

**SELF-EFFICACY AND STRATEGY USE IN THE MULTI-
VARIATE MODEL OF MOTIVATION FOR ENGLISH
LANGUAGE LEARNERS IN IRAN**

MASOOMEH KHODADAD

**FACULTY OF LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS
UNIVERSITY OF MALAYA
KUALA LUMPUR**

2016

**SELF-EFFICACY AND STRATEGY USE IN THE
MULTI-VARIATE MODEL OF MOTIVATION FOR
ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS IN IRAN**


MASOOMEH KHODADAD

**THESIS SUBMITTED IN
FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

**FACULTY OF LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS
UNIVERSITY OF MALAYA
KUALA LUMPUR**

2016

UNIVERSITY OF MALAYA
ORIGINAL LITERARY WORK DECLARATION

Name of Candidate: Masoomeh Khodadad 

Registration/Matric No: THA07005

Name of Degree: Doctor of Philosophy

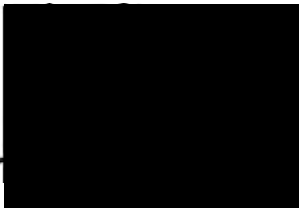
Title of Project Paper/Research Report/Dissertation/Thesis ("this Work"):

Self-efficacy and strategy use in the multi-variate model of motivation for English language learners in Iran

Field of Study: English as a second language

I do solemnly and sincerely declare that:

- (1) I am the sole author/writer of this Work;
- (2) This Work is original;
- (3) Any use of any work in which copyright exists was done by way of fair dealing and for permitted purposes and any excerpt or extract from, or reference to or reproduction of any copyright work has been disclosed expressly and sufficiently and the title of the Work and its authorship have been acknowledged in this Work;
- (4) I do not have any actual knowledge nor do I ought reasonably to know that the making of this work constitutes an infringement of any copyright work;
- (5) I hereby assign all and every rights in the copyright to this Work to the University of Malaya ("UM"), who henceforth shall be owner of the copyright in this Work and that any reproduction or use in any form or by any means whatsoever is prohibited without the written consent of UM having been first had and obtained;
- (6) I am fully aware that if in the course of making this Work I have infringed any copyright whether intentionally or otherwise, I may be subject to legal action or any other action as may be determined by UM.

Candidate's Signature 

Date: 03/06/2016

Subscribed and solemnly dec

Witness's Signature

Date:

Name:

Designation:

ABSTRACT

Many studies, including the ones based on Gardner's Socio-Educational Model, have indicated the influence of motivation on foreign or second language success (Tremblay and Gardner, 1995; Zairi, 1996; Kam, 2006; Bernaus and Gardner, 2008; Sayadian and Lashkarian, 2010). However, less attention has been given to the combination and interaction of particular factors that might potentially affect L2 learning. These variables as related to individual differences among learners, might be motivational (contributing to motivation) or non-motivational (promoted by motivation). Using two of the potentially individual difference constructs namely, self-efficacy and strategy use, this study aimed at investigating how these factors fit into Gardner's (2001) model and what their possible association might be since little empirical research has been conducted on the interactions and relationships of variables such as motivation, self-efficacy, strategy use, and learning.

In order to develop a conceptual model, this study aimed to investigate and test a modified form of Gardner's (2001) socio-educational model of second/foreign language learning (updated in 2003), given that it is one of the most dominant and comprehensive models of second/foreign language learning, accounting for motivation in relation to other factors such as strategy use as well as other social, individual, and contextual aspects. This study aimed to find the causal interrelations among some individual difference variables namely, attitudes toward the learning situation, integrativeness as exogenous, motivation, strategy use, self-efficacy as mediating, and English language achievement as endogenous variables. 240 intermediate learners of English as a foreign language at the Iran Language Institute (ILI) participated in this study. Three questionnaires (the Attitude Motivation Test Battery [AMTB], the Self-Efficacy

Questionnaire [SEQ], and the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning [SILL]) were administered to the participants to measure their language learning motivation, self-efficacy and strategy use respectively. The data were analyzed through the SEM (Structural Equation Modelling) research method which examines interrelated dependence and multiple relations in a single model with path coefficients. The software used for SEM was AMOS.

The results of the SEM analysis showed a consistency between the hypothesized model and the collected data. The hypothesized model demonstrated good fit indices within the thresholds used as criteria of good fit. With the exception of attitudes toward the learning situation that did not show significant direct influence on strategy use and English achievement, (this was also the case in Gardner's 1997 and 2000 studies), all the other paths in the model were significant. Findings indicated significant causal positive relationships between attitudes toward the learning situation and motivation, integrativeness and motivation, attitudes toward the learning situation and self-efficacy, self-efficacy and motivation, motivation and strategy use, and self-efficacy and strategy use. Results indicate that in order to have better strategy users, learners' self-efficacy and motivation should be improved. Furthermore, the findings reveal that integrativeness, self-efficacy, and motivation showed both significant direct and indirect positive influences on English language achievement. Learning strategy use also positively and directly affected English achievement. Based on the findings of the study, pedagogical implications for foreign language education are further discussed.

