2023 년 2 월

박사학위논문

Mongolian EFL College Students' Self-Efficacy and Self-Regulated Learning Strategies in L2 Speaking

조선대학교 대학원

영어교육학과

Enkhchimeg Namsrai

Mongolian EFL College Students' Self-Efficacy and Self-Regulated Learning Strategies in L2 Speaking

몽골 대학생들의 영어 말하기 자기효능감과 자기조절 학습전략 연구

2023년 2월 24일

조선대학교 대학원

영어교육학과

Enkhchimeg Namsrai

Mongolian EFL College Students' Self-Efficacy and Self-Regulated Learning Strategies in L2 Speaking

지도교수 김 경 자

이 논문을 교육학 박사학위 신청 논문으로 제출함.

2022년 10월

조선대학교 대학원

영어교육학과

Enkhchimeg Namsrai

엥흐치멕의 박사학위논문을 인준함

위원장	영남대학교	교 수	배태일 (인)
위 원	조선대학교	교 수	차희정 (인)
위 원	조선대학교	강사	이은하 (인)
위 원	조선대학교	연구교수	박현규 (인)
위 원	조선대학교	교 수	김경자 (인)

2023년 1월

조선대학교 대학원

DEDICATION

To my beloved parents and family

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The writing of this dissertation has been one of the most exciting and immersing experiences in my life. I would like to thank the people deeply for having given me the opportunity to study in South Korea and finish my Ph.D. journey. First, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my academic advisor Professor Kyung Ja Kim for her insightful comments, continuous support, and suggestions during my study. The valuable guidance has helped me in my personal life and in my Ph.D. journey.

In addition to my academic advisor's efforts, I would like to acknowledge the constructive criticism from my dissertation panel, which helped me to narrow and broaden my research perspective. I want to express my profound gratitude to Professor Tae In Bae in particular. His straightforward and insightful criticism served as the foundation for many of the expansions that shaped this dissertation.

Being far from Mongolia and my mother has been challenging during my academic journey. She has always emphasized the importance of education to her children and from that in some way, shaped my point of view on life values and education. I am deeply grateful to my husband, Tseveldorj. J, who has supported me throughout my life and was always willing to assist in any way he could through my academic journey. Truly thankful for him not just because he has given up so much to make my career a priority in our lives, but also because he has shown me the beauty of love and patience in life. In addition, for my beloved three children who believe and provide constant encouragement. They remind me daily to move forward and be optimistic about life in general.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

ABSTRACT

Mongolian EFL College Students' Self-Efficacy and Self-Regulated Learning Strategies in L2 Speaking

Enkhchimeg Namsrai

Advisor: Dr. Kyung Ja Kim

Department of English Education

Graduate School of Chosun University

This study's findings indicate that students were more optimistic about speaking activities whether in or outside the classroom environment. At the same time, they were pessimistic about their organization in L2 speaking activities. It means that EFL students are unaware of how to manage their attention on learning, how to organize sentence structures that can express thoughts, and how to speak in cohesive or coherent ways when they accomplish their speaking tasks.

This dissertation study explores what students felt was most positive about student-centered methods. Mongolia's dominant English classroom instruction pedagogy is still teacher-centered, where students follow teachers' words and commands. Students are not encouraged to develop learning strategies and focus on content knowledge. Teachers can aid struggling EFL learners in attaining L2 speaking skills by adapting their Self-Regulated Learning (SRL) strategies. Therefore, the findings of this research project are helpful for English language teachers to manage speaking activities for their students and encourage them to choose proper SRL methods for L2 speaking improvement.

According to the correlation analysis of this study, college students' speaking activities are usually evaluated more by learners' seeking assistance, self-monitoring, and self-consequences, which suggested that students exhibited proactive behaviors. In other words, students pay attention to convenient ways of speaking practice, take notes before speaking assignments, and reward themselves. Conversely, the ideation process focused less on learners seeking assistance, their persistence, and their review of records, which suggested that students are responsive in the environment in L2 speaking activities. Thus, the study's findings provide broader insights into the inter-relationship between self-efficacy perspectives and SRL strategies used in the L2 speaking context of EFL college students. Moreover, the result of the recent study supported Zimmerman, Schunk and DiBenedetto (2017) statement that learners' self-efficacy promotes their SRL behaviors.

Through *t*-test analysis, the result investigated the differences in self-efficacy and self-regulated learning strategies of EFL college students in terms of particular characteristics (majors, gender, abroad experiences and native English-speaking friends) to improve L2 speaking. In addition, the analysis of the study found positive evidence for learning strategies, including specific actions taken by learners to make English-speaking learning more accessible, faster, more enjoyable, and transferable to a new situation, particularly learning goals.

The findings of the one-way ANOVA analysis revealed that the students from the final grades of college were more productive in L2 speaking than the second and third-grade students in regard to improving their speaking skills. The explanation is that during the English-learning period at a higher level, students' self-efficacy level increases, and it influences their English learning as a foreign language. Depending

on the results of self-regulated learning strategies, the Personal SRL strategies were different compared to the second and final-grade students. As students gain English-speaking skills for learners, self-efficacy and SRL methods often interact at the higher education level, particularly in contribution to English education development in Mongolia.

초록

몽골 대학생들의 영어 말하기에서 자기효능감과 자기조절 학습전략 연구

Enkhchimeg Namsrai

지도교수: 김 경 자
조선대학교 대학원
영어교육학과

본 연구는 대학생들이 강의실이나 이 외의 외부 환경에서 발생하는 말하기 활동에 대해 긍정적으로 인식하고 있음을 시사한다. 그들 중 L2 말하기 활동을 하는 그룹은 이를 부정적으로 인식하고 있었다. 이는 EFL 학생들이 학습을 할 때 집중하는 방법이나 그들의 생각을 문장으로 구조화해서 표현하고, 말하기 과업을 성취할 때 문장을 결합하거나 일관된 방식으로 말하는 방법을 인지하지 못하고 사용했음을 나타내고 있다.

본 연구의 참여자들은 학생 중심적 방법에 대해 가장 긍정적으로 인식하고 있었다. 몽골의 영어 교육 방식은 여전히 교사 중심적이며 학생들은 교사의 말과 명령을 주로 따르기 때문에 그들은 학습 전략을 개발하고 학습 내용에 집중하도록 권장받지 않는다. 교사는 SRL 전략을 조정하여 말하기에 어려움을 겪고 있는 EFL 학습자가 L2 말하기 능력을 향상시킬 수 있도록 돕는다. 따라서 이 연구의 결과는 영어 교사가 학생들의 말하기 활동을 지도하고 L2 말하기 향상을 위해 적절한 SRL 전략을 선택할 수 있도록 도와준다.

상관관계 분석에 따르면, 대학생의 말하기 활동은 학습자에게 기회추구, 자기감시, 자기결과를 더 많이 평가하도록 도와주는데, 이는 말하기 활동에서 능동적인 행동을 보이는 학생들이 있음을 시사하고 있다. 즉, 학생들은 말하기 연습을 위해 보다 편리한 방법에 집중하고, 과제를 하기 전에 메모를 하고, 스스로에게 보상을 한다는 것을 의미한다.

반대로, 아이디어화 하는 과정은 L2 말하기 활동에서 주변 환경에 반응하는 학생들이 도움을 요청하고, 메모를 검토하는 것에는 초점을 맞추지 않았다. 따라서, 본 연구는 EFL 대학생의 L2 말하기 환경에서

사용되는 자기효능감과 SRL 전략 사이의 상호 관계에 대해 폭넓은 통찰력을 제공한다. 또한 최근 연구 결과는 학습자의 자기효능감이 SRL 행동을 촉진한다는 Zimmerman, Schunk 와 DiBenedetto(2017)의 주장을 지지한다.

t-검정 분석을 통해 EFL 대학생들의 자기효능감과 자기조절학습 전략의 차이를 참여자의 특성(전공, 성별, 해외경험, 원어민 친구 유무)에 따라 조사하였다. 분석 결과, 학습자가 새로운 상황과 특정 학습목표에 더 쉽고 빠르고 즐겁게 접근할 수 있도록 하기 위해 보여줬던 구체적인 행동을 포함하여 학습전략에 대한 긍정적인 결과를 발견하였다.

일원배치분산분석 결과, 4 학년 학생들이 2~3 학년 학생들보다 L2 말하기 능력이 더 향상한 것으로 나타났다. 더 높은 수준을 가진 학생들의 영어 학습 기간을 살펴보면, 그 기간 동안 그들의 자기효능감의 수준이 높아져 외국어로서의 영어 학습에 영향을 미친다는 결과가 있다. 자기조절 학습전략의 결과에 따라 개인의 SRL 전략은 2 학년과 4 학년 학생을 비교했을 때 차이가 존재하였다. 학습자를 위한 영어 말하기 기술을 습득하여 자기효능감과 SRL 전략은 고등 교육 수준에서 서로 상호작용하고 있으며, 특히 몽골의 영어 교육 발전에 기여한다.

1. INTRODUCTION

The second edition of the book, *Handbook of Competence and Motivation,* by Zimmerman, Schunk and DiBenedetto (2017), led the way for creating and understanding self-efficacy and self-regulation in learning research and theories in a variety of aspects for the future. The inspiration for this research was found in their words: "successful students have the power to learn in a self-regulated fashion, such as when studying or practicing on their own. Self-regulation is the process whereby students activate and sustain behaviors, cognitions, and affects that are systematically oriented toward the attainment of their goals" (p. 313). The advancement of research on self-efficacy and self-regulated learning (SRL) strategies research in L2 languages would alter field.

Despite their desire to learn English, students have difficulties connecting self-efficacy and SRL strategies to achieve their goals in English as a foreign language. Therefore, this researcher's focus as an EFL practitioner has been to create a learning experience that allows students to find paths to achieving their goals in L2 speaking. However, it was noticed that Mongolian students still faced problems in L2 speaking despite these best efforts. To address this issue, the researcher consulted EFL instructors from several universities in Mongolia.

The consultation led to an action research project on the topic. This research project investigated EFL college students' self-efficacy and SRL strategies in L2 speaking. The findings showed that self-efficacy levels influenced SRL strategies. The current study gives insight into the interrelationship between self-efficacy and SRL strategies in L2 speaking.

In addition, the study suggested that a process of self-efficacy and SRL strategies were beneficial for EFL instructors to observe their students and provide them with appropriate teaching methods in their classroom speaking activities. Speaking in L2 has been noted as a difficult skill for EFL students and it requires numerous teaching methods to be implemented by EFL teachers. As a result, more research on self-efficacy and SRL in L2 speaking contexts is required. The dissertation's necessity arose based on the lack of data related to L2 speaking, particularly in the Mongolian tertiary context.

1.1 Necessity of the Study

English is spoken in and is the official language of many countries. Thus, fluency in the English language is becoming more critical as it has become the medium of everyday communication in local and global contexts. In a globalized society, English is the primary language of use in international business, diplomacy, science, and professions related to communication and the sharing of information (Kitao, 1996). Many college-aged learners, including university second- and third-year students, learn English as a foreign language throughout the world (Cohen, 2004). Additionally, in order to meet the demands of globalization and communication with people outside of the country, college students in the majority of non-English-speaking nations must enroll in English language classes (Wang, Schwab, Fenn, & Chang, 2013).

In contrast, foreign language learners use a variety of approaches to make language learning more effective and self-directed (Habók, Kong, Ragchaa, & Magyar, 2021). Based on prior research, it was observed that the success of these strategies varied greatly from study to study, context to context, and even student to student. For instance, whereas some students seemed to pick up English rapidly,

others seemed to do so more slowly. Shih (2019) discovered that people who have strong self-efficacy in cognitive processes are more likely to set challenging goals and show a strong commitment to using objectives. In addition, they can visualize success and devote themselves to achieving their goals.

The value of this dissertation study adds to existing research on self-efficacy and SRL strategies in L2 learning. According to Bandura (1993), those who view themselves as self-effective consider a wider range of vocations and make better plans for the future. Additionally, SRL is portrayed as a skill that can be learned through education and practice rather than a natural talent. This tendency alters gradually with practice and instruction, dynamically adjusting to how one's language skill develops when completing various learning tasks (Winne, 1996). As a result, learning experiences for students are likely to support their growth in self-efficacy and SRL abilities.

The current study hopes to shed some light on this aspect of student learning by exploring EFL college student accounts. Students' self-efficacy and SRL strategies affect aspects of their L2 learning and teaching, some of which are easily observable and some of which are much more illusory to both students and their instructors. This research project investigated how self-efficacy and SRL strategies motivate Mongolian EFL college students to learn English, especially in relation to speaking skills. This focus on a specific group means that this dissertation study is most appropriate for EFL college students and English instructors. The information gathered through this research could inform teachers how to create effective methods to improve their students' speaking abilities. Furthermore, the current research could be regarded as a first step toward comprehending the interrelationship between self-efficacy and SRL strategies of EFL college students in the Mongolian context.

By understanding their EFL learners' self-efficacy and SRL strategies within the classroom, teachers gain insights into how they might improve their teaching methods and cultivate a more successful learning environment in English education at the college level in Mongolia. Therefore, the researcher hopes that the current study will provide necessary considerations for EFL college students' self-efficacy, and SRL strategies and promote a consideration of the significance of learning strategies.

1.2 Research Purposes and Questions

The study will focus on EFL students in bachelor's programs for English teachers, English translators, foreign officers, and accountants. Limited studies have focused on English-speaking self-efficacy beliefs and SRL strategies for college students' English-speaking skills. In addition, the study focuses on the inter-relationship between self-efficacy and SRL techniques based on the English-speaking aptitude of EFL learners. In order to acquire English as a Foreign Language in Mongolia, the study assesses students' English-speaking self-efficacy and English-speaking SRL strategies. Several difficulties for students to learn English exist, particularly regarding their English speaking skills. Mongolian students encounter common difficulties in the EFL process and their academic achievement. Hence, there is a need to distinguish them in a learning environment.

A quantitative research method was employed in this study. The greatest way to understand processes, attitudes, and perceptions is through quantitative investigations (Creswell & Sinley, 2017). Exploratory research is being done on SRL procedures and self-efficacy views in EFL students, and it is crucial to consider the environment in which a language is utilized. Therefore, exploratory studies with quantitative research methodologies are needed to examine the self-

efficacy of English speakers and the effective use of SRL strategies. The research questions were as follows:

1. What self-efficacy do Mongolian EFL college students have?

2. What SRL strategies do Mongolian EFL college students have?

3. What are the relationships between self-efficacy, and SRL strategies for Mongolian EFL college students?

4. Are there any differences in the self-efficacy and SRL strategies of Mongolian EFL students based on personal characteristics such as gender, major, abroad experiences, and the availability of English native-speaking friends?

5. How do self-efficacy and self-regulated learning strategies differ among Mongolian EFL college students according to their grade levels?

1.3 Significance of the Study

This study contributes to learning strategies in L2 speaking in the following three ways. First, Mongolia has continued its efforts to reform English education reform, and developments with the learning strategies (Altansor, 2016; Ragchaa, 2018; Wang & Batbileg, 2020; Yondonperenlei, 2011). Investigating learners' self-efficacy and inquiring about university students' SRL strategies are critical tools in helping improve students' English language learning. The findings of this study could help develop an understanding of the self-efficacy and self - regulated learning strategies and help inform ongoing English educational improvement.

Second, despite research on students' self-efficacy and SRL strategies and their effect on students' language learning outcomes, insufficient work has been done on the impact of the L2 speaking context on this field. The findings of this study will be beneficial to students in improving their English speaking skills. EFL students, especially those who major in English, increase their awareness of learning

strategies to fulfill their academic needs and achieve career success in the future. This dissertation will contribute to the EFL field of study in a local setting.

Lastly, only a few studies have fully investigated the complex relationships between self-efficacy and SRL strategies in EFL college learners' L2 acquisition. In particular, finding effective strategies for improving students' L2 speaking has been a problematic and crucial issue for English instructors. Investigating self-regulated strategies and self-efficacy is vital for instructors to understand their students well enough to support their learning in the classroom with appropriate teaching methods. The current study could consequently contribute to the complex arena of self-efficacy and SRL strategy theories and practices.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Self-Efficacy

2.1.1 Definition of Self-Efficacy

The brief history of self-efficacy begins with Bandura's (1977) publication of *Self-efficacy: Toward a Unifying Theory of Behavioral Change*. Since then, a growing body of research on a wide range of topics has introduced and supported the principles of self-efficacy (Garcia, Schmitz, & Doerfler, 1990), including clinical difficulties (Bandura, 1986), social skills (Moe & Zeiss, 1982), and smoking behavior. Over the years, educational research has focused more and more on self-efficacy beliefs, particularly in terms of academic motivation (Pintrich, 2004).

Perceived self-efficacy, according to Bandura (1993), is the belief that one is capable of performing a particular degree of activity. The degree to which a person can carry out appropriate activities in given circumstances can be described as their self-efficacy. Self-efficacy was described by Bong and Clark (1999) as an evaluation of one's own abilities based on a set of conditions that one must satisfy. Social cognitive theory holds that pupils possess the cognitive ability to formulate their own goals and self-organize, self-reflect, and self-regulate in response to changes in the learning tasks. Students need to be proactive in their growth and aware of their capacity for self-control. Self-efficacy and self-regulation are critical to this view of human agency (Pajares, 2008; Zimmerman, 2000). Additionally, Kruger and Dunning (1999) pointed out that untrained people may be duped by a sense of false competence since they lack sufficient information to comprehend their own deficiencies. People who have strong self-efficacy beliefs are dedicated to accomplishing their objectives. People with poor self-efficacy beliefs give up easily

and struggle to accomplish their goals (Eggen & Kauchak, 2015). Self-efficacy is important for learning since it affects behavior, affect, and motivation (Bandura, 2006).

2.1.2 Self-Efficacy Sources

According to Bandura (1997), people evaluate information about their own talents in order to form opinions about their own abilities. The four basic sources of this information are mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal and social persuasion, and physiological and affective sensations. The foundation for motivation, wellbeing, and personal success can be found in self-efficacy (Lopez-Garrido, 2020). The general idea of self-efficacy sources is depicted in Figure 1. (Bandura, 1997).

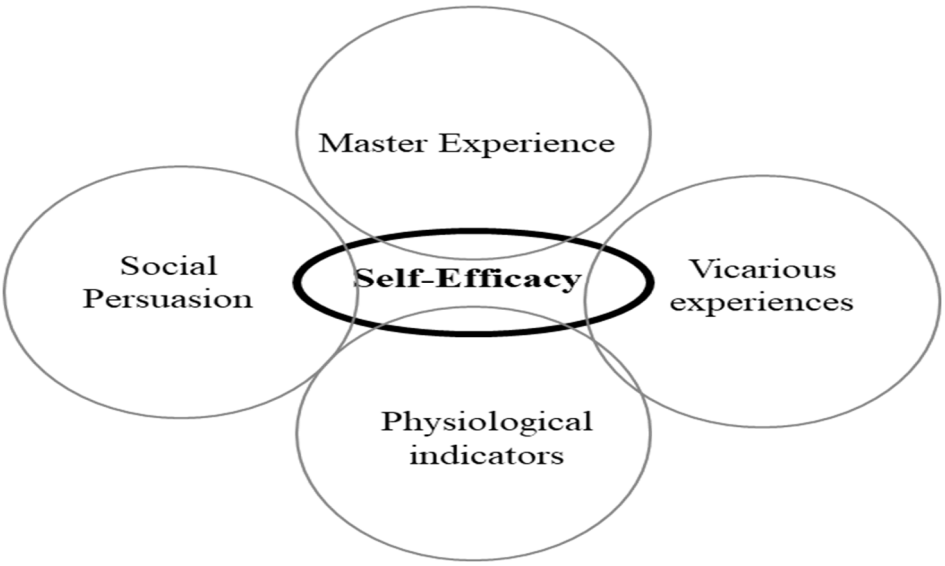

FIGURE 1

Self-Efficacy Model

Mastery experience

Experiences with mastery reveal one's success and failure. Recurring mistakes decrease efficacy assessments, according to Bandura (1986), especially if they happen early in the course of events and do not indicate a lack of effort or unfavorable external circumstances. Repeated success is likely to foster a sense of efficacy. Aleks (2019) observed in the study the nature of "self-mastery" among students and the guidelines for achieving it to provide insights into the mastery of second language learning.

In contrast, Wang (2004) discovered that a person's self-efficacy views are not significantly impacted by poor performance with minimal effort. Nevertheless, achieving goals with little effort raises one's level of self-efficacy. Demirel, Türkel, and Aydin (2020) examined the speaking self-efficacy beliefs of final-year students based on different variables. The results showed that the scores improved after preparing speeches, reading feedback, and improving their skills. This means that students changed their self-efficacy beliefs after completing several successfully prepared speech activities and gaining reading habits. Rogers (2004) noted that students' L2 achievement depends on their past mastery experiences.

Vicarious experience

People make judgements of their own capabilities by watching others' successes and failures (Schunk & Pajares, 2009). Histories of successful people influence students' future career thoughts and indicate that they themselves could perform the same task. Failure, however, implies that they might not be able to complete the mission.

Schunk and Hanson (1985) discovered that learners' self-efficacy and accomplishment affected their observation of peer models in a study on the impact of vicarious experience on self-efficacy. Chen (2007) concentrated on this study,

which by extending the motivating research on Taiwanese college students expanded the theoretical framework for L2 acquisition. The aforementioned points to important data regarding the significant impact of perceived cognitive abilities on language motivation and subsequent performance as revealed by teachers' evaluations of their pupils' language skills. Genç, Kuluşaklı and Aydın (2016) analyzed learners' individual variables in language learning and their sense of self-efficacy. The study demonstrated that EFL students have medium scores in their English self-efficacy and firmly believe that motivation factors have a significant role in their learning process. Moreover, the study recommends that teachers help students hold correct beliefs related to vicarious experiences in classroom activities to motivate them. Leeming (2017) concentrated on the longitudinal mixed-method study to assess first-year university students' English-speaking self-efficacy eight times over the course of a school year. Students reported that their efficacy rose as they adapted to the class during the study.

Dagvadorj (2020) examined the lack of educational practices that influence students' L2 achievement in English classrooms. Cooperative learning allows students to explore the abilities with the help of one another. EFL learners who encounter difficulties are likely to model the patterns of others. The study focused on cooperative learning and its effectiveness in enhancing English language fluency. Most students prefer teamwork by incorporating differential instructions to improve their self-efficacy in oral capabilities and participation in the speaking classroom. In addition, fluency is induced by the observing individual responsibility, interpersonal and social skills, positive interdependence, group processing, and beneficial interactions.

Social persuasion

Social persuasion can convince individuals of their skills, in particular if they are from a credible origin. It means that hearing words of support from others might help people get over their self-doubt and instead concentrate on giving the work their best effort on their own. It is widely used to influence human behavior in families, schools, businesses (particularly sales and production), government, athletics, religion, and virtually all aspects of social interaction because of its ease and ready opportunity. Individuals may be led to believe they can accomplish a task or acquire the capabilities to master challenging circumstances. Efficacy expectations drawn from verbal persuasion are generally weaker than those from personal performance are, because they lack an authentic experimental base. However, using verbal persuasion to increase self-efficacy certainly contributes to the success achieved through corrective performance (Bandura, 1977).

Many studies have investigated the effects of social persuasion within Bandura's (1977) theoretical framework. These include media influence on learning (Clark, 1994), the variable capital in intellectual processing in learning as a function of understandings and characteristics with sixth graders (Saloman, 1984), and the use of the Internet for self-efficacy in digital instruction (Joo, Bong & Choi, 2000). Liang and Kelsen (2018) found that social persuasion is one of the most significant correlations between oral presentation scores in L2. The result suggested that extraverts are superior in situations where verbal production is central to communication. Inferred by lower-level students is that extraverted personalities may make up for a lack of English language proficiency. Moreover, students who studied in teamwork with extraverts encouraged other learners to overcome self-doubt.

Physiological and affective states

In cases where the domain's functionality is demonstrated, physiological and affective states offer information on physiological and affective arousal. Somatic information communicated by physiological or emotional states is a significant factor in assessing students' efficacy through cognitive processing (Bandura, 1997).

In a similar vein, Wang (2004) stated in the study that as contextual elements have a significant impact on how an internal condition is viewed, the effect of physiological arousal on self-efficacy depends on situational factors. The study analyzed four Chinese pupils' self-efficacy beliefs and practices, as well as how they used strategies at home and at school. In this study, every participant reported having more self-efficacy to accomplish speaking and listening language tasks than writing and reading ones. Additionally, their level of English achievement, task obstacles, social influence, attitude, physical or emotional state, and interest.

