. Language knowledge means knowing and understanding the grammar and vocabulary. Language knowledge can make people use the language. The learners will know how to use the correct grammar and vocabulary if they practice often. Self-efficacy and belief in learning are important, especially in language use. Self-efficacy and belief in learning will raise self-confidence, and once people have self-confidence, they can speak English properly without feeling nervous.*

Learning strategy affects the learners' proficiency. For example, suppose the learners' goal in learning English is to enhance their vocabulary and their learning strategies are reading books, looking the words in dictionary, etc., which are related to improving the vocabulary. In this case, we can say that the learning strategies are suitable for the learners' goal.

- Azka : *Language knowledge influences language use and belief in learning because language knowledge optimizes both variables. Learning strategies are used to increase language knowledge. When all components are developed, proficiency will also increase.*
- Ananta : *All components are interrelated. First, the learners need to have belief in their ability to learn a language. Then, they will gain language knowledge, and will decide what elements they need to learn to use the language fluently. They will then make a plan and devise their learning strategy. After gaining language knowledge, they will apply the knowledge to understand how the language is used. The learners' proficiency depends on each aspect mentioned above. If we have good language knowledge and learning strategy and we believe in our ability, we will have good proficiency.*
- Maya : *Language knowledge will result in language use because the more the language knowledge, the higher the language use. Higher language knowledge reflects better language use of the learners. Belief in learning motivates the learners to learn and to choose the appropriate learning strategy.*

This shows that the respondents above have different views and see self-efficacy and beliefs about language learning as factors motivating them to raise their self-confidence. The reasons as to why the learners have different perspectives about the role of self-efficacy, beliefs about language learning, and learning strategies in the interrelation between language knowledge and language use needs to be further investigated.

Furthermore, the learners mentioned that all these variables are related to proficiency because when the learners have high language knowledge, they choose the correct learning strategies and believe in their ability, which helps them gain language proficiency. Besides these variables, practice is also important in learning development, as mentioned by the respondents below.

- Purnama: *Language knowledge is related to the learners' mastery of the language. Language use is related to how the learners use the knowledge that they have mastered. Belief is related to the learners' opinions or feelings about the skills that they have mastered. Learning strategy is related to how the learners master the language. Language knowledge is related to language use because the use of language reflects the learners' language knowledge. Self-efficacy is*

important because when the learners have self-efficacy in learning, they will prefer to gain knowledge about the skills they like. For example, someone who likes writing will learn about writing and increase their ability in writing. However, writing ability does not depend only on the learners' self-efficacy because the right learning strategy, effort, and practice are also very important.

Gusti : *Language knowledge influences language use because if we have language knowledge, we will not face any problem with language use. However, belief in learning differs by individuals, so the learners will have different results. If someone believes in something and works hard, his/her effort and result may be different from those of other learners. When the learners believe in something but only think about reaching that goal without trying or putting in some effort and do not have any motivation, their belief is useless.*

Despite the relationship between self-efficacy and other language learning factors, some learners mention effort and practice as important factors that differentiate learners' development. As mentioned by Purnama and Gusti, learners cannot depend only on their self-efficacy or beliefs to make progress in language learning. Wondering about reaching a goal and believing are useless without practicing and making some effort. Learners need to spend much time practicing speaking and writing effectively to perform well.

Based on the interview and statistical analysis, a complicated relationship seems to exist between individual differences, language knowledge, and language use. There is a huge gap between the students' perception and the statistical results. Statistical results show that self-efficacy partially correlates with learning strategies, language knowledge, and language use. In addition, there exists a correlation between language knowledge and language use; however, the test results show, the learners' language knowledge does not always reflect in their language use. Moreover, there is no significant correlation between learners' beliefs and learning strategies and language knowledge and language use. Furthermore, there is a gap between the learners' perception regarding the interrelation between language knowledge and language use. Some learners stated that the correlation exists but others did not find any such relationship. Some learners are aware of the role self-efficacy, learners' beliefs, and learning strategies play in the interrelation; however, others do not know about it. The interview reveals contradictions among the learners' statements which may need to be investigated further.

5.4 Conclusion

This chapter concludes that there is a moderate to strong positive correlation between the learners' language knowledge and language use. However, despite the significant correlation, learners' language knowledge does not always get reflected in language use because having high scores in language knowledge does not guarantee that the learners will also gain scores high on language use. Some learners may interrelate their language knowledge and language use regardless of their self-efficacy but some others cannot do so. There are some cases in which the learners gain high scores in language knowledge but low scores in language use. In other cases, learners gain high scores in the language knowledge test and writing test, but obtain low scores in the speaking test. The learners' language knowledge cannot be reflected into language use due to the discrepancies caused by self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, and the learning strategies.

The following are the discrepancies in the Balinese EFL learners' individual differences that may inhibit the interrelation between language knowledge and language use. Self-efficacious learners behave differently regarding the correlation between language knowledge and language use (speaking and writing performance). Self-efficacy may not necessarily predict actual performance and though it motivates the learners, it can also make them overconfident. Speaking self-efficacy is weakly correlated with language knowledge (only vocabulary) and language use (only speaking performance). Writing self-efficacy does not correlate with language knowledge but is weakly correlated with language use (speaking and writing performance).

Another discrepancy is that speaking self-efficacy correlates significantly with learning strategies which focus more on speaking skills. Thus, the higher (or lower) the learners' self-efficacy in speaking, the more (less) frequently they use these strategies. In contrast, writing self-efficacy does not correlate with learning strategies.

Furthermore, self-efficacy has no significant correlation with learners' beliefs about language learning. Correlation could only be found between self-efficacy and beliefs about Learning Style Preference, with the latter having a positive significant correlation with speaking self-efficacy, and a negative significant correlation with writing self-efficacy.

Finally, a discrepancy occurs in the correlation between learners' beliefs about language learning and learning strategies and language knowledge and language use. Learners' beliefs, overall, does not have any correlation with language knowledge and language use except for Beliefs about Learning and Communication. As for learning strategies, only Mental Process and Managing Emotion Strategies had a weak significant correlation with language knowledge and writing performance. Other learning strategies did not correlate with language knowledge and language use. Thus, language learning development does not depend on the learners' beliefs in language learning and learning strategies.

CHAPTER VI
CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS
FOR FURTHER STUDIES

6.1 Conclusion

This chapter first presents the findings, conclusions, and implications of the study. It then discusses the limitations of the study, and offers future research recommendations. This study was an attempt to answer three research questions:

1. What is the Balinese EFL learners' self-efficacy regarding their productive English skills?
2. What is the Balinese EFL learners' beliefs about language learning and learning strategies? Whether their self-efficacy relates to and influences their beliefs about language learning and learning strategies?
3. What is the effect of self-efficacy, beliefs about language learning, and learning strategies on the interrelation between language knowledge and language use?

Regarding self-efficacy, beliefs in language learning, learning strategies, and the interrelation between language knowledge and language use, the Balinese learners show a new perspective in EFL learning. Figure 8 presents the conclusion of the research.

