Stanisław Czajka

THE INFLUENCE OF MOTIVATION AND SELECTED PERSONALITY FACTORS ON STRATEGY CHOICE AND SUCCES IN SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

Siedlce University of Natural Sciences and Humanities | 2021

Stanisław Czajka

THE INFLUENCE OF MOTIVATION AND SELECTED PERSONALITY FACTORS ON STRATEGY CHOICE AND SUCCESS IN SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

Siedlce University of Natural Sciences and Humanities | 2021

Author of the monograph:

STANISŁAW CZAJKA [ORCID: 0000-0001-8165-8872]

Siedlce University of Natural Sciences and Humanities
The Centre for Foreign Languages

Reviewer:

dr hab. Anna Bloch-Rozmej, prof. uczelni, KUL

ISBN 978-83-67162-24-1

Wydawnictwo Naukowe UPH

Wydawnictwo Naukowe
Uniwersytetu Przyrodniczo-Humanistycznego w Siedlcach

www.wydawnictwo-naukowe.uph.edu.pl

08-110 Siedlce, ul. Żytnia 17/19, tel. 25 643 15 20
Ark. wyd. 3.2. Ark. druk. 5.25.
Print, cover design: Volumina.pl

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter III. The study

INTRODUCTION

Why are some students successful at language learning whilst others are not? We cannot give a definite answer to this question, but we can point to a number of factors which seem to have a strong effect on a student's success or failure. Following Ellis' (1994: 540-545) distinction, these factors can be divided into three groups:

1. Individual learner differences, including cognitive variables such as aptitude, cognitive/learning style, intelligence, and age of the learner; affective variables such as attitudes, beliefs about language/language learning, motivational orientation/learning goals, and personality characteristics.
2. The learner's personal background, i.e. career orientation, level of study/proficiency, experience in language learning, prior education;
3. Situational and social factors, such as the language being learned, language learning/teaching context, task requirements, sex, and national origin.

There is no agreement among researchers about variables within individual learner differences. For example, Ellis apart from his own classification, lists the most known classifications of IDs grouped in three surveys (Ellis 1994: 472).

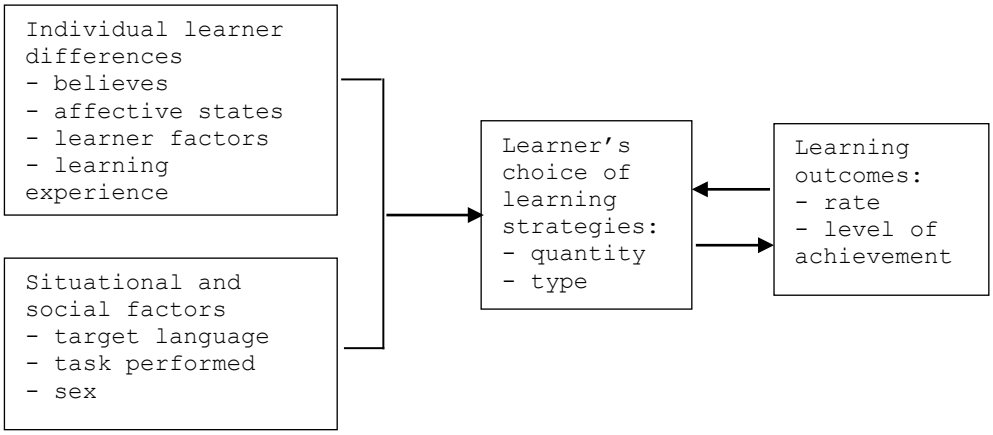
Classification of individual learner differences

Altman (1980)	Skehan (1989)	Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991)
1. Age	1. Language aptitude	1. Age
2. Sex	2. Motivation	2.Socio-psychological factors
3. Previous experience with language learning	3. Language learning strategies	a. motivation
4. Proficiency in the native language	4. Cognitive and effective factors	b. attitude
5. Personality factors	a. extroversion/ introversion	3. Personality
6. Language aptitude	b. risk-taking	a. self-esteem
7. Attitudes and motivation	c. intelligence	b. extroversion
8. General intelligence (IQ)	d. field independence	c. anxiety
9. Sense modality preference	e. anxiety	d. risk-taking
10. Sociological preference (e.g. learning with peers vs. learning with the teacher)		e. sensitivity to rejection
11. Cognitive styles		f. empathy
12. Learner strategies		g. inhibition
		h. tolerance of ambiguity
		4. Cognitive style
		a. field independence/ dependence
		b. category width
		c. reflexivity/ impulsivity
		d. aural/visual
		e. analytic/gestalt
		5. Hemisphere specialization
		6. Learning strategies
		7. Other factors, e.g. sex, memory

The above lists of factors are often vague and overlap in different ways. This makes it difficult to synthesise the results of different studies. Therefore, out of this wide range of factors that potentially influence learner's success in second language acquisition, this thesis confines itself to the taxonomy proposed by Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) and within this taxonomy I have chosen socio-psychological factors: motivation and from personality factors: anxiety, self-esteem, risk-taking and from other IDs: learning strategies.

Another problem, related to that of classifying learner variables, is the choice of terms for labelling different factors. Often there is no clear distinction drawn in the use of terms like: "belief", "attitude", "orientation", "motivation", etc. For example, Gardner and Lambert (in Skehan 1989: 53) introduced the term integrative and instrumental orientation, not motivation. Furthermore, motivation was examined as a factor of a number of different kinds of attitudes (cf. Brown 1987). There is no general agreement about what precisely "motivation" or "attitudes" consist of, nor the relationship between the two.

Several researchers indicate (Ellis 1994: 473; Droździał-Szelest 1997: 24; Ellis 1985: 89; Skehan 1989: 96) that individual learner differences are interrelated between themselves and other factors such as, for example, learning strategies and they cannot be considered as single items. Ellis (1994: 530) outlined the model of second language acquisition focusing attention on the relationship between individual learner differences, situational factors, learning strategies, and learning outcomes. In this model, as Droździał-Szelest (1997: 24) and Ellis (1994: 474) notice, individual learner differences together with various situational factors determine the learner's choice of learning strategies. Droździał-Szelest (ibidem) claims that the strategy choice can affect two aspects of learning: the rate of acquisition and the ultimate level of achievement. However, the choice of strategies can also be affected by the learner's level of L2 proficiency and their success with the language.



Ellis' model of second language acquisition

To answer the question set at the beginning of this chapter, why some learners are successful and others not in second language learning, we need to take into account: individual learner differences, situational and social factors and their influence on strategy choice. In other words, we can identify which strategies are used by successful learners and which by poor learners if at all. Joan Rubin (in Droździał-Szelest 1997: 11) states that if we knew more about what the successful learners did, we might be able to teach these strategies to poorer learners to enhance their success record. Droździał-Szelest (1997: 21) concludes her argument in the following way:

> "Although the research into good language learners' strategies was not quite conclusive, it provided researchers and teachers alike with some useful insights into foreign language learning process. It also showed that there is no one universal way of becoming a successful language learner that there is a multitude of ways which lead to success. 'Each learner develops strategies and techniques which suits his/ her individual needs and personality and implements these in different ways' (Ellis and Sinclair in Droździał-Szelest 1997). However, even though each successful learner has a distinct set of strategies, there seems to be a substantial overlap from one good learner to another.

> Therefore, there is a possibility that '... by observing good language learners at work and making use of insights they provide us via introspection we will come to a better understanding of the processes involved in successful learning'" (Phillipson et al. in Droździał-Szelest 1997).

In this thesis I would like to seek an answer to the question of how motivation and selected personality factors contribute to success in second language learning and consider their influence on strategy choice. I would also like to examine which language strategies are used by successful learners most often and what is their correlation to personality factors.

The thesis is divided into three chapters. The first chapter deals with theoretical background of motivation and selected personality factors, such as: anxiety, self-esteem and risk-taking. It presents researchers' points of view and summarises the actual state of research on the above issues. The second chapter is concerned with learning strategies. It presents numerous definitions and different criteria for classification of learning strategies. It also attempts to illustrate the so called the "good language learner studies" and their effect on learning. The third chapter is based on my own research. The aim of it is to show the correlation between motivation, selected personality factors and learning strategies with regard to success in second language learning.

CHAPTER I.

MOTIVATION AND PERSONALITY FACTORS IN SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

1.1. MOTIVATION – IMPORTANCE AND DEFINITION

People involved in language teaching often say that students who really want to learn will succeed whatever the circumstances in which they study. All teachers can think of situations in which certain "motivated" students do significantly better than their peers; students frequently succeed in what appear to be unfavourable conditions; they succeed despite using methods which experts consider unsatisfactory. In the face of such phenomena, it seems reasonable to suggest that the motivation students bring to the class is the biggest key factor affecting their success. Such a view is confirmed by many researchers (Arabski 1985: 89; Brown 1987: 114; Ellis 1994: 508; Harmer 1991: 3; Komorowska 1987: 112; Lightbown and Spada 1993: 39; Williams and Burden 1997: 111; Zybert 1999: 117; Cohen and Dörnyei 2002: 172). Corder's phrase (in Skehan 1989: 49): "Given motivation, anyone can learn a language", brings out the importance of motivation and the way it can overcome unfavourable circumstances in the process of learning a second language. Notwithstanding, as Dörnyei infers, it remains 'one of the most elusive concepts in the whole of social sciences' Dörnyei (2001: 2).

In second language acquisition (SLA) theory motivation is usually defined as a kind of inner drive, impulse, emotion or desire that moves one to a particular action (Harmer 1991: 3; Brown 1987: 114). Crookes and Schmidt (1991: 471) state that motivation is identified primarily with the learner's orientation

towards the goal of learning a second language. Harmer (1991: 3) lists two kinds of goals: short-term goals and long-term goals. Long-term goals might have something to do with a wish to get a better job, or a desire to be able to communicate with members of a target language community. Short-term goals might include such things as wanting to pass a test or wanting to find a unit in a book. Williams and Burden(1997: 120-121) propose a cognitive definition of motivation which fits within a social constructivist framework. According to them motivation may be construed as a state of cognitive and emotional arousal which leads to a conscious decision to act, and which gives rise to a period of sustained intellectual and physical effort in order to attain a previously set goal. This initial arousal may be triggered by different causes, perhaps internal ones such as interest or curiosity, or often by external influences such as another person or an event.

It is clear from this that motivation occurs as a result of a combination of different influences. Some of these are internal, that is, they come from inside the learner, such as an interest in the activity or a wish to succeed. Others are external, for example, the influence of other people.

1.1.1. DIFFERENT APPROACHES TO MOTIVATION

As Crookes and Schmidt (1991: 471) notice, all approaches to describing the role of motivation in SL learning have shared two limiting features. First, the major approaches have been socio-psychological. Motivation has been consistently linked with attitudes towards the community of speakers of the target language. The most influential work in this field has been that of Gardner and Lambert and their associates in Canada, beginning in the 1950s and continuing to the present. Second, there has been a tendency to group attitudes and motivation together. As Ellis (1985: 117) has observed, there is no general agreement on

definitions of motivation and attitudes or of their relation to one another. Consequently, the term motivation has been used as a "general cover term a dustbin to include a number of possibly distinct concepts, each of which may have different origins and different effects"(Mc Donough in Crookes and Schmidt 1991: 471).

1.1.2. EARLY THEORIES (VIEWS) ON MOTIVATION

Most of the early work in the area of motivation was based upon the behaviour of animals in laboratories; psychologists tried to explain motivation in terms of how animals behaved in order to meet their basic biological needs, how this behaviour was reinforced when those needs were met and how this reinforcement spread to other events and activities that occurred at the same time. In this way, as Williams and Burden (1997: 112) note, human motivation to learn any particular thing was accounted for in terms of what biological needs were being met during the early learning years and what kind of reward or reinforcement was provided for early attempts to learn (e.g. if I give a child a gold star for learning a list of verbs, will that child be more or less likely to approach the task of learning positively). For many years such *drive reduction* theories (term used by William and Burden (1997: 113) dominated theory and research on motivation. More promising reformulation of the drive reduction approach to motivation was the notion of the need to achieve, or *achievement motivation* (Atkinson in Williams and Burden 1997: 113) and Komorowska (1987: 107). The basic premise here is that people differ quite markedly in their need to achieve or to be successful. For some people, the drive to succeed dominates their lives and pushes them to be high achievers in everything they do, whereas for others, it really does not matter whether they do well or not. Drive reduction and achievement theories assumed that animals and humans prefer not to be in a state of

arousal and are constantly seeking to be in a more settled state (the principle of homeostasis). An alternative view began to emerge in the 1960s as a result of the Canadian psychologist Donald Hebb's test: *The Organisation of Behaviour* (1959). He suggested that both humans and animals seek a level of "optimal arousal" at which they function best without having to meet any other basic needs (Williams and Burden 1997: 115).

Generally, we can see that early psychological approaches to motivation were too simplistic in their attempts to explain highly complex human behaviour. Later on, psychologists developed an entirely different perspective on motivation, based on cognitive psychology.

1.2. CLASSIFICATION OF MOTIVATION

Skehan (1989: 49-50) puts forward four hypotheses in an attempt to characterise a general view of motivation:

1. The Intrinsic Hypothesis: motivation derives from an inherent interest in learning tasks the learner is asked to perform.
2. The Resultative Hypothesis: learners who do well will persevere, those who do not do well will be discouraged and try less hard.
3. The Internal Cause Hypothesis: the learner brings to the learning situation a certain quantity of motivation as a given.
4. The Carrot and Stick Hypothesis: external influences and incentives will affect the strength of learner's motivation.

The Internal Cause Hypothesis (3) has received the greatest researchers' attention and is correlated with integrative motivation.

1.2.1. INTEGRATIVE MOTIVATION

Gardner and Lambert (in Crookes and Schmidt 1991: 471) first made the distinction between integrative motivation and instrumental motivation that has influenced virtually all L2 related research in this area. Integrative motivation is identified with positive attitudes towards the target language group, or at the very least an interest in meeting and interacting with members of the target language group (Crookes and Schmidt 1991: 471-472). Integrative motivation has often been held to be superior to the instrumental one. In a number of studies, Gardner found that success or failure in learning French in Canada was associated with whether students wanted to become part of French culture, as opposed to learning French for only instrumental reasons (Gardner in Crookes and Schmidt 1991: 472). A similar stance presents (Dewaele 2009: 634). The more recent findings point out that there is no single means of learning a second language: some learners in some contexts are more successful in learning a language if they are integratively motivated, and others in different contexts benefit from instrumental motivation (Brown 1987: 116; Ellis 1994: 514; Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991: 174; Komorowska 1987: 108-109). Gardner (1988: 106) does not currently claim that integrative motivation is superior to instrumental or any other type of motivation, but simply that those who are integratively motivated will probably be more successful in language learning than those who are not. Within integrative motivation researchers suggest (Ellis 1994: 511; Ellis 1997: 75) that some learners might be influenced by a "Machiavellian motivation", the desire to learn the L2 in order to manipulate and overcome the people of the target language.

To sum up, integrative motivation has been found to be strongly related to L2 achievement. It combines with instrumental motivation to serve as a powerful predictor of success in formal contexts.

1.2.2. INSTRUMENTAL MOTIVATION

The Carrot and Stick Hypothesis (see 1.2, point 4) sees external incentives and influences as determinants of learners' motivational strength. It has been investigated in SLA through studies of instrumental motivation. So, it refers to more functional reasons for learning a language: to get a better job, promotion, to pass a required examination, financial rewards, furthering a career, reading technical material, translation, and so forth.