Similarly, Sato (2017) examined the relationship between interaction mindsets, attitudes, and L2 development in the peer interactions of second language learners. Students were willing to interact with each other to discuss the advantages and disadvantages of their L2 achievements. They believed that contact between students, whereby they filled one another's vocabulary gaps and learned from each other, was essential to task completion through cognitive processing. In order to study and accomplish their ultimate aim, learners also frequently adjust their initial assumptions.

Then again, Schunk and DiBenedetto (2021) examined self-efficacy theory and the study of human motivation. Their research suggested adaptations to the original theoretical prediction including persistence, learning, maintenance and transfer, and context. In accord with Bandura (1993), mood could affect perceived self-efficacy because it operates a person's associated memories, which means that past

successes and failures are stored as memories. In other words, an optimistic mood brings back thoughts of accomplishment, whereas a pessimistic mood activates failures in the past.

2.1.3 Types of Self-Efficacy

Researchers have investigated several types of self-efficacy. They investigated in their studies self-efficacy in performance (Bandura, 1977) related to clinical studies with humans with snake phobias, self-efficacy for studying, and SRL (Zimmerman, 2000) in educational contexts. Collaboration and teamwork are mutual actions in educational situations for accomplishing tasks. The perceived capacities of a group, team, or larger social entity are referred to as collective self-efficacy (Bandura, 2006). Individual perceptions of one's ability to facilitate learning activities for students are referred to as self-efficacy (Klassen, Tze, Betts & Gordon, 2011). Studies have explored how most students' self-efficacy impacts such things as their choice of persistence, activities, effort, and achievement. The role of collective teacher self-efficacy (Henson, 2002; Zee & Koomen, 2016) in influencing student outcomes has been investigated in previous studies.

Self-efficacy plays a big part in learning because it influences affect, motivation, and behavior (Bandura, 1993). When they are not in class, the majority of EFL students seek assistance and opportunities to improve their general, and speaking skills in particular (Alotumi, 2021). Previous studies have suggested structural modeling of belief factors affecting L2 achievement (Kim, 2012). In the learning of a foreign language, learners' input usage processes and the role of self-efficacy are of great importance (Putra, Saukah, Basthomi, & Irawati, 2020). Researchers have identified various types of self-efficacy (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2021). Table 1 provides types, definitions of each type, and examples. Thornbury (2005) noted that

the most challenging skill for foreign language learners is speaking, which is a part of daily life. Oral communication involves communicating with other people and sharing their opinions. In conclusion, students with lower-confident students participate less in English-speaking activities (Dorj, 2022). Lindsey and Knight (2006) stated that to achieve this goal, students must be able to use the appropriate language for the circumstances they are in and the individuals they are communicating with. Concluding from the research results, the students with less self-confidence, had lower participation in English-speaking activities (Dorj, 2022).

TABLE 1

Types of Self-Efficacy

Types	Definition (Perceived Capacity to…)	Example
Self-Efficacy for Performance	Perform previously learned behaviors	Jump up and down 10 times
Self-Efficacy for Learning	Learn new skills, strategies, and behaviors	Learn to apply the quadratic formula
Self-Efficacy for Self-Regulated Learning	Generate thoughts, feelings, and behaviors systematically oriented toward attainment of learning goals	Study physics text to prepare for an exam
Collective Self-Efficacy	Work together as a group to attain common goals	Prepare a research-based group presentation
Teacher (Instructional) Self-Efficacy	Help promote student learning	Help students understand the cause of Civil War
Collective Teacher (Instructional) Self-Efficacy	Work together as a group to influence student outcomes	Develop a new algebra curriculum

According to Kim (2006), students have a certain set of ideas about learning English, some of which may help them improve their L2 proficiency, while others may cause them to become frustrated and make slow progress with L2 learning. According to Kobayashi (2021), pupils have a strong preference for more communicative activities, have a tendency to engage in passive speaking mastery experiences, and receive insufficient peer modeling. Self-efficacy, an individual's confidence in their ability to accomplish a specific task, may support the nature of how and why it can be regarded as a predictor of success in an academic context.

Asakereh and Dehghannezhad (2015) found a positive relationship between speaking skill accomplishment and self-efficacy beliefs among Iranian EFL students. This study showed that learners with higher speaking skills and self-efficacy tend to perform better in L2 communication. Additionally, the extension of effort and self-efficacy beliefs can change an individual's thinking prototypes and mental feedback, which organize learning insistence and flexibility. Tan, Polong, Collates, and Torres (2020) investigated the significant differences between the English oral communication self-efficacy and competence levels before and after the intervention of Filipino students. Learners with high self-efficacy beliefs are likely to be more confident in accomplishing speaking assignments at extraordinary levels.

In contrast, those with low self-efficacy may consider tasks more complex than they are. They showed that learners with this belief might experience anxiety and hopelessness (Pajares, 1996). Similarly, Kim (2012) identified Korean high school students' self-efficacy beliefs regarding L2 learning and structural models. This study involved 447 students in total. According to the findings, self-efficacy in learning English and the significance of grammatical knowledge were both good, direct, and significant predictors of L2 achievement. According to Bandura (2006),

the most accurate self-efficacy measurement, must be adapted to a certain field of study. Therefore, it is essential to create a tool that precisely assesses English language learners' self-efficacy, particularly in speaking situations.

2.1.4 Self-Efficacy Effects on L2 Speaking

In educational situations, self-efficacy can have a variety of benefits, including motivation, learning, self-regulation, and achievement. Self-efficacy can affect people's decision-making (Patall, 2012). In other words, people favor projects and activities that make them feel more confident and avoid those that make them feel ineffective. The impacts of industrial and other classroom elements on self-efficacy have been documented by researchers like Schunk and Usher (2012) in a variety of situations. The general idea of the model utilized in numerous experimental studies is depicted in Figure 2.

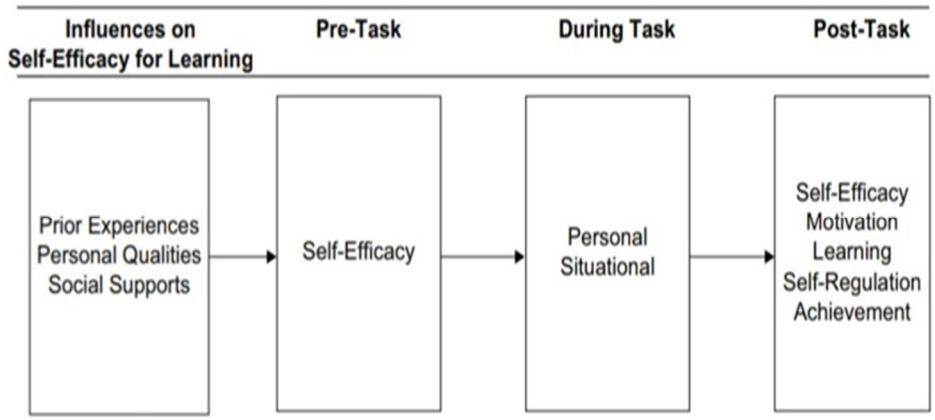

FIGURE 2

Self-Efficacy Model in Achievement Settings

During their university academic years, college students seek ways to improve their speaking skills and pay attention to their progress, and internal and external agencies influence L2 achievement. Concerning L2 speaking learning, teachers, coaches, and parents encourage students to possess specific abilities, facilitate access to resources essential for learning (e.g., facilities, materials, and environment), and provide them with the opportunity to learn independently. Moreover, teachers push their students to use self-regulatory strategies that enhance speaking ability improvement in classrooms. Koran (2015) examined the importance of teachers' roles in developing students' speaking skills, and it was significantly positive for the awareness of L2 learners and classroom experience. Moreover, it attempted to shed a light on establishing a friendly and productive environment to encourage students to improve their oral fluency.

As students engage in speaking activities, they are influenced by personal factors such as situational variables, goal settings, cognitive information processing that consists of feedback, and social comparisons. As mentioned above, give students cues about how well they learn L2 speaking. Self-efficacy in L2 speaking is enhanced when students believe they are accomplishing the assignments and completing the tasks successfully. Therefore, self-efficacy is an essential indicator for students to become more skillful learners in L2. If students believe they can improve their performance by making changes such as putting in more effort and using different learning strategies, they will not necessarily have lower self-efficacy in L2 speaking. According to Schunk and Usher (2012), learners' motivation, self-regulation, learning, and achievement are all boosted by self-efficacy. Self-evaluations of competence rely on decisions made by important people who are assumed to have evaluation power (Bandura, 1997).

Self-efficacy has been found to be related to L2 speaking achievement at the college level (Demirel et al., 2020; Jhanji, 2019; Florez, 1999; Kobayashi, 2021; Leeming, 2017). Sun et al. (2017) investigated the effects of social networking sites and mobile learning and represented new chances for learners to practice speaking English in a productive way. Two classes were recruited, one as a control group that did not use social networking sites, and another as the experimental group. While both classes' speaking skills improved between pre-test and post-test, there was a significant difference in English fluency. Across the two groups' their progress in accuracy and pronunciation was found to be similar. The study found that specific characteristics of social networking sites and mobile learning enable students to speak with low stress and more self-efficacy when contributing to L2 speaking. The variety and type of sub-skills required in second language (L2) oral production demonstrate the difficulties of learning to speak in another language (Hinkel, 2006). Producing, receiving, and processing information all contribute to the interactive process of meaning construction that is spoken language (Burns & Joyce, 1997). The context in which it occurs, such as the participants themselves, their shared experiences, the physical environment, and the purposes for speaking, affects its form and meaning (Florez, 1999). Learning how to talk in their target language is difficult for foreign language learners. According to Sağlam and Arslan (2018), speaking English requires both a producing skill and a cognitive process.

Previous studies suggest structural modeling of belief factors affecting L2 speaking achievement (Kim, 2012). In the learning of a foreign language, learners' input usage process and the role of self-efficacy have a great importance. Thornbury (2005) noted that the most challenging skill for foreign language learners is speaking, and it is essential for them to communicate and share their opinions. Speaking involves talking to other people and sharing their opinions. To achieve

this, students need to use the appropriate language for the situation and the person they are talking to (Lindsay & Knight, 2006).

Wijaya (2021) discovered two important favorable contributing aspects that are both internal and external to the luxuriant growth of excellent L2 speaking talents as well as self-efficacy level advancement, namely the induction of long-term speaking learning endeavors and an encouraging speaking learning environment. In addition, Demirel et al. (2020) examined students' speaking self-efficacy beliefs, and the results indicated that their self-efficacy levels in oral communication were considerably high depending on their values. Similarly, Kobayashy (2021) pointed to a propensity for passive speaking mastery experiences, a lack of peer modeling, and students' strong desire for more expressive activities. Understanding why and how self-efficacy is a predictor of academic achievement can be aided by considering self-efficacy, which is a person's belief in their capacity to do a certain activity.

Paradewari (2017) found that students in the English Department encouraged themselves to have mastery of the English language in order to communicate with others. In order to examine the influence of social persuasion on students' self-efficacy, the data were obtained from the interview and questionnaire. The result showed that feedback experience was one of the most frequently mentioned items in public English speaking. It was found to predict the levels of behavioral changes and specific performance of individuals on different tasks. The arguments in previous research indicate those affective variables and social and individual contexts influence self-efficacy in L2. People's self-confidence in learning foreign languages was found to be influenced by these factors.

2.2 Self-Regulation

2.2.1 Definition of Self-Regulation

Students' ultimate goal is to learn a second language and a foreign language. Successful language performance depends on learners' goals, the cultural differences of their backgrounds, and their choices of language learning strategies. L2 learning strategies have been one of the most extensively researched aspects of second language acquisition since the mid-1970s. The majority of the research papers were strategy-focused. The key challenge is figuring out what effective language learners accept and use to study a second or foreign language. In a 1975 study, Rubin looked into the methods used by effective language learners and made the case that, once found, these methods may be given to unsuccessful language learners. She categorizes methods that directly or indirectly support language learning based on these processes.

Researchers have examined how language learning strategies (LLS) (Green & Oxford, 1995) contribute to learners' development of communicative competence. This, in turn, encourages them to become more responsible and autonomous, promoting a pleasant learning experience in both direct and indirect ways. When accomplishing the aforementioned, learners are aided in overcoming challenges and allowed to employ specific techniques to increase their achievement. Direct learning strategies are essential for mastering four English language skills: reading, writing, listening, and speaking (Rohaizat & Aziz, 2021). Language learning strategies are mental procedures through which learners appropriately plan and manage their learning, control their motivational and affective states, improve their study skills, and experience enjoyable and self-directed learning (Chamot & El-Dinary, 1999).

According to a literature review, Oxford (1990) provided the most inclusive taxonomy of LLS. Oxford (1990) classified learning strategies into two main groups, direct and indirect, which are divided into six subcategories: cognitive, memory, and compensation strategies, which are directly related to the language learning process. It is through functional practice in a naturalistic setting and formal practice with a language structural system and sounds, the storage and retrieval of new information, and compensation for missing knowledge using different tactics. The final three, metacognitive, affective, and social, are indirect strategies beyond the cognitive strategies used to organize, plan, and evaluate one's learning and control one's emotions, attitudes, and motivations related to the target language' learning. Pintrich (2004) proposed four key SRL strategies tenets: (a) Students actively construct meaning, choose strategies, and set goals. (b) Students can also control the direction of their learning. (c) Students use goal-oriented strategies rather than random ones. (d) Students use strategies to mediate the relationship between individual and contextual factors and performance success. Several conceptual frameworks to gauge foreign language acquisition tactics have been offered by L2 academics. The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), created by Oxford in 1990, has 50 items divided into two categories: direct strategies (cognitive, memory, and compensatory), and indirect methods (metacognitive, affective, and social strategies). This taxonomy is illustrated in Figure 3.

The validity of the SILL has been widely accepted in previous research, including assessments of language learning strategies of Mongolian EFL university students (Dorjsumiya, 2011), the validation process of the SILL: A Confirmatory Factor Analysis in Korea (Park, 2011), and learning strategy preferences of Iraqi EFL learners (Alyas, 2021). The strategic self-regulation (SSR) model of language

acquisition was recently created by Oxford (2016), who asserted that language-learning techniques are self-regulated. The cyclical feedback loop with three phases of self-regulation is not represented by SILL and SSR because they were not built using the self-regulation hypothesis. Zimmerman (2002) suggested three phases of self-regulation: (a) a performance phase that consists of self-control and self-observation; (b) a forethought phase that includes task analysis and self-motivation beliefs; and (c) a self-reflection phase that comprises self-judgment and self-reaction.

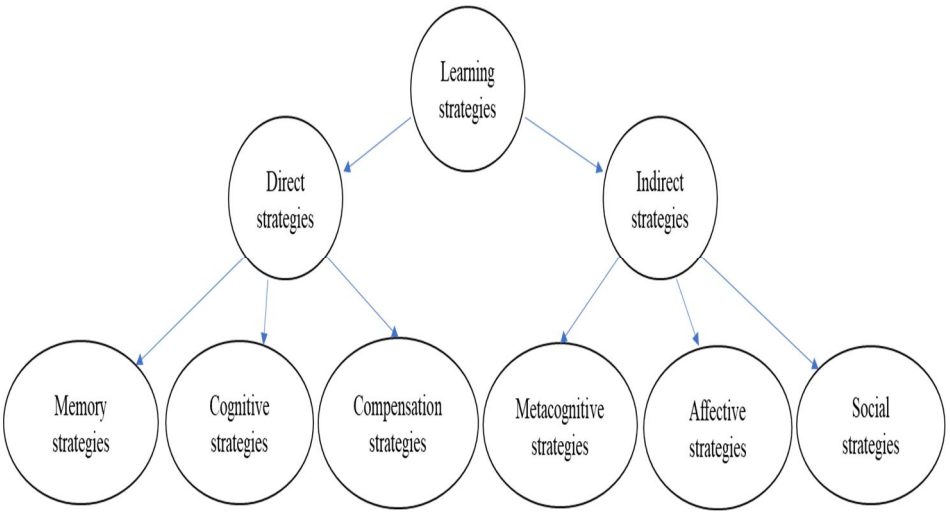

FIGURE 3

Language Learning Strategy Taxonomy

Pintrich (2004) made four critical assumptions for SRL strategies. The assumptions considered firstly, that learners are assumed to construct their goals, meanings, and strategies from the information available in their external surroundings and from the information in their minds. Secondly, it was assumed that learners could potentially monitor, control, and regulate certain aspects of their cognition, motivation, or behavior at all times. Third, it assumed that individuals

can set standards or goals for their learning. Lastly, it asserted that self-regulatory activities are mediators between individual and contextual characteristics and actual success or performance. However, it did not examine how EFL students' self-efficacy relates to their SRL strategy use.

2.2.2 Components of Self-Regulation

Self-regulation from a social cognitive perspective

According to Bandura (1986), a social-cognitive researcher, self-regulation involves the interaction of three triadic processes: personal, behavioral, and environmental. According to Zimmerman (1998), psychological aspects of self-regulation are motivation, self-awareness of performance results, and sensitivity to environmental and social contexts. The concept of human agency, or the conviction that one can have a significant amount of control over important and specific events in one's life, is illustrated by social cognitive theory. The idea of empowerment or obtaining power through goal-directed acts is reflected in the concept of agency (Cattaneo & Chapman, 2010). According to Zimmerman (2002), self-regulation entails self-generated thoughts, feelings, and behaviors that are planned, and continually modified to achieve personal objectives.

Self-observation, self-judgment, and self-reaction are three essential processes that people must employ in order to self-regulate (Bandura 1986). Self-observation is the conscious process of focusing on one's own behavior. Self-judgement is the process of evaluating one's performance in relation to a standard or a goal. An evaluative reaction to self-judgment is called a "self-reaction". Personal observations enable people to assess how they are doing in terms of achieving their own goals. They modify their conduct to achieve these objectives based on these judgments (Bandura, 1986).

Pintrich and Zusho (2002), Schunk and Ertmer (2000), and Zimmerman (2000) discussed the separate phases of self-regulation in their social cognitive models. First, they pointed out forethought and planning, where individuals plan their elements of action and different motivational beliefs, values, and goals. The second phase was performance monitoring in the learning situation, which involved performance and motivation and attempted to control these aspects. In other words, by monitoring their performance, learners can determine the situation in which they may need to change their strategies. This phase was divided into monitoring and control by Pintrich and Zusho (2002). After the learning exercises, the next phase entailed performance reflections. The person makes an effort to comprehend the causes of the varied results following the completion of learning activities during the reflective period. In addition to engaging in self-evaluation reflection about the recent learning experience, the student controls their emotions in relation to the learning achievement outcomes. Additionally, Pintrich and Zusho (2002) talked about several aspects of regulation that are necessary, including cognition, motivation, affect, and behavior.

Forethought and planning phase

The thinking processes and beliefs that come before learning activities are referred to as the forethought phase. These processes, for instance, involve students' motivation, self-efficacy, goal-setting, and preparing for their academic success. For successful language learning, motivation is a critical component of developmental and educational psychology (Gardner, 2010; Dornyei, 1998; Ushioda, 2013). Additionally, it has been stated to be closely related to the learner's personality and thinking. Therefore, the motivation of Ushioda (2013) is dependent on a complex

and dynamic interaction of cognitive, environmental, cultural, personal, and social elements.

Salehpour and Roohani (2020) investigated the positive relationship between motivation and L2 speaking skills among male and female Iranian EFL learners. The findings revealed that the female L2 students with intrinsic motivation had better L2 speaking skills, while the male students with extrinsic motivation had a higher level of English speaking skills. EFL students reported in the interviews that getting good jobs, internal joy, satisfaction, happiness, and making progress in future careers related to motivation, goal setting, and planning were why they endeavored to develop their speaking skills.

Yahya (2019) examined Malaysian EFL students' speaking performance and motivation through two different teaching methods, pre-test, and post-test. The findings found that students had an approximately equal level at the pre-test, but the post-test had different impacts. Awareness of the importance of learning and speaking English fluently seemed to lead students of the two groups to be more motivated at the time of the post-interview. Learning situational motives, self-efficacy, and self-confidence allowed students to speak in English without feeling nervous.

Performance monitoring phase

The volitional phase, also known as performance monitoring, describes the actions that students take to pay attention to and concentrate on the task of improving their performance. These procedures, for instance, include recording, monitoring, and attentional control. According to Pintrich and Zusho (2002), self-regulated learners choose and modify cognition techniques according to the task during the monitoring and control stages. Additionally, self-regulated students

participate in metacognitive activities that could provide insight into the effectiveness of the tactics. While some cognitive techniques, including the organization, rehearsal, and elaboration of information, are applicable to a wide range of domains and assignments, others, like summarizing to improve reading comprehension, are task- or domain-specific (Pressley & Hilden, 2006).

Davaanyam and Tserendorj (2015) found significant differences between students' SRL strategies in traditional and non-traditional classrooms from the performance monitoring perspective. Traditional instruction was defined as teacher-directed instruction using textbooks, worksheets, hands-on activities, drill practice activities in large and small groups, and lecture-based classroom teaching (Butzin, 2001). On the other hand, non-traditional classrooms include online environments that empower students to interact with others and use computers individually to access an abundance of resources, eliminate misconceptions by providing immediate feedback, and provide self-directed learning to students (Underwood, 2009). The study implied that students in non-traditional classroom environments were more effective at managing learning, paying attention to the task, and creating study schedules to optimize their abilities.

Persistence is the willingness to continue in challenging learning or problem-solving situations. Some studies provided evidence of students' developing the tendency to persist (Feng & Papi, 2020). In contrast, others tend to evade or quickly give up on laborious burdens (Graham, Woore, Porter, Courtney & Savory, 2020) in L2 learning. Furthermore, Ozdemir and Papi (2022) showed that people's ideas of intelligence have a significant impact on whether they exhibit a mastery-oriented attitude pattern of high persistence and challenge-seeking when speaking in their second language.

Reaction and self-reflection phase

The self-reflection phase refers to processes related to self-observation, including self-evaluation. Students compare their performance and knowledge to their goals and results. They are also likely to make judgments about themselves, whether the preliminary result is due to their limited skills or inadequate effort. In L2 learning, attributes are the students' justifications for the results they achieve (Gosiewska-Turek, 2017). Attributions are important for EFL students trying to understand the outcomes of their performance during the reactions and reflection stage of the self-regulation process because they are created after the outcomes occur. Teng (2022) stated that self-regulation is essential for learners' strategies to accomplish challenging tasks in learning situations.

Emotional regulation refers to the self-regulation processes involved in becoming aware of individuals' affective reactions to performance in L2 learning (Thoma, 2021) and having the ability to control one's emotional experiences (Hu, 2022) in L2 writing strategies. Pawlak, Zarrinabadi, & Kruk (2022) discussed how positive and negative emotions facilitate L2-motivated behavior and its outcomes. These processes may be fundamental in the self-regulation reaction and reflection phases. Thus, it is believed that students use their emotional reactions and appraisals of the tasks to modify their future academic preparation that becomes more relevant to their future progress (Linnenbrink, 2006).

Social cognitive researchers (Zimmerman, 1989) also view self-monitoring as involving three self-oriented feedback loops: personal, behavioral, and environmental. Schunk and Zimmerman (1997) provide evidence of the development of self-regulation that depends on triadic influences such as behavioral, environmental, and social. Self-regulation learning consists of four levels: observation, imitation, self-control, and self-regulation. First, EFL beginners

acquire SRL abilities, primarily by examining models and getting appropriate feedback. Okada, Sawaumi and Ito (2017) examined the impacts of observing video materials in classrooms on the communication tasks of Japanese EFL learners. The study indicated that the observation sequence of model videos might affect the development of students' performance and improve their cognitive, linguistic, and presentation skills. According to Mills (2014), students' English proficiency levels had an impact on how they evaluated their presentations, not just in terms of grades but also in terms of what they noted and discussed after watching a video of their own presentations. Furthermore, rather than emphasizing content, delivery, or structure, most students concentrated on language aspects. It is beneficial for instructors to focus on self-improvement and select flexible instruction, assessment, and feedback to improve their students' L2 speaking.

Second, a learner reaches an imitative level when their performance comes close to matching the model; learners at this stage do not replicate the modeled behavior. However, once they had mastered the model's essence, they were self-driven to adhere to its pattern. Ibarolla (2010) concentrated on a particular methodological intervention to enhance 15 Spanish students of English's pronunciation over the course of fourteen days. Students were introduced to three different training methods through English-language clips from movies and TV shows. The findings showed a beneficial effect on their abilities. Students' pronunciation was also found to have marginally improved. The activity, according to every participant, was beneficial and inspired them to deliver free speeches during the last week.

The third stage is reached when the student can use strategies to learn and perform tasks independently. In other words, while SRL techniques have become more internalized, they remain dependent on the production of L2 speech. Various studies have explored the use of self-regulation learning strategies in L2

achievement. Studies indicate that SRL strategies are essential components of the learning process (Habok et al., 2021; Tseng & Yen, 2019; Wang & Bai, 2017) and support students' development and self-focused strategies.