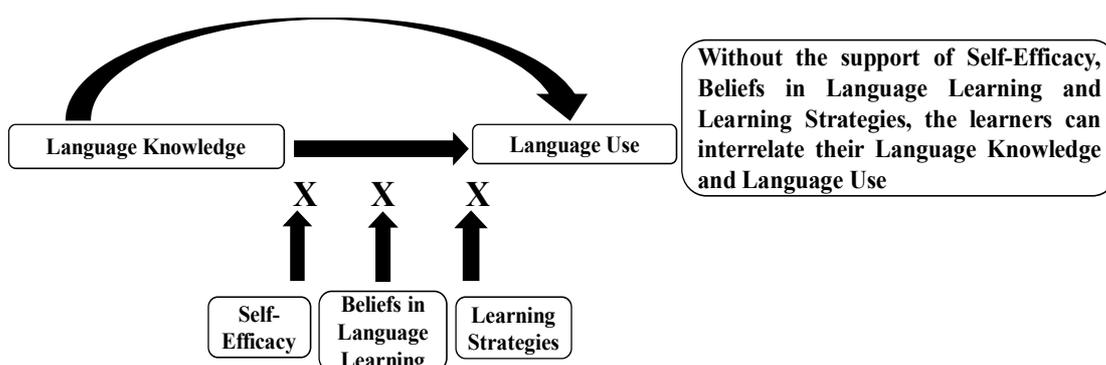


Figure 8. Conclusion of the Research

As Figure 8 shows, there hardly exists any correlation among the variables. Furthermore, self-efficacious learners behave differently with regard to the correlation. Self-efficacy, beliefs in language learning, and learning strategies may be important factors that

support the interrelation between language knowledge and language use, only if there do not exist any discrepancies in the variables. The discrepancies in the learners' self-efficacy, beliefs in language learning, and learning strategies inhibit the interrelation between language knowledge and language use. Based on the findings and analysis in Chapters IV and V, Figure 9 provides the possible reasons for the weak or no correlation among the variables and the potential factors that hinder the correlation.

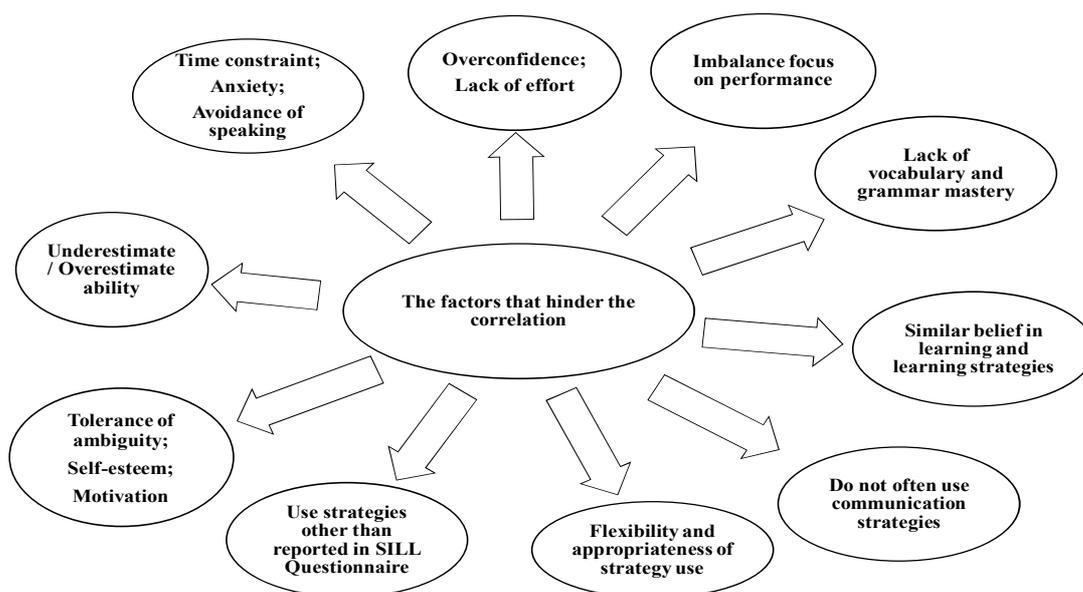


Figure 9. The possible reasons and the potential factors that hinder the correlation.

6.1.1 Balinese EFL Learners' Self-Efficacy and its Influence on Beliefs and Learning Strategies

The Balinese EFL learners hold different perspectives about their self-efficacy and are highly efficacious in their speaking and writing skills. The learners' self-efficacy only relates to what they think and feel about their ability, and does not represent their actual performance. Self-efficacy does not inhibit them from learning English and practicing the skills other than what they believe in.

Regarding the source of self-efficacy, the in-depth interview revealed that the learners are influenced by personality, previous education, and prior learning experience in

developing their self-efficacy. Furthermore, the extrovert and introvert personality of the learners also influence their self-efficacy.

In the case of speaking self-efficacious learners, strong beliefs about Learning Motivation and Expectation provides them with confidence, and when they feel confident about communicating, they do not pay attention to the grammatical structure of the language. They believe that speaking is a matter of communication and interaction. If their messages are being conveyed to and understood by the interlocutor, they believe themselves to be successful. Unlike the EFL learners in general, who are shy and hesitate to speak, the Balinese EFL learners are highly efficacious in speaking and writing. Moreover, the writing self-efficacious learners may also perform well in speaking. Due to their self-efficacy, the Balinese EFL learners are willing and do not hesitate to speak or produce output, no matter if their language knowledge level is low. This differentiates the Balinese EFL learners in terms of the effect of self-efficacy on language learning development.

Qualitatively, the results of the interview indicate that belief provides the Balinese EFL learners with confidence. Their belief in speaking encourages them to speak without thinking about the mistakes they could make. Their strong and positive beliefs enable them to enjoy the learning process. However, they cannot rely only on their belief if they want to improve their skills. In the interview, they mentioned that they are highly self-efficacious and motivated learners.

Self-efficacy plays a crucial role in the self-regulation of motivation. People motivate themselves and guide their actions anticipatorily by the exercise of forethought (Bandura, 1994). Despite receiving the same English education as other EFL learners through the same methods as used in other parts of Indonesia, the Balinese EFL learners have much more exposure to English due to the opportunities to study English provided by the island's tourism industry. This exposure encourages the learners to be self-efficacious in their productive English skills, and have strong belief about learning motivation and expectation and in learning preference. In addition, self-efficacy does not inhibit them from learning and using English and practicing the skills other than what they believe in. This signifies that their main motivation and expectation in learning English comes from their vision for future jobs,

economic status, and career in tourism that requires them to speak and write English fluently and accurately.

Previous research shows that the learners' self-efficacy can be changed, and the changes in self-efficacy may have a significant impact on the learners' cognition and motivation, as well as behavior, including performance (Ouweneel et al., 2008). However, the Balinese EFL learners showed unwillingness to change their self-efficacy because of factors such as their life vision, their likes and dislikes, and their feelings and personality. They believe their self-efficacy to be their motivation in learning and behave accordingly to achieve their goal.

As part of the individual differences, this research also investigated the learners' learning strategies. The Balinese EFL learners do not depend much on learning strategies to achieve performance, but rely on their self-efficacy. They do not choose the learning strategies based on their self-efficacy but rather opt for strategies which make the learning process easy and enjoyable. According to the empirical study, the type of self-efficacy possessed by the learners does not fully differentiate and reflect the learners' learning strategies. There is no significant difference between the self-efficacious groups in terms of learning strategies.

Learners need to choose appropriate learning strategies to improve their performance. Unlike previous research that found significant differences between the learning strategies used by the high and low self-efficacious learners, the findings of the present study showed that there is no significant difference between the two self-efficacious groups. This indicates that the learners choose similar learning strategies regardless of their self-efficacy. However, these learning strategies do not support the language learning development of self-efficacious learners, especially the speaking self-efficacious learners.

Thus, in the Balinese EFL learners' context, self-efficacy does not influence their learners' beliefs about language learning and learning strategies, but is crucial in terms of motivating them in their language learning process.

6.1.2 Discrepancies that Inhibit the Interrelation between Language Knowledge and Language Use

This research aimed to determine the effect of self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, and learning strategies on the interrelation between language knowledge and language use. Based on the statistical result, there is a moderate to strong positive correlation between the learners' language knowledge and language use; that is, a learner with high scores in language knowledge is likely to score high on language use and vice versa. The high or low scores in language knowledge and language use reflect whether they are high interrelated learners or low interrelated learners.