ABSTRAK

Kebanyakan kajian, termasuk yang berdasarkan Model Sosio-Pendidikan Gardner menunjukkan pengaruh motivasi terhadap kejayaan bahasa kedua atau bahasa asing (Tremblay and Gardner, 1995; Zairi, 1996; Kam, 2006; Bernaus and Gardner, 2008; Sayadian and Lashkarian, 2010). Namun demikian, disebabkan kurangnya perhatian yang diberikan terhadap gabungan dan interaksi faktor tertentu, maka ia berpotensi memberi kesan terhadap pembelajaran L2. Pemboleh ubah atau variabel ini berkaitan dengan perbezaan dalam kalangan pelajar, yang berkemungkinan bermotivasi (menyumbang terhadap motivasi) ataupun tidak bermotivasi (didorong oleh motivasi). Berdasarkan kedua-dua binaan perbezaan individu yang berpotensi ini, iaitu keberkesanan diri dan penggunaan strategi, maka kajian ini mengkaji bagaimana faktor tersebut dapat disesuaikan dalam model Gardner's (2001) serta perkaitan yang mungkin wujud, disebabkan terlalu sedikit penyelidikan empirik yang dijalankan tentang interaksi dan perkaitan variabel seperti motivasi, keberkesanan diri, penggunaan strategi dan pembelajaran.

Dalam usaha membangunkan suatu model konseptual, kajian dan ujian dijalankan terhadap model Gardner (2001) yang diubah suai khusus bagi kegunaan pembelajaran bahasa asing / bahasa kedua (dikemas kini pada 2003). Model ini dipilih kerana ia merupakan suatu model yang paling dominan dan komprehensif bagi pembelajaran bahasa kedua / bahasa asing, yang mengkaji motivasi dalam hubungannya dengan faktor lain seperti penggunaan strategi, faktor sosial lain, individu, dan aspek kontekstual. Kajian ini mengkaji kesalingkaitan daripada sesetengah variabel tersebut, iaitu sikap atau atitud terhadap situasi pembelajaran, integrasi sebagai eksogen, motivasi, strategi yang digunakan, keberkesanan diri sebagai pengantara, dan pencapaian bahasa Inggeris sebagai variabel endogen. Seramai 240 orang pelajar yang mengikuti program

EFL (bahasa Inggeris sebagai bahasa asing) di Institut Bahasa Iran (ILI) ikut serta dalam kajian ini. Tiga soal selidik [AMTB (Attitude Motivation Test Battery), SEQ (Self-Efficacy Questionnaire), dan SILL (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning) diedarkan dalam kalangan peserta untuk mengukur motivasi, keberkesanan diri dan penggunaan strategi dalam pembelajaran bahasa mereka. Data yang diperoleh dianalisis berdasarkan kaedah SEM (Structural Equation Modeling) yang mengkaji kebergantungan serta perkaitannya dengan pekali/koefisien laluan dalam model tunggal. Perisian atau sofwer yang digunakan bagi SEM adalah AMOS.

Dapatan daripada analisis SEM menunjukkan bahawa terdapat ketekalan di antara model berhipotesis dan data yang terkumpul. Model berhipotesis menunjukkan indeks yang baik dalam ambang kriteria kesesuaian. Tanpa mengambil kira sikap terhadap situasi pembelajaran yang tidak menunjukkan pengaruh yang signifikan terhadap penggunaan strategi dan pencapaian bahasa Inggeris (ia juga merupakan kes dalam kajian Gardner 1997 dan 2000), maka semua laluan lain dalam model adalah signifikan. Dapatan menunjukkan bahawa terdapat perkaitan positif yang signifikan di antara sikap terhadap situasi pembelajaran dan motivasi, integrasi dan motivasi, sikap terhadap situasi pembelajaran dan keberkesanan diri, keberkesanan diri dan motivasi, motivasi dan penggunaan strategi, dan keberkesanan diri dan penggunaan strategi. Keputusan menunjukkan bahawa dalam usaha penggunaan strategi yang lebih baik, keberkesanan diri dan motivasi pelajar sepatutnya ditingkatkan. Selanjutnya, dapatan menunjukkan bahawa integrasi, keberkesanan diri dan motivasi mempunyai pengaruh positif yang signifikan sama ada secara langsung atau tidak langsung terhadap pencapaian bahasa Inggeris. Penggunaan strategi pembelajaran juga secara positif dan secara langsung mempengaruhi pencapaian bahasa Inggeris. Berdasarkan dapatan kajian, implikasi pedagogi bagi pendidikan bahasa asing memerlukan perbincangan lanjut.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The completion of this thesis could not have been possible without the guidance, support, and help of the following individuals.

First and foremost, I would like to offer my most profound thanks to Dr. Jagdish Kaur, my supervisor, for her invaluable guidance, helpful recommendations, and generous encouragements through the thesis preparation.