The learner cannot successfully complete the fourth stage until they can methodically modify their learning tactics in response to shifting personal and contextual circumstances. Mobile-assisted language learning through learning analytics was suggested by Viberg, Wasson, and Kukulska-Hulme (2020) for SRL. The study concentrated on how frequently students independently learn the target language on devices and in online environments to complete their assignments methodically. In addition, Golonka, Bowles, Frank, Richardson, and Freynik (2014) reviewed technology types and their effectiveness for foreign language learning.

Students have a variety of options for what to do next after receiving feedback on how they performed on an exercise, according to Schunk and Ertmer (2000). In various scenarios of success, these decisions might be difficult with numerous unknowns regarding the likely outcomes (Busemeyer & Townsend, 1993; Wolters, 2003). According to Carver and Scheier (1981), the basis for choosing whether to carry out activities continues to be the information process through feedback loops, affective reactions, and expectations for success. Due to the complexity of these processes, pupils may have challenges deciding how to complete assignments in the future.

Based on discussions from different perspectives, self-regulation is defined in L2 speaking to achieve self-set goals across social and cultural contexts. The cycle of self-motivation, goal-setting, self-planning, strategy learning, and tactics based on feedback in a social context are all parts of the self-regulation process.

2.2.3 Categories of Self-Regulated Learning Strategies

People employ self-regulation to focus on learning and improve metacognitive comprehension of some facets of cognitive and behavioral functioning. Research by Carver and Scheier from 1981 shows that self-monitored information is processed cyclically through a self-oriented feedback loop. Humanistic researchers have defined this feedback loop in relation to changes in covert processes, whereas operant researchers have depicted these changes as environmental or behavioral changes (McCombs, 2001). Three separate SRL models have been developed by Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1986), who were the first SRL developers. Zimmerman (1989) thought that three self-oriented feedback loops were engaged in self-monitoring: personal (cognitive and emotional), behavioral, and environmental. This is illustrated in Figure 4. According to Panadero (2017), Zimmerman later began examining how particular learners acquire specific cognitive models and gain proficiency in a variety of tasks. This concept explained how SRL might fit into Bandura's (1986) triadic social cognition model.

Five tools and measurements exist inside Zimmerman's paradigm, and they are as follows:

a) to validate the Self-Regulated Learning Interview Schedule (SRLIS) procedure (Zimmerman & Martinez-Ponz, 1986); b) to evaluate SRL in experimental training settings for writing (Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 2002); c) to evaluate the validity of the Cyclical Phases model (Cleary & Callan, 2018); e) to examine the functional association using the Learning and Study Strategies Inventory (LASSI) and the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ), two well-known SRL instruments (Magno, 2010).

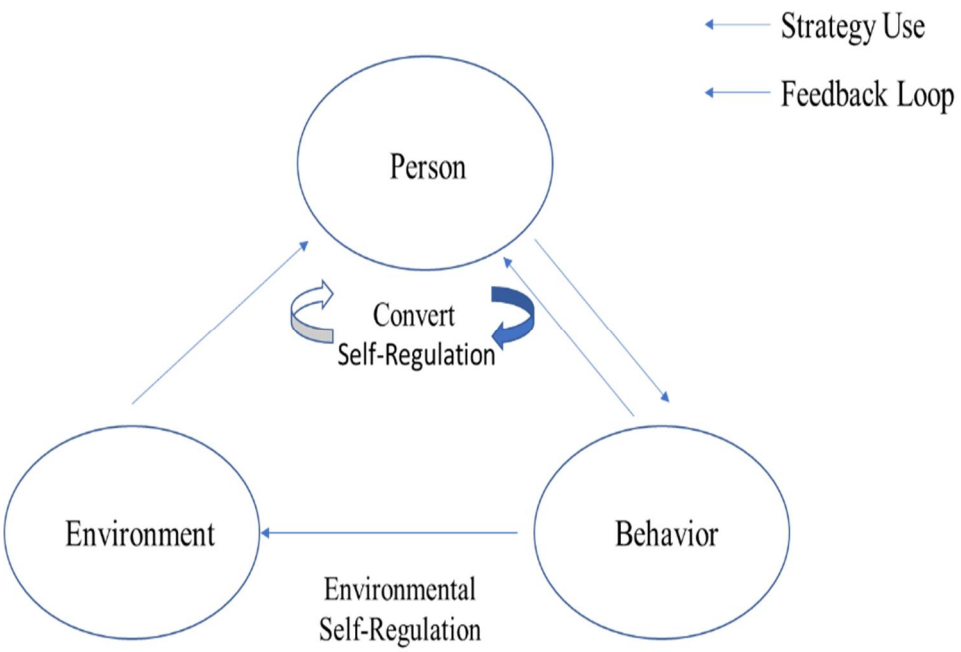

FIGURE 4

Triadic Forms of SRL

In the context of education, Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1986) performed structured interviews to evaluate the use of SRL methods by middle school students in six different learning contexts. They created 14 different categories of study techniques, including organizing self-evaluation and transformation, goal-setting and planning, information seeking, record-keeping and monitoring, environmental structuring, self-consequences, memorization rehearsal, peer, teacher, and adult assistance, test and note review, and text and test review. Table 2 lists the definitions and their examples by Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1986).

TABLE 2

The Categories of Self-Regulated Learning Strategies

Categories of strategies	Definitions
1. Self-evaluation	Statements indicating student-initiated evaluations of the quality or progress of their work, e.g., "I check over my work to make sure I did it right."
2. Organizing and transforming	Statements indicating student-initiated overt or covert rearrangement of instructional materials to improve learning, e.g., "I make an outline before I write my paper."
3. Goal-setting and planning	Statements indicating student setting of educational goals or sub goals and planning for sequencing, timing, and completing activities related to those goals, e.g., "First, I start studying two weeks before exams, and I pace myself."
4. Seeking information	Statements indicating student-initiated efforts to secure further task information from nonsocial sources when undertaking an assignment, e.g., "Before beginning to write the paper, I go to the library to get as much information as possible concerning the topic."
5. Keeping records and monitoring	Statements indicating student-initiated efforts to record events or results, e.g., "I took notes of the class discussion," "I kept a list of the words I got wrong."
6. Environmental structuring	Statements indicating student-initiated efforts to select or arrange the physical setting to make learning easier, e.g., "I isolate myself from anything that distracts me." "I turned off the radio so I can concentrate on what I am doing."
7. Self-consequences	Statements indicating student arrangement or imagination of rewards or punishment for success or

	failure, e.g., "If I do well on a test, I treat myself to a movie."
8. Rehearsing and memorizing	Statements indicating student-initiated efforts to memorize material by overt or covert practice, e.g., "In preparing for a math test, I keep writing the formula down until I remember it."
9-11. Seeking social assistance	Statements indicating students-initiated efforts to solicit help from *peers* (9), *teacher* (10), *and adults* (11), e.g., "If I have problems with math assignments, I ask a friend for help."
12-14. Reviewing records	Statements indicating student-initiated efforts to reread tests (12), notes (13), or textbooks (14) to prepare for class or further testing, e.g., "When preparing for a test, I review my notes."
15. Other	Statements indicating learning behavior that is initiated by other persons such as teachers or parents, and all unclear verbal responses, e.g., "I just do what the teacher says."

The subcategories of seeking social support (from peers, instructors, and adults), as well as reviewing records, were grouped together by Pape and Wang (2003). (i.e., from tests, notes, and texts). Eleven categories were created as a result of changes, such as the division of environmental structuring into physical and attentional controls. Table 3 provides descriptions of each category along with illustrations from young ESL learners.

Later in the L2 field, Wang and Bai (2017) developed categories for the Questionnaire of English Self-Regulated Learning Strategies (QESRLS), which consists of 11 categories, to measure the SRL strategies of 265 EFL secondary school students. The context includes tactics like self-evaluation, planning and

transformation, rehearsal and memorization, asking for help from others, persevering in the face of difficulties, looking for opportunities, practicing English, record keeping and monitoring, self-consequences, goal setting and planning, review of records, and interpretation guessing.

TABLE 3

Self-Regulated Learning Strategies

Category definitions according to Pape and Wang (2003)	Examples within ESL sample
1. Self-evaluation: Self-initiated evaluations of the quality or progress of students' work.	Check the writing before turning it in to the teacher.
2. Organizing and transforming: Self-initiated overt or covert rearrangement of instructional materials to improve learning.	Translate English into their native language to help memorize the word.
3. Goals setting and planning: Setting educational goals or sub goals and planning for sequencing, timing, and completing activities related to the self-set goals.	Adjust what to write in a journal entry by checking how much time is left.
4. Seeking information: Self-initiated efforts to secure further task information from nonsocial sources.	Look for the meaning of a word in a dictionary.
5. Keeping records and monitoring: Self-initiated efforts to record events or results.	Take down an unknown word to ask for help later.
6. Environmental structuring: Self-initiated efforts to select or arrange the physical setting to make learning easier.	Study in one's own room.
7. Self-consequences: Student rearrangement or imagination of rewards or punishment for success or failure.	Jump up and down when one gets good results of study.
8. Attentional control: Self-initiated performance of a particular personal behavior to improve learning.	Listen carefully in class.

9. Rehearsing and memorizing: Self-initiated efforts to memorize learning materials by overt or covert practice.	Write the word many times on paper in order to memorize it.
10. Seeking social assistance: Self-initiated efforts to solicit help from adults, teachers or peers.	Ask the teacher for help.
11. Reviewing records: Self-initiated efforts to reread notes, tests, or textbooks.	Reread the textbook before a test.

To assess the writing SRL techniques used by Chinese college students learning English as a foreign language, Sun and Wang (2020) modified the QESRLS (Wang & Bai, 2017) into the Questionnaire of English Writing SRL Strategies (QEWSRLS). According to Zimmerman and Risemberg's (1997) self-regulation paradigm, the questionnaire has three sections, each with 26 items: behavioral SRL techniques, personal SRL tactics, and personal SRL strategies.

2.2.4 Roles of Self-Regulated Learning in L2 Speaking

Scholars focused on studying academic self-regulation and its processes, which are critical to learners' L2 speaking achievement. Zimmerman (2008) noted that successful students have learned to self-regulated to achieve their goals. This topic has attracted researchers for decades, and initial attempts have been successful in demonstrating the significant importance of students' academic outcomes.

Most EFL students seek opportunities outside the classroom to improve their general English and speaking skills (Uztosun, 2020). Several studies have been conducted to illustrate the importance of SRL in L2 speaking. Boekaerts and Cascallar (2006) addressed four main questions such as SRL, students' key strategies to guide their own learning process, learning environment triggers, and teachers' feedback related to SRL. This study looked at how the assessment of self-regulation was impacted by shifting classroom dynamics.

Learning techniques are the ultimate goal of the second language acquisition process. Several studies have explored the inter-relationship between language proficiency and learning tactics among EFL university students. Students who can learn on their own can already choose appropriate SRL strategies. Altansor (2016) suggested that different learning strategies depend on learners' age and developmental characteristics. For instance, college-level students learn in different ways. Students in their first and second years appeared to learn more through assistance seeking, discussions with others, and other sources. On the other hand, students in their third and fourth-years students learn more by exploring independently and developing their skills in production practice.

Green and Oxford (1995) suggested that more proficient learners reported a higher frequency of strategy use than their less proficient classmates. Overall, these studies reported a positive relationship between proficiency and LLS. Similarly, Oxford and Nykos (1989) investigated how language self-ratings of proficiency and longitudinal studies influence strategy use. Similar results were reported by Yang (1995) for Taiwanese students of ESL, Ramirez (1986) for French students of L2, Radwan (2011), and the effects of L2 proficiency and gender on university students majoring in English in Oman. Habók and Magyar (2018) highlighted the intricacy of the SRL method, which spanned cognitive, social, and affective elements and their "meta" approaches. According to the study, convergent validity offered proof of a meaningful link between the variables, while internal and composite reliability verified the consistency of the components.

In a series of interviews with participants over a two-year period, Redmer (2022) discovered fluid and dynamic interactions between individual characteristics, objectives, tasks, and situational circumstances during self-access learning. Based on their requirements and views, participants' tactics were broadened and modified.

The outcome supported the individual-level functioning of self-regulation. White (2017) centered his research on the SRL's functions, key components of student learning, and academic achievement in modern classrooms. The study demonstrated how modeling and self-regulatory learning, an essential process for L2 learning, play a significant role in an integrated framework of cyclical stages and developmental scales of SRL. These studies show how significant role models can be in classroom learning as a key contextual element that can support self-regulation and L2 proficiency. Additionally, it was indicated that effective modeling involves planning, carrying out, assessing, modifying, enhancing, and reflecting on the activities and their results for both teachers and learners.

Successful students are more likely than less successful students to employ SRL methods, but different cultural and language backgrounds also influence the adoption of different SRL strategies. Habók et al. (2021) investigated how university students from Hungary, China, and Mongolia learned English as a foreign language (EFL). The study identified several cross-cultural similarities and differences in strategies among these three groups to improve their L2 achievement. In addition, a significant difference was found in cognitive language learning strategy usage between Hungarian and Mongolian participants. Chinese and Mongolian students used effective strategies more frequently than Hungarian students did. The cultural traditions of the participating countries may have contributed to these significant differences.

2.3 Self-Efficacy and Self-Regulation

According to the literature, researchers did not focus much on the connection between self-efficacy and students' usage of SRL before1990 (Zimmerman & Pons, 1990). In a study on this connection, Zimmerman and Pons (1990) proposed that

students with high levels of self-efficacy and SRL practices exhibit more exceptional academic accomplishment than typical students and that these two variables are significantly connected. According to Zimmerman and Pons (1990), students' strategic attempts to control their learning process were closely related to their self-efficacy perceptions. Such ideas were adversely correlated with how frequently they sought adult support and positively correlated with how often they used self-regulated techniques. With access to various learning strategies to solve their problems, students might benefit from them and encounter them in the language learning process. Especially, enhancing the self-efficacy of students can be productive. Self-efficacy is a belief in one's ability to plan and carry out the actions necessary to produce the desired learning (Bandura, 1997).

Different paradigms for social cognitive research in L2 environments have been adopted by social cognitive researchers like Zimmerman (1989) and Pintrich (2004). Since that time, L2 researchers have paid attention to social cognitive models of SRL (Zarei, Esfandiari, & Akbari, 2016). According to Zimmerman (1989), a social cognitive model of SRL views the self-regulatory process as a triadic link between individual factors like self-efficacy, behavioral factors like employing SRL methods, and contextual factors like feedback. Furthermore, from a social cognitive standpoint, self-efficacy is a critical factor influencing the SRL process (Zimmerman, 1989). Zimmerman (2000) illustrated the significance of self-efficacy in the self-regulatory processes with his SRL model. According to this SRL model, the first phase of the SRL process starts with students' self-efficacy, goal setting, and planning. In broad academic settings, researchers like Pintrich (1999) and Yusuf (2011) found a favorable correlation between self-efficacy and SRL methods. For instance, Pintrich (1999) looked into the relationship between middle

school and college students' self-efficacy and SRL techniques such as elaboration, rehearsal, and organizing tactics.

Pintrich (1999) came to the conclusion that self-efficacy supports and promotes SRL based on the study's findings. Therefore, students with low self-efficacy, who are known for being less tenacious, diligent, and adept at managing their emotions, typically employ less SRL techniques than do students with high self-efficacy (Zimmerman, 2000). These results on the association between SRL and self-efficacy provide important information on how to encourage students' SRL during the learning process. The SRL strategy of awareness and self-monitoring of which acceptable goals were attained is supported by Zimmerman, Bonner, and Kovach's (1996) recommendation that students score their self-efficacy beliefs after studying. Social cognitive models of SRL can describe the variables influencing SRL strategies and the connections between variables in L2 learning environments. Zarei et al. (2016) argue that the majority of L2 research on SRL that employed social cognitive models of SRL undervalued these links and solely paid attention to how SRL techniques affected language proficiency. The results of earlier research may therefore be explained by the L2 field's incomplete knowledge of social cognitive models of SRL.

According to some studies on self-efficacy, those who are more effective are more likely to participate, whereas people who are less effective are more likely to withdraw (Schunk, 1991). Zimmerman et al. (2017) found a link between self-efficacy and course achievement goals, self-evaluative standards (satisfaction with potential grades), and students' achievement. Shunk and Usher (2011) explored a positive correlation between self-efficacy and indices of self-regulation. This positive relationship was confirmed not only in Asian students but also in European

students (Lee, Allen, Cheng, Watson, & Watson, 2021; Shi, 2018; Sun & Wang, 2020) in the subject areas of social science, mathematics, and EFL.

Limited studies have examined the relationships between self-efficacy and SRL strategies in L2 contexts. For example, Wang, Hu, Zhang, Chang, and Xu (2012) noticed statistically significant relationships among SRL strategies, self-efficacy beliefs, and achievement in learning English among Chinese college students majoring in medicine. However, participants' self-ratings of self-efficacy and use of SRL strategies were not high. They performed better on English written exams than other counterparts, such as reading and speaking. Woottipong (2022) revealed an inter-relationship between self-efficacy and SRL in EFL writing skills using the technology of Turkish students.

Wang et al. (2013) found the same latent structure between Chinese and German students determining the correlations between their English self-efficacy and SRL use. Chinese students showed lower self-efficacy beliefs, but their English proficiency was not significantly different compared to German students. Moreover, the students' use of SRL strategies was insignificant. On the other hand, positive relationships were observed among self-efficacy, use of SRL strategies, and English language test scores.

Onada (2014) investigated the effects of effort regulation tactics and self-efficacy on the vocabulary skills of college-level English majors at a private institution in Japan. According to the findings of structural equation modeling, self-efficacy substantially predicted the use of effort regulation, which had an impact on the growth of the L2 vocabulary context. This study helped to clarify how self-efficacy and the application of SRL methods interact in L2 learning environments. The Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) is arguably the most used tool for assessing the psychometric features of SRL strategies and their link to

self-efficacy. It is founded on the broad cognitive theory of learning techniques and motivation. In addition, Cho and Kim (2019) analyzed learners' self-efficacy beliefs and self-regulation strategy use among Korean EFL learners. The findings revealed major discrepancies between groups in terms of self-efficacy views for speaking, listening, reading, and writing abilities. Additionally, it showed that, compared to medium- and low-proficiency learners, high-proficiency learners had a better sense of self-efficacy.

Lee et al. (2021) investigated the interrelationships between self-efficacy and SRL among English language learners in a college setting. The study supported the importance EFL college students' sense of self-efficacy, which predicted their use of SRL strategies. Wang and Bai (2017) found that self-efficacy is a subcomponent of SRL, which belongs to the forethought phase and includes beliefs that precede efforts to learn. Additionally, effective students persevere longer in the face of challenges and employ more SRL techniques to study English independently. According to Mills (2014), there are few trustworthy methods available to assess SRL techniques and self-efficacy beliefs in ESL/EFL students. Previous research has linked self-efficacy beliefs, SRL habits, and English language exam results in significantly beneficial ways (Wang et al., 2013).

An, Wang, Li, Gan and Li (2020) looked at the SRL strategies used by Chinese university students and discovered that technology-based SRL strategies mediated the relationships between learning results and English language self-efficacy and enjoyment. This study supports a statistically significant beneficial association. The results of this study, from a pedagogical perspective, suggest that more up-to-date educational technology should concentrate on helping students create learning plans that would maximize the efficiency of their technology use in learning the target language.

Although the aforementioned studies imply that self-efficacy and SRL techniques are predecessors to students' L2 achievement, there hasn't been much focus on the connections between self-efficacy, self-regulation, and outcomes related to English-speaking among college students in the EFL environment. Few academics have also looked into the distinctive contributions made by the interaction between English-speaking individuals' self-efficacy and self-regulation learning techniques. In addition, some studies focused on self-efficacy and SRL strategies of EFL learners such as Korean (Magno, 2010), Japanese and Bangladeshi (Moriam, 2005), Indonesian (Gani, Fajrina & Hanifa, 2015) and Mexican (López, 2011). Furthermore, Wang et al. (2013) examined German students' English language proficiency using self-efficacy and SRL strategies.

2.4 Self-Efficacy and Self-Regulated Learning Strategies in Different Contexts

Self-efficacy and SRL strategies are vital variables in L2 learning contexts. Therefore, studies related to self-efficacy and SRL have recently attracted researchers and English instructors. Teacher and classroom-centered instructive language teaching might not be able to provide beneficial feedback for learners in L2 macro skills. In the EFL field, many scholars have conducted studies to investigate adult language learners' self-efficacy beliefs (An et al., 2020; Kim, Wang, Ahn & Bong, 2015) and language learning strategies (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989). Every learner has a level of self-efficacy, which influences the learning conditions and self-regulation process, both of which affect second language (L2) achievement.

Researchers on target language learning strategies (LLS) have attempted to identify learners' notions about what is involved in achieving foreign language

proficiency. LLS have been characterized in a variety of ways, but generally recognized definitions state that LLSs are "particular acts made by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more pleasurable, more self-directed, more successful, and more transferable to a new context" (Oxford, 1990). In order to accomplish certain learning goals, learners systematically attempt to govern and regulate their learning process (Luszczynska, Gutiérrez-Doña & Schwarzer, 2005; Zimmerman & Schunk, 2011). Task-related proficiency is said to have the biggest impact on self-efficacy, according to Bandura (1997).

Tankó (2017) investigated the relationship between English majors' self-regulatory control strategy use, motivational dispositions, and anxiety in the L2 writing context of Hungarian students. The study indicated that English majors are motivated to enhance their learners' writing abilities. In addition, the study revealed a positive relationship between motivation and self-regulatory strategy use but a negative effect on self-efficacy and anxiety. According to Zhao, Xiao and Zhang (2022) the relationship between the L2 motivational self-system (L2MSS), international posture, and the sustainable development of L2 proficiency was significant during the period of COVID-19. To address the issue, 156 English majors students from China participated in the study. The data were analyzed with structural equation modeling. The study discovered whether the ideal L2 motivational self-system predicts the L2 learning experience positively, while the L2 self has a negative predictive power. While much research has been detailing how motivation and the main factors influence students' L2 macro skills proficiency, social cognitive perspectives focused on the interrelationship between self-efficacy and SRL at the L2 educational level. The attraction to learn English as a foreign language depended on students' goals in L2 achievement.

Students from EFL who enroll in English as Academic Purpose (EAP) courses encounter difficulties transitioning to university-level instruction in the English language. For instance, it is unknown what factors help or impede students from being able to self-regulate their English learning with feedback. In the context of recent feedback research at the higher education level, Gan, Hu, Wang, Nang, and An (2021) looked at Chinese university students' feedback behavior and preferences in academic English course settings and their associations with English language self-efficacy. The study discovered that, aside from a strong preference for teacher assessment feedback, students were more likely to act on such feedback than to actively seek it out. English language self-efficacy has also been shown to have a significant influence on feedback behavior and preference. Furthermore, Dorj (2022) investigated factors affecting EFL learners' English speaking skills. This study's participants were from universities in EAP courses in the Mongolian context. The study identified a number of variables, including social and institutional variables that affect students' English speaking proficiency.

According to this literature review, only limited studies revealed the differences in self-efficacy and SRL strategies of EFL college-level students related to their characteristics. Therefore, research questions arose to investigate the differences in personal characteristics of Mongolian EFL college students.

2.5 Current English Education in Mongolia

2.5.1 English Education System in Mongolia

Political and economic progress has influenced a massive invasion of globalization and other cultures over thirty years in Mongolia. English education in Mongolia has been developing, and Mongolian students have become attracted to learning English (Munkhbayar, 2016). In 1956, the National University of Mongolia

introduced English language courses for the first time. In 1998 the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science (MOECS) in Mongolia approved official documents, including the first national standard on English language teaching in 1998.

Since the academic year 1992-1993, when Mongolia transitioned from a socialist to a free-market economy, English has been taught in secondary schools. Beginning with the academic year 1997–1998, the Mongolian government formally decided that English would be taught as a primary foreign language in all levels of educational institutions. Additionally, Mongolia adopted English as a mandatory language as a result of the impact of external globalization. Since then, the Mongolian government has made English education a priority and released a number of policy documents. Within the framework of increasing the educational competitiveness of Mongolians, the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science introduced the Master Plan for Mongolian Education from 2005-2015 as a major subject in schools and undergraduate courses. According to official documents, the Millennium Development Goals-Based Comprehensive National Development Strategy of Mongolia, 2007-2021, made by the government of Mongolia, states that English language skills will be regularly enhanced to develop human capital and making English an official second language.