Despite the significant correlation, the learners' language knowledge may not always be reflected in language use. Self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, and learning strategies are individual differences that play important roles in language learning development, especially in motivating the learners. However, discrepancies in these variables inhibit the interrelation between language knowledge and language use. The discrepancies discussed in the present study are as follows:

1. Self-efficacious learners behave differently regarding the interrelation between language knowledge and language use

Though the Balinese EFL learners belong to one culture, have similar career goals and motivations to learn English, and receive same English education, they have different self-efficacies and academic backgrounds, and differ in their learning efforts, which differentiate their language knowledge and language use. The descriptive statistics show that the learners differ in their interrelation of language knowledge and language use. Some learners can interrelate their language knowledge and language use, while others cannot. Regardless of their self-efficacy, the interrelated learners can put their language knowledge into use. However, self-efficacious learners may not interrelate their knowledge with use.

2. Self-efficacy may not necessarily reflected in actual performance, and though motivating, it can cause overconfidence

This research found that self-efficacy does not predict the learners' actual performance and that the Balinese EFL learners cannot depend solely on their self-efficacy to achieve better performance. Though speaking self-efficacy has a correlation with language use, it only correlates with speaking performance. There is a big mismatch between the learners' self-efficacy and their actual performance, especially in the speaking self-efficacious group. While writing self-efficacy correlates with language use, signifying that writing self-efficacious learners can perform well in both speaking and writing, speaking self-efficacy correlates with only speaking performance. Self-efficacy is intertwined with many aspects of academic life, especially to improve learning. It is said that academic context can affect and be affected by academic performance, and can either promote or hinder student learning (Bandura, 1992; Pintrich, 2003; Zimmerman, 2000). Previous research mentioned that the self-efficacy best predicts performance (Ouweneel et al., 2013; Zimmerman, 2000); however, in the case of Balinese EFL learners, the learners' actual performance does not fully represent their self-efficacy. Some learners, especially the B-level learners, are able to match their self-efficacy with actual performance, but others are unable to reflect their self-efficacy through actual performance. Although self-efficacy is a good motivator for the learners, it has both positive and negative effects. Self-efficacy keeps the learners motivated, but it may cause them to become overconfident and too relaxed (Ouweneel et al., 2008), thus damaging their future performance.

3. Learners behave differently regarding the correlation between self-efficacy and learning strategies

Writing self-efficacy has no correlation with the learning strategies, whereas speaking self-efficacy is correlated significantly with the learning strategies relating to speaking skills. This results in an unbalanced development in the self-efficacious learners' performance. The frequency of strategies used, their appropriateness, context of the situation, and learners' goals are important factors and need to be considered in choosing and using the learning strategies. Inappropriate learning

strategies might cause discrepancies in the learning process and inhibit the progress. The Balinese EFL learners, regardless of their language knowledge and language use scores, apply many learning strategies without realizing whether these strategies are appropriate or support their development. Based on the interview analysis, the Balinese EFL learners choose the strategies that make the learning process enjoyable and make them feel comfortable. However, this tendency may cause problems because the learners do not always use the learning strategies appropriate for their performance development. Furthermore, the learners need to use their chosen learning strategies effectively, and to link those with other relevant and appropriate learning strategies. The interrelation between language knowledge and language use was assumed to be partly related to poorly utilized skills to choose the appropriate strategy and misuse of strategies. This suggests that no matter how useful a strategy is, it will not necessarily be suitable for all learners, and that the learners need to be aware not to choose inappropriate strategies that might prove counter-productive.

4. Self-efficacy does not correlate with learners' beliefs about language learning

Beliefs about Learning Style Preference is the only factor out of the six mentioned in the study that weakly correlates with self-efficacy either positively or negatively. Statistically, the correlation of just one out of the six factors does not signify an overall positive correlation between self-efficacy and learners' beliefs about language learning.

Based on the interview with the learners, it has become clear that having self-efficacy and a strong belief in learning are essential in motivating the learners and raising their self-confidence. However, besides believing, the learners also need to make more efforts and practice their skills.

5. Learning strategies do not match with learners' beliefs about language learning

The mismatch between the learners' learning strategies and their beliefs about language learning is another discrepancy. The learners' beliefs about language learning is related to their motivation and expectation to learn speaking and writing

English for the sake of their future career, jobs, and better economic situation. However, they used the Social and Organizational learning strategies the least frequently.

6. Learners' beliefs about language learning and learning strategies do not correlate with language knowledge and language use

Learners' beliefs about language learning and learning strategies do not have any correlation with language knowledge and language use; that is, differences in the learners' beliefs or learning strategies do not affect their language knowledge and language use.

Besides the above-mentioned factors based on the interview with the learners, other factors that influence the interrelation between language knowledge and language use are learning goals, feelings of the learners, and effort or practice. There is also a possibility of the learners using strategies other than those reported on the SILL or other similar inventories based on the context of the learning situation (Takeuchi et al., 2007). Finally, what determines the learning outcomes is not the frequency with which the learning strategies are used, but the flexibility of strategy use in a specific context. Cohen (1998) mentions that serious consideration needs to be given to the appropriateness of strategy use for each context.

A specified strategy is useful only when the strategy addresses the second language task at hand, which means that the strategy's relevance depends on the task demands and how the learners employ the strategy effectively and link it to other relevant strategies (Oxford & Schramm, 2007). The learners need to be taught the language and the proper strategy to become effective learners (Rubin et al., 2007). The learners will not easily find the most appropriate strategies and be successful unless they are aware of and select the most appropriate strategies based on some task, skill, and goal (Gu, 2003).

6.2 Implications

The findings of the current study have several implications for research on language teaching, learning, and practice of English education in the EFL learners' context.

First, this study found differences in the strategy use, learners' beliefs about language learning, and perspectives toward self-efficacy among the Balinese EFL learners. Previous research found out that self-efficacy affects how a person thinks, feels, acts, and is motivated, and is a mediator between people's beliefs and their behaviors, and their knowledge and actions (Bandura, 1994, 1997). Self-efficacy has been believed to make the learners more cognitively, behaviorally, and motivationally engage in their learning processes (Linnerbrink & Pintrich, 2003). It is also said to have a powerful influence on the learners' capability to perform specific tasks and influences the choice and direction of student behavior (Bandura, 1986). In the Balinese EFL learners' context, the findings of the present study partially support the existing theory. Irrespective of their self-efficacy level, The Balinese EFL learners have confidence and are motivated to learn. Self-efficacy indeed motivates the learners; however, it does not mediate learners' belief in language learning. In addition, self-efficacy does not fully correlate with learning strategies and does not influence the learners' capability and their choice in learning. Self-efficacy does not influence the learners' choice of strategies, and unless the learners choose appropriate strategies, it is unlikely that their performance will improve. A strong self-efficacy provides the learners with confidence; however, it can be a double-edged sword in that learners with high self-efficacy "may feel little need to invest much preparatory effort" (Bandura, 1994:394). When the learners feel confident about communicating, they do not pay attention to the grammatical structure of the language as they believe that speaking relates to communication and interaction. Self-efficacy and a strong belief about language learning are important in motivating the learners and raising their self-confidence, but making an effort and practicing the skills are essential for language development. Though self-efficacy may not influence and differentiate learners' beliefs about language learning and may not predict performance, it is crucial in motivating the learners in their language learning process.