I would also like to thank Associate Prof. Dr. Mohana K. Nambiar, my former supervisor, for all her guidance, patience, and encouragements through the thesis preparation.

My special gratitude goes to Professor Dr. Zuraidah Mohd Don, the dean of the Faculty of Languages and Linguistics, for her kind concern regarding my academic requirements.

My gratitude also goes to Associate Prof. Dr. Stefanie Pillai, the Deputy Dean (Postgraduate) and the chair persons of my committees, faculty members and staff of the Faculty of Languages and Linguistics for their help and support.

I am also grateful to Dr. Jawakhir Mior Jaafar, the former Deputy Dean (Postgraduate) for her support and concern.

I would also like to offer special thanks to Dr. Mahmud who has been generous with his time, insightful guidance, and support.

My special gratitude is also due to Professor Ananda Kumar Palaniappan, from the Faculty of Education, for his valuable advice and guidance on the statistical analysis of the study and discussing my work from different dimensions. I sincerely appreciate his kindness and willingness to help me in conducting this study.

I would further like to express my sincere appreciation to Professor Emeritus R. C. Gardner, from the University of Western Ontario, who was very generous with his time

and articles, answering my questions via e-mail, and discussing my work from different perspectives, and Professor A. Bandura, from Stanford University, for his valuable advice and guidance.

I am particularly grateful for the help and cooperation of Ms. Morshali, the head of the department of the Shiraz branch of the Iran Language Institute (ILI), who gave me the permission to administer my questionnaires. I also sincerely appreciate the cooperation of the staff and teachers of this institute as well as the students who participated in this study.

This thesis would not have been accomplished without the assistance, love, and encouragement of my beloved husband, Dr. Ali Hassani, His assistance has been especially valuable in analyzing the data.

Finally, a sincere note of thanks goes to my mother and father, my son, and my sisters for their love, encouragement, and support throughout this journey. I cannot adequately express the thanks that are due to my parents, who hold a very special place in my heart.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	III
ABSTRAK	V
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	VII
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	IX
LIST OF FIGURES	XIII
LIST OF TABLES	XVI
LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS	XVII
LIST OF APPENDICES	XVIII
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Overview of the Study	1
1.2 Background to the Study.....	3
1.3 Learning of English in the Iranian Language Learning Context.....	9
1.4 Gardner's (2001) Socio-Educational Model.....	11
1.5 Definition of Key Terms	17
1.5.1 Motivation.....	17
1.5.2 Self-efficacy.....	18
1.5.3 Language Learning Strategies.....	21
1.6 Objectives of the Study	22
1.7 Research Questions	23
1.8. The Proposed Conceptual Model and Hypotheses.....	23
1.8.1 Summary of the Research Hypotheses.....	46
1.9 Significance of the Study	47
1.10 Limitations of the Study.....	48
1.11 Organization of the Chapters	49

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE	50
2.1 Motivation	50
2.1.1 Gardner's Socio-Educational Model	51
2.1.2 Alternate Theories of Motivation Adopted by SLA Researchers	58
2.1.3 Motivation's Influence on L2 Success	71
2.2 Self-efficacy and Social Cognitive Theory	79
2.2.1 Self-efficacy and Academic Achievement.....	84
2.2.2 Self-efficacy and Second Language Learning	92
2.3 Language Learning Strategies.....	102
2.3.1 Definitions and Classifications of Language Learning Strategies	102
2.3.2 Language Learning Strategies and Second Language Learning	113
2.3.2.1 Motivation and Language Learning Strategy Use	120
2.4 Holistic Studies	128
2.5 Conclusion.....	133
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY	135
3.1 Participants.....	136
3.2 Instruments.....	137
3.2.1 Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB).....	137
3.2.2 The Self-Efficacy Questionnaire (SEQ)	140
3.2.3 The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL).....	141
3.3 Sample Selection and Procedure.....	145
3.4 Data Analysis	148
3.4.1 Structural Equation Modelling.....	149
3.4.1.1 Model Fit Criteria.....	151
3.5 Pilot Study.....	154
CHAPTER 4: RESULTS, DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS	157

4.1 Descriptive Statistics	159
4.2 Correlation Matrix of the Variables	160
4.3 Testing the Hypothesized Model	160
4.3.1 Research Questions and Hypotheses.....	161
4.4 Discussion and Implications	178
4.4.1 The correlation between Attitudes toward the Learning situation and Integrativeness	180
4.4.2 The Direct effect of Attitudes toward the Learning Situation on self-efficacy	181
4.4.3 The Direct and Indirect Effect of Attitudes toward the learning situation on Strategy use	182
4.4.4 The Indirect Effect of Integrativeness on Strategy Use	184
4.4.5 The Direct Effect of Self-efficacy on Strategy Use	185
4.4.6 The Indirect Effect of Self-efficacy on Strategy Use.....	186
4.4.7 The Direct Effect of Self-efficacy on Motivation.....	187
4.4.8 The Direct Effect of Motivation on Strategy Use	187
4.4.9 The Direct Effect of Attitudes toward the Learning Situation and Integrativeness on Motivation.....	188
4.4.10 The Indirect Effect of Attitudes toward the Learning Situation on Motivation.....	189
4.4.11 The Direct and Indirect effect of Motivation on Achievement.....	190
4.4.12 The Direct and Indirect Effect of Attitudes toward the Learning Situation on English Achievement	191
4.4.13 The Direct and Indirect Effect of Self-efficacy on English Achievement .	196
4.4.14 The Direct and Indirect Effect of Integrativeness on English Achievement	199