Generally speaking, as Ellis (1994: 514) points out, learners with instrumental reasons for learning an L2 can be successful. In some settings instrumental motivation may be the most important one (cf. Komorowska 1987: 109). Providing learners with incentives "carrot" may also aid learning by increasing the time learners spend studying, but the effect may cease as soon as the reward stops.

1.2.3. RESULTATIVE MOTIVATION. CAUSE OR RESULT

The integrative and instrumental motivation, considered above, were seen by the research as the origin of an L2 achievement. However, it is also possible that motivation is the result of learning. That is, learners who experience success in learning may become more, or in some contexts, less motivated to learn. Gardner (in Ellis 1994: 514) claims that motivation constitutes a causative variable. He suggests that although low achievers were more prejudiced against English language than high achievers, the latter did not have any consistently superior motivation (also Skehan confirms this 1989: 66). Other studies, however, suggest that learners' motivation is strongly affected by their achievement. For example, Herman (in Ellis 1994: 515) advanced the Resultative Hypothesis, which claims that learners who do well are more likely to develop motivational intensity and to be active in the classroom. Ellis (1994: 515) maintains that the

Resultative Hypothesis may be particularly applicable in contexts where learners have very low initial motivation. He concludes that it is likely that the relationship between motivation and achievement is an interactive one: high motivation = high achievement = higher motivation; low motivation = low achievement = lower motivation. Skehan (1989: 67) is slightly in support of a causal interpretation of motivation, relying in his judgement on Gardner's research and authority. Above all, he calls for more research to be done in this area through longitudinal and ethnographic methods.

1.2.4. MOTIVATION AS INTRINSIC/(EXTRINSIC) INTEREST

In some learning situations learners do not hold distinct attitudes, positive or negative, towards the target language group. Such is probably the case with many foreign language learners. It does not follow, however, that such learners are unmotivated. They may find the kinds of learning tasks they are asked to do intrinsically motivating, the reason for performing the activity lies within the activity itself. In accordance with this view, Ellis (1997: 76) claims that motivation involves the arousal and maintenance of curiosity and can "ebb and flow" as a result of such factors as learners' particular interests and the extent to which they feel personally involved in learning activities. Conversely, when the only reason for performing an act is to gain something outside the activity itself, such as passing an exam, or obtaining financial rewards, the motivation is likely to be extrinsic. Komorowska (1987: 109) points out that within instrumental motives we have got intrinsic motives, more valuable and extrinsic, less valuable, though sometimes more efficient (translation: S.C.). Therefore, it seems, that teachers should promote intrinsic motivation through interesting classroom activities. Ellis (1994: 516) observes that one way in which intrinsic interest in L2 learning might be

achieved is by providing opportunities for communication. Crookes and Schmidt in (Ellis 1994: 516) suggest a number of other ways in which teachers seek to foster intrinsic motivation. They try to make sure that the learning tasks pose a reasonable challenge to students, neither too difficult nor too easy.

In considering the relative importance of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to learning, it is likely, as Williams and Burden (1997: 123) suggest that most teachers would agree that both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation have a part to play, and are in fact linked by a mixture of both intrinsic and extrinsic reasons.

1.3. THE EFFECT OF MOTIVATION. SUMMARY

Motivation is clearly a highly complex phenomenon. These four types of motivation should not be seen as distinct or oppositional but as complementary. Learners can be both integratively and instrumentally motivated at the same time. Motivation can result from learning as well as creating it. Furthermore, motivation is changing; it is not something that a learner has or does not have but rather something that varies from one moment to the next depending on the learning context or task and here is the role of the teacher to influence these processes positively.

In the field of actual state of research on motivation Ellis (1994: 517) concludes that motivation constitutes one of the most fully researched areas of individual differences. Most of the research, however, has focused rather narrowly on integrative and instrumental motivation, relying almost exclusively on self-report questionnaires and correlational designs. Skehan (1989: 70) perceives that "at present motivational theories seem rather fragile, and, like some wines do not travel well". Komorowska (1987: 113) sees the need to establish which components strengthen

and which reduce motivation and their influence on success or failure in L2 learning (translation: S.C.).

1.4. PERSONALITY FACTORS IN SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

Learners, in particular classroom learners, react to the learning situations they find themselves in a variety of affective ways. Dealing with personality factors one should take into account: anxiety, self-esteem, risk-taking, extroversion, introversion, empathy, sensitivity to rejection, inhibition and tolerance of ambiguity. Studies of different researchers testify to the complexity and dynamic nature of learners' affective states and the influence these have on their ability to concentrate on learning. Learners, as Ellis infers, need to feel secure and to be free of stress before they can focus on the learning task. Careful, systematic study of the role of personality in second language acquisition has already led to a greater understanding of the language learning process and to improved language teaching methods.

1.4.1. ANXIETY

Connected with self-esteem, inhibition and risk-taking, the construct of anxiety plays an important role in second language acquisition. In Gardner's educational model (cf. Skehan 1989: 58), which had a big impact on SLA research, motivation and situational anxiety are posited to influence learning context equally. Anxiety is associated with feelings of uneasiness, self-doubt, apprehension, or worry. Scove in Brown (1987: 106) defined anxiety as a "state of apprehension, a vague fear..." Brown (ibidem) defines anxiety as a feeling of anxiousness. During the process of second language learning there are many difficult tasks which may cause anxiety among learners. They may doubt their own abilities and wonder if they will indeed succeed. It is

no wonder that in the case of higher anxiety levels, its influence on language learning might be highly detrimental, infer Horwitz (2010) and Baran-Łucarz (2013: 112).

Research on anxiety suggests that, like self-esteem, anxiety can be experienced at various levels. At global level, trait anxiety is a more permanent predisposition to be anxious. Some people are generally anxious about many things. State anxiety[1] results from exposure to specific situations. Skehan (1989: 115) notes that it can be, for example, a specific teacher or a specific communicative situation. Brown (1987: 106) maintains that it is important in a classroom for a teacher to try to determine whether student's anxiety stems from a more global trait or whether it comes from a particular situation at that moment.

Alpert and Haber (in Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991: 187) introduced another distinction: between facilitating and debilitating anxiety. Facilitating anxiety, according to Scovel (in Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991: 187), motivates the learner to solve the new learning task. Debilitating anxiety, in contrast, motivates the learner to avoid the new learning task. Spielberger (in Skehan 1989: 115) reports a tendency for anxiety to be facilitating in high-ability students, and especially average-ability students, anxiety was associated with poor performance, and even failure. Skehan (1989: 115) concludes that this finding raises the need to consider the possibility that anxiety may be the result of low achievement. Bailey (1983: 96) suggests a hypothesis that anxiety in the classroom can be caused or aggravated by the learner's competitiveness when he sees himself as less proficient than the object of comparison (debilitating). Anxiety, according to her (ibidem), can also lead to competitiveness in the form of increased efforts to learn the language (facilitating). Relying on this assumption, Bailey suggests a cycling relationship

[1] Mac Intyre and Gardner (1991/4: 514) call it also language anxiety.

between anxiety and competitiveness and gives a schematic representation of this relationship (Bailey 1983: 97; also cited in Ellis 1985: 102). This model provides an interesting generalisation about how personal responses to the group situation can influence learning.

As far as the state of research on anxiety is concerned, Skehan (1989: 118) comes to two broad conclusions. First, there seems to be a rather weak relationship between measures of anxiety and learning. Second, anxiety research has been rather narrow in scope. There is a tendency to concentrate on classroom-based research mainly with secondary school and adult learners. There has also been an over-reliance on questionnaire scale approaches. It would be desirable to have alternative types of measures available such as observer ratings on introspective evidence.

1.4.2. SELF-ESTEEM

By self-esteem, "we refer to the evaluation which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself; it expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval, and indicates the extent to which an individual believes himself to be capable, significant, successful and worthy. In short, self-esteem is a personal judgement of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes that the individual holds to himself" (Coopersmith in Brown 1987: 101).

Self-esteem is considered to be an important factor in L2 learning because "no activity can be carried out without some degree of self-esteem..." (Brown 1987: 101). People derive their sense of self-esteem from the accumulation of experiences with themselves and with others and from assessments of the external world around them. Fink (in Komorowska 1987: 92) infers that there is a strong correlation between self-esteem and an L2 achievement, the higher self-esteem the better results. Zybert 1999: 120) indicates that there is even a

stronger link between low attainment and low self-esteem than at the other end of the scale. Shavelson, Hubner and Stanton (in Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991: 184) proposed ternary hierarchy to account for self-esteem. At the highest level is global self-esteem, or the individual's overall self-assessment. At the medial level is situational or specific self-esteem, or how individuals perceive themselves in various life contexts (education, work, etc.) and according to various characteristics (intelligence, attractiveness, etc.). At the lowest level is the evaluation one gives oneself on specific tasks (writing a paper, driving a car) and it is called task self-esteem. Specific self-esteem, as Brown (1987: 102) notices, might refer to second language acquisition in general and task self-esteem to a particular aspect of the process: speaking, writing or even a special kind of classroom exercise. The remarkable results of Heyde's studies (quoted by different researchers: Brown 1987: 102; Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991: 184; Komorowska 1987: 93; Zybert 1999: 120) showed correlation of the learner's performance with the three levels of self-esteem. The highest correlation occurred with task self-esteem and performance on oral production measures.

Another quite important issue is whether high self-esteem produces language success or language success generates high self-esteem. Brown (1987: 102) concludes that both are interacting factors. It is difficult to say whether teachers should try to "improve" global self-esteem or simply improve learner's proficiency and let self-esteem take care of itself. Heyde (in Brown 1987: 102) suggests that teachers really can have a positive and influential effect on both the linguistic performance and the emotional well-being of the student.

1.4.3. RISK-TAKING

Risk-taking can be defined as "...a situation where an individual has to make a decision involving choice

between alternatives of different desirability; the outcome of the choice is uncertain; there is a possibility of failure" (Beebe 1983: 39). In other words, risk-taking implies the willingness to take risks and, as Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991: 188) suggest, can be closely related to high tolerance for anxiety involving situations. Ellis (1994: 518) states that risk-takers show less hesitancy, are more willing to use a complex language, and are more tolerant of errors. They are less likely to rehearse before speaking. Beebe (1983: 60) confirms that risk-taking and accuracy are negatively correlated. She says that we must distinguish among the goals of language use in different settings. If the goal is to communicate as much as possible, risking error by using partially acquired structures is highly justifiable. If the goal is to demonstrate high grammatical accuracy on a composition test, the best strategy is to avoid taking risks. Ely (in Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991: 189)found that the students' risk-taking behaviour was a positive predictor of students' voluntary classroom participation. However, as Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991: 188) point out, just as too much anxiety can be debilitating, there might be an upper threshold to risk-taking beyond which further risk-taking could be detrimental. "A learner might be too bold in blurting out meaningless verbal garbage which no one can quite understand, while success lies in an optimum point where calculated guesses are ventured", Brown (1987: 105) concludes. Rubin (in Brown 1987: 105) confirms that the good language learner makes willing and accurate guesses.

Important implications for teaching a foreign language can be drawn out of the above discussion. Beebe (1983: 63) observes that although it is difficult at this stage to describe an optimal level of risk-taking for all individuals and situations, it has become clear that extremely high risk-taking is not desirable. On the other hand, the old adage "Nothing ventured, nothing

gained", still applies. Ely's research[2] confirms that classroom participation reflects contributing influences of risk-taking. He proposes four dimensions that underlie the risk-taking construct:

> "a lack of hesitancy about using a newly encountered linguistic element; a willingness to use linguistic elements perceived to be complex or difficult; a tolerance of possible incorrectness or inexactitude in using the language; an inclination to rehearse a new element silently before attempting to use it aloud" (Ely in Skehan 1989: 108-109).

Skehan (1989: 108) notices that the results of Ely's research show a slender and indirect relationship, therefore, the speculations about the role of risk-taking in language learning need to be interpreted with caution.

The following conclusions can be drawn, based on what has been said about the three selected personality factors. Firstly, moderate anxiety can be facilitating, moderate risk-taking is linked with achievement, there exists the strongest correlation between task self-esteem and performance. Secondly, we cannot draw valid conclusions based on one personality trait but they should be interpreted as interdependent factors.

[2] His model of proficiency development (in Skehan 1989: 108).

CHAPTER II.

LEARNING STRATEGIES

2.1. INTRODUCTION

The study of language strategies, or steps taken by language learners to enhance their own learning, has been found to play an important role in the process of language acquisition and has enjoyed a growing interest among researchers over the last forty years or so (cf. Oxford 1990: 1; Williams and Burden 1997: 143; Ellis 1994: 529; Droździał-Szelest 1997: 7; Cohen 2011: 1). This research is concerned with investigating how individuals go about the task of learning a language, and attempting to discover which of the strategies that learners use are the most effective for the particular type of learning involved.

In the first chapter of this thesis, motivation and selected personality factors were presented. However, little was said about the mechanisms that establish these relationships. In this chapter learning strategies and their role in second language learning will be considered. As already mentioned in the introduction to this thesis, learning strategies have a significant place in the model of second language acquisition (cf. Ellis 1994: 529-530). In this model, individual learner differences together with various situational factors determine the learners' strategy choice. Learning strategies, in turn, influences two aspects of learning: the rate of acquisition and the ultimate level of achievement. The success that learners experience and their level of L2 proficiency can also affect their choice of strategies.

2.2. DEFINITIONS

The concept of "strategy" is not easy to define. Ellis (1997: 76-77) broadly defines learning strategies as the particular approaches or techniques that learners employ to try to learn an L2. They can be behavioural, for example, repeating new words aloud in order to remember them, or they can be mental, for example, using the linguistic or situational context to infer the meaning of a new word.

Generally, researchers differ in their understanding of the concept of strategy and there are some conceptual and terminological problems involved. Thus, as Droździał-Szelest (1997: 28) notes, strategies have been referred to as techniques, tactics, potentially conscious plans, learning skills, cognitive abilities, language processing strategies, problem-solving procedures, etc. Some researchers express scepticism about the concept of "strategy", referring to it as learner's "self-regulation" or "self-management",(cf. Cohen 2011: 378; Wolters 2010: 2; Dörnyei 2005). That is why, researchers find them difficult to define. Ellis (1994: 531-532) presents a sample of definitions of learning strategies taken from recent literature of the subject (see Table 1). He noticed that these definitions reveal a number of problems. It is not clear whether they are behavioural, mental, or both (cf. Oxford 1989). A second problem concerns the precise nature of the behaviours that are to count as learning strategies. Here, there is considerable uncertainty. Stern (in Ellis 1994: 531) distinguishes "strategies" and "techniques". Other researchers, however, have used the term "strategy" to refer to the kind of behaviours Stern calls techniques. A third problem is whether learning strategies are to be seen as conscious and intentional or as subconscious and unintentional. Many of the definitions in the table below avoid this issue, but Chamot (1987) refers to them as "deliberate actions".

Table 1. Definitions of learning strategies(Source: Ellis 1994: 531)

Source	Definition
Stern 1983	"In our view strategy is best reserved for general tendencies or overall characteristics of the approach employed by the language learner, leaving techniques as the term to refer to particular forms of observable learning behaviour."
Weinstein and Mayer 1986	"Learning strategies are the behaviours and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning that are intended to influence the learner's encoding process."
Chamot 1987	"Learning strategies are techniques, approaches or deliberate actions that students take in order to facilitate the learning, recall of both linguistic and content area information."
Rubin 1987	"Learning strategies are strategies which contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affect learning directly."
Oxford 1989	"Language learning strategies are behaviours or actions which learners use to make language learning more successful, self-directed and enjoyable."