Second, the findings suggest that the use of learning strategies and learners' beliefs are crucial; however, the learners also need to be concerned about the discrepancies that

might occur. Some studies found a significant positive relationship among learners' beliefs about language learning, learning strategies, and the learners' proficiency, while others did not. There are many possible explanations as to why the results in the Balinese EFL learners' context are different from what has been believed so far and why learners' beliefs about language learning and learning strategies have a weak or no relationship with proficiency. The first possible reason is the influence of other variables such as tolerance of ambiguity, self-esteem, risk-taking, field dependence/independence, and motivation which appear more prominent or important than strategy use (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992). A lack of item-choice in the SILL or other similar inventories is another reason (Takeuchi et al., 2007). Finally, what determines the learning outcomes is not only the frequency of using the language strategies, but also the flexibility of strategy used in a specific context, as mentioned by Cohen (1998). Besides self-efficacy and inappropriate learning strategies, other possible reason behind the insignificant correlation between those variables is the difference in the learners' awareness of their abilities; learners with speaking self-efficacy tend to be more focused on fluency, whereas learners with writing self-efficacy are more concerned about accuracy. Some more possible reasons are the different learning goals of the learners, the time they spend and the efforts they make in learning, and overconfidence that increases their chances of making errors.

Empirical evidence shows the presence of a complicated relationship between the learners' self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, and learning strategies and the interrelation between language knowledge and language use. Educators and learners need to focus on the individual differences and the learners' language knowledge to use the language. Thus, educators and curricula developers in the EFL countries should consider the findings of the current study to focus on the individual differences.

Furthermore, this study suggests that the learners should be aware of their self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, and the use of learning strategies to maintain their motivation to be successful learners. Pedagogically, the teachers also need to be aware of their students' individual differences in learning to help less successful language learners to succeed and to become confident learners. Once the learners become familiar with their ability, develop strong beliefs in learning, know and use many appropriate strategies,

and have opportunities to practice their knowledge, they may notice improvement in their language learning. The learners need to be encouraged to develop their personal repertoire of effective strategies that work for specific kinds of tasks and are suitable to achieve their learning goals, instead of forcing them to use one strategy or another.

To support their language learning development and to improve performance, self-efficacious learners (especially the speaking self-efficacious learners) need to choose appropriate learning strategies and avoid the inappropriate ones that may inhibit the learners' language learning development.

Based on the findings, this research suggests that self-efficacy needs to be controlled, appropriate learning strategies need to be chosen, positive beliefs about learning should be maintained, and practice should be done repeatedly and effectively. When the learners have higher motivation in learning, they will be able to interrelate their language knowledge and language use. Teachers need to guide and show the learners how to invent or apply the appropriate strategies to develop their skills and knowledge, and to use the learning strategies effectively to face different academic tasks.

6.3 Limitations of the study and recommendations for further research

Based on the findings, the current study has the following recommendations for future research. The present study collected data for eighty-six EFL learners' self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, and learning strategies through questionnaires, performance tests, and interviews. Thus, to provide more comprehensive understanding of the role of EFL learner' self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, and learning strategies, more studies need to be carried out using other methodologies such as observation, diaries, or longitudinal procedures. In addition, there is a need to widen the scope of self-efficacy research by including a large number of participants, receptive language skills, and by quantitatively analyzing self-efficacy level.

This research tried to find the correlation among the individual differences such as self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, and learning strategies and the interrelation between language knowledge and language use. The analysis resulted in the finding of several factors that need to be investigated further. For example, the contradictions

that exist among the respondents' comments may be investigated further to find the different perspectives of learners about the role of individual differences in the interrelation between language knowledge and language use.

Considering that most previous studies found the existence of correlations among these variables, it would be helpful to measure self-efficacy, learners' beliefs about language learning, and learning strategies and how they correlate with language knowledge and language use from another perspective. Further, there must be other factors that cause discrepancies in these variables, which were not focused in this study. Further research may focus on other individual differences (anxiety, self-esteem, ambiguity, willingness to communicate) and external factors (diverse opportunities, frequency of using language and learning strategies, prior learning experience, duration of the study, time spent in learning, learners' effort) that influence the interrelation between language knowledge and language use.

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Appendix 1. Request for Permission to Conduct Research



YAMAGUCHI UNIVERSITY
1677-1 Yoshida, Yamaguchi 753-8511 Japan

July 3, 2018

To

Prof. Dr. Ni Luh Sutjiati Beratha, M.A
Dean of Faculty of Arts Udayana University
Denpasar, Bali

Request for Permission to Conduct Research in Faculty of Arts Udayana University

Dear Prof. Dr. Ni Luh Sutjiati Beratha, M.A,

My name is Putu Ayu Asty Senja Pratiwi, I am currently enrolled in The Graduate School of East Asian Studies Yamaguchi University Japan and now in the process of writing my dissertation under the direction of my supervisor Prof. Yuri Ishii, M.A. Ph.D. The research study I wish to conduct for my Doctoral thesis is "Language Knowledge and Language Use of Balinese EFL Learners: Between Belief, Proficiency and Learning Strategies".

I would like to ask your permission to allow me to conduct a research study to 70 – 100 students of the 5th semester of the English Department at your institution Faculty of Arts, Udayana University. If approval is granted, the students will be given a consent form to be signed and participate the research. The students will complete the questionnaire, interview, speaking and writing tasks in a classroom after class. The data collection process should take no longer than one month.

There will be no risk of any kind involved in taking the data except for the time spent on answering the questions, the interview process and the task assigning to the participant. All data will be kept confidential and only for academic purposes. The names of the

respondents will be anonymous and will not be appear in the dissertation. No costs will be incurred by either the department, the faculty or the individual participants.

The questionnaire, interview and the result of the research only will be used for my research study and will not be sold or use with any compensated or curriculum development activities. A copy of my completed doctoral thesis will be sent to your attention upon completion of the study.

Your approval to conduct this study will be greatly appreciated. Thank you in advance for your interest and assistance with this research. Please let me know if you have any questions or any concerns. If these are acceptable terms and conditions, please indicate so by replying to me through e-mail: senja.dananjaya@yahoo.com

My most sincere appreciation to your time and help.

Best wishes,



Putu Ayu Asty Senja Pratiwi

The Graduate School of East Asian Study Yamaguchi University Japan

Approved by:

Date

3/Jul./2018



Prof. Yuri Ishii, M.A. Ph.D

Yamaguchi University Japan

Appendix 2. Approval Letter to Conduct a Research



KEMENTERIAN RISET, TEKNOLOGI, DAN PENDIDIKAN TINGGI
UNIVERSITAS UDAYANA
FAKULTAS ILMU BUDAYA

Kampus Denpasar: Jalan Nias No.13 Sanglah, Denpasar 80114 Bali,
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SURAT IZIN

Nomor : 1940/UN14.2.1/LT/2018

Berdasarkan surat Permohonan Ijin Penelitian dari mahasiswa program doktor Yamaguchi University, maka yang bertanda tangan di bawah ini Dekan Fakultas Ilmu Budaya Universitas Udayana :

Nama : Prof. Dr. Ni Luh Sutjiati Beratha, M.A.

NIP : 195909171984032002

Pangkat/ Gol. : IV/e/ Guru Besar

dengan ini memberikan izin kepada :

Nama : Putu Ayu Asty Senja Pratiwi

Judul : *Language Knowledge and Language Use of Balinese EFL Learners:
Between Belief, Proficiency and Learning Strategies*

untuk melaksanakan penelitian yang berkaitan dengan disertasinya di Prodi Sastra Inggris Fakultas Ilmu Budaya Universitas Udayana.

Surat izin ini dibuat untuk dapat dipergunakan sebagaimana mestinya.

Denpasar, 6 Juli 2018

Dekan,


Ni Luh Sutjiati Beratha
NIP 195909171984032002

Tembusan:

1. Koorprodi Sastra Inggris FIB
2. Yang bersangkutan
3. Arsip

Appendix 3. Informed Consent Form



YAMAGUCHI UNIVERSITY

1677-1 Yoshida, Yamaguchi 753-8511
Japan

Language Knowledge and Language Use of Balinese EFL Learner: Between Belief, Proficiency and Learning Strategies.