4.4.15 The Direct Effect of Strategy Use on English Achievement	201
CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND	
SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH.....	205
5.1 Summary and Conclusion	205
5.1.1 Selfefficacy	208
5.1.2 Motivation.....	209
5.1.3 Strategy use	210
5.2 Implications.....	212
5.2.1 Self-efficacy.....	213
5.2.2 Strategy use	214
5.2.3 Integrative Motivation.....	215
5.3 Suggestions for Further Research	218
REFERENCES.....	219
APPENDIX A	269
APPENDIX B	276
APPENDIX C	280

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1: Socio-Educational Model (Gardner 2001)	13
Figure 1.2: Proposed conceptual model	24
Figure 1.3: Subordinate model 1: the relation of attitudes toward the learning situation with integrativeness	25
Figure 1.4: Subordinate model 2: the direct influence of attitudes toward the learning situation on self-efficacy	26
Figure 1.5: Subordinate model 3: the direct and indirect (through motivation) influences of attitudes toward the learning situation on strategy use.....	28
Figure 1.6: Subordinate model 4: the indirect (through motivation) influence of integrativeness on strategy use.....	28
Figure 1.7: Subordinate model 5: the direct influence of motivation on strategy use	30
Figure 1.8: Subordinate model 6: the direct and indirect (through strategy use) influences of motivation on English achievement	32
Figure 1.9: Subordinate model 7: the direct and indirect (through motivation and through self-efficacy) influences of attitudes toward the learning situation on English achievement.....	35
Figure 1.10: Subordinate model 8: the direct and indirect (through motivation) influences of integrativeness on English achievement.....	36
Figure 1.11: Subordinate model 9: the direct influence of self-efficacy on motivation .	38
Figure 1.12: Subordinate model 10: the direct and indirect (through motivation) influences of Self-efficacy on Strategy use.....	40
Figure 1.13: Subordinate model 11: the direct and indirect (through motivation and through strategy use) influences of self-efficacy on English achievement..	44
Figure 1.14: Subordinate model 12: the direct influence of strategy use on English achievement.....	45

Figure 4.1: The hypothesized model with standardized estimates.....	162
Figure 4.2: Test of hypothesis 1 (standardized regression coefficients).....	163
Figure 4.3: Test of hypothesis 2 (standardized regression coefficients).....	163
Figure 4.4: Test of hypothesis 3 (standardized regression coefficients).....	164
Figure 4.5: Test of hypothesis 4 (standardized regression coefficients).....	166
Figure 4.6: Test of hypothesis 5 (standardized regression coefficients).....	166
Figure 4.7: Test of hypothesis 6 (standardized regression coefficients).....	167
Figure 4.8: Test of hypothesis 7 (standardized regression coefficients).....	168
Figure 4.9: Test of hypothesis 8 (standardized regression coefficients).....	170
Figure 4.10: Test of hypothesis 9 (standardized regression coefficients).....	171
Figure 4.11: Test of hypothesis 10 (standardized regression coefficients).....	172
Figure 4.12: Test of hypothesis 11 (standardized regression coefficients).....	173
Figure 4.13: Test of hypothesis 12 (standardized regression coefficients).....	174
Figure 4.14: The final model with standardized estimates	176
Figure 4.15: The indirect effect (shown by dashed arrows) of attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS) on strategy use through self-efficacy, and through self-efficacy and motivation (standardized regression coefficients).....	184
Figure 4.16: The indirect effect (shown by dashed arrows) of attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS) on motivation through self-efficacy (standardized regression coefficients).....	190
Figure 4.17: The indirect effect (shown by dashed arrows) of attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS) on English achievement through motivation and strategy use (standardized regression coefficients).....	193

Figure 4.18: The indirect effect (shown by dashed arrows) of attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS) on English achievement through self-efficacy and motivation (standardized regression coefficients).....	194
Figure 4.19: The indirect effect (shown by dashed arrows) of attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS) on English achievement through self-efficacy and strategy use (standardized regression coefficients)	195
Figure 4.20: The indirect effect (shown by dashed arrows) of attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS) on English achievement through self-efficacy, motivation, and strategy use (standardized regression coefficients).....	196
Figure 4.21: The indirect effect (shown by dashed arrows) of self-efficacy on English achievement through motivation and strategy use (standardized regression coefficients)	198
Figure 4.22: The indirect effect (shown by dashed arrows) of integrativeness on English achievement through motivation and strategy use (standardized regression coefficients)	201