A fourth problem concerns whether learning strategies are seen as having a direct or indirect effect on interlanguage development. Rubin (1987) asserts that the effect is a direct one. Other researchers consider it to be more indirect. Finally, there are differences in opinions about what motivates the use of learning strategies. All the above definitions recognise that they are used in an effort to learn something about the L2, but Oxford (1989) also suggests that their use can have an affective purpose, e.g. might increase enjoyment.

Table 2. Definitions of learning strategies
(Source: Droździał-Szelest 1997: 29)

Source	Definition
Bialystok (1978)	Learning strategies are "optional means for exploiting available information to improve competence in a second lg."
Bialystok (1985)	"The learning strategies refer to activities in which the learner may engage for the purpose of improving target language competence and hence, are revealed by the learner."
Bialystok (1985)	"... learning strategies are construed as activities undertaken by learners, whether consciously or not, that have the effect of promoting the learner's ability either to analyse the linguistic knowledge relevant to the language under study, or to improve the control of procedures for selecting and applying that knowledge under specific contextual conditions."
O'Malley et al. (1985a)	"Learning strategies have been broadly defined as any set of operations or steps used by a learner that will facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval or use of information."
Wenden (1986)	"*Learning strategies* are defined as steps or mental operations used in learning or problem-solving that require direct analysis, transformation, or synthesis of learning material in order to store, retrieve, and use knowledge."
Rubin (1987)	"... learner strategies include any set of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information, ..., that is what learners *do* to learn and *do to regulate* their learning."
Dickinson (1989)	"*Learning strategy* is concerned with actual activities and techniques which lead to *learning."*
Oxford (1989)	"Language learning strategies are behaviours or actions which learners use to make language learning more successful, self-directed, and enjoyable."
O'Malley and Chamot (1990)	"Learning strategies, ..., have learning facilitation as a goal and are intentional on the part of the learner. The goal of strategy use is to affect the learner's motivational or affective state, or the way in which the learner selects, acquires, organises, or integrates new knowledge."
Cook (1992)	"A learning strategy ... refers to a choice that a learner makes while learning or using the second language that affects learning."

Droździał-Szelest (1997: 29) presents, however, a more extensive list of learning strategies. She finds that the most comprehensive definition of learning strategies has been offered by Wenden (1987) who understands the term "learner strategy" as referring not only to "language learning behaviours learners actually engage in to learn and regulate the learning of a second language", but it also includes "aspects of their language learning other than the strategies they use", for example, personal factors facilitating learning, which according to Wenden, may influence a learner's choice of strategy (cf. Wenden 1987: 7; Droździał-Szelest 1997: 30). In more recent studies, Cohen (2011: 7) also focuses his attention on the element of "choice" in his definition of language strategies because "this is what gives a strategy its special character."

As can be seen, the numerous definitions of learning strategies quoted above revealed some problems about the nature of strategies. However, as Droździał-Szelest (ibidem) notes, researchers seem to agree about the problem-solving and the intentional nature of strategies (i.e. they are used with the purpose to learn something about the target language) as well as their facilitating function in the learning process. The best way to define learning strategies then, as Ellis (1994: 532) notes, is to try to list their main characteristics. Several researchers attempted to do this: Wenden (1987: 7); Oxford (1990: 8-13); Ellis (1994: 532-533); and Droździał-Szelest (1997: 30-31) whose list seems to be based on the experience of previous researchers and therefore the most exhaustive. She presents the following specification of features that seems to be characteristic of language learning strategies:

1. All appropriate language learning strategies contribute to the main goal – the development of communicative competence.
2. Strategies allow learners to become autonomous and more self-directed.

3. Strategies change and expand the role of teachers.
4. Strategies are *problem oriented*.
5. Strategies are effective: they are related to solutions in specific ways, and they are productive in solving the problems.
6. Strategies refer to both *general approaches* and specific actions or techniques to learn a second language. They involve many aspects of the learner.
7. Some of these actions will be directly *observable* (behavioural strategies) and others will be *not* (mental strategies).
8. Strategies refer to language learning behaviours that contribute to learning both *directly* and *indirectly*.
9. Strategies involve linguistic and non-linguistic behaviour.
10. Sometimes strategies *may be consciously deployed*. Learners are generally aware of the strategies they use and can identify what they consist of if they are asked to pay attention to what they are doing/thinking. However, for certain learning problems, strategies *can become automatized*.
11. Strategies are behaviours that are *amenable to change*; they can be modified, rejected; new strategies can be learned/taught. They are a part of our mental software.
12. Strategies are systematic; learners uncover the strategy from their knowledge of the problem and employ it systematically.
13. Strategies are flexible; they are not always found in a predictable sequence or in a precise pattern.
14. Strategies are finite; only a limited number of strategies can be identified. They are not idiosyncratic creations of learners.
15. Strategy use varies considerably as a result of both the kind of task the learner is engaged in and individual learner preferences.

(Source: Droździał-Szelest 1997: 31).

2.3. CLASSIFICATION OF LEARNING STRATEGIES

In second language acquisition a distinction is often made between learning, communication and production strategies (cf. Faerch and Kasper in O'Malley and Chamot 1990: 43; Ellis 1994: 530; Droździał-Szelest 1997: 27). Learning strategies are concerned with language acquisition, whereas production and communication strategies refer to language use. The motivating force behind a learning strategy is the desire to learn the target language. Communication strategies consist of attempts to deal with problems of communication that have arisen in interaction and they are particularly important in negotiating meaning where either linguistic structures or sociolinguistic rules are not shared between a second language learner and a speaker of the target language. Production strategies are used to accomplish communication goals; they reflect an interest in using the language system efficiently and clearly without excessive effort. What distinguishes them from communication strategies is the lack of interactional focus on the negotiation of meaning (cf. O'Malley and Chamot 1990: 43; Ellis 1994: 530; Droździał-Szelest 1997: 27). Tarone (in Ellis 1994: 530) observes that these distinctions are important but they are not easily applied, as it is not always clear what the learners' intentions are: a desire to learn or a desire to reach a communicative goal.

Although early research into learning strategies, as Droździał-Szelest (1997: 35) notes, was mostly concerned with identifying and describing a variety of learning strategies, attempts were soon made to classify those strategies into groups or categories. Out of numerous taxonomies of learning strategies (Bialystok's 1978; Rubin's 1981; Carver's 1984; Ellis' 1985; Willing's 1989; Stern's 1992; Ellis and Sinclair's 1989; O'Malley et al. 1985a,b; O'Malley and Chamot's 1987 and Oxford's 1990), the last two deserve special attention, as they both contribute to our knowledge of learning strategies (cf.

Droździał-Szelest 1997: 38). O'Malley et al.(1985a,b) designed a study to identify the range, type and frequency of learning strategies used by beginning and intermediate ESL students. From the data they collected, they were able to make a distinction between metacognitive, cognitive and social/affective learning strategies (cf. Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991: 200).

Table 3. O'Malley et al.'s typology of learning strategies (1985b)
(Source: O'Malley and Chamot 1990: 119-120)

Learning	Strategy	Description
Metacognitive		
	Advance organisers	Making a general but comprehensive preview of the concept or principle in an anticipated learning activity.
	Directed attention	Deciding in advance to attend in general to a learning task and to ignore irrelevant distractors.
	Selective attention	Deciding in advance to attend to specific aspects of language input or situational details that will cue the retention of language input.
	Self-management	Understanding the conditions that help one learn and arranging for the presence of those conditions.
	Advance	Planning for and rehearsing linguistic components preparation necessary to carry out an upcoming language task.
	Self-monitoring	Correcting one's speech for accuracy in pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, or for appropriateness related to the setting or to the people who are present.
	Delayed production	Consciously deciding to postpone speaking to learn initially through listening comprehension.
	Self-evaluation	Checking the outcomes of one's own language learning against an internal measure of completeness and accuracy.
Cognitive	Repetition	Imitating a language model, including overt practice and silent rehearsal.
	Resourcing	Defining or expanding a definition of a word or concept through use of target language reference materials.

Directed physical
Relating new information to physical actions, as with response directives.

Translation
Using the first language as a base for understanding and/or producing the second language.

Grouping
Reordering or reclassifying and perhaps labelling the material to be learned based on common attributes.

Note-taking
Writing down the main idea, important points, outline, or summary of information presented orally or in writing.

Deduction
Consciously applying rules to produce or understand the second language.

Recombination
Constructing a meaningful sentence or larger language sequence by combining known elements in a new way.

Imagery
Relating new information to visual concepts in memory via familiar easily retrievable visualisations, phrases, or locations.

Auditory
Retention of the sound or similar sound for a word, representation phrase, or longer language sequence.

Key word
Remembering a new word in the second language by
(1)identifying a familiar word in the first language that sounds like or otherwise resembles the new word, and
(2)generating easily recalled images of some relationship with the new word.

Contextualization
Placing a word or phrase in a meaningful language sequence.

Elaboration
Relatng new information to other concepts in memory.

Transfer
Using previously acquired linguistic and/or conceptual knowledge to facilitate a new language learning task.

Inferencing
Using available information to guess meanings of new items, predict outcomes, or fill in missing information.

Social/affective Cooperation
Working with one or more peers to obtain feedback, pool information, or model a language activity.

Question for Clarification
Asking a teacher or a native speaker for repetition, paraphrasing, explanation and/or examples.

Metacognitive strategies are those involved in planning, monitoring, and evaluating learning. An example is "selective attention", where the learner makes a conscious decision to attend to particular aspects of the input. Cognitive strategies are those that are involved in the analysis, synthesis, or transformation of learning materials. An example is "recombination", which involves constructing a meaningful sentence by recombining known elements of the L2 in a new way. Social/affective strategies concern the ways in which learners choose to interact with other speakers. An example is "questioning for clarification", i.e. asking for repetition, a paraphrase, or an example (cf. O'Malley and Chamot 1990: 44-45; Ellis 1994: 536-538; Ellis 1997: 77; Skehan 1989: 87).

The other taxonomy (of the two mentioned above) has been worked out by Oxford. According to her the purpose of learning strategies is to make learning "easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to a new situation" Oxford 1990: 8). Oxford's taxonomy has been considered the most comprehensive classification of learning strategies to date by some researchers (Ellis 1994: 539; Williams and Burden 1997: 152), since she attempted to subsume within her taxonomy all strategies that have been mentioned in the literature on the subject (cf. Williams and Burden 1997: 152; Droździał-Szelest 1997: 41). Oxford divides strategies into two major classes: direct and indirect. These two classes are subdivided into a total of six groups: memory, cognitive, and compensation under direct class; metacognitive, affective and social under the indirect class (see the diagrams below). Oxford (1990: 14-15) claims that direct strategies and indirect strategies support each other and "that the six strategy groups (three direct and three indirect) interact with and help each other (mutual support)".

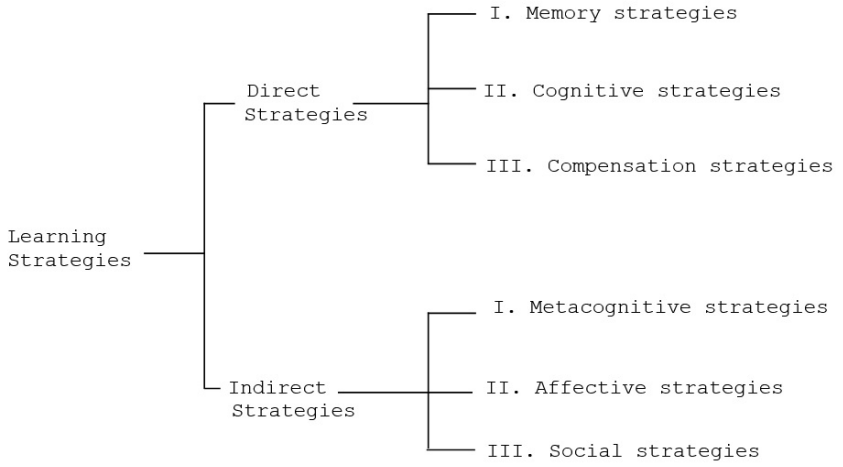


Diagram 1. Strategy system: overview (Source: Oxford 1990: 16)

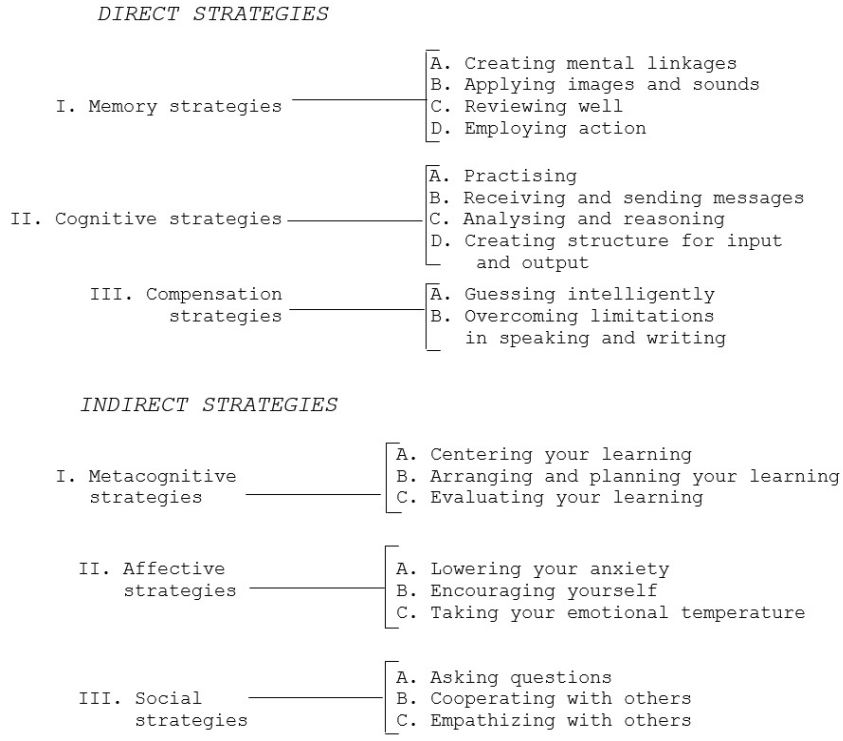


Diagram 2. Strategy system showing: two classes, six groups and nineteen sets (Source: Oxford 1990: 16-17)

Oxford's classification comprises six strategy groups which are subdivided into a total of 19 strategy sets. The entire learning strategy system includes 62 strategies altogether (Oxford 1990: 16-21). As she notes, direct strategies involve the target language directly, i.e. "they require mental processing of the language" (ibidem: 37), whereas indirect strategies "provide indirect support for language learning through focusing, planning, evaluating, seeking opportunities, controlling anxiety, increasing cooperation and empathy and other means" (ibidem: 151). Oxford's division of strategies between direct and indirect is parallel to O'Malley et al.'s division between cognitive and metacognitive strategies respectively (cf. Droździał-Szelest 1997: 41). Ellis observes that "the scheme [Oxford's classification – S.C.] is marred by a failure to make a clear distinction between strategies directed at learning the L2 and those directed at using it. Thus, somewhat confusingly, 'compensation strategies' are classified as a direct type of 'learning strategy'. In this Oxford departs from other researchers, who treat compensation strategies as distinct from learning strategies (for example: Wenden and Rubin (1987), Ellis (1994: 539). Also, O'Malley and Chamot criticise Oxford for trying "to subsume within her classification virtually every strategy that had previously been cited in the literature on learning strategies," O'Malley and Chamot (1990: 103). They feel that such an extended listing of strategies is "far removed from any underlying cognitive theory, fails to prioritise which strategies are important to learning and generates subcategories that appear to overlap" (ibidem).