Informed Consent Form

Dear students,

You are invited to participate in this research study. The following information is provided in order to help you make an informed decision whether or not to participate. If you have any questions please do not hesitate to ask.

Participation in this study will require approximately for several days and is not considered a part of any course you are taking at the English Department, Udayana University. During the research you will be asked to fill in questionnaires around 15 – 20 minutes, speaking and writing task for 30 minutes, participate in language knowledge and language use task and interview to correlate your language knowledge and language use to test your belief, measure your proficiency and explore your learning strategies in English learning process. At the interview session, 10 – 15 students will be selected for 10 minutes interview. The time arrangement for the interview can be negotiated and the interview will be recorded for the academic purpose in order to avoid mistake and to re-check the reliability.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. Note that if you choose to participate, your information will be held in strict confidence and will have no bearing on your academic standing in current or future courses. All the information will be confidential and anonymously used in my research. Although you are required to write down your name on the questionnaires, the tasks and the interview, you will not be identified and your personal results will remain confidential when the research is published. The reason why you are required to write down your name is to help with the organization of information and kept in a folder with your name on it. Your folder will be kept in a locked cabinet in my office in Yamaguchi University. It will only be used for the research and be kept until the research has been completed. The information obtained in the study may be published in scientific journals or presented at scientific meetings but your identity will be kept strictly confidential. You may voluntarily decide whether or not to participate in the research. If you want to withdraw at any time, you will not be treated with prejudice or suffer from any negative consequences. If you want to participate in the research, I sincerely appreciate your cooperation and consideration.

If you would like further information about this project, or if you have any question, please contact by e-mail or by phone.

Principal Investigator: Putu Ayu Asty Senja Pratiwi.

Ph.D student in The Graduate School of East Asian Studies at Yamaguchi University Japan.

Phone: (+81) 9073732501 / (+62) 87866987980

Email: senja.dananjaya@yahoo.com

Appendix 4. Voluntary Consent Form

I have read and understand the information on the form and I consent to volunteer to be a subject in this study. I understand that my responses are completely confidential and that I have the right to withdraw at any time. I have received an unsigned copy of this informed Consent Form to keep in my possession.

Name _____

Signature _____

Phone number _____

Email address _____

I certify that I have explained to the above individual the nature and purpose, the potential benefits, and possible risks associated with participating in this research study, have answered any questions that have been raised, and have witnessed the above signature.

Date:

Investigator's Signature



Putu Ayu Asty Senja Pratiwi

If you would like further information about this project, or if you have any questions, please contact by e-mail or by phone (Contact information listed below).

Principal Investigator: Putu Ayu Asty Senja Pratiwi.

Ph.D student in The Graduate School of East Asian Studies Yamaguchi University Japan.

Phone: 08124636755 / (+81) 9073732501

Email: senja.dananjaya@yahoo.com

Appendix 5. Self-Efficacy Questionnaire Assessment

INTERACTION			
	Spoken Interaction	Written Interaction	
	<p>I can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar topics and activities.</p> <p>I can handle very short social exchanges, even though I can't usually understand enough to keep the conversation going myself.</p>	<p>I can write short, simple notes and messages relating to matters in areas of immediate need.</p> <p>I can write a very simple personal letter, for example thanking someone for something.</p>	
	<p>I can interact in a simple way provided the other person is prepared to repeat or rephrase things at a slower rate of speech and help me formulate what I'm trying to say.</p> <p>I can ask and answer simple questions in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics.</p>	<p>I can write a short, simple postcard, for examples sending holiday greetings.</p> <p>I can fill in forms with personal details, for example entering my name, nationality and address on a hotel registration form.</p>	
	<p>I can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken.</p> <p>I can enter unprepared into conversation on topics that are familiar, of personal interest or pertinent to everyday life (e.g. family, hobbies, work, travel and current events).</p>	<p>I can write personal letters describing experiences and impressions.</p>	
	<p>I can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible.</p> <p>I can take an active part in discussion in familiar contexts, accounting for and sustaining my views.</p>	<p>I can write letters highlighting the personal significance of events and experiences.</p>	

<p>I can take part effortlessly in any conversation or discussion and have a good familiarity with idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms.</p> <p>I can express myself fluently and convey finer shades of meaning precisely.</p> <p>If I do have a problem I can backtrack and restructure around the difficulty so smoothly that other people are hardly aware of it.</p>		
<p>I can express myself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions.</p> <p>I can use language flexibly and effectively for social and professional purposes.</p> <p>I can formulate ideas and opinions with precision and relate my contribution skilfully to those of other speakers</p>	<p>I can express myself with clarity and precision, relating to the addressee flexibly and effectively in an assured, personal, style.</p>	

PRODUCTION			
	Spoken Production		
	Written Production		
	<p>I can use a series of phrases and sentences to describe in simple terms my family and other people, living conditions, my educational background and my present or most recent job</p>		
	<p>I can use simple phrases and sentences to describe where I live and people I know.</p>	<p>I can write simple isolated phrases and sentences.</p>	

I can use a series of phrases and sentences to describe in simple terms my family and other people, living conditions, my educational background and my present or most recent job	I can write a series of simple phrases and sentences linked with simple connectors like „and“, „but“ and „because“.	
I can use simple phrases and sentences to describe where I live and people I know.	I can write simple isolated phrases and sentences.	
I can present clear, detailed descriptions on a wide range of subjects related to my field of interest. I can explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.	I can write clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects related to my interests. I can write an essay or report, passing on information or giving reasons in support of or against a particular point of view.	
I can connect phrases in a simple way in order to describe experiences and events, my dreams, hopes & ambitions. I can briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans. I can narrate a story or relate the plot of a book or film and describe my reactions.	I can write straightforward connected text on topics, which are familiar, or of personal interest.	
I can present a clear, smoothly-flowing description or argument in a style appropriate to the context and with an effective logical structure which helps the recipient to notice and remember significant points.	I can write clear, smoothly flowing text in an appropriate style. I can write complex letters, reports or articles, which present a case with an effective logical structure, which helps the recipient to notice and remember significant points. I can write summaries and reviews of professional or literary works.	
I can present clear, detailed descriptions of complex subjects integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion	I can express myself in clear, well-structured text, expressing points of view at some length. I can write detailed expositions of complex subjects in an essay or a report, underlining what I consider to be the salient issues. I can write different kinds of texts in a style appropriate to the reader in mind.	

Appendix 6. Self-Efficacy Interview Question

Name :

Age :

Email address :

Phone number :

Interview schedule

Interviewee: _____

Date: _____ Duration: _____

All the data above will be kept confidential and only for the research purpose only. Only the researcher herself can access to the data of the participant.

Interview Questions about Self-Efficacy

1. What is the meaning of self-efficacy?
Apa arti self-efficacy/ efikasi diri?
2. What is your self-efficacy regarding the productive language skills of speaking and writing?
Apa self-efficacy/ efikasi diri anda terhadap kemampuan Bahasa produktif speaking dan writing anda?
3. Why do you have self-efficacy in speaking/writing?
Kenapa anda memiliki self-efficacy/ efikasi diri dalam speaking / writing?
4. What characteristics do you have and what is the reason that made you think you are speaking/ writing efficacious learners?
Apa karakteristik yang anda punya dan apa alasannya yang membuat anda percaya/yakin bahwa anda memiliki efikasi diri di speaking/writing?
5. Do you think your self-efficacy is related to your actual performance?
Apakah anda pikir bahwa keyakinan anda terhadap keahlian yang anda miliki dalam berbahasa Inggris berhubungan dengan keahlian anda yang sebenarnya?