Preschool (kindergarten), primary school (1-4 grades), lower secondary (5-8 grades), upper secondary (9-10 grades), high school (11–12 grades), as well as vocational training and higher education, make up Mongolia's educational system. Since 2005, fifth, ninth, and twelfth graders in schools have been required to take English language exams at the state level. Moreover, in order to raise students' elementary level of English language ability, English has been taught as a required course for two semesters in the first year of bachelor's degree programs. Following

this, MOECS implemented a number of initiatives, including "Education 2010-2021" and the National English Program 2008-2020 (MG, 2008). These initiatives intended to create fresh and enhanced English language evaluations and teaching strategies for secondary and higher education. Within the framework of English education improvement in Mongolia, the MOECS recommended teachers use state-developed core curricula for all subjects, including English as a secondary language. As English permeates every aspect of Mongolian life, the attitude and interest of EFL learners in this country will dramatically rise in the future years. Therefore, the English educational system should continue to enhance the quality of its English teaching and the pertinent developmental processes in light of the growing number of English learners and students in Mongolia (Wang & Batbileg, 2020).

2.5.2 Pre-School Education and English Learning

Education is key to the development of every single country. It helps people attain knowledge and improve their confidence in life to build a society. The more educated people in the country, the higher development in that place. Pre-school education is essential for a country's development and the MOECS pays attention to implementing, regulating, and coordinating education sector policies and laws.

Mongolia has a state-financed education system at the pre-school level. Kindergartens enroll children over the age of two years old, as well as some privately run nursery schools. Pre-school education develops children who are caring, balanced, and moral. Teachers at kindergartens guide kids to show empathy, compassion and respect for the feelings of others, as well as to understand intellectual, physical and emotional balance in order to achieve personal well-being for others. Moreover, teachers implement curriculum to improve children's basic skills such as communicating, creating and thinking. Pre-school education helps

children grow to be thinkers, risk-takers, and inquirers, as well as to be reflective and open-minded. There are many activities helping students to develop new skills such as loving nature and animals; understanding and expressing ideas; exploring concepts, ideas and issues with local and global significance; and giving thoughtful consideration to their learning and experiences.

Due to globalization and the influence of other cultures, pre-school education has recently started to pay attention to English learning. Some privately run kindergartens develop children's sublanguages and introduce English learning before primary education. To improve pre-school children's creative and knowledgeable interest, teachers suggest learning English at an early level.

2.5.3 English Learning at Primary and Secondary Education Levels

English has been taught in Mongolian schools as a required subject since 1992. In lower and higher secondary schools, English language instruction is required and starts in the fifth grade of elementary school. As a required topic in each grade during their academic years, teachers need pupils to attend three class hours (40 minutes each) of English language instruction each week. Since 2005, 12th graders in schools have been required to take state-level tests in English. If pupils choose English as an elective in high school, class time increases to six hours (10-12 grades). The MOECS created the National Core Curriculum for English Language Education in accordance with the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, and it was implemented in public schools (CEFR) levels of English such as A1-B1 in 2015. Basic four language abilities that students should be able to use at the secondary education level, and the National Core Curriculum states that English instruction in each grade should work to enhance these skills.

In private schools, English language instruction typically begins in the first or third grade, with students following local or global curricula. 7.1% of pupils in Mongolian schools attended private schools in the academic year 2020–2021, according to statistics on primary and secondary schools (MOECS, 2021). Private school graduates performed significantly better than public school graduates on the general entrance exam in English did in 2019, according to the education evaluation center of Mongolia. Marav (2020) observed that urban pupils have more advantages in learning English due to the unequal distribution of resources between urban and rural areas. In rural schools, there is a paucity of proficient English teachers. The fact that many English teaching graduates opt to work in urban areas where there are better living and working conditions is noteworthy. Mongolian families also spend money on English language education for their children, whether it is by enrolling them in bilingual private schools in urban areas, encouraging them to learn English better and joining private international schools, or using English as the primary language of teaching.

2.5.4 English Learning at Higher Education Levels.

According to the report of the MOECS of Mongolia, there are 88 universities and colleges operating during the 2020–2021 academic year, of which 37 (42%) are universities, 48 (54.5%) are institutions of higher education, and 3 (3.5%) are colleges. In the academic year 2020–2021, in total, 147,300 students were enrolled in colleges and universities, a reduction of 1,100 from the previous year.

Of the total number of university and college students enrolled for the 2020–2021 academic year, 89,500 (60.8%) are women, and 57,800 (39.2%) are males. 130,100 (88.3%) students are enrolled in universities, while 16,800 (11.4%) are enrolled in higher education institutions, 200 (.15%) are enrolled in colleges, and

200 (.15%) are enrolled in universities abroad. Nearly 138,000 (93.7%) university and college students study in Ulaanbaatar city, whereas 9,300 (6.3%) study in rural places. Out of the total number of students, 134,600 (91.4%) study during the day, 3,000 (2.0%) study during the evening, and 9,700 (6.6%) study by correspondence courses. A total of 119,100 (80.9%) students are pursuing bachelor's degrees, followed by 24,800 (16.8%) students for master's degrees, 3,200 (2.2%) students for doctoral degrees, and 200 (0.1%) students reaching for diploma degrees. There are 25,200 newcomers for the 2020–2021 academic year, and 15,800 (62.6%) of those are female. Additionally, in total, 28,100 students graduated from universities and colleges in the 2019–2020 academic year, of whom 17,300 (61.6%) were women.

The MOECS has been implementing initiatives to enhance higher-level English instruction since 2000. To make reforms in the English curriculum, the MOECS worked particularly closely with foreign partners to diversify the materials that were already accessible, such as curricula and textbooks. In order to meet the growing demand for English language instruction in Mongolia, officials focused on the curricula within the context of English education reform, elevating the level of English and aligning it with worldwide norms.

According to the report of the English Language Teachers' Association of Mongolia (ELTAM) in 2021, there is a need to enhance teacher preparation programs in areas like lesson planning, teacher/student conversation time, spontaneous speaking and writing exercises, and classroom management. The issue is directly related to the outdated and wholly inappropriate Soviet-style teaching methods that are still widely used in many schools and colleges and require students to passively sit in silence while lecturers talk. A thorough, multi-sectoral examination and revision of the current standard English teaching curricula should

also be at the forefront of what has to change for things to get better across the nation. However, in order to comprehend the current TEFL scenario in Mongolia, one must first comprehend how the nation's English language program was introduced. The lack of interactive classrooms that encourage student participation, creative thinking, and the expression of original ideas is one of the main issues with TEFL training in Mongolia. Furthermore, there were no established TEFL programs in the country during the immediate post-Soviet period. Teachers were not only unprepared, undertrained, and unenthusiastic about teaching TEFL, but they also lacked access to resources and had little knowledge of how to instruct students in a live language, even if they had been inspired to do so. With the influx of foreign TEFL instructors over the past 20 or so years, things have improved, but there is still considerable room for improvement.

The current TEFL curriculum in Mongolia is a patchwork of prepared texts for various levels (of which there are never enough) that are rife with amateurish errors. This indicates that there is not a genuine, widely-accepted, high-quality standard text for any level of language learners in Mongolia, and there is a lack of consistency among the many TEFL levels there as well. All TEFL instruction texts need to be thoroughly and objectively reviewed. This should be done over a long period of time in collaboration with credible international TEFL accreditation and/or curriculum development specialists and the regional English Language Teachers Association of Mongolia (ELTAM).

The goal of Mongolian EFL researchers has been to identify the challenges faced by Mongolian EFL university students and how they may support successful teaching methods to support the creation of a higher-level curriculum that is appropriate to their needs. Some studies looked into a variety of issues, including a lack of curricula, the poor caliber of English teachers, students' learning motivation,

and the school environment, that may have contributed to the historically poor performance of EFL college students in learning English (Gundsambuu, 2019). Therefore, the issue of understanding the nature of EFL learners' self-efficacy and SRL strategies rose among higher-level EFL teachers. Nowadays, studies intend to determine why Mongolian EFL college students still face obstacles in developing speaking skills.

Recently, the number of Mongolian students who learn English at the college level has increased steadily, making English the most widely learned foreign language in Mongolia. The Mongolian Education System pays more attention to increasing English language proficiency at the higher education level to prepare successful English language learners who can fulfill academic, business, and cultural demands (Yondonperenlei, 2011). In a study, Sainbayar (2019) discovered that Mongolian students were drawn to study abroad in order to obtain a better degree in education. The most popular destination countries included the United States of America, Japan, Australia, Germany, Hungary, China, Russia, South Korea, and Taiwan. English language scores are essential for numerous foreign, government-funded scholarships, which significantly affect Mongolian students' outbound mobility.

A variety of studies were examined when performing this dissertation study to determine the nature of concerns with self-efficacy and SRL practices among EFL college students. According to Altansor's (2016) research, the age and developmental characteristics of the pupils were the most crucial factors demanding different learning approaches. In their second year, kids seem to learn more with the help of a teacher, while in their third year, students seem to learn more by discovering new information from other sources, and in their fourth year, students seem to learn more through production practice. Studies on English language-

learning strategies have focused on investigating different nations' EFL strategies. Yondonperenlei (2011) assessed 100 students' language-learning strategies at a Mongolian EFL university to examine the relationship between learners' language proficiency and LLS.

Shagdarsuren, Batchuluun, and Lang (2020) looked into the elements influencing learners' demotivation in L2 learning among Mongolian students in higher education as well as the motivation of English-majoring students towards learning the language. According to the mixed-methods study, the students were motivated to learn English and had an instrumental orientation. The attitude of the lecturers and peers also discouraged the students. In addition, some studies focused on Mongolian EFL university students compared to other countries. For instance, Habók et al. (2021) focused on Chinese, Hungarian, and Mongolian students' EFL learning strategies.

Most previous study participants were selected from universities in the capital city of Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia. They were in different years and studied in different fields such as business administration, humanities and social sciences, health sciences, economics, engineering, and law. Wang and Batbileg (2020) interviewed both EFL teachers and students and found in the study that teachers should determine the learning strategies used by their EFL students. The majority of students find it difficult to learn English and experience worry when they see how far behind their peers they are. In addition, a lot of instructors, scholars, and researchers, particularly young ones, are calling for better curriculum development for both themselves and their students. In conclusion, TEFL instruction in Mongolia has begun to improve, and this trend is anticipated to continue quickly.

3. METHODOLOGY

The researcher described the particulars of the research method, which were employed in this dissertation study. To answer the afore-mentioned research questions, systematic data collection procedures were used and gathered data were analyzed precisely as possible. The process included considerations about research context, research design, sampling, research instruments, data collection methods, and data analysis methods.

3.1 Research Context

This dissertation study's participants were found at different universities in the capital city Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia. The selected universities are state and private universities that qualify majors requiring English as a foreign language course. The English language course consisted of eight semesters, each semester lasting 16 weeks. According to Creswell and Sinley (2017), survey research renders "a quantitative description of trends, attitudes, and opinions by studying a sample of that population."

3.2 Research Design

The quantitative approach analyzes an idea by forming a certain assumption and then using data collection to either confirm or refute the premise (Fallon, 2019). Precision measurements and computational statistical, mathematical, or numerical analysis of data acquired through polls, questionnaires, and surveys are heavily emphasized in quantitative techniques. The researcher employed a quantitative research approach that included data analysis to achieve the study's objective.

3.2.1 Participants

This study explored college students' self-efficacy and SRL strategies in learning to speak English. In total, 252 undergraduate students volunteers formed the sample group and was comprised of students from six universities in Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia. All students were second, third, and final-year students, with ages ranging from 19 to 24 years (M=3.17, SD=1.12) of age. Participants' majors were foreign studies, English teachers, English translation, and accounting. Female students (n=203) outnumbered male students (n=49). Students were considered appropriate participants for the study because the students had received approximately six to ten years of EFL education (eight years in secondary school and two to four years in matriculation or after entering university). The participants' exposure to the English language was good. Thus, the students were at a sufficient level for the nature of the instruction implemented in the research project. The students had undergone a college entrance examination to receive their bachelor's degrees before entering university. Unlike first-year students, second, third, and final-year students were selected as they have experience in language learning strategies to improve their English capabilities. Convenience sampling was used to choose the participants, with accessibility being the main factor taken into consideration (Lavrakas, 2008).

3.2.2 Data Collection Method

Demographic Information Questionnaire

All study participants were asked at first to complete a demographic information questionnaire (see Appendix A). This questionnaire consisted of ten items with multiple choices or short answers. It aimed to obtain information about the

participants' gender, age, major, experiential background, institutional background, and English language level.

TABLE 4

Descriptive Statistics of Participants' Demographic Information

English Level			Learning Experience		Gender	
1	2	3	1	2	1	2
81	71	100	148	104	49	203

*English level: 1 = below average level, 2 = average level, 3 = above average level
Learning experience: 1 = 5-8 years, 2 = more than 8 years
Gender: 1 = male; 2 = female

Table 4 shows the descriptive statistics of the participants' demographic information. The participants in the study were at universities where English teachers and students met in classrooms for 30 credit hours per semester over four years of a bachelor's degree program. The purpose of the study was to look into the participants' self-efficacy beliefs and how they used self-learning techniques to improve their L2 speaking skills. The study also looked at contextual variables that could affect college students' SRL techniques and sense of self-efficacy.

Questionnaire of English Speaking Self-Efficacy (QESSE)

The English Speaking Self-Efficacy (QESSE) questionnaire was adapted from the Questionnaire of English Writing Self-Efficacy (QEWSE) (Sun & Wang, 2020), which measured college students' writing self-efficacy and selected items measuring students' speaking self-efficacy. In addition, only items in the speaking construct of the QESE (Wang and Bai, 2017), which divides self-efficacy into four domains of language learning (listening, speaking, reading, and writing), were used since self-efficacy was only required in domain-specific activities (Bandura, 1993).

Therefore, there is a need to develop an instrument for measuring self-efficacy in the L2 speaking context. The questionnaire consists of six subscales with 27 items asking participants to complete specific tasks in English: ideation (3 items), organization (4 items), grammar (4 items), use of English speaking (3 items), speaking self-efficacy (6 items), and self-efficacy for self-regulation (7 items). The scale is measured on a 7-point rating scale from 1 (I cannot do it at all) to 7 (I can do it very well). A Cronbach's alpha analysis was performed to ascertain the internal consistency of each constructed category. The Cronbach's analysis was conducted to ensure that the items used to construct the subscale categories were all adequately related to each other. The internal consistency analysis revealed that all aspect categories (1-6) attained an alpha value above 0.90. Thus, the internal consistency of all the subscales used in the questionnaire was suitable and correlated well. Cronbach's alpha analysis results are presented in Table 5.

TABLE 5

Items for Self-Efficacy

Factor	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha
Ideation	3	.97
Organization	4	.97
Grammar	4	.98
Use of English-speaking	3	.97
Speaking	6	.97
Self-efficacy for self-regulation	7	.97

Questionnaire of English Speaking Self-Regulated Learning Strategies (QESSRLS)

The English Speaking Self-Regulated Learning Strategies (QESSRLS) questionnaire, which was created to assess students' use of SRL strategies in speaking, was adapted from the Questionnaire of English Writing Self-Regulated Learning Strategies (QEWSRLS) and contains 21 items, including environmental SRL strategies (eight items), behavioral SRL strategies (six items), and personal SRL strategies (seven items) based on Zimmerman (1989). Environmental SRL strategies were also subcategorized into seeking assistance strategies (Items 3, 11, and 17), persistence strategies (Items 4, 12, and 18), and review of records strategies (Items 9 and 15). Behavioral SRL strategies consisted of seeking opportunities strategies (Items 5, 19, and 20), self-monitoring strategies (Items 6 and 13), and self-consequences strategy (Item 7). The self-consequence strategy item was in the questionnaire, but it is not shown in Table 6.

Personal SRL strategies were comprised of self-evaluation strategies (items 1 and 16), organization and transformation strategies (items 2, 11, and 21), and goal-setting and planning strategies (Items 8 and 14). Participants responded to questions using a Likert scale with a range of 1 (I never use it) to 4 (I always use it) (I often use it). Cronbach's alphas for the SRL techniques are displayed in Table 6. A Cronbach's alpha analysis was performed to ascertain the internal consistency of each category. The items of the variable sets were found to be adequately related to each other, considering the participants and the number of items in each set. One self-consequence strategy item was included in the questionnaire. Therefore, this item was deleted from Table 6.

TABLE 6

Items for Self-Regulated Learning Strategies

SRL	Strategies	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha
Environmental SRL			.94
	SAS*	3	.95
	PS	3	.95
	RRS	2	.95
Behavioral SRL			.94
	SOS	3	.95
	SMS	2	.95
Personal SRL			.94
	SES	2	.95
	OTS	3	.94
	GPS	2	.94

* SAS = seeking assistance strategies; PS = persistence strategies; RRS = review of records strategies; SOS = seeking opportunity strategies; SMS = self-monitoring strategies; SES = self-evaluation strategies; OTS = organization and transformation strategies; GPS = goal setting and planning strategies

3.2.3 Data Collection Process

Questionnaires are flexible methods for efficiently collecting quantitative data. This study used these instruments for the data collection on all the survey questions posed. An initial request for voluntary participation in the study was sent in mid-December 2021 via email to selected university teachers. Teachers were required to guide students in completing the survey and recommended that students participate freely. The researcher sent emails asking for more participants until the end of the collection period in March.

All participants from the six universities responded to the questionnaires using Google Forms online. The questionnaire consisted of background information, English-speaking self-efficacy, and English-speaking SRL strategies.

3.3 Data Analysis Method

The data analysis method included quantitative analysis and is discussed in the following subsections. Descriptive statistics (e.g., mean and standard deviation) and reliability measures (e.g., internal consistency) for items of English-speaking self-efficacy and English-speaking SRL strategies were calculated to evaluate students' responses. The correlation analysis between variables used to investigate the interrelationship between self-efficacy and SRL strategies. Additionally, *t*-tests, ANOVA analysis and Tukey HSD post-hoc test were employed to assess the significance of differences between pairs of group means.

3.3.1 Quantitative Data Analysis

The researcher used statistical analysis software SPSS 26.0 for Windows to analyze the quantitative data in relation to research questions that helped to investigate valid conclusions (Fallon, 2019). The following statistical procedures were used to analyze the quantitative data in this research project.

1. Descriptive statistics were used, including frequencies, means, and standard deviations, summarizing participants' responses to the background information.
2. Reliability coefficients were calculated to evaluate the internal consistency of the overall QESSE and QESSRLS.
3. A correlation analysis between variables was used to investigate the inter-relationship between self-efficacy and SRL strategies in L2 speaking of EFL students.
4. Independent *t*-tests were used to analyze the collected data to indicate the differences in characteristics such as majors, gender, experience abroad, and having native-English-speaking friends.

5. One-way ANOVA with post-hoc tests were used to analyze and investigate the differences in the scores of self-efficacy and SRL strategies in L2 speaking by EFL learners' grade levels.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section examines the results collected from the data and their analysis. The results were analyzed to answer five questions, and efforts were made to identify the self-efficacy scale and SRL strategy frequency, relationship between self-efficacy, and differences in different contexts of Mongolian EFL students in L2 speaking. In addition, the findings of this research project analyzed to investigate the differences in self-efficacy and SRL in L2 speaking of EFL college students among grade levels. Overall, it appears that there was significant variations between factors.

4.1 Self-Efficacy of EFL College Students in English Speaking Contexts

The results of the quantitative analysis of the QESSE survey concerning answering research question one are summarized in the following subsections. The means obtained from descriptive statistics show which of the six constructs EFL learners reported as the source of their self-efficacy in L2 speaking. First, the six linked constructs defined in earlier research (Sun & Wang, 2020) will be discussed in the following tables and subsections.

Construct 1: Ideation self-efficacy in L2 speaking explores EFL learners' views of items that positively affect their self-efficacy to express themselves orally in English learning as a foreign language (*see* 4.1.1). In Construct 2, Organization self-efficacy in L2 speaking, the researcher looked into how the students organize their speaking and the particular positive influence on the students' oral production (*see* 4.1.2). As for Construct 3, Grammar self-efficacy, items that pertain to EFL students' learning experiences, such as grammatical structure, verb tenses, and

pronunciation, positively influence their speaking (*see* 4.1.3). The impact of the use of English speaking in the classroom and the value of use in media were analyzed in Construct 4 (*see* 4.1.4). Construct 5 Speaking self-efficacy consideration was given in instances during the learning process where students considered themselves positively affected by speaking self-efficacy (*see* 4.1.5). Finally, Construct 6, Self-efficacy for self-regulation, dealt with the EFL students' self-efficacy for selecting SRL, which might benefit their current learning experience (*see* 4.1.6). These insights will enable researchers and instructors to develop their conceptual and practical frameworks for L2 speaking self-efficacy. In answer to research question one, EFL college student participants within this context of L2 speaking report their self-efficacy to be influenced by elements of related constructs.

4.1.1 Construct 1: *Ideation*

Construct 1 is linked to three items related to the students' ideation self-efficacy in L2 speaking. An inclusive summary of the results for Construct 1 is shown below in Table 7. The items in this construct investigate how the students percieve their ideation self-efficacy in L2 speaking. The students reported elements such as mindset of topics (Item 1), intention in speech (Item 7), and word selection (Item 9) as ideation self-efficacy in L2 speaking. The construct had a total mean value of 4.06. This means that half of the participants reported feelings of L2 self-efficacy related to the specific ideation process used to produce their oral communication.

A seven-point Likert scale measured the ideation factor. It consisted of three items. The participants' overall ideation self-efficacy was at the medium level (M=4.06, SD=1.34), between 3 (Maybe I cannot do it) and 5 (I basically can do it). The highest Item was 7 (M=4.19, SD=1.52). It means that the students' intention in speech contributed to their L2 speaking self-efficacy. Then it was followed by Item

9 (*M*=4.16, *SD*=1.41). Among the construct students were not concerned about their lack of the mindset of topics (Item 1, *M*=3.85, *SD*=1.48) and calculated that this item was the least reported by the participants.

TABLE 7

Construct 1: Ideation

Item		1*	2	3	4	5	6	7	*M*	*SD*
1	I can think of many ideas for my speaking.	16	23	71	64	42	23	13	3.85	1.48
7	I can put main ideas in my speaking.	11	19	58	60	47	40	17	4.19	1.52
9	I can think of appropriate words to describe my ideas.	8	21	54	68	54	35	12	4.16	1.41
Total									4.06	1.34

*1=I cannot do it at all; 2= I cannot do it; 3= Maybe I cannot do it; 4=Maybe I can do it; 5= I basically can do it; 6=I can do it; 7=I can do it well

The literature has shown that ideation constructs are related to the L2 self-efficacy. The contribution of ideation self-efficacy to students' writing quality is negligible (Putra et al., 2020). Still, the ideation self-efficacy in L2 speaking was at the medium level in this study. This means that students were more optimistic about their speaking activities, than their writing activities.

4.1.2 Construct 2: *Organization*

Table 8 shows Construct 2, which consists of four items. Construct 2 indicates positively perceived organization self-efficacy is contributing to students' L2 speaking. Overall, students' organizational self-efficacy reached a mean of *M*=3. The organization factor includes four items such as sentence organization (Item 2), paying attention (Item 13), cohesiveness (Item 19), and coherence (Item 25). Item

13 was the most frequently used (*M*=4.09, *SD*=1.53), but Item 2 (*M*=3.54, *SD*=1.37) used the least frequently used. Item 19 and Item 25 were at the medium level.

TABLE 8

Construct 2: Organization

Item		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	*M*	*SD*
2	I can organize sentences to express an idea when I speak.	20	30	82	61	37	18	4	3.54	1.37
13	I can focus on the main ideas when speaking.	11	26	54	67	47	27	20	4.09	1.53
19	I can speak in a cohesive way.	16	19	74	61	41	25	16	3.92	1.51
25	I can speak in a coherent way.	15	19	65	84	37	23	7	3.82	1.36
Total									3.83	1.30

Sun and Wang (2020) found that students were relatively more efficacious in the organization of writing skill. In contrast, the findings of this study, the organization of speaking were less efficacious than writing. The following explanations can clarify such findings: 1) students' lack of the skill to express their ideas and opinions while they speak; 2) preparation for their speaking or presentation in classrooms; 3) their dissatisfaction with the speaking instruction they have received.

4.1.3 Construct 3: *Grammar*

The four items, with a mean calculated at 4.15 in total, are related to grammar self-efficacy in L2 speaking and are summarized in Table 9. Construct 4 reported on word pronunciation (Item 3), correct verb tenses (Item 8), proper grammatical structure (Item 20), and grammar error observation (Item 24). The important note is that self-efficacy affects the expectation of using grammatical correction at the

highest level of overall self-efficacy (Item 24, *M*=4.54). On the other hand, students reported that awareness of proper grammatical structure during their speaking activity (Item 20) had minimal impact on their self-efficacy. Item 3 (*M*=4.5, *SD*=1.54) and Item 8 (*M*=4.08, *SD*=1.48) were at the medium level.