Generally speaking, considerable progress has been made in classifying learning strategies. The taxonomies developed by O'Malley and Chamot, Wenden and Oxford, provide a basis for studying which strategies or combinations of strategies are effective in promoting learning (cf. Ellis 1994: 540). Oxford (1990: 22) suggests that strategies help learners take control of

their learning and become more proficient. Problems, however, still remain. As Droździał-Szelest (1997: 43-44) maintains, various taxonomies of strategies seem to comprise more or less similar categories, classified in a slightly different way. There is no agreement on exactly what strategies are, how many strategies there are, how they should be defined and classified. For example, Cohen and Dörnyei (2002: 178-179) come up with a new concept of "self-motivating" strategies," which "learners can use to increase and protect their existing motivation." Ellis (1994: 540) notices that it is not yet clear whether the range of strategies available to the learner is finite or infinite in number. Nevertheless, it seems that the existing strategy systems provide teachers and researchers alike with a useful frame of reference.

2.4. FACTORS AFFECTING STRATEGY CHOICE. INTRODUCTION

It has already been mentioned what factors affect strategy choice. Following the main assumptions of the thesis, here, the attention will be focused on the influence of motivation, anxiety, self-esteem and risk-taking on strategy choice by presenting the state of the research on the issue. Secondly, I would like to acquaint myself with the opinion of the research about which strategies are important for L2 acquisition. To this end, the results the Good Language Learner Studies (GLL) will be presented. Also, it is important to relate learners' reported use of different strategies to their L2 proficiency to try to find out which strategies are important for language development (cf. Ellis 1994: 77).

2.4.1. FACTORS AFFECTING STRATEGY CHOICE

Several researchers confirm that the strength of learners' motivation can have a significant influence on strategy choice (Skehan 1989: 96; Oxford 1990: 13; Ellis

1994: 542; Williams and Burden 1997: 154; Droździał-Szelest 1997: 65-66). Oxford and Nyikos (in Ellis 1994: 542; in Williams and Burden 1997; and in Droździał-Szelest 1997: 65) found that "the degree of expressed motivation was the single most powerful influence on the choice of language learning strategies". Motivational level significantly affected the tendency of students to use strategies in formal rule-related practice, functional practice, general study, and conversational input elicitation. Highly motivated learners used strategies in those types of activities significantly more often than less motivated learners (cf. Oxford and Nyikos in Droździał-Szelest 1997: 65). Politzer and Mc Groarty (in Droździał-Szelest 1997: 65) state that motivation is generally related to language purpose, hence the type of motivation is another key to strategy use. For example, learners who want to learn a new language for integrative purposes (interpersonal communication) will use different strategies than those who want to learn it for instrumental purposes (e.g. fulfilling a graduation requirement). Rubin (in Droździał-Szelest 1997: 66) considers motivation to be one of the three crucial factors that characterise good language learners and provides evidence that good language learners are willing to use and test various strategies. O'Malley and Chamot 1990: 219) consider motivation to be a component of metacognition, which serves a self-regulatory function in learning. Motivation according to them, will play a significant role in strategy training, in trying out new strategies. The data investigated by Ehrman and Oxford (in Droździał-Szelest 1997: 66) show some support for the claim that different personality types prefer different strategies both in terms of range and frequency of use. Mac Intyre and Gardner (in Williams and Burden 1997: 154), for example, come to the conclusion that the use of cognitive strategies is very much affected by anxiety. In reviewing the effects of different factors on the deployment of learning strategies, Oxford and

Nyikos (in William and Burden 1997: 154) conclude that increased self-esteem leads to more effective use of appropriate strategies and vice versa. Generally, as Droździał-Szelest (1997: 66) concludes, the findings are not quite explicit, and the link between personality type and strategy choice needs further investigation.

2.4.2. GOOD LANGUAGE LEARNER STUDIES (GLL)

The literature in second language acquisition emerged from a concern for the characteristics of effective learners. This involves identifying learners who have been successful in learning an L2 and interviewing them to find out the strategies that worked for them. Wenden and Rubin suggest that "it is assumed that once the strategies of good language learners are identified, they can be made available and where useful, used by less successful learners to enable them to learn a foreign/second language more effectively" (1987: 160).

Ellis lists five major aspects of successful language learning: "(1) a concern for language form,(2) a concern for communication, (3) an active task approach, (4) an awareness of the learning process, and (5) a capacity to use strategies flexibly in accordance with task requirements" (1994: 546). A concern for language form, according to Rubin, Naiman et al.(in Ellis 1994: 546), includes "attention to form, monitoring one's own and other's speech, self-monitoring and critical sensitivity to language" as key strategies. These researchers found that good language learners treat language as a system by making effective crosslingual comparisons, analysing the target language, and using reference books. Such learners also monitor their L2 performance and try to learn from their errors by asking for corrections when they think these are needed (cf. Ellis 1994: 546). A concern for communication (functional practice) involves attending to meaning. Ellis (ibidem: 547) suggests, however, that in most studies the learners appeared to benefit from

attending to both form and meaning. In the third point of the good language learner characteristics, learners show active involvement in language learning. Picket (in Ellis ibidem) suggests that such learners like to take charge of their own learning by identifying and pursuing goals and by trying to introduce new topics into a conversation. The fourth general characteristic of the good language learner, awareness of the learning process, called also by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) "metalingual strategy" is considered crucial in the process of effective learning by some researchers (Williams and Burden 1997; O'Malley and Chamot 1990: 8). Metacognition is a conscious process and generally involves two related concepts: first, a knowledge about learning, and second, an ability to employ cognitive strategies intelligently, above all, it is central to effective learning (cf. Wenden in Williams and Burden 1997: 154). Ellis (1994: 547) claims that successful learners are thoughtful and aware of themselves in relation to the learning process. They make conscious decisions and they follow their own preferred learning style. "These are the learners who are able to talk effectively about their language learning because they have a well-developed metalanguage for doing so" (ibidem). However, as Williams and Burden (1997: 155) point out, the final aim of learning is not to be constantly thinking about our learning, but to move towards a situation where the use of appropriate strategies becomes unconscious, where the skills of learning become intuitive. Effective learners need to be able to employ strategies unconsciously, and then to be able to call their metacognitive awareness into play as and if necessary when faced with a difficulty.

The research concerned with relating learners' reported use of different strategies to their L2 proficiency has shown that successful learners use more strategies than unsuccessful learners. Successful learners may also call on different strategies at different stages of their development. However, there is

the problem with how to interpret this research. Does strategy use result in learning or does learning increase learners' ability to employ more strategies? At the moment, it is not clear (cf. Ellis 1997: 78).

To sum up, research into good language learners' strategies has proved to be a useful way of investigating how strategies affect learning. Although not quite conclusive, the good language learner studies, as Ellis (1994: 550) concludes, have provided some of the richest insights into the kinds of behaviours associated with successful language learning. They constitute one of the most effective lines of enquiry in learning strategy research.

2.5. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, it can be said that the study of learning strategies holds considerable promise, both for language pedagogy and for explaining individual differences in L2 learning. However, researchers (Skehan 1989: 98; Ellis 1994: 558) observe that, it is still in its infancy. That is why, as we could see in this chapter, there appeared numerous problems with defining and classifying learning strategies. Despite this, considerable progress has been made in developing taxonomies of learning strategies. Ellis (1994: 558) and Droździał-Szelest (1997: 145) state unanimously that O'Malley and his associates' three-way distinction between cognitive, metacognitive, and social/affective strategies is useful and has been generally accepted.

Some researchers, for example Ellis (1994: 558-559), raise questions concerning a few assumptions of language learning strategy research. The assumption that there are "good" learning strategies is questionable because "the beneficial effect of strategies may be relative to the kinds of tasks they are deployed in" (ibidem). For example, some strategies may work in tasks aimed at the development of linguistic competence and

others in tasks with more communicative objectives. Another doubt refers to frequency of strategy use. It is likely, as Ellis points out that "it is not so much how often learners use strategies as when and with what purpose they use them ... strategies will prove most helpful when they are deployed in clusters, but precisely what groupings work best is not known" (ibidem).

Notwithstanding these problems and unanswered questions, there is convincing evidence that strategies help learners take control of their learning and thus become more efficient in achieving their goals. It seems that the strategy systems which have been put forward by various researchers provides teachers with a useful framework for examining strategies used by language learners, and can be used as a starting point for strategy training.

CHAPTER III.

THE STUDY

3.1. OBJECTIVES

As stated in the introduction, the purpose of the study is: (1) to investigate the influence of motivation and selected personality factors: anxiety, self-esteem, and risk-taking on strategy choice; (2) which types of motivation or personality factors advance success the most and which strategy choice furthers success in second language learning; (3) how the research findings correspond to my own study.

3.2. SUBJECTS

The subjects of the study were 50 third and fourth grade students from Secondary School (Liceum Ogólnokształcące im. B. Prusa) in Siedlce. Being at the age of 17-18, the students have studied English for 6-8 years, attending English classes 4 hours per week. They were qualified as intermediate and upper-intermediate students of English, and all of them were native speakers of Polish.

3.3. INSTRUMENTS

To obtain the data, an introspective method of data collection, a questionnaire, was used. I am fully aware that students' reports may not be an accurate account of what the students actually do, due to the lack of direct contact, as for example, in an interview where the interviewer is in a position to ask additional questions. Moreover, the criterion of validity and reliability of this method is not universally accepted.

In spite of these reservations, questionnaires are considered by many researchers (Ellis 1994: 534; O'Mallley and Chamot 1990: 90-93; Droździał-Szelest 1997: 109-113 and 120-121) to be a fairly useful and successful way of collecting and providing the most detailed information about learning.

The questionnaires administered to the students, consisted of two sections. The first one dealt with motivation and selected personality factors: anxiety, self-esteem and risk-taking; the second section contained questions concerning learning strategies (see Appendixes). The questions referring to motivation were divided into four subcategories: 1-5 instrumental/extrinsic; 6-8 integrative; 9 intrinsic and 10 resultative. The ideas behind these questions were based on questionnaires designed by Komorowska (1987), Gardner (1985) and ideas of the present author. The questions dealing with anxiety were divided into five subcategories: 1-2 trait anxiety; 3-4 state anxiety; 5-6 facilitating anxiety; 7-8 debilitating anxiety and 9-10 influence of competitiveness on anxiety. The main ideas with regard to these questions were based on Anxiety Attitude/Motivation Test Battery, Gardner (1985). Five questions concerning self-esteem were divided into three subcategories: 1 global self-esteem; 2-3 specific self-esteem; 4-5 task self-esteem. They were based on a questionnaire designed by Heyde (1977). The risk-taking questionnaire contained seven questions and was based on Ely's (1986) research and the present author's ideas.

Learning strategies, dealt with in the second section of the questionnaire, were classified according to the taxonomy of strategies presented by O'Malley et al. (1985 a,b) and their three-way distinction between cognitive, metacognitive and social/affective strategies. This taxonomy has been generally accepted by the research.

The language of the questionnaire was Polish in order to avoid misunderstandings and to ensure that the students were fully able to understand and describe their experience in learning a foreign language.

3.4. PROCEDURE

The questionnaires were administered to successful and unsuccessful students. Each student received one questionnaire which contained both groups of questions concerning motivation, selected personality factors and learning strategies. The teacher explained how to "go about" all the questions and set a time to fill them in (about twenty minutes). To increase the objectivity of the responses, the students were informed that the questionnaire was anonymous and was going to be used only for the purpose of the research. The division of students into successful and unsuccessful ones was based on grades and overall evaluation of their performance. Thus, students who had "good" and "very good" grades were classified as successful, those who had "poor" or "very poor" as unsuccessful. Based on these criteria the teacher "selected" 25 successful and 25 unsuccessful students. An equal number of students was chosen in order to facilitate comparing and processing the data. The students were not aware of the classification.

I have chosen two ways of processing the obtained data to increase the credibility of the research. There were "Yes" and "No" responses under all questions in the questionnaire. In the first section of the questionnaire, one way of specifying students preferences was summarising all positive and negative responses and transforming them into figures. The other way assumed that if given students responded positively to at least 60% of the questions,they were considered to be highly motivated, high risk-takers or highly anxious. In the case of self-esteem, since there were three variables: high, average and low, for each "high" response a student was given 3 points, "average" 2 points and for each "low" 1 point. In the final score, the following scale was assumed: 15-13 points, students with high self-esteem; 12-9 points, students with average self-esteem; and 8-5 points, students with low self-esteem.

The second section of the questionnaire investigated which strategies were used most frequently among successful and unsuccessful students. A response "Yes" showed that a given strategy was used by a learner, while "No" indicated that it was not.

3.5. RESULTS OF THE STUDY. DATA ANALYSIS

3.5.1. MOTIVATION AND LEARNING STRATEGIES

Out of the total number of replies (500, 50 students by 10 questions), the majority of them (64%, Table 1 below) came down in favour of high motivation. However, as figures in Table 2 indicate, successful students were more motivated than unsuccessful ones (69,6% and 58,4% respectively). Using different criteria (per head), there were 24 highly motivated students and only 1 lowly motivated among successful students; 14 and 11 respectively among unsuccessful students. These data show even more distinctly that there is a correlation between success and motivation.

Table 1. The overall record of motivation among the investigated students

MOTIVATION		
high	low	total
N 320 % 64	N 180 % 36	N*500 % 100

* total number of responses (10 questions by 50 students).

Table 2. The overall record of motivation among successful and unsuccessful students

MOTIVATION					
SUCCESSFUL STUDENTS			UNSUCCESSFUL STUDENTS		
high	low	total	high	low	total
N 174 % 69,6	N 76 % 30,4	N 250 % 100	N 146 % 58,4	N 104 % 41,6	N 250 % 100

Detailed analysis of different kinds of motivation (Tables 3-10) gives deeper insights into the problem. As Tables 3-4 show, 72,8% of all students responses indicated instrumental motivation. This rate was higher among successful highly motivated students (77,6%) in comparison with their unsuccessful counterparts (68%).

The data look different when it comes to integrative motivation. Only 37,2% of all students responses opted for high motivation (Table 5). The rate of highly motivated successful students was 47% (unsuccessful 28%) and lowly motivated 53% and 72% respectively (Table 6).

As can be seen from Tables 7-8, although there was a difference between high and low intrinsic motivation 64% and 36% among students in general, no such differences existed between successful and unsuccessful students.
As far as resultative motivation is concerned, 96% of all students responses indicated high motivation. However, there were only slight differences between successful and unsuccessful students 100% and 92% respectively (Tables 9–10 above).