Appendix 7. Adapted from BALLI (Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory)

Name : Age :
 Self-Efficacy : Speaking / Writing Email :
 TOEFL/ English Proficiency Score : Phone Number :

Below are beliefs that some people have about learning foreign languages. Read each statement and then decide if you: (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) neither agree nor disagree, (4) agree, (5) strongly agree.

There are no right or wrong answers. We are simply interested in your opinions and ask your honesty to answer based on yourself. Please mark each one based on how true the belief statement your belief in learning.

Belief Statements	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1. It is easier to learn speaking than writing					
2. Some people have a special ability for learning a foreign language					
3. I think my speaking skill is better than my writing skill					
4. English is: - a very difficult language - a difficult language - a language of medium difficulty - an easy language - a very easy language					
5. I believe that I will learn English speaking very well					
6. I believe that I will learn English writing very well					

7. People from Bali Island are good at learning foreign languages					
8. People from Indonesia are good at learning foreign languages					
9. It is important to speak English with an excellent pronunciation					
10. It is necessary to know about English-speaking cultures in order to speak English					
11. I shouldn't say anything in English until I can say it correctly					
12. It is best to learn English in an English-speaking country					
13. I enjoy practicing English with the native speaker					
14. I have a special ability for learning foreign languages					
15. The most important part of learning a foreign language is learning vocabulary words					
16. It is important to repeat and practice a lot					
17. I feel timid speaking English with other people					
18. I feel timid speaking English with native speaker					
19. The most important part of learning a foreign language is learning the grammar					
20. If I learn English very well, I will have better opportunities for a good job					
21. People who speak English fluently are very intelligent					
22. It is easier Reading and Listening English than Speaking and Writing					
23. I like to talk with native speaker					

24. I brainstorm, my ideas before I start to write					
25. I pay attention to the contexts and meaning rather than to the grammatical pattern					
26. It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one					
27. People who are good at mathematics or science are not good at learning foreign languages					
28. It's OK to guess if you don't know a word in English					
29. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages					
30. If in the beginning students are permitted to make errors in English, it will be difficult for them to be revised later on					
31. If in the beginning students are permitted to make errors in English, it will be difficult for them to speak correctly later on					
32. It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language					
33. It is important to learn English from song and movie					
34. Learning a foreign language is different than learning other academic subjects					
35. The most important part of learning English is learning how to translate from my language or from my native language to English					
36. People who speak English fluently are very intelligent					
37. I want to learn Speaking very well					
38. I want to learn Writing very well					
39. Learning English need a lot of memorizing					
40. I want to have native speakers friends					

Appendix 8

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

R. Oxford, 1990

1. Never or almost never true of me
2. Rarely
3. Sometimes
4. Often
5. Always

1. I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English. _____
2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them _____
3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word. _____
4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used. _____
5. I use rhymes to remember new English words. _____
6. I use flashcards to remember new English words. _____
7. I physically act out new English words. _____
8. I review English lesson often. _____
9. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign. _____
10. I say or write new English words several times. _____
11. I try to talk like native English speakers. _____
12. I practice the sounds of English. _____
13. I use the English words I know in different ways. _____
14. I start the conversation in English. _____
15. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English. _____
16. I read for pleasure in English. _____
17. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English. _____
18. I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully. _____
19. I look for words in my own language that similar to new words in English _____
20. I try to find patterns in English. _____
21. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand _____
22. I try not to translate word-for-word. _____
23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English. _____

24. I like to learn English through listening English songs _____
25. When I listen to English songs, I try to catch the lyric _____
26. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses. _____
27. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures _____
28. I make up new words if do not know the right ones in English. _____
29. I read English without looking up every new word. _____
30. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English. _____
31. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing _____
32. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.
33. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better _____
34. I pay attention when someone is speaking English. _____
35. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English. _____
36. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English. _____
37. I look for people I can talk to in English. _____
38. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English _____
39. I have clear goals for improving my English skills. _____
40. I think about my progress in learning English. _____
41. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English _____
42. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake _____
43. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English. _____
44. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or English. _____
45. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary. _____
46. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English _____
47. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the person to slow down or say it again. _____
48. I ask my friends to correct me when I talk. _____
49. I ask my English teachers to correct me when I talk. _____
50. I ask English native speakers to correct me when I talk. _____
51. I practice English with other students _____
52. I ask for help from English speakers. _____
53. I ask questions in English. _____
54. I try to find chance to attend general lectures, seminars, conference in English outside of my campus activity _____
55. I learn English through discussion with friends _____

Appendix 9. DIALANG Test

Welcome to DIALANG

Welcome to DIALANG's on-line diagnostic language testing system. DIALANG will help you to discover how good you are in reading, listening, writing, vocabulary or grammar, and how you can improve. It will also help you to assess and understand your own language abilities.

The PROCEDURE

The DIALANG system consists of several stages. Click on the image below to find out what each stage is about. Press the Forward button to go to the first stage.

Placement Test

This test is used to estimate the size of your vocabulary in the test language. It is used to determine which test items to present to you subsequently for an assessment of your language level.

In the test, you will be presented with a collection of 'words', some of which are real, and some of which are invented.

All the 'words' are verbs, for example, 'to speak', 'to run', 'to eat', and so on.

For each word, you must press the 'Yes' button if you think the word exists. If you think it is an invented word, press the 'No' button.

You do not have to take the placement test, and you may abandon it part way through, but if you do abandon it, you may later get a test which is too hard or too easy. Therefore we strongly advise you to finish the test.

Placement test feedback

Your score: 785

901 - 1000	People who score at this level are typically advanced learners, with a very substantial vocabulary. Learners at this level are usually fully functional, and have little difficulty with reading, though they may be less good at listening.
601 - 900	
401 - 600	
201 - 400	
101 - 200	
0 - 100	

DIALANG Test Results

Your test result suggests that you are at level B2 in vocabulary on the Council of Europe scale.

Appendix 10. Speaking Test

Interactive Interview Questions

Please introduce yourself.

1. What do you do in your free time?
2. Can you describe the most favorite past time?
3. Can you tell me about your ambition (in work, study and your future life)
4. Which one do you think better, learning something through reading books or surfing at the internet?
5. Can you explain about the tourist attraction in Bali Island?
6. Can you tell me about the means of transportation in the place you live in now?
7. Can you differentiate the way of living in a town and in a village?
8. If you have a chance to study abroad for exchange program, where will you go and why?
9. What do you think of homeless and unemployment? The causes and the problems raised by it.
10. Can you explain about the problems of city traffic?
11. Can you differentiate between first class sport and mass sports?
12. Can you explain what the meaning of long-life education is?

Appendix 11. Writing Test

There are two topics each at the writing part 1 and part 2. Choose only one topic in each part and you are given 30 minutes to do the task for each topic.

Writing Part 1

- A. Your English friend is coming to you for a month. S/he asks you about the tourist objects in your island. Write a letter and inform her about the following:
- What are the tourist objects?
 - Where are the location? How to go there?
 - What is the history?
- B. Last week you saw a new film. Write a letter about the film to your English friend and speak about the following:
- Write about the film (story, location, actors ...)
 - Why you liked / did not like the film
 - Where you like watching films: in the cinema, or at home on TV/DVD (why)
 - If you prefer watching films alone or together with others (why)

Writing Part 2

- A. A survey is conducted in your country about working/studying abroad. Write and mention the following:
- What (purpose, aim) motivates people in your country to go and live abroad
 - What age groups typically travel and to what countries
 - How do you think the experiences gained abroad influence the career opportunities of those who come back home
 - How do you think the situation of working/studying abroad will develop in the future
- B. According to an internet site, schools in the 22nd century might be digital/virtual. Education will mainly be performed with the help of electronic communication. Write about the following:
- In your opinion how you can study on your own (readings, homework)
 - What subjects are possible/impossible to study this way (why)
 - How the teacher-student / student-student relationships could change
 - What other consequences this future education form may entail

Appendix 12. In-Depth Interview Question

Name :
Age :
Self-Efficacy : Speaking / Writing
Email address :
Phone number :

Interview schedule

Interviewee: _____ Intended duration: _____ minutes
Date: _____ Interview began: _____
Location: _____ Interview finished: _____
Actual duration: _____ minutes

All the data above will be kept confidential and only for the research purpose only. Only the researcher herself can access to the data of the participant.