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1: Summary of fit indices for the hypothesized model	154
Table 3.2: Internal consistency reliabilities of the variables of AMTB	155
Table 3.3: Correlation coefficients between the AMTB total scores and its subscales	155
Table 3.4: Correlation coefficients between SILL total scores and the subscales	156
Table 4.1: Minimum and maximum scores, means, and standard deviations for the variables	159
Table 4.2: Correlation matrix of the variables	160
Table 4.3: Standardized estimates	164
Table 4.4: Standardized indirect effects	174
Table 4.5: Standardized Total Effects	175
Table 4.6: Summary of the Results of the Hypotheses	175
Table 4.7: Standardized estimates	177
Table 4.8: Standardized indirect effects	177
Table 4.9: Standardized total effects	177

LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ACH	:	English achievement
AGFI	:	Adjusted goodness of fit
ALS	:	Attitudes toward the learning situation
AMTB	:	Attitude/motivation test battery
APT	:	Apptitude
CFI	:	Comparative fit index
C.R.	:	Critical ratio
EFL	:	English as a foreign language
ESL	:	English as a second language
FL	:	Foreign language
FLL	:	Foreign language learning
GFI	:	Goodness of fit
INT	:	Integrativeness
MLM	:	Maximum likelihood methods
MOT	:	Motivation
NFI	:	Normed fit index
RMSEA	:	Root mean squared error of approximation
SE	:	Self-efficacy
SEM	:	Structural equation modeling
SEQ	:	Self-efficacy questionnaire
SILL	:	Strategy inventory for language learning
SL	:	Second language
SLA	:	Second language acquisition
SLL	:	Second language learning
STR	:	Strategy use
TLI	:	Tucker-Lewis coefficient

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix A: Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB)	269
Appendix B: The Self-efficacy Questionnaire (SEQ)	276
Appendix C: The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)	280

University of Malaya

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview of the Study

Perhaps the most significant goal of second/foreign language education is training individuals to be able to efficiently complete tasks they need to perform in the future. To increase the effects of such education, it is necessary to account for the variety of variables that affect learning, including socio-psychological factors such as language learning self-efficacy, motivation, and metacognition and language learning strategy use, to mention just a few.

The significance of these factors in the learning process has motivated many researchers to examine the effect of the variables on each other as well as on the learning itself, involving various processes and outcomes (see Bandura, 1997; Chiang et al., 2014; Domakani, Roohani, & Akbari, 2012; Gunning & Oxford, 2014; Magogwe & Oliver, 2007; Pae, 2008; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). In Iran, where the present study is located, for the past several years there has been a heightened sense of dissatisfaction regarding students' poor level of English achievement. Some language institutes attribute this problem to students' lack of motivation. However, in the absence of research, this statement lacks any empirical validation. As stated by Gholami, Allahyar, and Rafik-Galea (2012), focusing on motivation in EFL contexts seems crucial. As stated by Gardner (2005, 2007), motivation is a multifaceted concept involving different parts, its nature cannot be represented through only one facet or feature. Therefore, this study aims at using Gardner's (2001a) socio-educational model (updated in 2003), as the best way to investigate the problem (see section 1.3 for a detailed discussion of the model). Specifically, the study intends to investigate two individual difference variables in the model, (see Figure 1.1, section 1.4) namely self-efficacy, defined as "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce

given attainments" by Bandura (1997: 3) and strategy use, as two important factors contributing to motivation and hence second/foreign language achievement.

Gardner (2001a) showed that second or foreign language learning is considered as a process in which many variables play a role to determine the final result. As shown in Figure 1.1, among these variables are "external influences" (involving the teacher and learner effects on learning), "individual differences" (including learners' integrative motivation in concert with other motivational and non-motivational variables), "language acquisition contexts" (including formal and informal contexts of language learning), and "out comes" (including linguistic and non-linguistic ones) as mentioned by Gardner.

The present study will focus on the part in Gardner's (2001a) model called "individual differences" in which many highly personalized variables like integrativeness, and attitudes toward the learning situation were hypothesized to have a very important role. Gardner (2001a, 2005, 2007) and Masgoret and Gardner (2003) showed that these two variables, being mutually related, influenced the learner's motivation. Two other classes of factors are also presented in the model, which are supposed not to have any direct link to the context of learning. These factors, which are related to individual differences between learners, might be either motivational (contributing to motivation) or non-motivational (promoted by motivation). The former is identified as "other motivational variables", for having a possible effect on motivation. These may be instrumental factors such as self-confidence, self-efficacy and all other personal traits which increase motivation. The latter or the second factor is identified as "other non-motivational variables" which involve factors like language learning strategies. Applying such strategies can affect achievement "by providing schema and techniques to help learn the material and to the extent that they play a role in language learning, it would be expected that they would be used by the motivated

individual" (Gardner, 2001a: 10). Although Gardner explained the hypothetical links between these other motivational and non-motivational variables with motivation, he regarded them as being peripheral to motivating and motivation, and proposed that researchers test the relationship in future studies. Despite the fact that the model suggests that such factors can play a role in L2 achievement, it does not make any specific reference to learning strategies or personality.