Table 3. The overall record of instrumental motivation

INSTRUMENTAL MOTIVATION		
high	low	total
N 182 % 72,8	N 68 % 27,2	N 250 % 100

Table 4. The overall record of instrumental motivation among successful and unsuccessful students

INSTRUMENTAL MOTIVATION					
SUCCESSFUL STUDENTS			UNSUCCESSFUL STUDENTS		
high	low	total	high	low	total
N 97 % 77,6	N 28 % 22,4	N 125 % 100	N 85 % 68	N 40 % 32	N 125 % 100

Table 5. The overall record of integrative motivation

INTEGRATIVE MOTIVATION		
high	low	total
N 56 % 37,3	N 94 % 62,7	N 150 % 100

Table 6. The overall record of integrative motivation among successful and unsuccessful students

INTEGRATIVE MOTIVATION					
SUCCESSFUL STUDENTS			UNSUCCESSFUL STUDENTS		
high	low	total	high	low	total
N 35	N 40	N 75	N 21	N 54	N 75
% 47	% 53	% 100	% 28	% 72	% 100

Table 7. The overall record of intrinsic motivation

INTRINSIC MOTIVATION		
high	low	total
N 32	N 18	N 50
% 64	% 36	% 100

Table 8. The overall record of intrinsic motivation among successful unsuccessful students

INTRINSIC MOTIVATION					
SUCCESSFUL STUDENTS			UNSUCCESSFUL STUDENTS		
high	low	total	high	low	total
N 16	N 9	N 25	N 16	N 9	N 25
% 64	% 36	% 100	% 64	% 36	% 100

Table 9. The overall record of resultative motivation

RESULTATIVE MOTIVATION		
high	low	total
N 48	N 2	N 50
% 96	% 4	% 100

Table 10. The overall record of resultative motivation among successful and unsuccessful students

RESULTATIVE MOTIVATION					
SUCCESSFUL STUDENTS			UNSUCCESSFUL STUDENTS		
high	low	total	high	low	total
N 25	N O	N 25	N 23	N 2	N 25
% 100	% O	% 100	% 92	% 8	% 100

Table 11 (see below) shows the correlation between language strategy use and motivation. Among metacognitive strategies students most often used: self-monitoring 94,7% highly motivated students and 100%

lowly motivated; self-evaluation 89,5% and 75% respectively; self-management 73,7% and 33,3%; directed-attention 65,8% and 58,3%. As can be seen from the above data, the biggest difference in the use of language strategies between highly and lowly motivated students was in the case of self-management, self-evaluation and directed-attention. As far as cognitive strategies are concerned, students favoured inferencing 97,4% and 75% respectively, imagery 92,1% and 66,7%, repetition 89,5% and 66,7%, resourcing 89,5% and 91,7%, and translation 89,5% and 75%. Again, in most cases, highly motivated students used learning strategies more often than their counterparts with low motivation. The use of social/affective strategies was even more visible among highly motivated students: 68,4% and 33,3% respectively in the case of questions for clarification, 28,9% and 25% in the case of cooperation.

Table 11. The correlation between language strategy use and motivation

LEARNING STRATEGIES	**HIGH MOTIVATION (38*)**	**LOW MOTIVATION (12)**
METACOGNITIVE		
1.Advanced organizers	N 19 % 50	N**8 % 66,7
2.Directed attention	N 25 % 65,8	N 7 % 58,3
3.Selective attention	N 23 % 60,5	N 4 % 33,3
4.Self-management	N 28 % 73,7	N 4 % 33,3
5.Advanced preparation	N 15 % 39,5	N 3 % 25
6.Self-monitoring	N 36 % 94,7	N 12 % 100
7.Delayed production	N 8 % 21	N 7 % 58,3
8.Self-evaluation	N 34 % 89,5	N 9 % 75
Average	N 23,5 % 61,8	N 6,7 % 55,8

COGNITIVE		
1.Repetition	N 34 % 89.5	N 8 % 66,7
2.Resourcing	N 34 % 89,5	N 11 % 91,7
3.Directed physical response	N 29 % 76,3	N 6 % 50
4.Translation	N 34 % 89,5	N 9 % 75
5.Grouping	N 30 % 78,9	N 5 % 41,7
6.Note-taking	N 28 % 73,7	N 4 % 33,3
7.Deduction	N 33 % 86,8	N 11 % 91,7
8.Recombination	N 25 % 65,8	N 8 % 66,7
9.Imagery	N 35 % 92,1	N 8 % 66,7
10. Auditory representation	N 26 % 68,4	N 7 % 58,3
11.Contextualization	N 11 % 28,9	N 3 % 25
12.Inferencing	N 37 % 97,4	N 9 % 75
Average	N 29,7 % 78,1	N 7,4 % 61,7
SOCIAL/AFFECTIVE		
1.Cooperation	N 11 % 28,9	N 3 % 25
2.Questions for clarification	N 26 % 68,4	N 4 % 33,3
Average	N 18,5 % 48,7	N 3,5 % 29,2
Total average	N 23,9 % 62,9	N 5,9 % 49,2

* total number of students in a given group
** number of students using a given strategy

The analysis of the correlation between learning strategy use and motivation among successful and unsuccessful students turned out to be problematic since there was only one successful student with low

motivation, (see second column in Table 12). Thus, the data collected in it seem to be rather more incidental than representative and will not be analysed. Generally, students most frequently reported using the following strategies: self-monitoring 100% (successful highly motivated students), 85,7% (unsuccessful highly motivated students) and 100% lowly motivated students; self-evaluation 87,5%, 92,8% and 72,7% respectively; self-management 79,2%, 64,3% and 27,3%. The least frequently used strategies were: delayed production 4,2%, 50%, 54,5% respectively; advanced organizers 37,5%, 71,4% and 63,6%. From the cognitive strategies, students declared themselves to use: inferencing 95,8%, 100% and 72,7% respectively; imagery 87,5%, 100% and 63,6%; translation 87,5%, 92,8%, 72,7% and deduction 83,3%, 92,8%, and 90,9%. On average, students reported using 61,7%, 66,4% and 47,3% of the aforementioned learning strategies respectively.

Table 12. The correlation between language strategy use and motivation among successful and unsuccessful students

LEARNING STRATEGIES	**SUCCESSFUL STUDENTS**		**UNSUCCESSFUL STUDENTS**	
	HIGH MOTIVATION (24)	LOW MOTIVATION (1)	HIGH MOTIVATION (14)	LOW MOTIVATION (11)
METACOGNITIVE				
1.Advanced organizers	N 9 % 37,5	N 1 % 100	N 10 % 71,4	N 7 % 63,6
2.Directed attention	N 15 % 62,3	N 1 % 100	N 10 % 71,4	N 6 % 54,5
3.Selective attention	N 13 % 54,2	N 0 % 0	N 10 % 71,4	N 4 % 36,4
4.Self-management	N 19 % 79,2	N 1 % 100	N 9 % 64,3	N 3 % 27,3
5.Advanced preparation	N 12 % 50	N 0 % 0	N 3 % 21,4	N 3 % 27,3
6.Self-monitoring	N 24 % 100	N 1 % 100	N 12 % 85,7	N 11 % 100
7.Delayed production	N 1 % 4,2	N 1 % 100	N 7 % 50	N 6 % 54,5

8.Self evaluation	N 21 % 87,5	N 1 % 100	N 13 % 92,8	N 8 % 72,7
Average	N 14,2 % 59,2	N 0,75 % 75	N 9,2 % 65,7	N 6 % 54,5
COGNITVE				
1.Repetition	N 20 % 83,3	N 1 % 100	N 14 % 100	N 7 % 63,6
2.Resourcing	N 21 % 87,5	N 1 % 100	N 13 % 92,8	N 10 % 90,9
3.Directed p. response	N 19 % 79,2	N 1 % 100	N 10 % 71,4	N 5 % 45,4
4.Translation	N 21 % 87,5	N 1 % 100	N 13 % 92,8	N 8 % 72,7
5.Grouping	N 19 % 79,2	N 1 % 100	N 11 % 78,6	N 4 % 36,4
6.Note-taking	N 19 % 79,2	N 1 % 100	N 9 % 64,3	N 3 % 27,3
7.Deduction	N 20 % 83,3	N 1 % 100	N 13 % 92,8	N 10 % 90,9
8.Recombination	N 13 % 54,2	N 1 % 100	N 12 % 85,7	N 7 % 63,6
9.Imagery	N 21 % 87,5	N 1 % 100	N 14 % 100	N 7 % 63,6
10.Auditory representation	N 17 % 70,8	N 1 % 100	N 9 % 64,3	N 6 % 54,
11.Contextualization	N 7 % 29,2	N 0 % 0	N 4 % 28,6	N 3 % 27,3
12.Inferencing	N 23 % 95,8	N 1 % 100	N 14 % 100	N 8 % 72,7
Average	N 18,3 % 76,2	N 0,92 % 92	N 11,3 % 80,7	N 6,5 % 59,1
SOCIAL/AFFECTIVE				
1.Cooperation	N 4 % 16,7	N 0 % 0	N 7 % 50	N 3 % 27,3
2.Questions f. clarification	N 18 % 75	N 1 % 100	N 8 % 57,1	N 3 % 27,3
Average	N 12 % 50	N 0,5 % 50	N 7,5 % 53,6	N 3 % 27,3
Total average	N 14,8 % 61,7	N 0,72 % 72	N 9,3 % 66,4	N 5,2 % 47,3

On the whole, the obtained data allowed me to draw the following conclusions: the majority of investigated students were highly motivated in general as well as in particular types of motivation, except for integrative motivation. There was a correlation between success and motivation: successful students were generally more motivated, which was also confirmed by the particular kinds of motivation, apart from intrinsic motivation and to a lesser extent, resultative motivation. The same is true when it comes to the correlation between strategy use and motivation: highly motivated students used learning strategies more frequently than lowly motivated ones. However, the picture is more blurred as far as the correlation between learning strategy use and motivation among successful and unsuccessful students is concerned. It is difficult here to draw any suggestive conclusions, not counting the fact that unsuccessful students with low motivation used learning strategies less frequently than the others.

3.5.2. ANXIETY AND LEARNING STRATEGIES

As Table 13 shows, the majority of students' replies (57,4%)indicated low anxiety. There was a slight difference between successful and unsuccessful students (Table 14). Unsuccessful students appeared to be slightly more anxious than successful ones (45,2% and 40%). To express these figures in numbers (per head), there were 5 highly anxious successful students, 9 highly anxious unsuccessful ones, 20 lowly anxious successful students and 16 lowly anxious unsuccessful ones. Thus, these figures indicate that unsuccessful students were slightly more anxious than successful ones.

Table 13. The overall record of anxiety

ANXIETY		
high	low	total
N 213 % 42,6	N 287 % 57,4	N 500 % 100

Table 14. The overall record of anxiety among successful and unsuccessful students

ANXIETY					
SUCCESSFUL STUDENTS			UNSUCCESSFUL STUDENTS		
high	low	total	high	low	total
N 100 % 40	N 150 % 60	N 250 % 100	N 113 % 45,2	N 137 % 54,8	N 250 % 100

More detailed analysis of particular kinds of anxiety (Tables 15-24) shed more profound light on the issue. As far as trait (or global) anxiety is concerned (Tables 15-16), there was an almost equal number of responses in general (53% and 47%), more responses of successful students (62%; 44% of unsuccessful ones) came down, however, in favour of high trait anxiety. The opposite was true (40% and 62% respectively) when it came to state (or language) anxiety (Tables 17-18).

Table 15. The overall record of trait anxiety

TRAIT ANXIETY		
high	low	total
N 53 % 53	N 47 % 47	N 100 % 100

Table 16. The overall record of trait anxiety among successful and unsuccessful students

TRAIT ANXIETY					
SUCCESSFUL STUDENTS			UNSUCCESSFUL STUDENTS		
high	low	total	high	low	total
N 31 % 62	N 19 % 38	N 50 % 100	N 22 % 44	N 28 % 56	N 50 % 100

Table 17. The overall record of state anxiety

STATE ANXIETY		
high	low	total
N 51 % 51	N 49 % 49	N 100 % 100

Table 18. The overall record of state anxiety among successful and unsuccessful students

STATE ANXIETY					
SUCCESSFUL STUDENTS			UNSUCCESSFUL STUDENTS		
high	low	total	high	low	total
N 20 % 40	N 30 % 60	N 50 % 100	N 31 % 62	N 19 % 38	N 50 % 100

For the majority of students (79% of students replies, Table 19) anxiety did not facilitate learning. However, successful students seemed to benefit more from it (24% of students replies, Table 20) than unsuccessful ones (18%).

Table 19. The overall record of facilitating anxiety

FACILITATING ANXIETY		
yes	no	total
N 21 % 21	N 79 % 79	N 100 % 100

Table 20. The overall record of facilitating anxiety among successful and unsuccessful students

FACILITATING ANXIETY					
SUCCESSFUL STUDENTS			UNSUCCESSFUL STUDENTS		
yes	no	total	yes	no	total
N 12 % 24	N 38 % 76	N 50 % 100	N 9 % 18	N 41 % 82	N 50 % 100

The figures in Table 21 show that debilitating anxiety had a negative impact on the majority of students (56% of students responses). Successful students, however, were not as much affected by it (40% of students responses, Table 22) as the unsuccessful ones (72%).

Table 21. The overall record of debilitating anxiety

DEBILITATING ANXIETY		
yes	no	total
N 56 % 56	N 44 % 44	N 100 % 100

Table 22. The overall record of debilitating anxiety among successful and unsuccessful students

DEBILITATING ANXIETY					
SUCCESSFUL STUDENTS			UNSUCCESSFUL STUDENTS		
yes	no	total	yes	no	total
N 20 % 40	N 30 % 60	N 50 % 100	N 36 % 72	N 14 % 28	N 50 % 100

The influence of competitiveness on anxiety was not as remarkable (30% of students' responses in general and among successful and unsuccessful students, (Tables 23-24) as it was in the case of other kinds of anxiety.

Table 23. The overall record of the influence of competitiveness on anxiety

ANXIETY-COMPETITIVENESS		
yes	no	total
N 30 % 30	N 70 % 70	N 100 % 100

Table 24. The overall record of the influence of competitiveness on anxiety among successful and unsuccessful students

ANXIETY-COMPETITIVENESS					
SUCCESSFUL STUDENTS			UNSUCCESSFUL STUDENTS		
yes	no	total	yes	no	total
N 15 % 30	N 35 % 70	N 50 % 100	N 15 % 30	N 35 % 70	N 50 % 100

Table 25 presents the correlation between language strategy use and anxiety. Highly anxious students most often used the following metacognitive strategies: self-monitoring (100%), directed attention (78,5%), advanced organizers, self-management and self-evaluation (71,4% each). Lowly anxious students opted for: self-monitoring (94,4%), self-evaluation (83,3%) and self-management (61,1%). Surprisingly, on average, highly anxious students tended to use more metacognitive strategies than their counterparts with low anxiety (67,1% and 56,9% respectively). The situation looked somewhat different when it came to cognitive strategies. Highly

anxious students reported using: translation, imagery, inferencing (92,8% each), resourcing, deduction (85,7% each) and grouping (78,6%).