TABLE 9

Construct 3: Grammar

Item		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	*M*	*SD*
3	I can correctly pronounce all the words in the speech.	11	29	45	62	48	44	13	4.15	1.54
8	I can correctly use verb tenses in English speaking.	12	22	59	56	60	30	13	4.08	1.48
20	I can speak with proper grammatical structures.	14	24	59	80	45	21	9	3.86	1.39
24	I can fix my grammar errors.	8	12	37	64	67	38	26	4.54	1.46
Total									4.15	1.28

The study provided the supporting role of a grammar of Korean learners (Kim, 2006) and Chinese students of L2 achievement (Sun & Wang, 2020). The participants in the present study seemed to like grammar learning in L2 speaking. EFL teachers should encourage students to take advantage of more practice opportunities and introduce methods that are more beneficial.

4.1.4 Construct 4: *Use of English Speaking*

The fourth construct considers the widespread use of English-speaking self-efficacy impact, which contains three items. Table 10 outlines how the sufficiency of English-speaking use influences students' self-efficacy and involves them in

reporting their feelings concerning content speaking. Overall, the construct reached a mean of 3.86. Students reported that Item 16 (*M*=4.13) had the most considerable effect on their English speaking. Conversely, the composition of new sentences (Item 10) was not reported to affect the students' self-efficacy decline significantly. This can be seen in the low mean scores (*M*=3.60). Then it is followed by Item 4 (*M*=3.86) as English use in social media.

TABLE 10

Construct 4: Use of English Speaking

Item		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	*M*	*SD*
4	I can compose a voice message in English on the internet through social network.	14	34	59	66	33	37	9	3.86	1.51
10	I can make new sentences with given words.	27	36	71	48	34	18	18	3.60	1.65
16	I can speak in a descriptive way in English.	10	22	64	59	49	21	27	4.13	1.56
Total									3.86	1.43

The findings of this study supported the result of the use of English-speaking Chinese students (Wang & Bai, 2017). Sun et al. (2017) found that using English in association with social networking sites could significantly influence the students' L2 speaking. The result of construct five provided the evidence for this study (Sun et al., 2017).

4.1.5 Construct 5: *Speaking*

The results of Construct 5, as seen in Table 11, indicated students' speaking self-efficacy adequacy. The overall factor mean of 4.29 for the six items indicate that students report themselves speaking self-efficacy as being influential in their oral communication. Viewing items into Construct 5, the lowest mean scores indicated telling stories within limited contexts Item 11 (*M*=3.58). Similarly, students expressed less speaking self-efficacy in discussing with their classmates (Item 14, *M*=4.08) and asking their teachers questions in English (Item 12, *M*=4.23). The items such as the introduction about themselves (Item 27, *M*=5.31) and the introduction about their universities (Item 6, *M*=4.33) reached higher mean scores, as seen in Table 11.

TABLE 11

Construct 5: Speaking

Item		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	*M*	*SD*
6	I can introduce my university in English.	13	17	46	61	51	42	22	4.33	1.57
11	I can tell a story in English.	27	27	79	55	36	11	17	3.58	1.57
12	I can ask questions to my teachers in English.	10	22	62	51	46	34	27	4.23	1.61
14	I can discuss in English with my classmates.	14	27	51	65	45	28	22	4.08	1.59
26	I can answer my teachers' questions in English.	8	16	51	83	39	31	24	4.26	1.47
27	I can introduce myself in English.	6	2	22	41	63	42	76	5.31	1.49
Total									4.29	1.36

The results of the Construct 5 provided substantial evidence to support teachers' appropriate teaching methods related to improving L2 speaking. Moreover, it is beneficial for instructors and students to cooperate in classrooms to achieve their final destination during the academic years. It means that students are more confident and feel self-efficacious while expressing their thoughts about well-known topics.

The results of this construct provided support for how learners' self-efficacy and achievement were influenced by their observation of peer models and self-monitoring (Schunk & Hanson, 1985), motivation in L2 learning (Chen, 2007), and individual variables on language learning and their sense of self-efficacy (Genc et al., 2016). Additionally, the EFL students who scored in the middle of the range for English self-efficacy are adamant that motivational factors play a big part in their learning process. As students finished their assignments, their self-efficacy rose, but the contexts' significance and their impact on self-efficacy also became apparent (Leeming, 2017).

4.1.6 Construct 6: *Self-Efficacy for Self-Regulation*

Table 12 shows that self-efficacy experiences are related to the choice of self-regulation during their L2 speaking achievement. The seven items, which reached a mean of 4.03, considerably affected students' L2 speaking self-efficacy. The most frequently used Item was 15 (M=4.32, SD=1.50). It means that most participants try to finish their speaking assignment before the deadline and encourage themselves more. Similarly, students answered Item 17 (M=4.29, SD=1.54) and Item 21 (M=4.19, SD=1.48). Students had self-efficacy elements of self-regulation, such as planning and reviewing at a moderate level to improve their capabilities. On the other hand, Item 5 (M=3.60, SD=1.65) was used at a minor frequency.

The results showed that the mean score of speaking self-efficacy (*M*=4.29) was the highest level, whereas organization self-efficacy (*M*=3.83) was the lowest. The findings of this study ties well with previous studies wherein the students' belief in the self-efficacy of English learning (Kim, 2012) and (Wang & Kim, 2013) English self-efficacy of Korean students.

TABLE 12

Construct 6: Self-Efficacy for Self-Regulation

Item		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	*M*	*SD*
5	I can focus on my speaking for at least 10 minutes.	27	36	71	48	34	18	18	3.60	1.65
15	I can finish speaking assignments on time.	9	18	48	64	58	32	23	4.32	1.50
17	I can plan what I want to say before I start speaking.	15	14	46	70	50	30	27	4.29	1.54
18	I can avoid distractions while I speak.	17	15	64	62	48	30	16	4.04	1.53
21	I can revise my speaking to make it better.	9	22	51	70	47	37	16	4.19	1.48
22	I can control my frustration when I speak.	20	29	67	70	33	18	15	3.72	1.52
23	I can keep speaking even it is difficult.	11	26	43	86	43	29	14	4.06	1.45
Total									4.03	1.32

Among the four sub-skills of English proficiency, speaking and writing items tended to be more difficult than reading, and listening. Wang and Schwab (2013) found that Chinese students had significantly lower self-efficacy beliefs than German students. The result contributed to the English-speaking competence (Wang

& Bai, 2017) of Chinese students and the speaking self-efficacy of Turkish students (Demirel et al., 2020). This study has substantial pedagogical implications, including the requirement for teachers to provide enough speaking practice opportunities for their pupils in order to keep students' self-esteem high.

4.2 Self-Regulated Learning Strategies of EFL College Students in English Speaking Contexts

To strengthen their English learning and reach their objectives, college students continue to use their learning methodologies. There are not currently any self-regulation techniques that are only applicable to speaking. Therefore, it is necessary to create and validate tools for assessing college students' L2 speaking SRL in an EFL context. The analysis of the second question confirmed the three factors structure of the *Questionnaire of English Speaking Self-regulated Learning Strategies* (QESSRLS). Participants were asked to respond to items on a four–point Likert scale from 1 (I never use it) to 4 (I often use it). The following subsections will consider all five categories of SRL strategies for improving L2 speaking. SRL strategies included in this analysis and discussion were *Environmental SRL strategies, Personal SRL strategies, and Behavioral SRL strategies*. The overall use of SRL strategies by participants was moderate. As such, among the three types of SRL, *Personal SRL* was reported to be highly frequently used (M=3.15, SD=.63), whereas the other two types, i.e., *Environmental SRL* (M=2.91, SD=.61), and *Behavioral SRL* (M=2.90, SD=.63) were reported to be used slightly more frequently. It means that the participants expressed relatively higher levels of personal SRL strategies but lower levels of environmental and behavioral SRL strategies.

4.2.1 Category 1: *Environmental SRL Strategies*

Table 13 summarizes the results of the *Environmental SRL Strategies* on college students' L2 speaking. For category 1, mean scores reached 2.91, making this category the highest reported SRL strategy among all considered.

Category 1 is divided into three subcategories, such as seeking assistance strategies (SAS), persistence strategies (PS), and review of records strategies (RRS). The first subcategory consists of three items such as consultation with teachers (Item 3), support from classmates (Item 11), and searching for related documents (Item 17). The second subcategory included three items that described patience during the assignment (Items 4, 12, and 18). The final subcategory expressed examination before speaking and consisted of two items (Items 9 and 15).

Equally, students were strongly influenced by support from classmates (Item 11, *M*=2.56), patience during the assignment (Item 4, *M*=2.72), and (Item 12, *M*=2.88), and review English texts (Item 9, *M*=2.96). Higher frequently used strategies were concentration on the assignment (Item 18, *M*=3.14), searching related documents (Item 17, *M*=3.13), and reviewing notes before completing the task (Item 15, *M*=3.0). In contrast, the students' use of teacher consultation (Item 3, *M*=2.54) was reported to be the least effective SRL strategy. English instructors must choose proper teaching methods to provide their students with fully-hearted support to improve L2 speaking activities in and out of the classrooms.

This finding supports students' development and self-focused strategy, such as considering their feelings connected to language learning (Habók et al., 2021). Next, "Search related documents when I have difficulties in English speaking" follows a frequently used strategy, suggesting that input can benefit L2 speaking learning (Tseng & Yeh, 2019).

TABLE 13

Category 1: Environmental SRL Strategies

	Item		1*	2	3	4	*M*	*SD*
SAS*	3	Consult teachers when I encounter difficulties in my English.	38	78	97	39	2.54	.92
	11	Ask classmates when I have questions in my English speaking.	46	65	96	45	2.56	.98
	17	Search related documents when I have difficulties in English speaking.	11	38	111	92	3.13	.82
PS	4	Keep speaking when I encounter difficulties in English.	24	77	97	54	2.72	.90
	12	When a friend wants to play with me, but I have not finished my assignment yet, I do not play until I finish it.	20	62	98	72	2.88	.91
	18	Find a quiet place to speak when the environment is disturbing.	17	35	95	105	3.14	.89
RRS	9	Review English texts I have learned before speaking.	19	52	102	79	2.96	.90
	15	Review my notes of English class before speaking.	21	45	98	88	3.00	.93
Total							2.91	.91

*1=I never use it; 2=I seldom use it; 3=I sometimes use it; 4=I often use it

* SAS = seeking assistance strategies; PS = persistence strategies; RRS = review of records strategies

4.2.2 Category 2: *Behavioral SRL Strategies*

Category 2 revealed the considerations of *Behavioral SRL Strategies* as summarized in Table 14. Overall, the participants' behavioral SRL strategies were at the lowest level (*M*=2.90, *SD*=.63), ranging from 2 (I seldom use it) to 3 (I sometimes use it). Category 2 consisted of three subcategories *Seeking Opportunities Strategies* (Items 5, 19, and 20), *Self-Monitoring Strategies* (Items 6

and 13), and *Self-Consequences Strategy* (Item 7). Item 7 was (*M* = 3.33, *SD* = .80) was the most frequently used, followed by Item 20 (*M* = 3.18, *SD* = .75), Item 13 (*M* = 3.08, *SD* =. 92), and Item 6 (*M* = 2.56, *SD* = 1.01).

TABLE 14

Category 2: Behavioral SRL Strategies

	Item		1	2	3	4	*M*	*SD*
SOS*	5	Use sentence patterns just learned to make new sentences for practice in speaking.	23	66	121	42	2.72	.84
	19	Try to use various English expressions to express the same meaning in speaking.	9	69	105	69	2.93	.83
	20	Use words just learned to make new sentences on my initiative in speaking.	7	32	121	92	3.18	.75
SMS	6	Write down the mistakes I often make in the process of speaking.	47	68	86	51	2.56	1.01
	13	Take notes in English conversation classes.	17	46	88	101	3.08	.92
SCS	7	Reward myself when I make a progress of speaking.	9	27	87	129	3.33	.80
Total							2.90	.63

*SOS = seeking opportunity strategies; SMS = self-monitoring strategies; SCS = self-consequences strategies

Table 14 shows the statistics for each item. The least used strategies, according to students, were "Write down the mistakes I commonly make when speaking" and "Use newly learnt sentence patterns to create new phrases for speaking practice." These kids were learning English in an EFL environment, and they had few opportunities in class activities to practice speaking English for conversation. Students do not receive proper teacher instructions to reduce mistakes and increase motivation. Informational feedback from instructors for their students on the

significant impact of perceived cognitive capacities on linguistic motivation and subsequent performance (Genc et al., 2016). Moreover, English language instructors help students hold correct beliefs about the vicarious experience in classroom activities to motivate them.

In addition, cooperative learning allows students to explore their abilities with the help of one another and reward themselves during L2 speaking study. EFL learners who encounter difficulties will likely model others' patterns, such as learning different speaking expressions to accomplish their assignments. Most students prefer teamwork to improve their SRL in oral capabilities and participation in the speaking classroom by incorporating differential instructions. Fluency is produced by the observation of constructive interdependence, personal accountability, social and interpersonal abilities, collective processing, and constructive interactions (Dagvadorj, 2020).

4.2.3 Category 3: *Personal SRL Strategies*

Table 15 summarizes how students rate *Personal SRL Strategies* as the most significant factor (*M*=3.15) influencing their L2 speaking. The seven items in Category 3 gave us insight into how the SRL strategies students had to learn can contribute to their L2 speaking levels. In Category 3, personal SRL strategies include three subcategories *Self-Evaluation Strategy* (Items 1 and 16), *Organization and Transformation Strategies* (Items 2, 10, and 21), and *Goal Setting and Planning Strategies* (Items 8 and 14). The most important item was improving L2 speaking (Item 8, *M*=3.37). Then Item 8 was closely followed by the proofread students' English presentation (Item 16, *M*=3.23) regarding its SRL impact. Equally, Item 16 came after checking the English presentation before introduction (Item 1, *M*=3.18), and attention to the English language structure (Item 21, *M*=3.12). The least

frequently used Item 10 (*M*=2.56). Based on linguistic features of the first language (L1), students have many opportunities to make mistakes during their L2 activities.

TABLE 15

Category 3: Personal SRL strategies

	Item		1	2	3	4	*M*	*SD*
SES*	1	Check my English presentation before turning them in.	19	44	62	127	3.18	.97
	16	Proofread my English presentation after I complete it.	6	31	113	102	3.23	.75
OTS	2	Prepare an outline before speaking in English.	21	47	83	101	3.05	.96
	10	Think out a speech in Mongolian before speaking it in English.	46	65	96	45	2.56	.98
	21	Pay attention to the English language structure during speaking.	11	44	101	96	3.12	.84
GPS	8	Set a goal to improve my speaking.	7	27	85	133	3.37	.78
	14	Make a plan in the process of English speaking.	14	56	93	89	3.02	.89
Total							3.15	.63

*SES = self-evaluation strategies; OTS = organization and transformation strategies; GPS = goal setting and planning strategies

With the strong evidence of goal setting and planning strategies, the result of this study provided a study based on strategy use in the L2 learning process (Habok et al., 2021). Students think a great deal about their development and prefer self-evaluated effective strategies, such as giving themselves success when considering their goals connected to L2 speaking.

The study's findings revealed positive evidence related to the *Personal SRL* strategies of EFL students. Therefore, teachers need to assist them in reducing risks wisely. Mongolia's dominant English classroom instruction pedagogy is still

teacher-centered, where students follow teachers' words and commands. Students are not encouraged to develop learning strategies and focus on content knowledge. This finding supported EFL students' learning strategies (Yondonperenlei, 2011).

4.3 Relationship between Self-Efficacy and Self-Regulated Learning Strategies of EFL Students

The following section showed Pearson's correlation analysis results by investigating interrelationships between variables such as self-efficacy and SRL strategies in L2 speaking. The first stage of the SRL process, according to Zimmerman et al. (2000), begins with students' self-efficacy in learning activities. Selection and usage of SRL can have a favorable or negative impact on students' L2 speaking, similar to how self-efficacy has a significant impact on L2 speaking. The majority of L2 research only examined how SRL methods affected language proficiency (Zarei et al., 2016). Self-efficacy is a significant predictor in the L2 environment as well (Wang et al., 2017). Lee et al. (2021) noted that there is still a limited understanding of the relationship between self-efficacy and SRL strategies for international students. This dissertation study aims at aiding understanding by investigating the results of the correlation analysis in this regard.

There were six factors related to self-efficacy, such as ideation, organization, grammar, speaking, use of self-efficacy, and self-efficacy for self-regulation. Moreover, three SRL strategy factors were used in this research project. The interrelationship between these factors was investigated through Pearson correlation analysis. According to the findings of Pearson's correlation analysis as shown in Table 16, self-efficacy was significantly positively related to SRL strategies in L2 speaking (r=.494, p <.01). All the subcategories of self-efficacy in L2 speaking were also significantly correlated with SRL, with *Speaking* having the highest

TABLE 16

Correlation Coefficients for Self-Efficacy and SRL Strategies

	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1	.494**	.965**	.967**	.937**	.959**	.960**	.961**	.322**	.598**	.415**
2		.444**	.459**	.471**	.483**	.511**	.445**	.907**	.897**	.904**
3			.918**	.886**	.929**	.906**	.912**	.267**	.553**	.378**
4				.892**	.908**	.938**	.906**	.314**	.563**	.366**
5					.861**	.865**	.887**	.286**	.568**	.418**
6						.902**	.913**	.310**	.577**	.418**
7							.908**	.353**	.614**	.416**
8								.269**	.560**	.373**
9									.722**	.739**
10										.707**

*1 =Self-Efficacy; 2 = SRL; 3 = ideation; 4 = organization; 5 = grammar; 6 = use of English speaking; 7 = speaking; 8 = self-efficacy for self-regulation; 9 = Environmental SRL strategies; 10 = Behavioral SRL strategies; 11 = Personal SRL strategies

** $p<.01$, two-tailed

correlation coefficient (r=.511, p < .01), and *Ideation* having the lowest coefficient (r=.444, p < .01). Moreover, *Speaking* correlated with *Behavioral SRL*, with the highest correlation coefficient (r = .614, p < .01) among the three categories of SRL. Conversely, *Ideation* had the lowest correlation coefficient (r = .267, p < .01) with *Environmental SRL*.

The findings revealed that self-efficacy was positively associated with SRL, echoing previous findings (Cho & Kim, 2019; Lee, Cheng & Watson, 2020; Onoda, 2014; Sun & Wang, 2020; Wang & Schwab, 2013). It could be used in the context of L2 studies and has been extensively identified in higher education settings. In addition, the study supported the inclusion of self-efficacy and self-regulatory processes in L2 learning within the framework of the social cognitive model of SRL (Zimmerman et al., 1989).

As can be seen from Table 16, ideation self-efficacy has a significant correlation with personal SRL (r = .378, p < .01), organization self-efficacy correlates significantly with environmental SRL (r = .314, p < .01), and personal SRL (r = .366, p < .01). Moreover, the correlations of use of English speaking (r = .310, p < .01) and speaking self-efficacy (r = .353, p < .01) with environmental SRL showed a significant correlation respectively. In addition, self-efficacy for self-regulation measures was not significant, with the exception of environmental SRL (r = 2.69, p < .01), but with personal SRL (r = .373, p < .01) correlated significantly. The grammar self-efficacy has a not significant correlation rating with the environmental SRL (r = .269, p < .01).

On the other hand, the results suggest that behavioral SRL correlations were statistically significant with ideation (r=.553, p <.01), organization (r =.563, p<.01), grammar (r= .568, p <.01), use of English speaking self-efficacy (r =.577, p < .01),

and self-efficacy for self-regulation (r =.560, p < .01) individually. In addition, personal SRL was associated positively with grammar (r =.418, p < .01), use of English speaking (r =.418, p < .01), and speaking (r =.416, p < .01).

While Onoda (2014) focused on effort regulation strategy, the dissertation study examined three SRL, such as *Personal SRL, Behavioral SRL*, and *Environmental SRL*, and their nine subcategories. The findings of this research project provide strong evidence about relationship between self-efficacy and SRL (r =.494, p <.01), which appears consistent with the findings of Asian students in particular in L2 achievement (Cho & Kim, 2019; Sun & Wang, 2020; Wang et al., 2013).

The findings of this study showed a positive relationship between six self-efficacy factors and the use of three SRL strategies in L2 speaking by college students. Participants who are highly self-efficacious, can choose their appropriate SRL strategies. They contribute to a better understanding of the interrelationship between self-efficacy and SRL among Mongolian students.

One possible explanation is that college students' speaking activities evaluated more on learners' seeking opportunities, self-monitoring, and self-consequences which recommended that students who exhibit proactive behaviors. In other words, students pay attention to convenient ways to practice speaking, take notes before speaking assignments, and reward themselves. Conversely, ideation processes such as finding the problem, defining the problem and objectives, researching to find stimulus, utilizing ideation methods, screening, and scoring ideas influenced fewer learners' seeking assistance, persistence, and review of records which recommended that students who are responsive in the environment.

Therefore, the study's findings provide broader insights into the interrelationship between self-efficacy perspectives and SRL strategies used in the L2 speaking

context of EFL college students. Moreover, the results of the recent study supported Pintrich's (1999) statement that learners' self-efficacy promotes their SRL behaviors. Practical experience influences one's self-efficacy beliefs the most. Instructors strongly affect the development of their students' self-efficacy beliefs (Pajares, 2008) and foreign language learning based on SRL (Zimmerman, 2002).

4.4 EFL College Students' Self-Efficacy and Self-Regulated Learning Strategies based on Their Characteristics

4.4.1 Differences in Self-Efficacy and Self-Regulated Learning Strategies According to Majors

The fourth question of this dissertation study explored the differences in college students' self-efficacy and SRL strategies in L2 speaking for English-related majors and non-English-related majors. A descriptive summary of the two groups is presented in Table 17.

TABLE 17

Statistics of English and Non-English-Related Major Students

English-related		Non English-related	
1*	2	3	4
76	59	65	52

*1=translator; 2 = teacher; 3 = foreign officers; 4 = accountant

Gaining quantitative perspectives on questionnaire instruments was widely accepted as producing a richer understanding of students' responses based on the study response. The 252 students who participated in the study provided their

thoughts on variables such as self-efficacy and SRL strategies in L2 speaking. Moreover, students were divided into two groups: English-related majors (n = 135) and non-English-related majors (n = 117), in order to investigate their differences in specific English abilities. The English-related majors' group consisted of students who were studying to receive a bachelor's degree in translation and as an English teacher. The non-English-related majors' students majored in foreign studies and accounting.

Based on the goal of the fourth question of the research project, an independent sample *t*-test was conducted. According to the literature, most L2 studies conducted an independent sample *t*-test for the analyses comparing groups' scores (Hu & Plonsky, 2019). The *t*-test between two groups yielded that all the differences were statistically significant between self-efficacy and SRL strategies of English majors and non-English-related majors' students in L2 speaking at the college level.

The results of the *t*-test analysis, as seen in Table 18, indicate the summary of self-efficacy and SRL in L2 speaking of two groups, including English-related and non-English-related majors. Findings show that students from English-related majors (n = 135) exhibited higher scores on *Ideation* (M = 4.35) compared to students from non-English-related majors (n = 117), who reached lower scores (M=3.73). Moreover, findings show that there are significant mean differences in *Ideation* (t = 3.78, p < .001). The participants from the English-related majors' students were more organized (M = 4.08) than participants from non-English-related majors (M = 3.54). They demonstrated significantly better peak flow scores (t=3.28, p < .001). *Grammar* of English-related majors' students was higher (M = 4.39) and that of non-English-related majors' students was lower (M = 3.88). The result shows significant *t*-values t = 3.23 (p < .001). The highest significant *t*-values, t = 3.93 (p

< .001) in *Speaking,* were found across all self-efficacy factors of this research project's participants, with two groups of English-related majors (*M*= 4.60) and non-English-related majors (*M* = 3.94). Self-efficacy for self-regulation conditions differed significantly (*t* = 3.14, *p* =.002) between two groups: students with English-related majors (*M* = 4.27) and students with non-English-related majors (*M* = 3.75).