It appears that Gardner did not consider the two "other non/motivational" factors to have any direct impact on each other, and on linguistic and non-linguistic results in the long run. In addition, the nature and the extent to which the factor "motivation" mediates these two variables is rather vague in Gardner's model. A review of the literature also shows very limited foreign or second language studies on self-efficacy as stated by Dornyei (2005), Mori (2002), Pajares (2000), and Wang (2004). This study attempts to address the research gap highlighted above.

Hence, this study aims to investigate the relationship between three independent factors, namely, (i) integrative motivation, including learners' attitudes toward the learning situation, integrativeness, and motivation; (ii) self-efficacy; and (iii) strategy use on English language achievement among Iranian students, using Gardner's (2001a) socio-educational model of second/foreign language learning (updated in 2003).

1.2 Background to the Study

Foreign or second language learning is affected by a number of variables. As mentioned before, according to Gardner (2001a, 2005) L2 learning is regarded as a process in which many factors have a role to determine the final outcome. In recent years, second language researchers have been investigating learner variables, including social and psychological aspects, with the hope of understanding and shedding more light on the learning process. Of these variables, affective and personality factors (e.g.,

self-efficacy, language learning motivation and attitudes, self-esteem, anxiety) are identified to have potential effect in the successful L2 learning process.

As Brown (2000) contended, by devising teaching methodologies or theories of L2 acquisition which use only cognitive considerations as their basis, the most essential aspect of individual's behavior will be omitted. Some of the recent cross-disciplinary research studies (Brown, 2007; Gardner, 2005; Larsen-Freeman, 2001; Ling, 2008; Rubio, 2007; Wei, 2007) have provided insights into the important role of the affective and personality variables in language achievement.

Along the same lines, Gardner (2001a: 1) asserted research should focus on "individual difference characteristics of the student" including motivation and attitudes, language learning strategies and self-efficacy.

Furthermore, as stated by Hsieh (2008), successful foreign language learning is more than just being exposed to the target language or taking language courses. Clement and Gardner (2001a) believe that motivational processes are among the most important factors affecting foreign language learning. Gardner (2001a) concurs as many of the variables influencing L2 learning "are dependent on motivation for their effects to be realized" (Gardner, 2001a: 2). Thus, examining language learners' motivation is significant (Gardner, 2007; Hsieh, 2008). Many conceptualizations have been provided for motivation in the L2 learning literature. The present study has adopted the definition proposed by Gardner (2001a, 2005, 2007) which considers motivation as a multifaceted construct, that is, the interdependency of aim, desire to attain the aim, effort, and positive affect.

As noted by Dornyei (2005) the pioneers who showed the effect of motivation on L2 success were Gardner and his associates. Gardner first showed the effect of motivation on L2 success in 1959 (as cited in Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). Indeed, Gardner and Lambert have blazed the trail in second language motivation research by investigating

the impact of social variables on L2 learners since 1972. The work of these researchers "has laid the foundation stone for a large body of research" (Ghazvini & Khajepour, 2011). Based on these original studies, Gardner developed the socio-educational model of L2 motivation in 1985 and revised it in 2001 (Gardner, 2001a; MacIntyre, MacMaster, & Baker, 2001; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995) This model has thus far been considered as the most comprehensive and dominant model of second/foreign language learning, accounting for motivation in relation to other factors such as use of learning strategies as well as other individual, social, and contextual aspects and has been praised for its consideration of the cultural as well as the social setting in which learning takes place (MacIntyre, MacKinnon, & Clément, 2009; Moyer, 2004).

Gardner (2001a, 2005) maintains that L2 learning motivation which has a direct influence on learners' language achievement, is affected by other socio-psychological factors. Motivation in Gardner's (2001a) socio-educational model (Fig 1.1) is supported by the variables – Integrativeness (INT) and Attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS) all of which together as a complex of goal-directed, attitudinal, and motivational characteristics form an integrative motive to enhance language learning.

Many studies have indicated the influence of motivation on L2 success including the ones based on Gardner's Socio-Educational Model (e.g., Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Bernaus, Wilson, & Gardner, 2009; Chiang et al., 2014; Gholami, Allahyar, & Rafik-Galea, 2012; Kam, 2006; Lalonde & Gardner, 1985; Sayadian & Lashkarian, 2010; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995; Tremblay, Goldberg, & Gardner, 1995; Ushioda, 1996b; Zairi, 1996). However, less attention has been given to the combination and interaction of particular factors that might potentially affect L2 learning. As stated in section 1.1, these variables as related to individual differences between learners might be motivational (contributing to motivation) or non-motivational (promoted by motivation). Using two of the potentially individual difference constructs, namely self-

efficacy and strategy use, this study aims at finding out how these factors fit into Gardner's (2001a) model and what their possible association might be.