Table 25. The correlation between language strategy use and anxiety

LEARNING STRATEGIES	HIGH ANXIETY (14)	LOW ANXIETY (36)
METACOGNITIVE		
1.Advanced organizers	N 10 % 71,4	N 17 % 47,2
2.Directed attention	N 11 % 78,5	N 21 % 58,3
3.Selective attention	N 9 % 64,2	N 19 % 52,7
4.Self-management	N 10 % 71,4	N 22 % 61,1
5.Advanced preparation	N 5 % 35,7	N 13 % 36,1
6.Self-monitoring	N 14 % 100	N 34 % 94,4
7.Delayed production	N 6 % 42,8	N 8 % 22,2
8.Self-evaluation	N 10 % 71,4	N 30 % 83,3
Average	N 9,4 % 67,1	N 20,5 % 56,9
COGNITIVE		
1.Repetition	N 11 % 78,9	N 31 % 86,1
2.Resourcing	N 12 % 85,7	N 32 % 88,9
3.Directed physical response	N 8 % 57,1	N 26 % 72,2
4.Translation	N 13 % 92,8	N 29 % 80,5
5.Grouping	N 11 % 78,6	N 33 % 91,7
6.Note-taking	N 9 % 64,3	N 23 % 63,9
7.Deduction	N 12 % 85,7	N 32 % 88,9
8.Recombination	N 8 % 57,1	N 25 % 69,4

9.Imagery	N 13 % 92,8	N 30 % 83,3
10.Auditory representation	N 10 % 71,4	N 24 % 66,7
11.Contextualization	N 2 % 14,3	N 11 % 30,5
12.Inferencing	N 13 % 92,8	N 33 % 91,7
Average	N 10,2 % 72,8	N 27,4 % 76,1
SOCIAL/AFFECTIVE		
1.Cooperation	N 4 % 28,6	N 10 % 27,8
2.Questions for clarification	N 10 % 71,4	N 20 % 55,5
Average	N 7 % 50	N 15 % 41,6
Total average	N 8,9 % 63,6	N 21 % 58,3

Students with low anxiety opted for grouping, inferencing (91,7% each), resourcing, deduction (88,9% each) and imagery (83,3%). On average, unlike in the case of metacognitive strategies, the proportion of students with low anxiety using cognitive strategies was slightly higher (76,1%) than highly anxious students (72,1%).

The figures from Table 26 present the correlation between anxiety and learning strategy use among successful and unsuccessful students. The obtained results are quite mixed. Part of the reason for this could be the fact that there were only 5 highly anxious successful students, so the data here may be unrepresentative and should be treated with caution. The most frequently used metacognitive strategies by successful students with both high and low anxiety comprised: self-monitoring (100% and 100% respectively), self-management (100% and 75%), directed attention (80% and 60%) and self-evaluation (80% and 90%). Unsuccessful students, in turn, used: self-monitoring (100% and 87,5%), advanced organizers (88,9%

and 56,2%), directed attention (77,8% and 56,2%) and self-evaluation (66,7% and 75%). On average, the results did not differ much between successful and unsuccessful students (64% and 60% successful students, high and low anxiety respectively; 67,8% and 53,1% unsuccessful students).

Table 26. The correlation between language strategy use and anxiety among successful and unsuccessful students

LEARNING STRATEGIES	**SUCCESSFUL STUDENTS**		**UNSUCCESSFUL STUDENTS**	
	HIGH ANXIETY (5)	LOW ANXIETY (20)	HIGH ANXIETY (9)	LOW ANXIETY (16)
METACOGNITIVE				
1.Advanced organizers	N 2 % 40	N 8 % 40	N 8 % 88,9	N 9 % 56,2
2.Directed attention	N 4 % 80	N 12 % 60	N 7 % 77,8	N 9 % 56,2
3.Selective attention	N 3 % 60	N 12 % 60	N 6 % 66,7	N 7 % 43,7
4.Self-management	N 5 % 100	N 15 % 75	N 5 % 55,6	N 7 % 43,7
5.Advanced preparation	N 3 % 60	N 9 % 45	N 2 % 22,2	N 4 % 2
6.Self-monitoring	N 5 % 100	N 20 % 100	N 9 % 100	N 14 % 87,5
7.Delayed production	N O % 0	N 2 % 10	N 6 % 66,7	N 6 % 37,5
8.Self-evaluation	N 4 % 80	N 18 % 90	N 6 % 66,7	N 12 % 75
Average	N 3,2 % 64	N 12 % 60	N 6,1 % 67,8	N 8,5 % 53,1
COGNITIVE				
1.Repetition	N 4 % 80	N 17 % 85	N 7 % 77,8	N 14 % 87,5
2.Resourcing	N 4 % 80	N 18 % 90	N 8 % 88,9	N 14 % 87,5
3.Directed physical response	N 3 % 60	N 16 % 80	N 5 % 55,6	N 10 % 62,5
4.Translation	N 4 % 80	N 17 % 85	N 9 % 100	N 12 % 75
5.Grouping	N 4 % 80	N 15 % 75	N 7 % 77,8	N 8 % 50

6.Note-taking	N 4 % 60	N 16 % 80	N 5 % 55,6	N 7 % 43,7
7.Deduction	N 3 % 60	N 18 % 90	N 9 % 100	N 14 % 87,5
8.Recombination	N 1 % 20	N 13 % 65	N 7 % 77,8	N 12 % 75
9.Imagery	N 5 % 100	N 17 % 85	N 8 % 88,9	N 13 % 81,2
10.Auditory representation	N 3 % 60	N 15 % 75	N 7 % 77,8	N 9 % 56,2
11.Contextualization	N 1 % 20	N 6 % 30	N 1 % 11,1	N 5 % 31,2
12.Inferencing	N 5 % 100	N 19 % 95	N 8 % 88,9	N 14 % 87,5
Average	N 3,4 % 68	N 15,6 % 78	N 6,7 % 74,4	N 11 % 68,7
SOCIAL/AFFECTIVE				
1.Cooperation	N 0 % 0	N 4 % 20	N 4 % 44,4	N 6 % 37,5
2.Questions for clarification	N 4 % 80	N 15 % 75	N 6 % 66,7	N 5 % 31,2
Average	N 2 % 40	N 9,5 % 47,5	N 5 % 55,5	N 5,5 % 34,4
Total average	N 2,9 % 58	N 12,4 % 62	N 5,9 % 65,5	N 8,3 % 51,9

As far as cognitive strategies are concerned, successful highly and lowly anxious students most often used: inferencing 100% and 95% respectively, imagery 100% and 85%, resourcing 80% and 90%, repetition and translation 80% and 85% each and deduction 60% and 90%. Unsuccessful highly and lowly anxious students opted for: deduction 100% to 87,5% respectively, translation 100% to 75%, resourcing 88,9% and 87,5%, imagery 88,9% and 81,2% and repetition 77,8% and 87,5%. As the total average indicates, there were no notable differences between language strategy use and anxiety among successful and unsuccessful students (58%, 62%, 65,5% and 51,9% respectively).

By and large, the data collected in Tables 13-26 allowed me to draw some general conclusions.

Unsuccessful students were slightly more anxious than successful ones. This was especially visible in the case of state (or language anxiety). Anxiety was rather more debilitating than facilitating and this was particularly true for unsuccessful students. There was rather weak correlation between anxiety and language strategy choice in general, both among successful and unsuccessful students.

3.5.3. SELF-ESTEEM AND LEARNING STRATEGIES

The figures in Table 27 show that the majority of the investigated students (60,8% of students responses) opted for average self-esteem. The data from Table 28 revealed that successful students assessed themselves much higher than unsuccessful ones (38,4% and 5,6% respectively). The opposite was true when it came to low self-esteem: 2,4% and 32% respectively. Different criteria of processing the data confirm the above results: there were 9 successful students with high self-esteem, 15 with average and only one with low; no unsuccessful students with high self-esteem, 15 with average and 10 with low self-esteem. These results confirm the existence of correlation between success and self-esteem among the investigated students.

Table 27. The overall record of self-esteem

SELF-ESTEEM			
high	average	low	total
N 55 % 22	N 152 % 60,8	N 43 % 17,2	N 250 % 100

Table 28. The overall record of self-esteem among successful and unsuccessful students

SELF-ESTEEM							
SUCCESSFUL STUDENTS				UNSUCCESSFUL STUDENTS			
high	average	low	total	high	average	low	total
N 48 % 38,4	N 74 % 59,2	N 3 % 2,4	N 125 % 100	N 7 % 5,6	N 78 % 62,4	N 40 % 32	N 125 % 100

The analysis of particular kinds of self-esteem (Tables 29-33) provided a more complete picture of the issue. As can be seen from Table 29 all students' responses split between high (40%) and average (60%); no students reported low global self-esteem. However, more successful students reported high global self-esteem (52% of responses) than their unsuccessful counterparts (28%, Table 30).

As far as specific (or referring to second language acquisition in general) self-esteem is concerned, there was almost an equal proportion of students' responses with high and low specific self-esteem (14% and 16% respectively, Table 31). The results look different, though, for successful and unsuccessful students (Table 32), the former assessed themselves much higher (28% of positive responses) than the latter (0% of positive responses). The opposite was true when it came to low specific self-esteem (0% and 32% respectively).

Table 29. The overall record of global self-esteem

GLOBAL SELF-ESTEEM			
high	average	low	total
N 20 % 40	N 30 % 60	N 0 % 0	N 50 % 100

Table 30. The overall record of global self-esteem among successful and unsuccessful students

GLOBAL SELF-ESTEEM							
SUCCESSFUL STUDENTS				UNSUCCESSFUL STUDENTS			
high	average	low	total	high	average	low	total
N 13 % 52	N 12 % 48	N 0 % 0	N 25 % 100	N 7 % 28	N 18 % 72	N 0 % 0	N 25 % 100

Table 31. The overall record of specific self-esteem

SPECIFIC SELF-ESTEEM			
high	average	low	total
N 14 % 14	N 70 % 70	N 16 % 16	N 100 % 100

Table 32. The overall record of specific self-esteem among successful and unsuccessful students

SPECIFIC SELF-ESTEEM							
SUCCESSFUL STUDENTS				UNSUCCESSFUL STUDENTS			
high	average	low	total	high	average	low	total
N 14 % 28	N 36 % 72	N 0 % 0	N 50 % 100	N 0 % 0	N 34 % 68	N 16 % 32	N 50 % 100

Similar results were reported in relation to task self-esteem, (Tables 33-34)42%of successful students' responses indicated high task self-esteem with the unsuccessful only 2% and low self-esteem was indicated by 6% and 48% respectively. In brief, both general and detailed analysis of self-esteem confirmed the findings of the research: the more successful the student the higher self-esteem.

Table 33. The overall record of self-esteem

TASK SELF-ESTEEM			
high	average	low	total
N 22 % 22	N 51 % 51	N 27 % 27	N 100 % 100

Table 34. The overall record of task self-esteem among successful and unsuccessful students

TASK SELF-ESTEEM							
SUCCESSFUL STUDENTS				UNSUCCESSFUL STUDENTS			
high	average	low	total	high	average	low	total
N 21 % 42	N 26 % 52	N 3 % 6	N 50 % 100	N 1 % 2	N 25 % 50	N 24 % 48	N 50 % 100

Tables 35-36 present the correlation between language strategy use and self-esteem in general and among successful and unsuccessful students. As shown in Table 35, students with high self-esteem reported using: self-evaluation and self-monitoring (100% each), self-management (88,9%) and selective attention (77,8%). Surprisingly, none of the students reported using delayed production.

Table 35. The correlation between language strategy use and self-esteem

LEARNING STRATEGIES	SELF-ESTEEM		
	HIGH (9)	AVERAGE (30)	LOW (11)
METACOGNITIVE			
1.Advanced organizers	N 5 % 55,5	N 13 % 43,3	N 9 % 81,8
2.Directed attention	N 6 % 66,7	N 18 % 60	N 8 % 72,7
3.Selective attention	N 7 % 77,8	N 15 % 50	N 6 % 54,5
4.Self-management	N 8 % 88,9	N 19 % 63,3	N 5 % 45,4
5.Advanced preparation	N 5 % 55,5	N 11 % 36,7	N 2 % 18,1
6.Self-monitoring	N 9 % 100	N 29 % 96,7	N 10 % 90,9
7.Delayed production	N 0 % 0	N 8 % 26,7	N 7 % 63,6
8.Self-evaluation	N 9 % 100	N 24 % 80	N 10 % 90,9
Average	N 6,1 % 67,7	N 17,1 % 57	N 7,1 % 64,5
COGNITIVE			
1.Repetition	N 6 % 66,7	N 27 % 90	N 9 % 81,8
2.Resourcing	N 7 % 77,8	N 28 % 93,3	N 9 % 81,8
3.Directed physical response	N 8 % 88,9	N 22 % 73,3	N 5 % 45,4
4.Translation	N 7 % 77,8	N 26 % 86,7	N 10 % 90,9
5.Grouping	N 8 % 88,9	N 18 % 60	N 9 % 81,8
6.Note-taking	N 6 % 67,7	N 19 % 63,3	N 8 % 72,7
7.Deduction	N 8 % 88,9	N 25 % 83,3	N 11 % 100
8.Recombination	N 6 % 67,7	N 21 % 70	N 7 % 63,6
9.Imagery	N 8 % 88,9	N 26 % 86,7	N 9 % 81,8
10.Auditory representation	N 5 % 55,5	N 20 % 66,7	N 8 % 72,7

11.Contextualization	N 4 % 44,4	N 9 % 30	N 1 % 9,1
12.Inferencing	N 9 % 100	N 27 % 90	N 10 % 90,9
Average	N 6,8 % 75,5	N 22,3 % 74,3	N 8 % 72,7
SOCIAL/AFFECTIVE			
1.Cooperation	N 3 % 33,3	N 7 % 23,3	N 4 % 36,4
2.Questions for clarification	N 7 % 77,8	N 17 % 56,7	N 6 % 54,5
Average	N 5 % 55,5	N 12 % 40	N 5 % 45,4
Total average	N 6 % 66,7	N 17,1 % 57	N 6,7 % 60,9

Interestingly enough, students with average self-esteem employed delayed production in 26,7% and with low self-esteem in 63,6%. Students with low self-esteem most frequently used: self-evaluation and self-monitoring (90,9% each), advanced organizers (81,8%) and directed attention (72,7%). On average, the proportion of students who used metacognitive strategies was 67,7% for students with high self-esteem, 57% - average self-esteem and 64,5% – low self-esteem.

The most frequent use of cognitive strategies involved: inferencing (100%), directed physical response, grouping, deduction and imagery (88,9% each) among students with high self-esteem; resourcing (93,3%), repetition and inferencing (90% each), imagery and translation (86,7% each) among students with average self-esteem and deduction (100%), inferencing and translation (90,9% each), repetition and resourcing (81,8% each) among students with low self-esteem. On average, the use of cognitive strategies was about equal: 75,5%, 74,3% and 72,7% respectively. Generally, students with high self-esteem employed 66,7% of learning strategies, average 57% and low 60,9%.

The analysis of the correlation between language strategy use and self-esteem among successful and unsuccessful students does not seem to be fully complete

since there were no unsuccessful students with high self-esteem. Besides, among successful students there was only one with low self-esteem. As a result, the first section in Table 36 (successful students with high self-esteem) remained the same as in Table 35, and there were only slight differences between Tables 35-36 in the last section (unsuccessful students with low self-esteem). Due to these facts, only a comparison between successful and unsuccessful students with average self-esteem seems to be reasonable. The results were quite similar. Both successful and unsuccessful students most often used: self-monitoring 100% and 93,3% respectively, self-evaluation 80% each, directed attention 60% each, self-management 80% and 46,7% (the biggest difference). When it comes to cognitive strategies the results were slightly different. Students most frequently employed: translation 100% and 73,3% respectively, resourcing 93,3% each, repetition 93,3% and 86,7%, inferencing 93,3% and 86,7% and imagery 86,7% each. In short, successful students with average self-esteem tended to use learning strategies slightly more often (58,7%) than unsuccessful ones (56%).