Interview Questions about students' learning experiences

1. Why do you want to learn English?
2. How long have you been learning English?
3. How many hours of English class do you have every week?
4. How many hours do you study English everyday (outside in university)
5. Have you travelled to the other countries and English is the language for communication during your stay? If yes, where?
6. Have you ever lived in English speaking countries for more than one months?
Where?
How long?
For what purpose?
7. Tell me about your past experience in learning English!
8. Tell me about your current experience in learning English in the university!
9. How do you evaluate your English ability in speaking and writing?
10. Is there any occasion where English is use outside of the university? (E.g. Part time job, etc.)
11. What do you find most difficult about learning English?
12. What are the benefit that you would have if you become fluent in English.?
13. What can your teachers/ university do to help you to learn English more effectively?
14. Do you have any problems in speaking and writing in English?
15. Are there any classes that impressed you the most? Why?

Interview Questions about Self-Efficacy and Belief in Learning

1. What is your self-efficacy in learning English regarding your productive language skills?
2. Why and how did you choose your self-efficacy?
3. What do you believe in your language learning?
4. What do you believe in your speaking and writing skill?
5. Which one is more difficult, speaking or writing?
6. What are the differences between speaking and writing?
7. What do you believe as the most important skill in English language learning? Why?
8. Do you think your belief in learning English is related to your actual performance?

Interview question about Learning Strategies

1. What are the learning strategies that you often use? Why?
2. What are the learning strategies do you use least? Why?
3. Do you think learning strategies can help you to learn English more effectively?
4. Are there any other learning strategies you have found to be effective?
5. What could your school or your teachers do to help you use learning strategies more effectively?
6. What language learning strategies you found most useful for learning English (key strategies)?
7. What have you found most difficult about learning English?
8. Which strategies have you used to help overcome these difficulties?
9. Do you think your learning strategy is related to your performance?

Interview question about Language Knowledge and Language Use

1. According to you what is the meaning of language knowledge and language use?
2. Do you think the learner who master grammar and have abundant vocabulary can speak English fluently and accurately?
3. What is the role of language knowledge in communication?
4. According to you, what is the relation of language knowledge and language use?
5. According to you, what is the meaning of proficient user?
6. According to you, is there any relationship between your mastery in language knowledge and your language use?
7. Do you think self-efficacy, belief in learning, learning strategy, language knowledge and language use have a connection/ relation one another?

Appendix 13. Rubrics (Adapted from CEFR)

Speaking Rubric

LEVEL	Range	Fluency	Accuracy	Interaction	Coherence	General Linguistics Range	Vocabulary Range
C2	Shows great flexibility reformulating ideas in differing linguistic forms, to give emphasis, to differentiate and to eliminate ambiguity. Has a good command of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms	Can express him/herself spontaneously at length with a natural colloquial flow, avoiding or backtracking around any difficulty so smoothly that the interlocutor is hardly aware of it	Maintains consistent grammatical control of complex language, even while attention is otherwise engaged (e.g. in forward planning, in monitoring others' reactions).	Can interact with ease and skill, picking up and using non-verbal effortlessly. Can interweave his/her contribution into the joint discourse with fully natural turn taking, referencing, allusion making etc.	Can create coherent and cohesive discourse making full and appropriate use of a variety of organisational patterns and a wide range of connectors and other cohesive devices.	Can exploit a comprehensive and reliable mastery of a very wide range of language to formulate thoughts precisely, give emphasis, differentiate and eliminate ambiguity. No signs of having to restrict what he/she wants to say.	Has a good command of a very broad lexical repertoire including idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms; shows awareness of connotative levels of meaning. Consistently correct and appropriate use of vocabulary.
C1	Has a good command of a broad range of language; express him/herself clearly in an appropriate style on a wide range of topics	Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously, almost effortlessly. Only a conceptually difficult subject can hinder a	Consistently maintains a high degree of grammatical accuracy; errors are rare, difficult to spot and generally corrected when they do occur.	Can select a suitable phrase from a readily available range of discourse functions	Can produce clear, smoothly flowing, well-structured speech, showing controlled use of organisational patterns,	Can select an appropriate formulation from a broad range of language to express him/herself clearly, without having to restrict	Has a good command of a broad lexical repertoire; idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms. Occasional minor slips, no

	without any restriction	natural, smooth flow of language.			connectors and cohesive devices.	what he/she wants to say.	significant errors.
B2	Has a sufficient range; able to give clear descriptions, express viewpoints on most general topics, without much conspicuous searching for words, using some complex sentence	Can produce stretches of language with a fairly even tempo; although he/she can be hesitant as he or she searches for patterns and expressions, there are few noticeably long pauses.	Shows a relatively high degree of grammatical control. Does not make errors which cause misunderstanding, and can correct most of his/her mistakes.	Can initiate discourse, take turn and end when appropriate; the discussion along on familiar ground confirming comprehension, inviting others in, etc.	Can use a limited number of cohesive devices to link his/her utterances into clear, coherent discourse, though there may be some "jumpiness" in a long contribution	Can express clearly. Able to give clear descriptions, express viewpoints and develop arguments. Has a sufficient range of language to describe unpredictable situations, explain the main points in an idea and express thoughts	Has a good range of vocabulary in most general topics. Vary formulation to avoid repetition, lexical gaps still cause hesitation. Lexical accuracy is high, confusion and incorrect word choice do not hinder communication.
B1	Has enough language, sufficient vocabulary, express with some hesitation and circumlocutions on topics such as family, hobbies and interests, work, travel.	Can keep going comprehensibly, even though pausing for grammatical and lexical planning and repair is very evident, especially in longer stretches of free production.	Uses reasonably accurately a repertoire of frequently used "routines" and patterns associated with more predictable situations.	Can initiate, maintain and close simple face-to-face conversation on familiar topics. Can repeat back part of what someone has said	Can link a series of shorter, discrete simple elements into a connected, linear sequence of points.	Has enough language, sufficient vocabulary, some hesitation and circumlocutions on topics such as family, hobbies and interests, work, travel, and current events, lexical limitations cause repetition	Has a sufficient vocabulary with some circumlocutions on most topics in everyday life. Good control of elementary vocabulary major errors still occur when expressing more complex thoughts or in

						and difficulty with formulation	unfamiliar topics.
A2	Uses basic sentence patterns with memorized phrases, groups of a few words and formulae in order to communicate limited information in simple everyday situations.	Can make him/herself understood in very short utterances, even though pauses, false starts and reformulation are very evident	Uses some simple structures correctly, but still systematically makes basic mistakes.	Can answer questions and respond to simple statements. Can indicate when he/she is following but is rarely able to understand enough to keep conversation going of his/her own accord	Can link groups of words with simple connectors like "and," "but" and "because".	Has a repertoire of basic language, can deal with everyday situations with predictable content; will generally have to compromise the message and search for words. Can produce brief everyday expressions. Can use basic sentence patterns and communicate with memorised phrases, about themselves and other people, what they do, places, possessions etc. Has a limited repertoire of short memorised phrases; frequent breakdowns and misunderstanding	Has sufficient vocabulary to conduct routine, everyday transactions involving familiar situations and topics. Has a sufficient vocabulary for the expression of basic communicative needs. Has a sufficient vocabulary for coping with simple survival needs. Can control a narrow repertoire dealing with concrete everyday needs
A1	Has a very basic	Can manage very short,	Shows only limited control of	Can ask and answer	Can link words or groups of		Has a basic vocabulary

	repertoire of words and simple phrases related to personal details and particular concrete situations.	isolated, mainly prepackaged utterances, with much pausing to search for expressions, to articulate less familiar words, and to repair communication.	a few simple grammatical structures and sentence patterns in a memorized repertoire	questions about personal details. Can interact in a simple way, communication is totally dependent on repetition, rephrasing.	words with very basic linear connectors like "and" or "then".	Has a very basic range of simple expressions about personal details and needs of a concrete type.	repertoire of isolated words and phrases related to particular concrete situations.
--	--	---	---	---	---	---	---