TABLE 18

Summary by English Majors and Non-English Majors

		English-related (*n* = 135)		Non English-related (*n* = 117)			
		M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*
SE*	Ideation	4.35	1.27	3.73	1.34	3.78	.001
	Organization	4.08	1.26	3.54	1.29	3.28	.001
	Grammar	4.39	1.21	3.88	1.32	3.23	.001
	Speaking self-efficacy	4.60	1.30	3.94	1.36	3.93	.001
	Self-efficacy for SRL	4.27	1.30	3.75	1.31	3.14	.002
	Use of English speaking	4.40	1.30	3.79	1.30	3.65	.001
SRL	Environmental SRL	2.93	.536	2.88	.696	.676	.500
	Behavioral SRL	2.97	.596	2.82	.660	1.91	.057
	Personal SRL	3.25	.553	3.04	.706	2.65	.008

*SE =self-efficacy; SRL = self-regulated learning strategies

Finally, the statistics on Self-Efficacy in English Speaking revealed significant *t*-values of *t* = 3.65 (*p* <.001).The results show that students with English-related majors had higher self-efficacy of use of English speaking (*M* = 4.41) than those with non-English-related majors (*M* = 3.79). The summary of the self-efficacy, as shown in Table 18, shows that the *t*-values between the two groups, including English-related majors' students and non-English-related majors'

students, was statistically significant. The statistical scores ranged between the highest t=3.93 (p< .001) for *Speaking* and the lowest t = 3.14 (p = .002) for *Self-Efficacy for Self-Regulation* in L2 speaking context.

According to the aim of the fourth question of this research project, the independent samples t-test was conducted to investigate the difference in the use of SRL between two groups, such as English-related majors' participants and non-English-related majors' participants. The SRL, including *Environmental SRL*, *Behavioral SRL*, and *Personal SRL,* were applied to this study as college students' L2 speaking SRL indicators. There was not a significant difference in *Environmental SRL* between the English-related majors' group (M = 2.93) and the non-English-related majors' students' (M = 2.88) conditions (t = .676, p = .500). Statistics of *Behavioral SRL* revealed that the mean scores of participants in the English-related majors (M = 2.97) were higher than those of participants in non-English-related majors' students (M = 2.82). There was no significant difference in *Behavioral SRL* (t = 1.91, p = .057) between the two groups. The result of this study show a significant difference in *Personal SRL* (t = 2.65, p = .008) between respondents from English-related majors (M = 3.25) and participants from non-English-related majors (M = 3.04). Overall, the statistical scores of the three SRL ranged from the highest (t = 2.65, p = .008) for *Personal SRL* to the lowest (t= .676, p = .500) for *Environmental SRL*. At the middle level, the difference value of *Behavioral SRL* was t = 1.91 (p = .057).

The fourth question of the research project focused on investigating the differences in self-efficacy and SRL strategies of Mongolian EFL college students based on their majors. In Tankó's (2017) study result, a strong indication was found for a link between self-regulation and L2 achievement in Hungarian students'

majors. While Tankó (2017) focused on the SRL strategies' use of the writing skill, the current study investigated the SRL strategies in L2 speaking. Furthermore, the findings of this research project indicate that English-speaking classes and oral presentations are motivating in improving their L2 abilities, lending themselves to findings similar to those of Liang et al. (2018).

In addition, the findings of this dissertation study provide for certain factors that influence students' speaking performance in English as Academic Purpose courses similar to those of Dorj (2022). The result shows a durable suggestion of social factors and educational context factors. With the robust confirmation of EFL students' feedback behavior and preferences in English majors' course settings and their associations with English language self-efficacy, the result of research question four is in the line with those of Gan et al. (2021).

Shagdarsuren et al. (2020) investigated English-majoring students' internal and external demotivation factors that consist of teachers' and classmates' attitudes. The current findings support internal factors related to seeking assistance from teachers and peers in their classroom activities. EFL teaching methods are essential for students of English and non-English majors to use proper SRL strategies to improve their abilities. With higher self-efficacy levels, students being able to self-regulate during EFL learning could facilitate achieving their English-speaking goals. On the other hand, the students who are less self-efficacious in L2 speaking need their English instructors and peers. Such lower-level students need teachers to notice their behaviors and attitudes and act instructionally on their behalf (Kim, 2009).

4.4.2 Differences in Self-Efficacy and Self-Regulated Learning Strategies based on Gender

The results of the *t*-test analysis, as seen in Table 19, reveal the summary of self-efficacy and SRL of EFL students in two groups, which consist of male and female students. Statistics showed that male students (n = 49) exhibited higher mean scores on *Ideation* (M = 4.40) compared to female students (n = 203), who reached lower scores (M = 3.98). Moreover, results show non-significant *t*-values in *Ideation* t=1.94 (p < .050). The male respondents showed more *Organization* (M= 4.07) compared to the female participants (M = 3.77) and demonstrated no significant scores (t =1.44, p < .140). *Grammar* of male students was higher (M = 4.53), and that of female students was lower (M = 4.06). The result show that *t*-values had the greatest difference t = 2.26 (p < .024). There was no significant difference t =1.06 (p =.288) in the *Speaking* of this research project's participants between two groups of male students (M = 4.48) and female students (M = 4.25). There was no significant difference in *Self-Efficacy for SRL* conditions (t = 2.04, p = .042) between the male (M = 4.37) and female (M = 3.94) groups. The *Use of English Speaking* statistics revealed a flow score of t=2.04 (p < .042). The *t*-test results showed that male students had higher (M = 4.46) the *Self-Efficacy of Use of English Speaking* than female respondents (M = 4.03). As shown in Table 19, the summary of self-efficacy shows that the differences between the two groups of male and female students were statistically insignificant. The *t*-values ranged from t=2.26 (p < .001) for *Grammar* to t=1.06 (p < .001) for *Speaking* in L2 speaking context.

TABLE 19

Summary by Gender

		Male (n = 49)		Female (n = 203)			
		M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*
SE	Ideation	4.40	1.42	3.98	1.31	1.94	.053
	Organization	4.07	1.26	3.77	1.31	1.44	.149
	Grammar	4.53	1.39	4.06	1.24	2 .26	.024
	Speaking	4.48	1.37	4.25	1.36	1.06	.288
	Self-efficacy for SRL	4.37	1.27	3.94	1.33	2.04	.042
	Use of English speaking	4.46	1.32	4.03	1.33	2.04	.042
SRL	Environmental SRL	2.82	.71	2.93	.58	1.04	.296
	Behavioral SRL	2.94	.66	2.89	.62	.42	.668
	Personal SRL	3.03	.73	3.18	.60	1.53	.126

Depending on the aim of the fourth question of this dissertation research, the independent samples *t*-test was conducted to investigate the difference in the use of SRL between two groups such as male and female participants. The SRL strategies, including *Environmental SRL*, *Behavioral SRL*, and *Personal SRL,* were applied to this study as EFL college students' speaking SRL use indicators. The E*nvironmental SRL* scores of male participants (M = 2.82) were not significantly different from those of female participants (M = 2.93) with *t*-values of t = 1.04 (p=.296). *Behavioral SRL* statistics reveal that participants' mean scores for the male group participants (M = 2.94) were higher than the those for female group (M= 2.89). There was not significant difference in *Behavioral SRL* (t = .42, p = .668)

between the two groups. This study found a non-significant difference for *Personal SRL* (t = 1.53, p = .126) between male respondents (M = 3.03) and female participants (M = 3.18). Overall, the three SRL strategies had t-values ranging from the highest t = 1.53 (p = .126) for *Personal SRL* to the lowest t = .042 (p = .668) for *Behavioral SRL*.

The results of the 2020 study support a difference in motivational types for L2 speaking skills among male and female Iranian EFL learners (Salehpour &Roohani, 2020). These results are similarly viewed in the current dissertation study's results, which confirm that the female L2 students with intrinsic motivation had better L2 speaking skills. In contrast, male students with extrinsic SRL strategies in the *Behavioral category* had higher English-speaking skills. EFL students reported that getting good jobs, internal joy, satisfaction, happiness, and progress in future careers related to motivation, goal setting, and planning were why they endeavored to develop their speaking skills. In particular, the results of the t-test analysis highlight the importance of behavioral regulation strategies, as they are the only significant and positive predictors of L2 speaking among the three strategy categories between male and female students. The current results echo previous research findings on the vital role of self-efficacy (Wang & Bai, 2017) and SRL strategies in students' learning achievement (An et al., 2020) based on gender.

4.4.3 Differences in Self-Efficacy and Self-Regulated Learning Strategies According to Abroad Experiences

As shown in Table 20, the results of the t-test analysis reveal the summary of self-efficacy and SRL of EFL college students' experiences abroad to improve their English. The participants were divided into two groups based on their answers to the question about their experiences abroad. The t-tests between two groups yielded

that all the differences were statistically significant in self-efficacy. The findings of this research project showed that students with experiences abroad (*n*=20) exhibited higher scores on *Ideation* (*M* = 5.15) compared to the students with no experiences abroad (*n*=232), who reached lower scores (*M* =3.97). Moreover, findings show that there are significant mean differences in *Ideation* ($t = 3.85$, $p < .001$).

TABLE 20

Summary by Abroad Experiences

		Abroad experiences (*n* = 20)		No abroad experiences (*n* = 232)			
		M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*
SE	Ideation	5.15	1.25	3.97	1.31	3.85	.001
	Organization	4.85	1.19	3.74	1.28	3.73	.001
	Grammar	5.08	1.10	4.07	1.27	3.43	.001
	Speaking self-efficacy	5.43	1.23	4.20	1.33	3.97	.001
	Self-efficacy for SRL	4.95	1.29	3.95	1.30	3.28	.001
	Use of English speaking	5.38	1.24	4.01	1.29	4.57	.001
SRL	Environmental SRL	2.75	.41	2.92	.63	1.18	.240
	Behavioral SRL	3.13	.48	2.88	.64	1.67	.095
	Personal SRL	2.97	.49	3.17	.64	1.30	.192

The participants with abroad experiences showed *Organization* (*M*=4.85) compared to the participants without abroad experiences (*M*=3.74) and demonstrated significant scores ($t = 3.73$, $p < .001$). *Grammar* of students with experiences abroad was higher (*M* = 5.08), and that of students without experiences abroad was lower (*M* = 4.07). The *t*-test result show that statistic scores were

significant (t = 3.43, p < .001). There was the greatest significant difference (t = 3.97, p < .001) in *Speaking* across all self-efficacy factors of this study's participants such as such as students with experiences abroad (M = 5.43) and students without experiences abroad (M = 4.20). There was a significant difference in *Self-Efficacy for Self-Regulation* conditions (t=3.28, p <.001) between the two groups of students with experiences abroad (M=3.28) and students without (M = 3.95). The *Use of English Speaking* has the highest significand difference (t=4.57, p < .001). The result shows that the *Use of English Speaking* of students with abroad experiences was higher (M = 5.38) than that of participants without abroad experiences (M = 4.01).

Across six self-efficacy factors, the difference between the two groups, including students with experiences abroad and students without experiences abroad, was statistically significant. The t-values ranged from t = 4.57 (p < .001) for *the Use of English Speaking* to t = 3.28 (p < .001) for *Self-Efficacy for Self-Regulation*.

The independent samples t-test was conducted to investigate the difference in the use of SRL strategies between two groups: participants with experiences abroad and participants without experiences abroad. The SRL strategies, including *Environmental SRL*, *Behavioral SRL*, and *Personal SRL,* were applied to this study as EFL college students' speaking SRL use indicators. There was not a significant difference in *Environmental SRL* between the students with experiences abroad (M = 2.75) and those without experiences abroad (M=2.92) and the t-values reached t = 1.18 (p =.240). Statistics of *Behavioral SRL* revealed that the scores of participants with experiences abroad (M = 3.13) were higher than participants without experiences abroad (M = 2.88). Neither group found any significant t-values in *Behavioral SRL* (t = 1.67, p = .095). The statistical results of this research project

show no significant difference for *Personal SRL* (t=1.30, p=.192) between respondents with experiences abroad (M=2.97) and participants without experiences abroad (M = 3.17). Overall, the t-values of the three SRL strategies ranged between the highest t = 1.67 (p = .095) for *Behavioral SRL* and the lowest t= 1.18 (p = .240) for *Environmental SRL*. The t-value of *Personal SRL* (t = 1.30, p = .192) was at the middle level.

The result of experiences abroad experiences of EFL college students is described, revealing that the majority participants are interested in studying abroad to improve their L2 speaking skills. The findings show that the students with experiences abroad felt more self-efficacy than those who did not. This finding provides the strong evidence about adult learners' self-efficacy beliefs (Chen, 2007; Kim et al., 2015), which seems consistent with the current literature findings.

In addition, the analysis of this study found evidence for learning strategies, including specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, and transferable to a new situation (Oxford, 1990), as well as particular learning goals (Luszczynska et al., 2005). The findings show significantly better results for SRL strategies for students who had no experiences abroad than for students who did. The results clearly show that the attraction to learning English as a foreign language depends on students' goals in L2 achievement. This result confirms that participants in this study were interested in studying abroad to receive a better education (Sainbayar, 2019).

4.4.4 Differences in Self-Efficacy and Self-Regulated Learning Strategies depending on the Availability of Native English-Speaking Friends

The students who participated in the study provided their perspectives on self-efficacy and SRL strategies. Participants were divided into two groups based on their answers to questions about having native English speakers as friends. The students who agreed that having an English native speaker (n = 236) helped were dominant in the survey, but the students who did not agree (n = 16) made up a small amount.

An independent samples t-test was used to compare the differences in self-efficacy and SRL strategies of students who believe having native-English-speaking friends is a better opportunity to improve their English speaking or not. The results in the t-test analysis, as seen in Table 21, indicate the summary of self-efficacy and SRL in L2 speaking of two groups. The students who preferred having native-English-speaking friends exhibited lower scores on *Ideation* (M= 4.06) compared to the students who did not prefer having native-English-speaking friends, and those students reached higher scores (M= 4.08). In addition, according to the aim of the fourth question of this dissertation study, the independent samples t-test was conducted to investigate the difference in use of SRL strategies between two groups, such as students who responded to having native-English-speaking friends and participants who did not. The SRL strategies, including *Environmental SRL*, *Behavioral SRL*, and *Personal SRL* were applied to this study as college students' L2 speaking SRL strategies use indicators.

Moreover, there were significant mean differences in *Ideation* (t= .05, p= .096). The participants with native-English-speaking friends demonstrated the

Organization (M = 3.82) when compared to the participants without native-English-speaking friends (M = 3.96). There were no significant scores (t = .43, p = .700) in *Grammar* between students who agreed not to make native-English-speaking friends (M = 4.46) and those who agreed to make native-English-speaking friends (M = 4.13). The result reveals that statistic scores were insignificant (t=.10, p =.32).

TABLE 21

Summary by the Availability of English Native Speaking Friends

		English native speaking friends (n = 236)		No English native speaking friends (n = 16)			
		M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*
SE	Ideation	4.06	1.32	4.08	1.71	.05	.96
	Organization	3.82	1.29	3.96	1.43	.43	.70
	Grammar	4.13	1.24	4.46	1.81	.10	.32
	Speaking self-efficacy	4.28	1.34	4.45	1.65	.50	.63
	Self-efficacy for SRL	4.02	1.32	4.11	1.45	.27	.80
	Use of English speaking	4.10	1.31	4.31	1.60	.60	.55
SRL	Environmental SRL	2.91	0.61	2.80	0.61	.71	.47
	Behavioral SRL	2.91	0.63	2.85	0.64	.34	.73
	Personal SRL	3.17	0.62	2.96	0.78	1.25	.21

Speaking did not differ significantly (t =.50, p =.63) between participants in the two groups, such as students who preferred having native-English-speaking friends (M=4.28) and students who did not prefer having native-English-speaking friends (M = 4.45). There was not a significant difference in *Self-Efficacy for Self-Regulation* (t =.27, p= .800) between the group having native-English-speaking

friends (*M*= 4.02) and the group not having native-English-speaking friends (*M* = 4.11).

The statistics of *Use of English Speaking* illustrated an insignificant difference (*t* =.60, *p* = .550). The result shows the *Use of English Speaking* of students who did not prefer having native-English-speaking friends was higher (*M* = 4.31) in comparison with respondents who preferred having native-English-speaking friends (*M* = 4.10). The summary of the self-efficacy shows the difference between the two groups was statistically insignificant. The *t*-values for Speaking ranged from *t* = 3.93 (*p* < .001) to *t*=3.14 (*p* = .002) for *Self-Efficacy for Self-Regulation.*

Environmental SRL had an insignificant difference value (*t* =.710, *p* =.470) for the group with native-English-speaking friends (*M* = 2.91) compared to the other group of students (*M* = 2.80). Statistics of *Behavioral SRL* revealed that the scores of participants who preferred having native-English-speaking friends (*M* = 2.91) were higher than those of participants who did not prefer having native-English-speaking friends (*M* = 2.85). The difference in *Behavioral SRL* strategies was not significant (*t*= .3, *p* = .73) between the two groups. The findings of this study investigate an insignificant difference value for *Personal SRL t* = 1.25 (*p* = .210) between respondents with native-English-speaking friends (*M* = 3.17) and those without (*M* = 2.96). The *t*-values for the three SRL strategies differed insignificantly with values ranging from *t* = 1.25 (*p* = .021) for *Personal SRL* strategies to *t* = .340 (*p* = .730) for *Behavioral SRL* strategies.

The result of the research question highlights that little is known about the importance of having native-English-speaking friends for Mongolian EFL college students to improve their English-speaking skills. The findings of the *t*-test found clear support for the issue of native English speakers' impact on students' self-

efficacy and SRL strategies. The study supports EFL learners' easy access to authentic language input via communicating with native speakers, thus resonating with the findings of Golonka et al. (2014). One possible explanation might be that the participants in this study were interested in getting scholarships from foreign universities in the future.

While this study was conducted with EFL college students, it examined associations between self-efficacy and SRL strategies in L2 speaking. It addressed research gaps from previous studies related to the Mongolian context. The findings indicated that students who were interested in learning English were more likely to control their efforts and regulate their self-learning process, which is in line with the literature on the highlighted elements of this research question. Particularly noteworthy is that the findings suggest strong evidence for English education improvement at a higher level in Mongolia.

4.5 Differences in Self-Efficacy and Self-Regulated Learning Strategies among Grade Levels of EFL College Students

The purpose of the fifth question of this research project is to investigate whether there are significant differences in the scores of self-efficacy and SRL strategies in L2 speaking among grades of Mongolian EFL college students. As seen in Table 22, the differences in the scores of self-efficacy summarized are based on the participants' second, third, and final grades. The collected data was analyzed using one-way ANOVA. The finding show that self-efficacy significantly differs significantly across grades ($p < 0.001$) in relation to factors such as ideation, organization, grammar, use of English speaking, speaking, and self-regulation. Tukey's HSD with post hoc analysis was used to answer the question. The difference scores for *Ideation* (F=21.83) of the second grade (M =3.44, SD =1.20)

were the lowest, while the third grade (*M*=3.93, *SD* =13.8) and the final grade (*M* =4.66, *SD* =1.17) reached the highest scores. For *Organization,* the differences were calculated at *F* =16.83 among grades. The highest mean scores reached the final grade (*M* =4.32, *SD* =16), and third grade (*M*= 3.81, *SD* =1.35), and the second grade (*M* =3.25, *SD* =1.18) reached the lowest scores. The difference scores for *Grammar* (*F* =13.68) showed the highest mean scores for the final grade (*M* =4.62) and third grade (*M* =4.05, *SD* =1.28), and the second grade (*M* =3.67, *SD* =1.26) was the lowest. For *Use of English Speaking*, the difference scores reached *F*=20.71, the mean scores for the final grade (*M* =4.70, *SD*=1.20) were the highest, and the third grade (*M* =3.97, *SD* =1.34), and second grade (*M*=3.52, *SD* =1.19) calculated the lowest scores.

TABLE 22

Differences in Self-Efficacy Based on Grade Levels

	Second (*n*=81)		Third (n=71)		Final (*n*=100)			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*F*	*Sig.*
Ideation	3.44	1.20	3.93	1.38	4.66	1.17	21.83	.001
Organization	3.25	1.18	3.81	1.35	4.32	1.16	16.83	.001
Grammar	3.67	1.26	4.05	1.28	4.62	1.16	13.68	.001
Use of English Speaking	3.52	1.19	3.97	1.34	4.70	1.20	20.71	.001
Self-Regulation	3.46	1.19	3.46	1.19	4.57	1.22	18.02	.001
Speaking	3.66	1.20	4.15	1.40	4.91	1.20	22.61	.001

The difference scores for *Speaking* (F =22.61) reached the highest mean scores for the final grade (M =4.91, SD =1.20), and the third grade (M =4.15, SD =1.40) and second grade (M =3.66, SD =1.20) were the lowest. The difference value for *Self-Regulation* was F=18.02. The difference score was the highest for the final grade (M = 4.57, SD = 1.22), but the mean scores of the second grade (M=3.46, SD=1.19) and third grade (M = 3.46, SD =1.19) were equal.

According to the purpose of the study's fifth question, Tukey's HSD used a post-hoc test analysis to determine the difference values between grades, such as the second, third, and final grades. A summary of the post-hoc test results is shown in Table 23. Except for *Grammar* (p=.130) between the second and third grades, *Use of English Speaking* (p=.069) between the second and third grades, and *Self-Regulation* (p=.080) between the second and third grades, the difference values were not significant. The result revealed that the difference values were not significant for *Ideation* between the second and third grades (p=.045), the second and final grades (p=.001), and the third and final grades (p=.001). For *Organization,* the difference values were not significant between the second and third grades (p=.015), the second and final grades (p=.001), and the third and final grades (p=.022). The values of *Grammar* were not significantly different between the second and final grades (p=.001) and the third and final grades (p=.010). For *Speaking,* the differences were not significant between the second and third grades (p=.043), and p-values were equally significant (p=.001) compared to the final, second and third grades, respectively. The p-values for *Self-Regulation* were insignificant between the second and final grades (p=.001) and the third and final grades (p=.002).

TABLE 23

Post-Hoc Test Results for Self-Efficacy

Dependent variable			Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	*Sig.*
Ideation	II*	III	-.48571	.20255	.045
	II	IV	-1.21477	.18624	.001
	III	IV	-.72906	.19335	.001
Organization	II	III	-.56029	.19990	.015
	II	IV	-1.07089	.18464	.001
	III	IV	-.51060	.19163	.022
Grammar	II	III	-0.38702	.19980	.130
	II	IV	-.94966	.18371	.001
	III	IV	-.56264	.19072	.010
Speaking	II	III	-.49707	.20529	.043
	II	IV	-1.25245	.18876	.001
	III	IV	-.75538	.19597	.001
Use of English Speaking	II	III	-0.44978	.20207	.069
	II	IV	-1.17658	.18580	.001
	III	IV	-.72681	.19290	.001
Self-Regulation	II	III	-0.43831	.20265	.080
	II	IV	-1.10372	.18633	.001
	III	IV	-.66541	.19345	.002

*II=second grade, III=third grade, IV=final grade

The findings suggest that students in the final grades have higher self-efficacy than students in other grades, such as the second and third grades. The study's findings support strong evidence of the nature of students' self-mastery and English

language achievement (Aleks, 2019) during their learning period. In addition, the findings give more insight into students' self-efficacy beliefs on English performance (Wang, 2004). It means that students' successful performances with feeble expenditures of effort dramatically affect an individual's self-efficacy beliefs.

The result of this study provides a study on the speaking self-efficacy beliefs of final-year students (Demirel et al., 2020), showing self-efficacy increases after preparing speeches, reading feedback, and accomplishing tasks in classrooms. Moreover, the findings supported the studies with solid evidence between students' L2 achievement and their past mastery experiences, motivation factors during the learning process (Genç et al., 2016), human motivation to learn (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2021), and the importance of feedback in English classes (Leeming, 2017). The analysis of the study found evidence for the lack of educational practices that influence Mongolian EFL students' L2 achievement in classrooms (Dagvadorj, 2020). Self-efficacy in oral capabilities and participation in speaking activities in classrooms increase after completing tasks during the academic years.

The result of the study demonstrated the self-efficacy in *Grammar, Use of English Speaking, and Self-Regulation* between students from two grades, such as the second and third grades. In line with the previous studies, there was not enough information related to self-efficacy. However, in accordance with the ideas of EFL college students' speaking self-efficacy, it can be concluded that self-efficacy improves grade by grade in order to achieve the goal of L2 acquisition. A similar pattern of result was obtained in the studies of EFL students' self-confidence and participation in English-speaking activities (Dorj, 2022), and self-regulation and achievement (Shih, 2019). Moreover, the study supports the finding that self-efficacy of EFL students was at different levels pre-task, during a task, and post-

task (Yahya, 2019), depending on L2 achievement settings. Additionally, the study's findings confirmed findings about seeking opportunities outside the classroom (Alotumi, 2021), supporting ideation, organization, and the use of English-speaking self-efficacy. The findings point to similar conclusions about belief factors influencing L2 achievement of students at different English levels (Kim, 2012).

Depending on the purpose of the fifth question of this research, Tukey's HSD was used to explore the differences in SRL strategies such as *Environmental SRL, Behavioral SRL, and Personal SRL* strategies among grades of Mongolian EFL college students. A summary of three SRL strategies for the second, third, and final grades is shown in Table 24.