Table 36.The correlation between language strategy use and self-esteem among successful and unsuccessful students

LEARNING STRATEGIES	**SUCCESSFUL STUDENTS**			**UNSUCCESSFUL STUDENTS**		
	HIGH (9)	AVERAGE (15)	LOW (1)	HIGH (0)	AVERAGE (15)	LOW (10)
METACOGNITIVE						
1.Advanced Organizers	N 5 % 55,5	N 5 % 33,3	N 0 % O	N – % -	N 8 % 53,3	N 9 % 90
2.Directed attention	N 6 % 66,7	N 9 % 60	N 1 % 100	N – % -	N 9 % 60	N 7 % 70
3.Selective attention	N 7 % 77,8	N 7 % 46,7	N 1 % 100	N – % -	N 8 % 53,3	N 5 % 50
4.Self-management	N 8 % 88,9	N 12 % 80	N O % O	N – % -	N 7 % 46,7	N 5 % 50
5.Advanced preparation	N 5 % 55,5	N 7 % 46,7	N O % O	N – % -	N 4 % 26,7	N 2 % 20
6.Self-monitoring	N 9 % 100	N 15 % 100	N 1 % 100	N – % -	N 14 % 93,3	N 9 % 90

7.Delayed production	N O % O	N 2 % 13,3	N 0 % 0	N – % –	N 6 % 40	N 7 % 70
8.Self-evaluation	N 9 % 100	N 12 % 80	N 1 % 100	N – % –	N 12 % 80	N 9 % 90
Average	N 6,1 % 67,7	N 8,6 % 57,3	N 0,5 % 50	N – % –	N 8,5 % 56,7	N 6,6 % 66
COGNITIVE						
1.Repetition	N 6 % 66,7	N 14 % 93,3	N 1 % 100	N – % –	N 13 % 86,7	N 8 % 80
2.Resourcing	N 7 % 77,8	N 14 % 93,3	N 1 % 100	N – % –	N 14 % 93,3	N 8 % 80
3.Directed p. response	N 8 % 88,9	N 12 % 80	N 0 % 0	N – % –	N 10 % 66,7	N 5 % 50
4.Translation	N 7 % 77,8	N 15 % 100	N 0 % O	N – % –	N 11 % 73,3	N 10 % 100
5.Grouping	N 8 % 88,9	N 11 % 73,3	N 1 % 100	N – % –	N 7 % 46,7	N 8 % 80
6.Note-taking	N 6 % 67,7	N 13 % 86,7	N 1 % 100	N – % –	N 6 % 40	N 7 % 70
7.Deduction	N 8 % 88,9	N 12 % 80	N 1 % 100	N – % –	N 13 % 86,7	N 10 % 100
8.Recombination	N 6 % 67,7	N 8 % 53,3	N O % O	N – % –	N 13 % 86,7	N 7 % 70
9.Imagery	N 8 % 88,9	N 13 % 86,7	N 1 % 100	N – % –	N 13 % 86,7	N 8 % 80
10.Auditory representation	N 5 % 55,5	N 12 % 80	N 1 % 100	N – % –	N 8 % 53,3	N 7 % 70
11.Contextualization	N 4 % 44,4	N 3 % 20	N 0 % 0	N – % –	N 6 % 40	N 1 % 10
12.Inferencing	N 9 % 100	N 14 % 93,3	N 1 % 100	N – % –	N 13 % 86,7	N 9 % 90
Average	N 6,8 % 75,5	N 11,7 % 78	N 0,67 % 67	N – % –	N 10,6 % 70,7	N 7,3 % 73
SOCIAL/AFFECTIVE						
1.Cooperation	N 3 % 33,3	N 1 % 6,7	N 0 % 0	N – % –	N 6 % 40	N 4 % 40
2.Questions for clarification	N 7 % 77,8	N 11 % 73,3	N 1 % 100	N – % –	N 6 % 40	N 5 % 50
Average	N 5 % 55,5	N 6 % 40	N 0,5 % 50	N – % –	N 6 % 40	N 4,5 % 45
Total average	N 6 % 66,7	N 8,8 % 58,7	N O,5 % 50	N – % –	N 8,4 % 56	N 6,1 % 61

On the whole, the figures obtained in Tables 27-36 let me draw a conclusion that there was a correlation between self-esteem and success, the more successful students the higher self-esteem, which was also confirmed by all investigated particular types of self-esteem. Little, linkage, however, can be found between self-esteem, success and the choice of strategy.

3.5.4. RISK-TAKING AND LEARNING STRATEGIES

As can be seen from Table 37, the majority of students came down in favour of high risk-taking (57% of students replies). In numbers (per head), 70% of students declared themselves as high risk-takers. The proportion of high and low risk-taking among successful and unsuccessful students was almost equal (56% and 44% of responses) among successful, 57% and 42,3% among unsuccessful students respectively (Table 38). In numbers (per head), there were 17 successful students with high risk-taking and eight with low, 18 unsuccessful with high risk-taking and seven with low. Thus, the above figures (analysed by using different criteria) show that there was no correlation between risk-taking and success among the investigated students.

Table 37. The overall record of risk-taking

RISK-TAKING		
high	low	total
N 199 % 57	N 151 % 43	N 350 % 100

Table 38. The overall record of risk-taking among successful and unsuccessful students

RISK-TAKING					
SUCCESSFUL STUDENTS			UNSUCCESSFUL STUDENTS		
high	low	total	high	low	total
N 98 % 56	N 77 % 44	N 175 % 100	N 101 % 57,7	N 74 % 42,3	N 175 % 100

Tables 39-40 present the correlation between language strategy use and risk-taking in general (Table 39) and among successful and unsuccessful students (Table 40). As can be seen from figures in Table 39, students most frequently chose to use: self-monitoring 97,1% (high risk-takers) and 93,3% (low risk-takers), self-evaluation 88,6% and 80% respectively, self-management 54,3% and 86,7%. Surprisingly, on average low risk-takers reported to use metacognitive learning strategies slightly more often (66%) than high risk-takers (58,6%). When it comes to cognitive strategies, successful and unsuccessful students most frequently used: inferencing 94,3% and 73,3% respectively, imagery 91,4% and 73,3%, deduction and resourcing 85,7% and 93,3% each, translation and repetition 85,7% and 80% each. As the total average figures show, there was almost no difference between high risk-takers and low risk-takers as far as the usage of learning strategies is concerned (59,7% and 58%).

Table 39. The correlation between language strategy use and risk-taking

LEARNING STRATEGIES	HIGH RISK-TAKING (35)	LOW RISK-TAKING (15)
METACOGNITIVE		
1.Advanced organizers	N 15 % 42,8	N 12 % 80
2.Directed attention	N 22 % 62,8	N 10 % 66,7
3.Selective attention	N 20 % 57,1	N 8 % 53,3
4.Self-management	N 19 % 54,3	N 13 % 86,7
5.Advanced preparation	N 13 % 37,1	N 5 % 33,3
6.Self-monitoring	N 34 % 97,1	N 14 % 93,3
7.Delayed production	N 10 % 28,6	N 5 % 33,3
8.Self-evaluation	N 31 % 88,6	N 12 % 80
Average	N 20,5 % 58,6	N 9,9 % 66

COGNITIVE		
1.Repetition	N 30 % 85,7	N 12 % 80
2.Resourcing	N 30 % 85,7	N 14 % 93,3
3.Directed physical response	N 24 % 68,6	N 11 % 73,3
4.Translation	N 30 % 85,7	N 12 % 80
5.Grouping	N 24 % 68,6	N 12 % 80
6.Note-taking	N 24 % 68,6	N 9 % 60
7.Deduction	N 30 % 85,7	N 14 % 93,3
8.Recombination	N 24 % 68,6	N 10 % 66,7
9.Imagery	N 32 % 91,4	N 11 % 73,3
10.Auditory representation	N 24 % 68,6	N 9 % 60
11.Contextualization	N 10 % 28,6	N 4 % 26,7
12.Inferencing	N 33 % 94,3	N 11 % 73,3
Average	N 26,2 % 74,8	N 10,7 % 71,3
SOCIAL/AFFECTIVE		
1.Cooperation	N 9 % 25,7	N 5 % 33,3
2.Questions for clarification	N 23 % 65,7	N 6 % 40
Average	N 16 % 45,7	N 5,5 % 36,7
Total average	N 20,9 % 59,7	N 8,7 % 58

According to Table 40, there was a narrow margin between successful and unsuccessful students in strategy use as well as in preferences for particular strategies. Thus, from metacognitive strategies students most often reported using: self-monitoring 100%, both successful

high and low risk-takers, unsuccessful high risk-takers (94,4%) and unsuccessful low risk-takers (85,7%); self-evaluation: 88,2%, 87,5%, 88,9% and 71,4% respectively; self-management: 76,5%, 87,5%, 33,3% and 85,7%. The case of delayed production was again unusual (as it was in the case of motivation, anxiety and self-esteem) and the proportion of the strategy use rose more in the opposite direction than what was expected: 5,9%, 12,5%, 50% and 57,1% respectively.

Table 40. The correlation between language strategy use and risk-taking among successful and unsuccessful students

LEARNING STRATEGIES	**SUCCESSFUL STUDENTS**		**UNSUCCESSFUL STUDENTS**	
	HIGH RISK-TAKING (17)	LOW RISK-TAKING (8)	HIGH RISK-TAKING (18)	LOW RISK-TAKING (7)
METACOGNITIVE				
1.Advanced organizers	N 4 % 23,5	N 6 % 75	N 11 % 61,1	N 6 % 85,7
2.Directed attention	N 10 % 58,8	N 6 % 75	N 12 % 66,7	N 4 % 57,1
3.Selective attention	N 11 % 64,7	N 4 % 50	N 9 % 50	N 4 % 57,1
4.Self-management	N 13 % 76,5	N 7 % 87,5	N 6 % 33,3	N 6 % 85,7
5.Advanced preparation	N 9 % 52,9	N 3 % 37,5	N 4 % 22,2	N 2 % 28,6
6.Self-monitoring	N 17 % 100	N 8 % 100	N 17 % 94,4	N 6 % 85,7
7.Delayed production	N 1 % 5,9	N 1 % 12,5	N 9 % 50	N 4 % 57,1
8.Self-evaluation	N 15 % 88,2	N 7 % 87,5	N 16 % 88,9	N 5 % 71,4
Average	N 10 % 58,8	N 5,2 % 65	N 10,5 % 58,3	N 4,6 % 65,7
COGNITIVE				
1.Repetition	N 15 % 88,2	N 6 % 75	N 15 % 83,3	N 6 % 85,7
2.Resourcing	N 15 % 88,2	N 7 % 87,5	N 15 % 83,3	N 7 % 100
3.Directed physical response	N 13 % 76,5	N 7 % 87,5	N 11 % 61,1	N 4 % 57,1

4.Translation	N 14 % 82,3	N 7 % 87,5	N 16 % 88,9	N 5 % 71,4
5.Grouping	N 14 % 82,3	N 7 % 87,5	N 10 % 55,5	N 5 % 71,4
6.Note-taking	N 14 % 82,3	N 6 % 75	N 10 % 55,5	N 3 % 42,8
7.Deduction	N 14 % 82,3	N 7 % 87,5	N 16 % 88,9	N 7 % 100
8.Recombination	N 9 % 52,9	N 5 % 62,5	N 15 % 83,3	N 5 % 71,4
9.Imagery	N 16 % 94,1	N 6 % 75	N 16 % 88,9	N 5 % 71,4
10.Auditory representation	N 14 % 82,3	N 4 % 50	N 10 % 55,5	N 5 % 71,4
11.Contextualisation	N 4 % 23,5	N 3 % 37,5	N 6 % 33,3	N 1 % 14,3
12.Inferencing	N 17 % 100	N 6 % 75	N 16 % 88,9	N 5 % 71,4
Average	N 13,2 % 77,6	N 5,9 % 73,7	N 13 % 72,2	N 4,8 % 68,6
SOCIAL/AFFECTIVE				
1.Cooperation	N 3 % 17,6	N 1 % 12,5	N 6 % 33,3	N 4 % 57,1
2.Questions for clarification	N 15 % 88,2	N 3 % 37,5	N 8 % 44,4	N 3 % 42,8
Average	N 9 % 52,9	N 2 % 25	N 7 % 38,9	N 3,5 % 50
Total average	N 10,7 % 62,9	N 4,4 % 55	N 10,2 % 56,7	N 4,3 % 61,4

The proportion of cognitive strategy use between successful and unsuccessful students did not differ much from the metacognitive ones. Students most frequently chose to use: inferencing 100% (successful high risk-takers), 75% (successful low risk-takers), 88,9% unsuccessful high risk-takers, 71,4% unsuccessful low risk-takers; imagery: 94,1%, 75%, 88,9% and 71,4% respectively; resourcing: 88,2%, 87,5% 83,3% and 100%; and repetition: 88,2%, 75%, 83,3% and 85,7%. Although the frequency of strategy use was the highest among

successful high risk-takers (62,9%), these differences were slight (55%, 56,7% and 61,4% respectively).

In conclusion, 70% of the investigated students were high risk-takers. However, there was no correlation between success and risk-taking (approximately the same number of risk-takers among successful and unsuccessful students). The same is true when it comes to the correlation between language strategy use and risk-taking in general and among successful and unsuccessful students. There was only a narrow majority in favour of successful high risk-takers.

3.5.5. LEARNING STRATEGY USE AND SUCCESS

Table 41 presents the correlation between language learning strategy use and success. Although the differences, on average, between students were not great, the differences between some learning strategies remained remarkable. Self-management, for example, was used by 80% of successful students and only by 48% of unsuccessful ones, self-monitoring by 100% and 92% respectively, self-evaluation 88% and 84%. The results of delayed production were unusual since this strategy was used only by 8% of successful students and up to 52% by unsuccessful ones. It is problematic to find the reason for this discrepancy. Out of cognitive strategies, successful and unsuccessful students most often reported using: inferencing (96% and 84% respectively), grouping and directed physical response (80% and 60% each). Deduction (84% and 92%) and recombination (56% and 80%) belonged to strategies more often used by unsuccessful students. From social/affective strategies, successful students more often used questions for clarification (76% and 44%) than unsuccessful ones but the opposite was true of cooperation (16% and 40% respectively).