Various studies have been conducted to find single relationships between variables such as motivation, self-efficacy and strategy use and learning. However, few empirical studies have been performed on the interactions and relations of these factors together.

Applying the self-efficacy construct to the language learning contexts seems to be highly appropriate because language learners' appraisal of their ability to perform language skills affects their motivation as well as the behaviors needed to achieve a learning goal (Wu, 2006). Moreover, Pintrich and Schunk (2002) claim self-efficacy play a crucial role in motivation and learning. Self-efficacy beliefs are considered as the core of motivational construct in social cognitive theory, emphasizing that the individual's achievement is affected by the interplay among environmental, personal, and behavioral affects (Bandura, 1986, 1997) which in turn, as noted by some researchers such as Pajares and Urdan (2006), Pintrich and Schunk (2002), and Pajares (1997), influence the level of motivation in selecting actions, expending effort, and persevering in a goal-directed task. Indeed examining some aspects like motivation, learning, and academic performance without considering the function of his self-efficacy seems almost impossible (Pajares and Urdan, 2006). Learners who think that success or failure is due to variables within their control tend to have higher motivation and have also more positive expectation for future tasks than learners who think that success is undeterminable and uncontrollable and that failure is permanent (Weiner, 1979, cited in Hsieh, 2008). Based on such evidence, Bandura (1997) and Graham and Weiner (1996) came to the conclusion that self-efficacy, compared to other self-beliefs and closely related variables, is considered as a more consistent and reliable predictor of human behavioral outcomes. Graham and Weiner (1996) found that no level of

relationship between learners' performance of learned skills as well as the new ones and self-efficacy has been observed in any other expectancy concepts.

Researches have reported the relation of self-efficacy with academic achievement in different subjects (see Anjum, 2006; Klassen & Georgiou, 2008; Pajares, 2003; Pajares & Graham, 1999; Saleh, 2008; Simmering, Posey & Piccoli, 2009; Smith & Fouad, 1999) However, as mentioned previously, some researchers have stated that the number of researches related to self-efficacy in foreign or second language learning has been very limited (Dornyei, 2005; Mori, 2002; Pajares, 2000; Raoofi, Tan, & Chan, 2012; Wang, 2004). The nature of the relation of self-efficacy with other learner-related concepts cannot be explained by this limited and insufficient number of studies. In addition, currently available foreign language studies on self-efficacy are often methodologically or conceptually problematic (Cheng, 2002; Mori, 2002). Although Bandura (1986) asserted that self-efficacy must be measured with a specificity that is in accordance with the task and domain which is being assessed, Pajares (1996c) maintained that self-efficacy assessments in most studies reflect generalized or global attitudes about abilities that have little or no similarity with the specific task being compared with.

Specifically, due to the restricted number of researches on the relationships between learner variables and self-efficacy regarding language learning, part of the present study examines the relation of self-efficacy with English language achievement, and clarifies its relationship with EFL learners' strategy use and language learning motivation.

As related to the socio-educational model (Figure 1.1), non-motivational variables involve factors like learning strategies, which influence language learning. Cohen (1998b) regarded learning strategies as a method to enhance the students' language learning motivation.

Several studies have been performed to test the influence of strategies on language achievement (e.g., Cesur, 2011; Chamot & El-Dinary, 1999; Chang, 1991; Gerami & Baighlou, 2011; Green & Oxford, 1995; Grenfell & Macaro, 2008; Gunning & Oxford, 2014; Lan & Oxford, 2003; MacIntyre & Noels, 1996; Nisbet, Tindal, & Arroyo, 2005; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Park, 1997; Takallou, 2011; Tam, 2013; Wang, Spenser, & Xing, 2009; Wharton, 2000; Yang, 2007; Yang & Plakans, 2012). Furthermore, strategy research has indicated the connection between students' use of learning strategies and other significant learner variables like motivation (e.g., Bonney, Cortina, Smith-Darden, & Fiori, 2008; Domakani, Roohani, & Akbari, 2012; Okada, Oxford, & Abo, 1996; Park, 2005; Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001; Seo, 2001; Teh, Embi, Yusoff, & Mahamod, 2009; Wharton, 2000).

Among learner variables, some researchers consider motivation as the most important factor determining the types and frequencies of strategy use (e.g., Bialystok, 1981; Nyikos & Oxford, 1993; Politzer, 1983; Rahimi, Riazi, & Saif, 2008). However, whether motivation affects learning strategy use or whether strategy use causes motivation is a controversial matter which needs more research. Also, in all these studies, motivation has been considered as a whole construct, whereas it includes other factors like attitudes toward the learning situation or integrativeness. Above all, researchers in general concur that the limited and incomplete answers provided for many of the questions related to motivation have rarely been found in SL/FL context. Specifically, some investigators such as Graham (2003) and Dornyei (1994a, 2005) have repeatedly called for incorporating motivation study in foreign language learning.

Using Gardner's socio-educational model of foreign/second language learning, the study has focused on the socio-psychological variables that affect language learning, not by individual variables but together, on a sample of L2 learners as an effective way to improve English language learning and teaching.