TABLE 24

Differences in SRL Strategies Based on Grade Levels

	Second (*n*=81)		Third (*n*=71)		Final (*n*=100)			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*F*	*Sig.*
Environmental SRL	2.87	0.64	2.92	0.64	2.92	0.57	0.17	.830
Behavioral SRL	2.78	0.64	2.91	0.65	3.00	0.59	2.79	.063
Personal SRL	2.97	0.69	3.20	0.61	3.27	0.57	5.58	.004

Across SRL strategies, the result indicates that *Environmental SRL* and *Behavioral SRL* strategies were not significant except for the *Personal SRL* strategy among grades. The difference values were F =.17 for *Environmental SRL*. The highest mean scores reached were for the third grade (M=2.92, SD=.64) and final

grade (*M*=2.92, *SD*=.57), respectively. The mean scores of the second grade (*M*=2.87, *SD*=.64) were the lowest. For the *Behavioral SRL* strategy, the difference values were calculated at *F*=2.79. The highest mean scores reached were in the final grade (*M*=3.00, *SD*=.59), and the third grade scores (*M*=2.91, *SD*=.65) were lower than those of the final grade. The lowest scores shown were for the second grade (*M*=2.78, *SD*=0.64) *Behavioral SRL* strategies.

Tukey's HSD result indicated the differences in the values of *Personal SRL* strategies between the second, third, and final grades. A summary of the differences in grades is shown in Table 25. The result shows that the difference value was significant (*F*= .004), showing that students in the second grade (*M*=2.97) and students in the final grade (*M*=3.27) had a significantly higher SRL strategy among grades. The difference between the second and third grades was insignificant (*p*=.056). In addition, values were not significantly different (*p*=.757) between the third and final grades.

TABLE 25

Post-Hoc Test Results for SRL Strategies

Dependent variable			Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	*Sig.*
Personal SRL	II	III	-.23521	.10170	.056
	II	IV	-.30427	.09351	.004
	III	IV	-.06905	.09708	.757

The present study confirmed that using SRL strategies to improve L2 speaking depends on the grades of EFL college students. This is a significant finding in understanding SRL strategies from social cognitive perspectives, such as

Environmental SRL, Behavioral SRL, and *Personal SRL* strategies for Mongolian EFL college students, who are learning to speak in a second language.

The study's findings supported the strong evidence for the use of SRL strategies and English achievement among Chinese students (Sun & Wang, 2020) and Mongolian students' SRL strategies (Davaanyam & Tserendorj, 2015) from performance monitoring perspectives. The results lead to a similar finding, such as that non-traditional classrooms are online environments that empower students to interact with others, use computers individually to access different resources, and provide self-directed learning to students during their English learning period (Underwood, 2009). The results clearly show that *Personal SRL* strategies were different compared to those of the second and final-grade students. It is worth discussing these exciting facts revealed by the results of SRL strategies among Mongolian EFL college students.

5. CONCLUSION

This dissertation aimed to understand the Mongolian college students' self-efficacy and SRL strategies in L2 speaking, as well as the inter-relationship between students' self-efficacy and SRL strategy processes, and differences in terms of characteristics such as major, gender, experiences abroad, and having native English-speaking friends. A quantitative investigation was employed to answer five research questions. The results and discussions are presented in this study in order to better understand the L2 speaking self-efficacy and SRL strategies of Mongolian EFL college level students. This chapter contains a summary of the significant results and findings in terms of the five research questions, the implications of the study, the relevant limitations of the study, the contributions of the study, and recommendations for future research.

5.1 Result Summary in Terms of Research Questions

An examination of self-efficacy and SRL in L2 speaking with Mongolian EFL college students and the regulation of learning strategies have very practical implications for researchers and teachers in English language acquisition. The results from Chapter 4 are summarized to give an overview of the findings of this dissertation study. Every single research question is separately answered, and linked to a contribution to the knowledge within L2 speaking context. Understanding self-efficacy and SRL strategies in L2 speaking is vital for teachers and students.

5.1.1 Research Question 1

Research Question 1 asked about the nature of the Mongolian college students' self-efficacy in L2 speaking. The quantitative results showed that Construct 5:

Speaking (*M*=4.29) was the most frequently reported self-efficacy across six self-efficacy factors in L2 speaking. In contrast, the EFL participants had the lowest self-efficacy in Construct 2: *Organization* (*M*=3.83).

The findings of this study offered compelling evidence that the students had higher expectations for speaking activities that took place in and outside of the classroom. At the same time, they were pessimistic about their organization in L2 speaking activities. When EFL students successfully complete their speaking assignments, it indicates that they gain knowledge of how to concentrate their attention on learning, or organize sentence structures that can represent thoughts, and speak coherently or cohesively. The answer to research question 1 gives new insight into the nature of understanding L2 speaking self-efficacy of college-level students and their L2 achievement. In addition, this result is beneficial for English instructors so they can manage their foreign language teaching methods for speaking activities to improve their students' skills.

5.1.2 Research Question 2

Research Question 2 of this study focused on how the college level students used SRL strategies when communicating in their second language. The quantitative data analysis revealed that the most frequently used SRL strategies by EFL participants were in Category 3: *Personal SRL strategies* (*M* = 3.15). On the other hand, the lowest SRL strategy among all participants in this study was Category 2: *Behavioral SRL* (*M* =2.90). Moreover, Category 1: *Environmental SRL* (*M* =2.91) was at the medium level across all three SRL categories.

This dissertation study demonstrated that the participants were the most optimistic about student-centered methods, while they were the least positive about their behaviors. The EFL students may not know how to regulate their feelings,

emotions, and anxiety when speaking. The majority of English classroom instruction pedagogy in Mongolia is still teacher-centered, with students following the teachers' words and commands. The students are not encouraged to develop learning strategies or focus on content knowledge. The teachers can help struggling EFL learners regain L2 speaking skills by adapting their SRL strategies. Therefore, this finding is helpful for English-language teachers to manage speaking activities for their students and encourage them to choose proper SRL strategies for L2 speaking improvement.

5.1.3 Research Question 3

This dissertation study examined the relationship between self-efficacy, including its six categories and three SRL strategies such as *Personal SRL, Behavioral SRL*, and *Environmental SRL*. In regard to which SRL strategies were the best predicted among six self-efficacies, *Speaking Self-Efficacy* with *Behavioral SRL* showed the highest correlation coefficient ($r = .614$, $p < .01$). Conversely, *Ideation Self-Efficacy* correlated with *Environmental SRL*, resulting in the lowest correlation coefficient ($r = .267$, $p < .01$).

The correlation analysis of this study revealed that the college students frequently evaluated the speaking activities they were given based on their opportunity seeking, self-monitoring, and self-consequences, which suggested that the students were aware of and interested in using these activities to develop both their English-speaking skills and their SRL strategies as they relate to English speaking. In addition, the students pay attention to convenient ways to practice speaking, take notes before speaking assignments, and reward themselves. In contrast, the ideation process had less of an impact on learners' seeking assistance, persistence, and review of records, implying that the students who were responsive

to their surroundings were more likely to engage in L2 speaking activities. Thus, the study's findings provide broader insights into the inter-relationship between self-efficacy perspectives and SRL strategies used in L2 speaking. Moreover, the results of the recent study support Pintrich's (1999) statement that learners' self-efficacy promotes their SRL behaviors.

5.1.4 Research Question 4

Research Question 4 aimed to answer the question about the differences in self-efficacy and SRL strategies used depending on characteristics such as major, gender, experiences abroad, and having native-English-speaking friends.

The results indicate the values in self-efficacy and SRL strategies between two groups, consisting of English-related, and non-English-related majors' students in L2 speaking. The findings of the independent samples *t-test* analysis revealed that *t*-values ranged between $t = 3.93$ ($p < .001$) for *Speaking Self-Efficacy* and $t = 3.14$ ($p < .002$) for *Self-Efficacy for SRL* in a L2 speaking context. The *t-test* analysis indicated that there were no significant difference in values for *Environmental SRL strategies* $t = .676$ ($p < .500$) and *Behavioral SRL strategies* $t = 1.91$($p < .057$) between English-related majors' participants and non-English-related majors. However, this study found a significant difference in *Personal SRL strategies* t=2.65 ($p < .008$) for college-level students in L2 speaking.

Across six self-efficacy factors, the difference in values between the two groups of male and female students was statistically insignificant. The values ranged between $t = 2.26$ ($p < .001$) for *Grammar Self-Efficacy* and $t = 1.06$ ($p < .001$) for *Speaking Self-Efficacy* in L2 speaking contexts. The independent samples *t*-test showed an insignificant difference in the *Environmental SRL* strategy because the values of male participants ($M = 2.82$) compared to female participants ($M = 2.93$)

were not significantly different with $t = 1.04$ ($p = .296$). Behavioral SRL statistics revealed that male group participants ($M = 2.94$) ranked higher than participants of the female group ($M = 2.89$). There was no significant difference values in *Behavioral SRL* strategies t=0.42 (p = .668) between the two groups. Additionally, the result revealed an insignificant difference in *Personal SRL* strategies $t = 1.53$ (p= .126) between male ($M = 3.03$) and female participants ($M = 3.18$).

The difference between the two groups, including students with experiences abroad and students without experiences abroad, was statistically significant, showing t-values ranging between the highest $t = 4.57$ ($p < .001$) for *the use of English Speaking* and the lowest $t = 3.28$ ($p < .001$) for *Self-Efficacy for Self-Regulation*. The t-values of the three SRL strategies were calculated at $t = 1.67$ (p = .0.95) with *Behavioral SRL* as the highest, and the lowest value at $t = 1.18$ (p=.240) for the *Environmental SRL* strategies.

The differences between the two groups, such as students who had native English-speaking friends and those who did not, were statistically insignificant based on the t-values in the self-efficacy factors. The t-values ranged from t=3.93 ($p < .001$) for *Speaking Self-Efficacy* to $t = 3.14$ ($p = .002$) for *Self-Efficacy for Self-Regulation.* In addition, t-values in three SRL strategies were statistically insignificant, with t-values ranging from $t = 1.25$ ($p = .021$) for *Personal SRL* strategies to $t = .340$ ($p = .730$) for *Behavioral SRL* strategies.

EFL learners frequently interact with self-efficacy and SRL methods at the higher education level through developing their English-speaking abilities. The findings indicate that students who are interested in learning English are more likely to control their efforts and regulate their self-learning process based on the highlighted elements of this research question. The findings are especially

noteworthy because they suggest strong evidence of English education improvement at the higher level in Mongolia.

5.1.5 Research Question 5

Research Question 5 focused on the differences in the scores of self-efficacy and SRL strategies used of Mongolian EFL college students among grade levels. The study looked at how students in the second, third, and final grades performed on self-efficacy tests and used SRL strategies when they were exposed to L2 speaking situations. The findings of the one-way ANOVA analysis revealed that *F*-values of self-efficacy factors were not significant except for *Grammar* (p=.130) between the second and third grades, *Use of English Speaking* (p=0.069) between the second and third grades, and *Self-Regulation* (p=.080) between the second and third grades. Except for *Personal SRL* (p=.004) among grades, the results across all SRL techniques showed that *Environmental SRL* (p=.830) and *Behavioral SRL* (p=.063) were not significant. According to this study, students in the final grades spoke L2 more effectively than they spoke those in the second and third grades. The self-efficacy level of final-year students rises during the English learning period at a higher-level of education, and this determines how they use English learning strategies to accomplish their objectives.

5.2 Implications of the Study

This dissertation has implications for practice with such a large amount of data about multiple aspects of self-efficacy and SRL strategies in L2 speaking research. Although aspects of this study's findings focused on Mongolian EFL learners, this dissertation brings some new consideration to L2 speaking learning and teaching. The following sub-sections will introduce the teaching and learning implications for

L2 teachers and students: self-efficacy and SRL strategies at a higher education level.

Teaching English speaking has recently become one of the most important issues for EFL teachers in Mongolia. The studies of self-efficacy and SRL strategies have brought notable educational changes to L2 programs in many countries. EFL instructors immediately changed their instructional methodology to help their students attain their academic and general English outcomes within their classroom activities.

This study has some implications for the teachers because it can help them gain a more practical grasp of how to set up their classroom and instructional resources so that they positively affect the L2 achievement of their students. In Mongolia, English teachers are urged to instruct their pupils on how to ask for help and how to establish practical strategies for L2 learning. It might involve looking for information using a library or the internet, as well as asking friends or teachers for help. As well as encouraging their students to use effective tactics for L2 speaking, EFL teachers should offer more speaking activities, resources, feedback, and chances for practice. In addition, EFL higher education teachers need to pay more attention to the instructions beyond the scope of this study and focus on aspects of L2 speaking in both practical and academic contexts.

This study effort may be relevant for English instructors' professional development in addition to having teaching implications that will assist them to teach more successfully. Teachers can develop pedagogical designs that are helpful to use appropriate feedback on their students' self-efficacy and SRL tactics within the context of self-efficacy and SRL strategies in L2 speaking. Additionally, these adjustments might assist Mongolia's present English education reform.

5.3 Limitations

The specificity of this dissertation research has apparent limitations concerning research design and context in L2 language learning. The survey was the only tool used to collect data for this dissertation research. Follow-up interviews and focus group discussions could be used in research projects such as this. Therefore, a mixed-method design is needed in further research to explore more insights into self-efficacy and SRL strategies in the EFL field.

The research methods of this dissertation study are limited. Methods such as descriptive statistics, correlation between variables, independent *t*-test, and one-way ANOVA with post-hoc test was used to analyze the collected data. Descriptive statistics focused particularly on data description. Moreover, *t*-tests were used to investigate the differences between two groups in terms of characteristics such as major, gender, experiences abroad, and the availability of native-English-speaking friends. Even though the inter-relationship between college students' self-efficacy and SRL strategies in L2 speaking was explored, this method cannot see the cause of self-efficacy and effect of SRL strategies in EFL-specific ability. Moreover, ANOVA with post-hoc test explored the differences in the scores of self-efficacy and SRL strategies in L2 speaking by EFL learners' grade levels. Thus, more inclusive data analysis methods are needed for further research in this field. The participants' responses based on a self-assessed survey instrument were insufficient to assess their English speaking proficiency. Ideally, effect and output analysis would have been undertaken. The study demonstrated the complexity of L2 speaking self-efficacy and SRL processes.

5.4 Recommendation for Future Research

This dissertation study is important because it provides details on the contributions of each SRL strategy and self-efficacy element in L2 speaking in the setting of higher education in Mongolia. Despite the study's prior shortcomings, there are still clear implications for the research. To determine which factors identify EFL college students during the L2 speaking learning stage, researchers should make an effort to reproduce factorial aspects in multiple environments.

Based on the study's significant findings, the researcher provides the following recommendations for future research. First, the current investigation was carried out among the participants from six universities. Further research needs to fully address (a) patterns of self-efficacy and SRL strategy use and (b) the nature of the relationship between self-efficacy, self-regulated strategies, and L2 proficiency among Mongolian EFL students in various skills. Second, researchers must conduct a longitudinal study using quantitative and qualitative methods in the future. Finally, only student voices were the subject of the current investigation. Additionally, it should consider how well the L2 teaching and learning process is perceived by both teachers and students. In addition, L2 self-efficacy and SRL strategies will undoubtedly continue to be interesting topics for researchers and educators willing to satisfy the needs of the English language learning process.

In conclusion, the findings of this dissertation study are significant in providing information about the contribution of self-efficacy and SRL strategy use in L2 speaking among college-level EFL students. Moreover, this study is beneficial for EFL teachers because it encourages students to adopt more feedback and learning strategies to improve their L2 speaking skills. In addition, teachers must pay more attention to the instructions of various speaking activities in and out of the

classroom and provide more speaking resources and opportunities to practice for their EFL students at higher education levels in both academic and practical contexts.

REFERENCES

Aleks, P. (2019). Positive psychology and mastery of the L2 academic self. *Journal of Language and Education*, *5*(2), 86-94.

Alotumi, M. (2021). EFL college junior and senior students' self-regulated motivation for improving English speaking: A survey study. *Heliyon*, *7*(4), e06664.

Altansor, Ts. (2016). Learning strategies are different due to students' age and developmental characteristics.
Retrieved April, 15 2022, from the World Wide Web: *ikon.mn*. https://ikon.mn/n/qyu

Alyas, D. U. (2021). Learning strategies preference of Iraqi EFL learners. *Alustath Journal for Social and Human Sciences, 60*(4), 663-680.

An, Z., Wang, C., Li, S., Gan, Z., & Li, H. (2020). Technology-assisted self-regulated English language learning: Associations with English language self-efficacy, English enjoyment, and learning outcomes. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *11*.

Asakereh, A., & Dehghannezhad, M. (2015). Student satisfaction with EFL speaking classes: Relating speaking self-efficacy and skills achievement. *Issues in Educational Research*, *25*(4), 345-363.

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, *84*(2), 191-215.

Bandura, A. (1986). The explanatory and predictive scope of self-efficacy theory. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, *4*, 359-373.

Bandura, A. (1993). Perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning. *Educational Psychologist*, *28*(2), 117-148.

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control.* W H Freeman/Times Books/ Henry Holt & Co.

Bandura, A. (2006). Guide for constructing self-efficacy scales. In F. Pajares & T. Urdan (Eds.), *Self-efficacy beliefs of adolescents* (pp. 307-337). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.

Boekaerts, M., & Cascallar, E. (2006). How far have we moved toward the integration of theory and practice in self-regulation? *Educational Psychology Review*, *18*(3), 199-210.

Bong, M., & Clark, R. E. (1999). Comparison between self-concept and self-efficacy in academic motivation research. *Educational Psychologist*, *34*(3), 139-153.

Burns, A., & Joyce, H. (1997). *Focus on speaking.* Sydney: National center for English language teaching and research.

Busemeyer, J. R., & Townsend, J. T. (1993). Decision field theory: A dynamic-cognitive approach to decision making in an uncertain environment. *Psychological Review*, *100*(3), 432-459.

Butzin, S. M. (2001). Using instructional technology in transformed learning environments: An evaluation of project CHILD. *Journal of Research on Computing in Education*, *33*(4), 367-373.

Carver, C. S., & Scheier, M. F. (1981). *Attention and self-regulation: A control theory approach to human behavior.* New York: Springer.

Cattaneo, L. B., & Chapman, A. R. (2010). The process of empowerment: A model for use in research and practice. *American Psychologist*, *65*(7), 646-659.

Chamot, A. U., & El-Dinary, P. B. (1999). Children learning strategies in language immersion classrooms. *The Modern Language Journal*, *83*, 319-338.

Chen, H.-Y. (2007). *Relationship between EFL learners' self-efficacy beliefs and English performance.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation: Florida State University.

Cho, Y. A., Kim, Y, (2019). The relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and self-regulated learning strategies in Korean EFL learners. *LAK Journal, 27*(3), 53-74.

Clark, R. E. (1994). Media will never influence learning. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, *42*(2), 21-29.

Cleary, T. J., & Callan, G. L. (2018). Assessing self-regulated learning using microanalytic methods. In D. H. Schunk & J. A. Greene (Eds.), *Handbook of self-regulation of learning and performance* (pp. 338–351). New York: Routledge.

Cohen, R. (2004). Status of English education in Mongolia. *Asian EFL Journal*. Retrieved December 28, 2021 from the World Wide Web: http://www.asian-efl-journal.com/Dec_04_rc.pdf

Creswell, J. W., & Sinley, R. C. (2017). Developing a culturally specific mixed methods approach to global research. *KZfSS Kölner Zeitschrift für Soziologie und Sozialpsychologie*, *69*(2), 87-105.

Dagvadorj, N. (2020). A review of the effectiveness of cooperative learning in enhancing English language learner's fluency in Mongolia. *International Journal of Trend in Research and Development, 7*(4), 180-183.

Davaanyam, T., & Tserendorj, N. (2015). Students' self-regulated learning strategies in traditional and non-traditional classroom: A comparative study. *Research in Mathematical Education*, *19*(1), 81-88.

Demirel, M., Türkel, A., & Aydin, İ. (2020). Speaking self-efficacy beliefs of Turkish university students. *Cypriot Journal of Educational Sciences*, *15*, 399-411.

Dorj, N. (2022). Certain factors affecting students' English-speaking skill in a Mongolian university's context. *Specialusis Ugdymas*, *1*(43), 3277-3282.

Dörnyei, Z. (1998). Motivation in second and foreign language learning. *Language Teaching*, *31*(3), 117-135.

Eggen, P., & Kauchak, D. (2015). *Educational psychology: Windows on classrooms* (10th ed.). New Jersey: Pearson.

Fallon, M. (2019). *Writing up quantitative research in the social and behavioral sciences.* Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.

Feng, L., & Papi, M. (2020). Persistence in language learning: The role of grit and future self-guides. *Learning and Individual Differences*, *81*, 101904.

Florez, M. C. (1999). *Improving adult English language learners' speaking skills* (ED435204). ERIC. Retrieved October 16, 2021 from World Wide Web: https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X%2803%2900045-9

Gan, Z., Hu, G., Wang, W., Nang, H., & An, Z. (2021). Feedback behavior and preference in university academic English courses: Associations with English language self-efficacy. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, *46*(5), 740-755.

Gani, S. A., Fajrina, D., & Hanifa, R. (2015). Students' learning strategies for developing speaking ability. *Studies in English Language and Education, 2,* 17-30.

Garcia, M. E., Schmitz, J. M., & Doerfler, L. A. (1990). A fine-grained analysis of the role of self-efficacy in self-initiated attempts to quit smoking. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, *58*(3), 317-322.

Gardner, R. C. (2010). *Motivation and second language acquisition: The socio-educational model.* New York: Peter Lang Publishing.

Genç, G., Kuluşaklı, E., & Aydın, S. (2016). Exploring EFL learners' perceived self-efficacy and beliefs on English language learning. *The Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, *41*(2), 53-68.

Golonka, E. M., Bowles, A. R., Frank, V. M., Richardson, D. L., and Freynik, S. (2014). Technologies for foreign language learning: a review of technology types and their effectiveness. *Comput. Assist. Lang. Learn*, 27, 70–105.

Gosiewska-Turek, B. (2017). The interdependence between attributions and second language attainments in secondary school students. *Journal of Education Culture and Society*, *8*(1), 109-124.

Government of Mongolia. (2001). *National program on English language education.* Retrieved December 2, 2022, from the World Wide Web: https://www.meds.gov.mn

Government of Mongolia. (2008). *Millennium Development Goals-Based Comprehensive National Development Strategy of Mongolia: 2007–2021* Retrieved December 2, 2022, from the World Wide Web: https://www.meds.gov.mn

Graham, S., Woore, R., Porter, A., Courtney, L., & Savory, C. (2020). Navigating the challenges of L2 reading: Self□efficacy, self□regulatory reading strategies, and learner profiles. *The Modern Language Journal*, *104*(4), 693-714.

Green, J. M., & Oxford, R. L. (1995). A closer look at learning strategies, L2 proficiency, and gender. *TESOL Quarterly*, *29*, 261-297.

Gundsambuu, S. (2019). Internationalization and English as a medium of instruction in Mongolian higher education. *IAFOR Journal of* Education*, 7*(1), 71-92.

Habok, A., Kong, Y., Ragchaa, J., & Magyar, A. (2021). Cross-cultural differences in foreign language-learning strategy preferences among Hungarian, Chinese and Mongolian University students. *Heliyon*, *7*(3), e06505.

Habók, A., & Magyar, A. (2018). Validation of a self-regulated foreign language-learning strategy questionnaire through multidimensional modelling. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *9*, Article 1388. Retrieved November 22, 2021 from the World Wide Web: https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.01388

Henson, R. K. (2002). From adolescent angst to adulthood: Substantive implications and measurement dilemmas in the development of teacher efficacy research. *Educational Psychologist*, *37*(3), 137-150.

Hinkel, E. (2006). Current perspectives on teaching the four skills. *TESOL Quarterly*, *40*(1), 109-131.

Hu, N. (2022). Investigating Chinese EFL learners' writing strategies and emotional aspects. *LEARN Journal: Language Education and Acquisition Research Network*, *15*(1), 440-468.

Hu, Y., & Plonsky, L. (2019). Statistical assumptions in L2 research: A systematic review. *Second Language Research*, *37*(1), 171-184.

Ibarrola, A. L. (2011). Imitating English oral texts: A useful tool to learn English pronunciation. *Porta Linguarum, 16,* 49-63.

Jhanji, R. S. (2019). English and its effectiveness as a global business language. *International Journal of Research and Analytical Reviews, 6*(1), 187-191.

Joo, Y.-J., Bong, M., & Choi, H.-J. (2000). Self-efficacy for self-regulated learning, academic self-efficacy, and internet self-efficacy in web-based instruction. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, *48*(2), 5-17.

Kim, D.-H., Wang, C., Ahn, H., & Bong, M. (2015). English language learners' self-efficacy profiles and relationship with self-regulated learning strategies. *Learning and Individual Differences*, *38*, 136-142.