Table 41. The correlation between success and learning strategy use

LEARNING STRATEGIES	SUCCESSFUL STUDENTS (25)	UNSUCCESSFUL STUDENTS (25)
METACOGNITIVE		
1.Advanced organizers	N 10 % 40	N 17 % 68
2.Directed attention	N 16 % 64	N 16 % 64
3.Selective attention	N 15 % 60	N 13 % 52
4.Self-management	N 20 % 80	N 12 % 48
5.Advanced preparation	N 12 % 48	N 6 % 24
6.Self-monitoring	N 25 % 100	N 23 % 92
7.Delayed production	N 2 % 8	N 13 % 52
8.Self-evaluation	N 22 % 88	N 21 % 84
Average	N 15,2 % 61	N 15,1 % 60,5
COGNITIVE		
1.Repetition	N 21 % 84	N 21 % 84
2.Resourcing	N 22 % 88	N 22 % 88
3.Directed physical response	N 20 % 80	N 15 % 60
4.Translation	N 22 % 88	N 21 % 84
5.Grouping	N 20 % 80	N 15 % 60
6.Note-taking	N 20 % 80	N 13 % 52
7.Deduction	N 21 % 84	N 23 % 92
8.Recombination	N 14 % 56	N 20 % 80
9.Imagery	N 22 % 88	N 21 % 84
10.Auditory representation	N 18 % 72	N 15 % 60

11.Contextualisation	N 7 % 28	N 7 % 28
12.Inferencing	N 24 % 96	N 21 % 84
Average	N 19,2 % 77	N 17,8 % 71,3
SOCIAL/AFFECTIVE		
1.Cooperation	N 4 % 16	N 10 % 40
2.Questions for clarification	N 19 % 76	N 11 % 44
Average	N 11,5 % 46,6	N 10,5 % 42
Total average	N 17,1 % 68,4	N 16,2 % 64,8

In brief, from the aforementioned figures a conclusion can be drawn that successful students favoured using the following strategies: self-management, self-monitoring, self-attention, self-evaluation, inferencing, note-taking, grouping, directed physical response and questions for clarification. It seems that these strategies should be promoted by teachers through training and proper choice of activities in order to improve their students' performance.

FINAL CONCLUSIONS

The main objective of this thesis was to find the influence of motivation, anxiety, self-esteem and risk-taking on strategy choice and success. In the first and second chapters of this thesis, I presented the state of research on the issue. In brief, it looked as follows: motivation is a powerful factor influencing student's success; moderate anxiety can be facilitating; moderate risk-taking is linked with achievement; there exists the correlation between self-esteem and performance; there are links between motivation and the above personality factors (particularly motivation – highly motivated and successful students used learning strategies more often); learning strategies help learners take control of their learning and facilitate achieving their goals; metacognitive strategies are crucial to effective learning; learning strategies will prove most helpful when deployed in clusters, but the research did not answer the question what groupings of strategies work best.

My research, which was dealt with in the third chapter, confirmed only some of the findings of the research. Generally, there were links between learning strategies and motivation. Highly motivated students employed learning strategies more frequently than their counterparts with low motivation. The former most often reported using: self-evaluation, self-management, self-monitoring, directed attention, selective attention, inferencing, imagery, repetition, translation, and resourcing. Although there was the correlation between success and motivation, successful students were generally more motivated (also confirmed by particular types of motivation, apart from the intrinsic and to a lesser extent the resultative one), it was difficult to draw any suggestive conclusions when it came to the

correlation between learning strategy use and motivation among successful and unsuccessful students.

Unlike in the case of motivation, the obtained data concerning anxiety revealed rather weak correlation between anxiety and learning strategy choice in general and among successful and unsuccessful students. On average, the percentage of highly anxious students using learning strategies was higher than those with low anxiety (63,6% and 58,3%) respectively. Students with low anxiety most often employed: self-monitoring, self-evaluation, inferencing, grouping, imagery, resourcing and deduction. Nevertheless, more suggestive conclusions can be drawn as far as anxiety and success is concerned: unsuccessful students were slightly more anxious than successful ones. This was especially visible in the case of state (or language) anxiety. Anxiety was rather more debilitating than facilitating and this was particularly true of unsuccessful students.

Similar conclusions can be drawn based on the data referring to self-esteem. Little linkage can be found between self-esteem, success and learning strategy use. The average proportion of learning strategy use among students with high, average and low self-esteem were not significant (66,7%, 57%, 60,9% respectively). Students, who assessed themselves highly, most often used: self-monitoring, self-evaluation, self-management, inferencing, directed physical response, grouping, deduction and imagery. Even so, there was the correlation between self-esteem and success, the more successful student the higher self-esteem, which was also confirmed by all investigated particular types of self-esteem.

The results concerning risk-taking showed neither correlation between risk-taking and strategy use nor between risk-taking and success. The average percentage which showed the correlation between language strategy use and risk-taking among high and low risk-takers was: 59,7% and 58% respectively. High risk-takers often employed: self-monitoring, self-evaluation, inferencing, imagery, repetition, resourcing and translation.

The mixed results of the correlation between learning strategy use and success prompted me to scrutinise this problem globally. The final results allowed me to make up a list of strategies that were most often used by successful students. This list comprised: self-management, self-monitoring, self-attention, inferencing, note-taking, directed physical response and questions for clarification. More importantly, we could juxtapose these strategies with the ones which were most frequently used in correlation with motivation, anxiety, self-esteem and risk-taking and arrange a final list. It included: self-monitoring, self-evaluation (from metacognitive strategies) and inferencing (from cognitive ones).

To sum up, I am fully aware that my research may be statistically insignificant since I conducted my study only on a sample of 50 subjects and therefore my findings may be considered unrepresentative of all students. Nevertheless, the data provided from this small sample permitted me to answer some of the questions set at the beginning of this thesis: (1) there was the strongest influence of motivation (from the investigated variables) on strategy choice, (2) there was the correlation between high motivation, high self-esteem and to a lesser extent low anxiety and success, (3)there were no links between high or low risk-taking and success, (4) from the complete list of learning strategies I selected three: self-monitoring, self-evaluation and inferencing, which in my opinion advanced success most.

This conclusion may look like a recipe for efficient learning, however, knowing its limitations, I realise that further studies are needed, involving larger groups of students and new methods of data collection, in order to find the full range of strategies employed by students of English at various levels of language proficiency, contributing in that way to more effective learning.

REFERENCES

Arabski, J. (1985). *O przyswajaniu języka drugiego* (obcego). Wydawnictwa Szkolne i Pedagogiczne.

Arabski, J. (1997). *Przyswajanie języka obcego i pamięć werbalna.* Śląsk.

Bailey, M.K. (1983). "Competitiveness and Anxiety in Adult Second Language Learning: Looking at and through the Diary Studies". In Seliger (1983: 67-102).

Baran-Łucarz, M. (2013). Perfectionism and language anxiety. In Kębłowska-Ławniczak (ed.), Anglica Wratislaviensia, No 3501. Wrocław: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Wrocławskiego, p. 107-120.

Beebe, M.L. (1983). "Risk - Taking and the Language Learner". In Seliger (1983: 39-65).

Brown, H.D. (1987). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching.* Prentice Hall Regents.

Cohen, A. (2011). *Strategies in learning and using a second language.* Pearson Education.

Cohen, A., Dörnyei, Z. (2002). "Focus on the language learner. Motivation, styles and strategies." In An Introduction to Applied Linguistics, ed. N. Schmitt, p. 170-190.

Crookes, G., Schmidt, W.R. (1991). "Motivation: Reopening the Agenda". *Language Learning,* 41/4.

Dewaele, J.M. (2009). *Individual differences in Second Language Acquisition.* In W.C. Ritchie & T.K. Bhatia (Eds.), The new handbook of second language acquisition. Bingley, England: Emerald, p. 623-646.

Dörnyei, Z. (2001). *Teaching and researching motivation.* Harlow: Pearson Education.

Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The Psychology of the Language Learner: Individual Differences in Second Language Acquisition.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Droździał-Szelest, K. (1997). *Language Learning Strategies in the Process of Acquiring a Foreign Language.* Motivex.

Ellis, R. (1997). *Second Language Acquisition.* Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (1994). *The Study of Second Language Acquisition.* Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (1985). *Understanding Second Language Acquisition.* Oxford University Press.

Gardner, R. C. (1988). "The Socio-Educational Model of Second-Language Learning: Assumptions, Findings, and Issues". *Language Learning,* 38/1.

Harmer, J. (1991). *The practice of English Language Teaching.* Longman.

Horwitz, E.K. (2010). "Research timeline. Foreign and second language anxiety". *Language Teaching*, 43/1.

Komorowska, H. (1987). *Sukces i niepowodzenie w nauce języka obcego.* Polskie Wydawnictwa Naukowe.

Larsen-Freeman, D., Long, M.H. (1991). *An Introduction to Second Language Acquisition Research.* Longman.

Lightbown, M.P., Spada, N. (1993). *How languages are Learned.* Oxford University Press.

Mac Intyre, D.P., Gardner, R.C. (1991). "Language Anxiety: Its Relationship to Other Anxieties and to Processing in Native and Second Languages". *Language Learning*, 41/4.

Mac Intyre, D.P., Gardner, R.C. (1991). "Methods and Results in the Study of Foreign Language Anxiety: A Review of Literature". *Language Learning*, 41/4.

Mc Donough, S. (1995). *Strategy and Skill in Learning a Foreign Language.* Edward Arnold.

O'Malley, M.J., Chamot, A.U. (1990). *Learning Strategies in Second Language Acquisition.* Cambridge University Press.

Oxford, L.R. (1990). *Language Learning Strategies. What Every Teacher Should Know.* Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

Seliger, W.H., Long, M.L. (Eds.), (1983). *Classroom Oriented Research in Second Language Acquisition.* Newbury House Publishers, INC.

Skehan, P. (1989). *Individual Differences in Second-Language Learning.* Edward Arnold.

Wenden, A., Rubin J. (1987). *Learner Strategies in Language Learning.* Prentice Hall.

Williams, M., Burden, R.L. (1997). *Psychology for Language Teachers: a Social Constructivist Approach.* Cambridge University Press.

Wolters, C. (2010). *Self-Regulated Learning and the 21st Century Competencies.* Department of Educational Psychology, University of Houston.

Zybert, J. (1999). *Errors in Foreign Language Learning.* University of Warsaw.

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX 1.
Motivation, anxiety, self-esteem and risking-taking

Proszę o udzielenie odpowiedzi zgodnie z prawdą.
Klasa: .....
Wiek: .....
Uczę się języka angielskiego przez ..... lat.

MOTIVATION – ODPOWIEDZ: **TAK** lub **NIE**

Uczę się języka angielskiego, ponieważ:
1. Umożliwi mi zdobycie atrakcyjniejszej pracy.
2. Zależy mi na zdaniu matury i egzaminów na studia.
3. Każdy wykształcony i kulturalny człowiek powinien znać język angielski.
4. Będę mógł swobodnie komunikować się ustnie i pisemnie.
5. Uczę się, ponieważ życzą sobie tego moi rodzice.
6. Interesuje mnie kultura, sztuka i literatura krajów anglojęzycznych.
7. Lubię mieszkańców krajów anglojęzycznych i chciałbym się z nimi zaprzyjaźnić.
8. Podoba mi się ich styl życia i chcę być do nich podobny.
9. Interesuje mnie język angielski sam w sobie.
10. Osiągając lepsze wyniki, chętniej się uczę.

ANXIETY – ODPOWIEDZ: **TAK** lub **NIE**

1. Uważam się za osobę nerwową.
2. Często mam tremę.
3. Boję się, że moja wypowiedź wywoła śmiech.
4. Denerwuję się tylko w specyficznych sytuacjach, np. sprawdzian lub odpowiedź.
5. Stres mobilizuje mnie do bardziej wytężonej pracy.
6. Będąc pod wpływem stresu, np. przed klasówką, bardziej się koncentruję.
7. Ze strachu, np. przed klasówką, nie idę do szkoły.

8. Będąc pod wpływem stresu, popełniam więcej błędów.
9. Fakt, że są lepsi w klasie bardziej mobilizuje mnie do pracy, aby im dorównać.
10. Fakt, że są lepsi zniechęca mnie do pracy.

SELF-ESTEEM – ODPOWIEDZ: **WYSOKO, ŚREDNIO, NISKO**

1. Jak ocenisz swoje zdolności intelektualne?
2. Jak ocenisz swoje zdolności językowe?
3. Jaka jest według Ciebie Twoja ogólna znajomość języka angielskiego?
4. Jak oceniasz swoje umiejętności posługiwania się językiem angielskim w szkole?
5. Jak ocenisz swoje umiejętności posługiwania się językiem angielskim z obcokrajowcami?

RISK-TAKING – ODPOWIEDZ: **TAK** lub **NIE**

1. Lubię podejmować ryzyko.
2. Jeśli nie jestem przygotowany, podejmuję ryzyko i ściągam.
3. Zgłaszam się zawsze, nawet gdy nie jestem pewien poprawności.
4. Nie boję się głośno wypowiadać swoich poglądów.
5. Wolę używać te struktury, które znam dobrze niż ryzykować używanie nowych.
6. Nawet jeśli na jednej lekcji ośmieszę się, nie wpływa to na częstotliwość zgłaszania się na kolejnych lekcjach.
7. Odpowiadam tylko wtedy, gdy zostanę wskazany przez nauczyciela.
8. W czasie pobytu za granicą (lub będąc w towarzystwie cudzoziemców w Polsce) próbuję porozumieć się po angielsku, chociaż jego znajomość nie jest zbyt dobra.

APPENDIX 2.
Learning strategies

METACOGNITIVE – ODPOWIEDZ: **TAK** lub **NIE**

1. Przy rozwiązywaniu trudnego ćwiczenia gramatycznego, najpierw powtarzam reguły gramatyczne, a potem je rozwiązuję.
2. Przy planowaniu czego się będę uczył, myślę raczej o pozytywach niż negatywach, w tym celu uczę się najpierw rzeczy łatwiejszych, a potem trudniejszych.
3. Mam ulubione działy w angielskim, np. gramatyka, słownictwo itp., którym poświęcam więcej czasu.
4. Robię wszystko, żeby jak najwięcej eksponować się na język angielski, np. słucham radia, oglądam TV i – o ile możliwe – staram się rozmawiać z cudzoziemcami w tym języku.
5. Planuję i przygotowuję się do zagadnień, które będą przerabiane w przyszłości.
6. Staram się korygować własne błędy, gdy posługuję się językiem angielskim.
7. Świadomie powstrzymuję się od wypowiadania w języku angielskim, aby wstępnie uczyć się go poprzez słuchanie.
8. Porównuję poprawność własnych wypowiedzi w języku angielskim z wypowiedziami uczniów lepszych bądź nauczyciela, aby upewnić się że są poprawne.

COGNITIVE – ODPOWIEDŹ: **TAK** lub **NIE**

1. Potarzam sobie nowe słowa na głos i w myśli.
2. Ucząc się angielskiego, używam angielskich podręczników i słowników.
3. W nauce języka kojarzę nowe informacje z faktami z życia.
4. Aby lepiej zrozumieć nowe słowa lub zdania w angielskim, tłumaczę je na język polski.
5. Staram się grupować, klasyfikować lub porządkować w jakiś sposób poznany materiał w celu szybkiego uczenia się.
6. Ucząc się, zapisuję główne punkty lub podsumowanie z prezentowanego materiału.
7. Używam znanych mi zasad bądź reguł w celu tworzenia lub zrozumienia zdań w języku angielskim.
8. Układam nowe zdania ze znanych mi wcześniej słów.

9. Ucząc się nowych wyrazów, kojarzę je sobie z rzeczywistymi przedmiotami bądź czynnościami.
10. Kojarzę nowo poznane słowo angielskie z podobnie brzmiącym słowem polskim, np. 'boots' – 'buty'
11. Ucząc się nowych wyrazów, układam z nimi zdania.
12. Znaczenie niezrozumiałych słów staram się odgadywać z kontekstu.

SOCIO-AFFECTIVE – ODPOWIEDZ: **TAK** lub **NIE**

1. Najchętniej uczę się z kimś innym.
2. Kiedy czegoś nie rozumiem, proszę lektora lub cudzoziemca o wyjaśnienie.