Writing Rubric (Adapted from CEFR)

LEVEL	Range	Accuracy	Coherence	General Linguistics Range	Vocabulary Range	Overall	Creative Writing
C2	Shows great flexibility reformulating ideas in differing linguistic forms, to give emphasis, to differentiate and to eliminate ambiguity. Also has a good command of idiomatic expressions	Maintains consistent grammatical control of complex language, even while attention is otherwise engaged (e.g. in forward planning, in monitoring others' reactions).	Can create coherent and cohesive discourse making full and appropriate use of a variety of organisational patterns and a wide range of connectors and other cohesive devices.	Can exploit a comprehensive and reliable mastery of a very wide range of language to formulate thoughts precisely, give emphasis, differentiate and eliminate ambiguity. No signs of having to restrict what he/she wants to say.	Has a good command of a very broad lexical repertoire including idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms; shows awareness of connotative levels of meaning Consistently correct and	Can write clear, smoothly flowing, complex texts in an appropriate and effective style and a logical structure which helps the reader to find significant points Native Like writing style	Can write clear, smoothly flowing, and fully engrossing stories and descriptions of experience in a style appropriate to the genre adopted

	and colloquialisms				appropriate use of vocabulary.		
C1	Has a good command of a broad range of .language allowing him/her to select a formulation to express him/herself clearly in an appropriate style on a wide range of general, academic, professional or leisure topics without having to restrict what he/she wants to say.	Consistently maintains a high degree of grammatical accuracy; errors are rare, difficult to spot and generally corrected when they do occur.	Can produce clear, smoothly flowing, well-structured speech, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.	Can select an appropriate formulation from a broad range of language to express him/herself clearly, without having to restrict what he/she wants to say.	Has a good command of a broad lexical repertoire allowing gaps to be readily overcome with circumlocutions ; little obvious searching for expressions or avoidance strategies. Good command of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms. Occasional minor slips, but no significant vocabulary errors.	Can write clear, well-structured texts of complex subjects, expanding and supporting points of view, and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion. Can express him/herself with clarity and precision, flexibly and effectively in personal correspondence ,including emotional, allusive and joking usage.	Can write clear, detailed, well-structured and developed descriptions and imaginative texts in an assured, personal, natural style appropriate to the reader in mind
B2	Has a sufficient range of language to be able to give clear descriptions,	Shows a relatively high degree of grammatical control. Does not make errors which cause misunderstanding	Can use a limited number of cohesive devices to link his/her utterances	Can express him/herself clearly and without much sign of having to restrict what he/she wants to	Has a good range of vocabulary for matters connected to his field and most general topics?	Can write clear, detailed texts on a variety of subjects related to his field of interest, synthesising	Can write clear, detailed descriptions of real or imaginary events and experiences

	express viewpoints on most general topics, without much conspicuous searching for words, using some complex sentence forms to do so	, and can correct most of his/her mistakes.	into clear, coherent discourse, though there may be some "jumpiness" in a long contribution	say. Has a sufficient range of language to give clear descriptions, express viewpoints and develop arguments without much conspicuous searching for words, using some complex sentence forms to do so. Can describe unpredictable situations, explain the main points in an idea or problem with reasonable precision and express thoughts on abstract or cultural topics.	Can vary formulation to avoid frequent repetition, but lexical gaps can still cause hesitation and circumlocution. Lexical accuracy is generally high, though some confusion and incorrect word choice does occur without hindering communication.	and evaluating information and arguments from a number of sources Can express news and views effectively in writing, and relate to those of others Can write letters conveying degrees of emotion and highlighting the personal significance of events and experiences and commenting on the correspondent's news and views.	marking the relationship between ideas in clear connected text, and following established conventions of the genre concerned Can write clear, detailed descriptions on a variety of subjects related to his/her field of interest. Can write a review of a film, book or play.
B1	Has enough language to get by, with sufficient vocabulary to express him/herself	Uses reasonably accurately a repertoire of frequently used "routines" and patterns associated with	Can link a series of shorter, discrete simple elements into a connected,	Has enough language to get by, with sufficient vocabulary to express him/herself with some hesitation	Has a sufficient vocabulary to express him/herself with some circumlocutions on most topics	Can write straightforward connected texts on a range of familiar subjects.	Can write straightforward, detailed descriptions on a range of familiar subjects within

	with some hesitation and circumlocutions on topics such as family, hobbies and interests, work, travel, and current events.	more predictable situations.	linear sequence of points.	and circumlocutions on topics such as family, hobbies and interests, work, travel, and current events, but lexical limitations cause repetition and even difficulty with formulation at times.	pertinent to his everyday life such as family, hobbies and interests, work, travel, and current events Shows good control of elementary vocabulary but major errors still occur when expressing more complex thoughts or handling unfamiliar topics and situations.	Can convey information and ideas on abstract as well as concrete topics, check information and ask about or explain problems with reasonable precision. Can write personal letters and notes asking simple information; describing experiences, feelings and events.	his field of interest. Can write accounts of experiences, describing feelings and reactions in simple connected text. Can write a description of an event, a recent trip - real or imagined. Can narrate a story
A2	Uses basic sentence patterns with memorized phrases, groups of a few words and formulae in order to communicate limited information in simple	Uses some simple structures correctly, but still systematically makes basic mistakes.	Can link groups of words with simple connectors like "and, "but" and "because".	Has a repertoire of basic language; can deal with everyday situations with predictable content, compromise the message and search for words. Can produce brief everyday expressions in	Has sufficient vocabulary to conduct routine, everyday transactions involving familiar situations and topics. Has a sufficient vocabulary for the expression of basic	Can write a series of simple phrases and sentences linked with simple connectors like "and", "but" and "because". Can write short, simple formulaic notes	Can write about everyday aspects of his environment e.g. people, places, a job or study experience in linked sentences. Can write very short, basic descriptions of

	everyday situations.			order to satisfy simple needs of a concrete type. Can use basic sentence patterns and communicate with memorised phrases. Has a limited repertoire; frequent breakdowns and misunderstanding	communicative needs. Has a sufficient vocabulary for coping with simple survival needs. Can control a narrow repertoire dealing with concrete everyday needs	relating to matters in areas of immediate need. Can write very simple personal letters expressing thanks and apology.	events, past activities and personal experiences
A1	Has a very basic repertoire of words and simple phrases related to personal details and particular concrete situations.	Shows only limited control of a few simple grammatical structures and sentence patterns in a memorized repertoire	Can link words or groups of words with very basic linear connectors like "and" or "then".	Has a very basic range of simple expressions about personal details and needs of a concrete type.	Has a basic vocabulary repertoire of isolated words and phrases related to particular concrete situations.	Can write simple isolated phrases and sentences Can ask for or pass on personal details in written form Can write a short simple postcard	Can write simple phrases and sentences about themselves and imaginary people, where they live and what they do