Kim, K. J. (2006). Language learning beliefs in relation to English proficiency: A Korean sample. *English Teaching, 61*(4), 27-49.

Kim, K. J. (2012). Language learning belief factors affecting English achievement. *English Teaching*, *67*(4), 173-194.

Kitao, K. (1996). Why do we teach English? *The Internet TESL Journal*. Retrieved December 2, 2021, from the World Wide Web: http://iteslj.org/Articles/Kitao-WhyTeach.html

Klassen, R. M., Tze, V. M. C., Betts, S. M., & Gordon, K. A. (2011). Teacher efficacy research 1998–2009: Signs of progress or unfulfilled promise? *Educational Psychology Review*, *23*(1), 21-43.

Kobayashi, D. (2021). Sources of speaking EFL self-efficacy of Japanese university students. In P. Clements, R. Derrah, & P. Ferguson (Eds.), *Communities of teachers & learners* (pp. 114-124). JALT. https://doi.org/10.37546/jaltpcp2020-15

Koran, S. (2015). The role of teachers in developing learners' speaking skill. *6th International Visible Conference on Educational Studies and Applied Linguistics*, April, https://d1wqtxts1xzle7.cloudfront.net/

Kruger, J., & Dunning, D. (1999). Unskilled and unaware of it: How difficulties in recognizing one's own incompetence lead to inflated self-assessments. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *77*(6), 1121-1134.

Lavrakas, P. J. (2008). *Encyclopedia of survey research methods*. Thousand Oaks: Sage publications.

Lee, D., Allen, M., Cheng, L., Watson, S., & Watson, W. (2021). Exploring relationships between self-efficacy and self-regulated learning strategies of English language learners in a college setting. *Journal of International Students*, *11*(3), 567-585.

Leeming, P. (2017). A longitudinal investigation into English speaking self-efficacy in a Japanese language classroom. *Asian-Pacific Journal of Second and Foreign Language Education*, *2*(1), 12. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40862-017-0035-x

Liang, H.-Y., & Kelsen, B. (2018). Influence of personality and motivation on oral presentation performance. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research*, *47*(4), 755-776.

Lindsay, C., & Knight, P. (2006). *Learning and teaching English: A course for teachers.* Oxford University Press.

Linnenbrink, E. A. (2006). Emotion research in education: Theoretical and methodological perspectives on the integration of affect, motivation, and cognition. *Educational Psychology Review*, *18*, 307-314.

López, M. M. (2011). Speaking strategies used by BA ELT students in public universities in Mexico. *MEXTESOL Journal, 35*(1). Retrieved February 16, 2022, from the World Wide Web: https://mextesol.net/

Lopez-Garrido, G. (2020). Self-efficacy theory. *Simply Psychology*. Retrieved March 2, 2022, from World Wide Web: https://www.simplypsychology.org/self-efficacy.html

Luszczynska, A., Gutiérrez-Doña, B., & Schwarzer, R. (2005). General self-efficacy in various domains of human functioning: Evidence from five countries. *International Journal of Psychology, 4*(2), 80-89.

Magno, C. (2010). Korean students' language learning strategies and years of studying English as predictors of proficiency in English. *Teaching English to Speakers of Languages Journal, 2,* 39-61.

McCombs, B. L. (2001). Self-regulated learning and academic achievement: A phenomenological view. In B. J. Zimmerman & D. H. Schunk (Eds.), Self-regulated learning and academic achievement: Theoretical perspectives (2nd ed.) (pp. 63-117). New York: Routledge.

Marav, D. (2020) Rural-urban divides and digital literacy in Mongolian higher education. *The Dynamics of Language and Inequality in Education: Social and Symbolic Boundaries in the Global South*, Windle, J., Jesus, D., Bartlett, L., Eds.; Multilingual Matters: Bristol, UK, pp. 44–57.

Mills, N. (2014). Self-efficacy in second language acquisition. In S. Mercer & M. Williams (Eds.), *Multiple perspectives on the self in SLA* (pp. 6-22). New York: Multilingual Matters.

Ministry of Education, Culture and Science. (2015) *National core curriculum for basic education.* Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia. Retrieved December 3, 2022, from World Wide Web: https://www.meds.gov.mn

Ministry of Education, Culture and Science. (2021) *Statistics on Primary and Secondary Schools in the Academic Year of 2020–2021.* Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia. Retrieved December 3, 2022, from the World Wide Web: https://www.meds.gov.mn

Moe, K. O., & Zeiss, A. M. (1982). Measuring self-efficacy expectations for social skills: A methodological inquiry. *Cognitive Therapy and Research*, *6*(2), 191-205.

Moriam, Q. M. (2005). Speaking strategy use by the EFL students in Japan and Bangladesh. *Journal of International Development and Cooperation, 12*(1), 47-61.

Munkhbayar, N. (2016). *Analysis of English language policy for higher education sector.* Ulaanbaatar University of the Humanities, Ulaanbaatar. Retrieved December 12, 2021, from the World Wide Web: http://www.stf.mn/infodb/author?id=5778

Okada, Y., Sawaumi, T., & Ito, T. (2017). Effects of observing model video presentations on Japanese EFL learners' oral performance. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, *14*(2), 129-144.

O'Malley, J. M., & Chamot, A. U. (1990). *Learning strategies in second language acquisition.* Cambridge University Press.

Onoda, S. (2014). Examining the relationships between self-efficacy, effort regulation strategy use, and English vocabulary skills. *Studies in Self-Access Learning Journal, 5*(4), 357-371.

Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher Should Know*. New York: Newbury House/Harper & Row. *Now* Boston: Heinle & Heine.

Oxford, R. L. (2016). *Teaching and researching language-learning strategies: Self-regulation in context* (2nd ed.). New York: Routledge.

Oxford, R. L., & Nyikos, M. (1989). Variables affecting choice of language learning strategies by university students. *The Modern Language Journal*, *73*(3), 291-300.

Ozdemir, E., & Papi, M. (2022). Mindsets as sources of L2 speaking anxiety and self-confidence: The case of international teaching assistants in the U.S. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, *16*(3), 234-248.

Pajares, F. M. (1996). Self-efficacy beliefs in academic settings. *Review of Educational Research*, *66*(4), 543-578.

Pajares, F. M. (2008). *Motivational role of self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulated learning*. New York: Routledge.

Panadero, E. (2017). A review of self-regulated learning: Six models and four directions for research. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 422.

Pape, S. J., & Wang, C. (2003). Middle school children's strategic behavior: Classification and relation to academic achievement and mathematical problem solving. *Instructional Science*, *31*(6), 419-449.

Paradewari, D. S. (2017). Investigating students' self-efficacy of public speaking. *International Journal of Education and Research*, *5*(10), 97-105.

Park, G.-P. (2011). The validation process of the SILL: A confirmatory factor analysis. *English Language Teaching*, *4*, 21-27.

Patall, E. A. (2012). The motivational complexity of choosing: A review of theory and research. In R. M. Ryan (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of human motivation* (pp. 248–279). Oxford University Press.

Pawlak, M., Zarrinabadi, N., & Kruk, M. (2022). Positive and negative emotions, L2 grit and perceived competence as predictors of L2 motivated behavior. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 1-17.

Pintrich, P. R. (1999). The role of motivation in promoting and sustaining self-regulated learning. *International Journal of Educational Research*, *31*(6), 459-470.

Pintrich, P. R. (2004). A conceptual framework for assessing motivation and self-regulated learning in college students. *Educational Psychology Review*, *16*(4), 385-407.

Pintrich, P. R., & Zusho, A. (2002). Student motivation and self-regulated learning in the college classroom. In J. C. Smart & W. G. Tierney (Eds.), *Higher education: Handbook of theory and research* (pp. 55-128). Dordrecht: Springer.

Pressley, M., & Hilden, K. (2006). Teaching reading comprehension. In A. McKeough, L. M. Phillips, V. Timmons, & J. L. Lupart (Eds.), *Understanding literacy development: A global view* (pp. 61-76). New York: Routledge.

Putra, I. D. G. R. D., Saukah, A., Basthomi, Y., & Irawati, E. (2020). The predicting power of self-efficacy on students' argumentative writing quality. *Journal of Asia TEFL*, *17*(2), 379-394.

Radwan, A. A. (2011). Effects of L2 proficiency and gender on choice of language learning strategies by university students majoring in English. *Asian EFL Journal*, *13*(1), 114-162.

Ramírez, A. G. (1986). Language learning strategies used by adolescents studying French in New York schools. *Foreign Language Annals*, *19*, 131-138.

Redmer, G. (2022). Self-regulation in an advanced language learner: A case study of language learning strategies. *Studies in Self-Access Learning Journal*, *13*, 60-76.

Rogers, S. H. (2004). Evaluating textual coherence: A case study of university business writing by EFL and native English-speaking students in New Zealand. *RELC Journal*, *35*(2), 135-147.

Rohaizat, N. Q., & Aziz, A. A. (2021). Systematic literature review of language learning strategies for reading skills in English for specific purposes among business students. *Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, *11*(12), 139-159.

Rubin, J. (1975). What the "good language learner" can teach us. *TESOL Quarterly, 9*(1), 41-51.

Sainbayar, G. (2019). Internationalization and English as a Medium of Instruction in Mongolian Higher Education. *IAFOR Journal of Education*, 7(1), 71-92

Sağlam, D., & Arslan, A. (2018). Development of English language skills self-efficacy scale for higher education students. *Psycho-Educational Research Reviews, 7*(2), 1-15.

Salehpour, G., & Roohani, A. (2020). Relationship between intrinsic/extrinsic motivation and L2 speaking skill among Iranian male and female EFL

learners. *Bellaterra Journal of Teaching & Learning Language & Literature*, *13*, 43-59.

Salomon, G. (1984). Television is “easy” and print is “tough”: The differential investment of mental effort in learning as a function of perceptions and attributions. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *76*(4), 647-658.

Sato, M. (2017). Interaction mindsets, interactional behaviors, and L2 development: An affective□social□cognitive model. *Language Learning*, *67*(2), 249-283.

Schunk, D. H. (1991). Self-efficacy and academic motivation. *Educational Psychologist*, *26*(3-4), 207-231.

Schunk, D. H., & DiBenedetto, M. K. (2021). Self-efficacy and human motivation. In A. J. Elliot (Ed.), *Advances in motivation science* (pp. 153-179). Amsterdam: Elsevier.

Schunk, D. H., & Ertmer, P. A. (2000). Self-regulation and academic learning: Self-efficacy enhancing interventions. In M. Boekaerts, P. R. Pintrich, & M. Zeidner (Eds.), *Handbook of self-regulation* (pp. 631-649). Academic Press.

Schunk, D. H., & Hanson, A. R. (1985). Peer models: Influence on children’s self-efficacy and achievement. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *77*(3), 313-322.

Schunk, D. H., & Pajares, F. (2009). Self-efficacy theory. In K. R. Wentzel & D. B. Miele (Eds.), *Handbook of motivation at school* (pp. 49-68). New York: Routledge.

Schunk, D. H., & Usher, E. L. (2011). Assessing self-efficacy for self-regulated learning. In D. H. Schunk & B. J. Zimmerman (Eds.), *Handbook of self-regulation of learning and performance* (pp. 282-297). New York: Routledge.

Schunk, D. H., & Usher, E. L. (2012). Social cognitive theory and motivation. In R. Ryan (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of human motivation* (pp. 11-26). Oxford University Press.

Schunk, D. H., & Zimmerman, B. J. (1997). Social origins of self-regulatory competence. *Educational Psychologist*, *32*(4), 195-208.

Shagdarsuren, S., Batchuluun, U., & Lang, D. L. (2020). Study of motivation types of English-majoring students and demotivating factors-in the context of national university of Mongolia, Erdenet school. *Journal of Teaching English for Specific and Academic Purposes*, 83-93.

Shi, H. (2018). English language learners' strategy use and self-efficacy beliefs in English language learning. Journal of International Students, 8(2), 724-741.

Shih, H. J. (2019). L2 anxiety, self-regulatory strategies, self-efficacy, intended effort and academic achievement: A structural equation modeling approach. *International Education Studies*, *12*(3), 24-35.

Sun, T., & Wang, C. (2020). College students' writing self-efficacy and writing self-regulated learning strategies in learning English as a foreign language. *System*, *90*, 102221.

Sun, Z., Lin, C.-H., You, J., Shen, H. J., Qi, S., & Luo, L. (2017). Improving the English-speaking skills of young learners through mobile social networking. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, *30*(3-4), 304-324.

Tan, R. K., Polong, R. B., Collates, L. M., & Torres, J. M. (2020). Influence of small group discussion on the English oral communication self-efficacy of Filipino ESL learners in Central Luzon. *TESOL International Journal*, *15*(1), 100-106.

Tankó, G. (2017). English majors' self-regulatory control strategy use in academic writing and its relation to L2 motivation. *Applied Linguistics*, *38*(3), 386-404.

Teng, L. S. (2022). Self-regulated learning and language learning strategies. In *Self-regulated learning and second language writing: Fostering strategic language learners* (pp. 15-30). Springer.

Thoma, D. (2021). Emotion regulation by attentional deployment moderates bilinguals' language-dependent emotion differences. *Cognition and Emotion*, *35*(6), 1121-1135.

Thornbury, S. (2005). *How to teach speaking.* U.K.: Pearson.

Tseng, S.-S., & Yeh, H.-C. (2019). The impact of video and written feedback on student preferences of English speaking practice. *Language Learning & Technology*, *23*, 145-158.

Underwood, J. D. (2009). *The impact of digital technology: A review of the evidence of the impact of digital technologies on formal education.* Retrieved April 12, 2022, from the World Wide Web: https://dera.ioe.ac.uk/10491/3/A9RF934_Redacted.pdf

Ushioda, E. (2013). Motivation and ELT: Global issues and local concerns. In *International perspectives on motivation: Language learning and professional challenges* (pp. 1-17). Springer.

Uztosun, M. S. (2020). The development of a scale for measuring the self-regulated motivation for improving speaking English as a foreign language. *The Language Learning Journal*, *48*, 213 - 225.

Viberg, O., Wasson, B., & Kukulska-Hulme, A. (2020). Mobile-assisted language learning through learning analytics for self-regulated learning (MALLAS):

A conceptual framework. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology*, *36*, 34-52.

Wang, C. (2004). *Self-regulated learning strategies and self-efficacy beliefs of children learning English as a second language.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation: The Ohio State University. Retrieved October 12, 2021, from the World Wide Web: https://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/document

Wang, C., & Bai, B. (2017). Validating the instruments to measure ESL/EFL learners' self-efficacy beliefs and self-regulated learning strategies. *TESOL Quarterly*, *51*, 931-947.

Wang, C., Hu, J., Zhang, G., Chang, Y., & Xu, Y. (2012). Chinese college students' self-regulated learning strategies and self-efficacy beliefs in learning English as a foreign language. *Journal of Research in Education*, *22*, 103-135.

Wang, C., Schwab, G., Fenn, P., & Chang, M. (2013). Self-efficacy and self-regulated learning strategies for English language learners: Comparison between Chinese and German college students. *Journal of Educational and Developmental Psychology*, *3*(1), 173-191.

Wang, S.-L., & Batbileg, E. (2020). Effect and scientific verification of innovative English teaching and learning through an international networking instructional system. *Symmetry*, *12*(9), 1510. https://doi.org/10.3390/sym12091510

White, M. C. (2017). Cognitive modeling and self-regulation of learning in instructional settings. *Teachers College Record: The Voice of Scholarship in Education*, *119*, 1-26.

Wijaya, K. F. (2021). English education master students' perceptions on their self-efficacy in EFL speaking learning contexts. *UC Journal: ELT, Linguistics and Literature Journal.*
Retrieved September 30, 2022, from the World Wide Web: https://doi.org/10.24071/uc.v2i2.3438

Winne, P. (1996). A metacognitive view of individual differences in self-regulated learning. *Learning and Individual Differences*, *8*, 327-353.

Wolters, C. A. (2003). Understanding procrastination from a self-regulated learning perspective. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *95*(1), 179-187.

Woottipong, K. (2022). Facilitating learners' self-regulated learning skills and self-efficacy to write in English using technologies. *Acuity: Journal of English Language Pedagogy, Literature and Culture*, *7*(1), 101-122.

Yahya, M. Y. (2019) *Improving speaking performance and L2 motivation through task-based language teaching on Malaysian undergraduate students.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation: University of Reading.
Retrieved November 20, 2022, from the World Wide Web: https://centaur.reading.ac.uk/89016/

Yang, N.-D. (1995). *Effective awareness raising in language learning strategy training* (ED392278). ERIC. Retrieved December 14, 2021 from the World Wide Web: https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED392278

Yondonperenlei, D. (2011). *Assessing language learning strategies of Mongolian EFL university students to promote language learning strategy instruction.* Unpublished master dissertation: Flinders University, Australia

Yusuf, M. (2011). The impact of self-efficacy, achievement motivation, and self-regulated learning strategies on students' academic achievement. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *15*, 2623-2626.

Zarei, A. A., Esfandiari, R., & Akbari, A. (2016). Self-regulated learning strategies as predictors of reading comprehension. *English Language Teaching*, *3*(2), 29-42.

Zee, M., & Koomen, H. M. (2016). Teacher self-efficacy and its effects on classroom processes, student academic adjustment, and teacher well-being: A synthesis of 40 years of research. *Review of Educational Research*, *86*(4), 981-1015.

Zhao, X., Xiao, W., & Zhang, J. (2022). L2 motivational self-system, international posture and the sustainable development of L2 proficiency in the COVID-19 era: A case of English majors in China. *Sustainability*, *14*(13), 8087.

Zimmerman, B. J. (1989). A social cognitive view of self-regulated academic learning. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *81*(3), 329-339.

Zimmerman, B. J. (1998). Academic studying and the development of personal skill: A self-regulatory perspective. *Educational Psychologist*, *33*(2-3), 73-86.

Zimmerman, B. J. (2000). Self-efficacy: An essential motive to learn. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *25*(1), 82-91.

Zimmerman, B. J. (2002). Becoming a self-regulated learner: An overview. *Theory Into Practice*, *41*(2), 64-70.

Zimmerman, B. J. (2008). Investigating self-regulation and motivation: Historical background, methodological developments, and future prospects. *American Educational Research Journal*, *45*(1), 166-183.

Zimmerman, B. J., Bonner, S., & Kovach, R. (1996). *Developing self-regulated learners: Beyond achievement to self-efficacy.* American Psychological Association. Retrieved October 10, 2021, from the World Wide Web: https://doi.org/10.1037/10213-000

Zimmerman, B. J., & Kitsantas, A. (2002). Acquiring writing revision and self-regulatory skill through observation and emulation. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 94*(4), 660–668.

Zimmerman, B. J., & Martinez-Pons, M. (1986). Development of a structured interview for assessing student use of self-regulated learning strategies. *American Educational Research Journal*, *23*(4), 614-628.

Zimmerman, B. J., & Martinez-Pons, M. (1990). Student differences in self-regulated learning: Relating grade, sex, and giftedness to self-efficacy and strategy Use. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *82*(1), 51-59.

Zimmerman, B. J., & Risemberg, R. (1997). Self-regulatory dimensions of academic learning and motivation. In G. D. Phye (Ed.), *Handbook of academic learning: Construction of knowledge* (pp. 105–125). Academic Press.

Zimmerman, B. J., & Schunk, D. H. (Eds.). (2011). *Handbook of self-regulation of learning and performance.* New York: Routledge.
Retrieved August 21, 2021, from the World Wide Web: https://psycnet.apa.org/record/2011-12365-000

Zimmerman, B. J., Schunk, D. H., & DiBenedetto, M. K. (2017). The role of self-efficacy and related beliefs in self-regulation of learning and performance. In A. J. Elliot, C. S. Dweck, & D. S. Yeager (Eds.), *Handbook of*

competence and motivation: Theory and application (pp. 313–333). New York: The Guilford Press.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Demographic Information Questionnaire

Please read each statement carefully, and then answer or circle the number, which best describes you. The questions below used as demographic analysis and comparisons for this study only, and your individual responses will not be disclosed to anyone, so it is important that you answer honestly at all times.

1. I am _____ years old.
2. I am: (1) male (2) female
3. I study at _____university.
4. My major is _____ at _____university
5. I study in _____ year course.
6. I have IELTS score. (1) 5.0 (2) 5.5 (3) 6.0 (4) 6.5
7. How long have you been learning English in Mongolia?
   (1) Less than 5 years (2) 5-8 years (3) 8-10 years (4) over 10
8. Have you been abroad to study English? Yes ( ) No ( )
9. I think the most influential factor in English learning:
   (1) Online materials (2) Private tutoring (3) Teachers (4) Independent study (5) Others _____
10. Having an English-speaking friend is a great chance to learn better English.
    Yes ( ) No ()

APPENDIX B

Questionnaire of English-Speaking Self-Efficacy (QESSE)

Notes: Please read the following questions carefully and make an accurate evaluation of your current command of English no matter whether you are doing it or not. These questions designed to measure your judgement of your capabilities, so there are no right or wrong answers. Please use the following scales to answer these questions accordingly. Please choose the number accurately representing your capabilities. (1) I CANNOT DO IT AT ALL. (2) I CANNOT DO IT. (3) MAYBE I CANNOT DO IT. (4) MAYBE I CAN DO IT. (5) I BASICALLY CAN DO IT. (6) I CAN DO IT. (7) I CAN DO IT WELL.

Factor 1: Ideation

1. I can think of many ideas for my speaking.
7. I can put main ideas in my speaking.
9. I can think of appropriate words to describe my ideas.

Factor 2: Organization

2. I can organize sentences to express an idea when I speak.
13. I can focus on the main ideas when speaking.
19. I can speak in a cohesive way.
25. I can speak in a coherent way.

Factor 3. Grammar

3. I can correctly pronounce all the words in the speech.
8. I can correctly use verb tenses in English speaking.

20. I can speak with proper grammatical structures.

24. I can fix my grammar errors.

Factor 4. Use of English Speaking

4. I can compose a voice message in English on the internet through social network.

10. I can make new sentences with given words.

16. I can speak in a descriptive way in English.

Factor 5. Speaking

6. I can introduce my university in English.

11. I can tell a story in English.

12. I can ask questions to my teachers in English.

14. I can discuss in English with my classmates.

26. I can answer my teachers' questions in English.

27. I can introduce myself in English.

Factor 6. Self-Efficacy for Self-Regulation:

5. I can focus on my speaking for at least 10 minutes.

15. I can finish speaking assignments on time.

17. I can plan what I want to say before I start speaking.

18. I can avoid distractions while I speak.

21. I can revise my speaking to make it better.

22. I can control my frustration when I speak.

23. I can keep speaking even it is difficult.

APPENDIX C

Questionnaire of English Speaking Self-Regulated Learning Strategies (QESSRLS)

Notes: Please read the following questions carefully and make an accurate evaluation of how often you use the following self-regulated learning strategies in the English - speaking context. These questions designed to measure your judgement of frequency, so there are no right or wrong answers. Please use the following scales to answer these questions accordingly. Please choose the number accurately representing your capabilities. (1) I NEVER USE IT. (2) I SELDOM USE IT. (3) I SOMETIMES USE IT. (4) I OFTEN USE IT.

Factor 1. Environmental SRL Strategies

Seeking Assistance Strategies

3. Consult teachers when I encounter difficulties in my English.
11. Ask classmates when I have questions in my English speaking.
17. Search related documents when I have difficulties in English speaking.

Persistence Strategies

4. Keep speaking when I encounter difficulties in English.
12. When a friend wants to play with me, but I have not finished my assignment yet, I do not play until I finish it.
18. Find a quiet place to speak when the environment is disturbing.

Review of Records Strategies

9. Review English texts I have learned before speaking.
15. Review my notes of English class before speaking.

Factor 2. Behavioral SRL Strategies

Seeking Opportunity Strategies

5. Use sentence patterns just learned to make new sentences for practice in speaking.

19. Try to use various English expressions to express the same meaning in speaking.

20. Use words just learned to make new sentences on my initiative in speaking.

Self-Monitoring Strategies

6. Write down the mistakes I often make in the process of speaking.

13. Take notes in English conversation classes.

Self-Consequences Strategies

7. Reward myself when I make a progress of speaking.

Factor 3. Personal SRL Strategies

Self-Evaluation Strategies

1. Check my English presentation before turning them in.

16. Proofread my English presentation after I complete it.

Organization and Transformation Strategies

2. Prepare an outline before speaking in English.

10. Think out a speech in Mongolian before speaking it in English.

21. Pay attention to the English language structure during speaking.

Goal Setting and Planning Strategies

8. Set a goal to improve my speaking.

14. Make a plan in the process of English speaking.

APPENDIX D

QR Code Image