1.3 Learning of English in the Iranian Language Learning Context

In Iran English is considered as a foreign language and hence the context is an EFL one. Foreign language learning refers to a language learned that is not generally spoken in the individual's area. While second language is a language an individual learns which is not his/her mother tongue, but is used in the area of the individual. In Iran English is formally taught at junior high schools and high schools for six years. The students start learning English when they are 12 years old. In addition, at pre-university level, the students can study English for one more year. Also, non-English major students take about 6 credits of general English and ESP. ESP courses focus on the terminologies related to the students' field of study. In both general English and ESP classes the students mostly read and translate the English texts. As also mentioned by Gholami (2011), Gholami, Allahyar, and Rafik-Galea (2012) stated that "teachers in this context use a combination of grammar-translation method and audio lingual method in most schools and teaching is basically a teacher-centered one" (p.1419). Although it seems that more emphasis has been put on communicative competence in the last decade, the grammar-translation method continues to be used by the teachers because the text books lack speaking and listening activities and the exams are mainly structural (Hosseini, 2007).

All decisions about the selection of textbooks as well as the exams are made by the Ministry of Education. As the first foreign language, English is dominantly used in the international conferences, foreign trade, sea navigation and "air traffic in international airports" (Gholami, Allahyar, & Rafik-Galea, 2012: 1419; Vaezi, 2008).

Although exposure and contact with the social context can positively impact learners' L2 learning (Spolsky, 1989), as stated by Gholami (2011), in Iran which is an EFL context, individuals have very limited exposure to English. Also, since EFL school textbooks do not emphasize the students' oral and aural skills and students' productive

abilities are not tested, teachers do not emphasize speaking, listening, and pronunciation (Gholami, Allahyar, & Rafik-Galea, 2012). Therefore, as some researchers have pointed out, at high schools and universities students achievement and proficiency is low and English does not progress to higher proficiency levels (Gholami, Allahyar, & Rafik-Galea, 2012).

Therefore, due to the weaknesses and limitations of the educational system at junior and high schools in Iran and the greater importance that English has found as an international language in recent years (Vaezi, 2008), individuals go to private language institutes to learn English well. Of these language institutes, Iran Language Institute is one of the most popular language institutes of Iran and the final grades are used to make decisions about a large group of language learners and hence many people will be influenced by these final scores. This language institute has different branches in different cities of Iran but all use the same text books, and the teachers adopt the same methods of teaching and testing, and procedure.

However, in general, according to Sadeghi (2005) and Vaezi (2008), "one of the most serious problems Iranian EFL students encounter is their inability to communicate and handle English after graduating" (cited in Gholami, Allahyar, & Rafik-Galea, 2012: 1417). Indeed according to Sadeghi (2005), in Iran learning as well as teaching English appear to be "a complicated task for both EFL learners and teachers" (cited in Gholami, Allahyar, & Rafik-Galea, 2012: 1417). Therefore, examining motivation in such a context in which the exposure is very limited and does not enforce the learners very much to learn English communicatively and practically, seems necessary. Specifically, as mentioned previously (see section 1.2), some investigators such as Graham (2003) and Dornyei (1994a, 2005) have repeatedly called for efforts to incorporate motivation study in foreign language learning.

Although some studies have been done on English learning motivation in Iran (see Chalak & Kassaian, 2010; Domakani, Roohani & Akbari, 2012; Sadighi & Maghsudi, 2000; Vaezi, 2008), all have focused on integrative versus instrumental motivation of high school or university students (Vaezi, 2008). Furthermore, as Gholami, Allahyar, and Rafik-Galea (2012) pointed out the findings of many of these studies display inconsistencies and contradict one another. Also, in all such researches motivation has been regarded as a single concept while as mentioned before Gardner (2005, 2007) states that motivation is a multifaceted concept involving different components, its essence cannot be captured by only one aspect. Therefore, these require more investigations particularly in a context like language institutes in which all skills and sub skills are taught and practiced.

In learning another language what seems to be of major importance is to discover how numerous factors (social, psychological, cognitive) act in concert with each other and with learning and achievement. Above all, researchers in general concur that the limited and incomplete answers provided to many of the questions related to motivation have rarely been found in SL/FL contexts.

1.4 Gardner's (2001) Socio-Educational Model

Motivation plays a crucial role in any learning task. It influences our choices of what to learn, our continuation at doing a task, and the effort expended towards achieving a goal (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). Hence, it is no surprise that researchers in L2 acquisition field have looked at the role of motivation in learning L2 and have found that motivation strongly affects success and proficiency in such a situation. Motivation is considered as one of the primary factors determining second/foreign language learning achievement (Gholami, Allahyar, & Rafik-Galea, 2012). As mentioned previously, Gardner and Lambert first showed this effect empirically in 1959. Based on this original study, the socio-educational model of L2 motivation was developed by

Gardner and his colleagues (Gardner, 2001a; MacIntyre, MacMaster, & Baker, 2001; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995).

University of Malaya

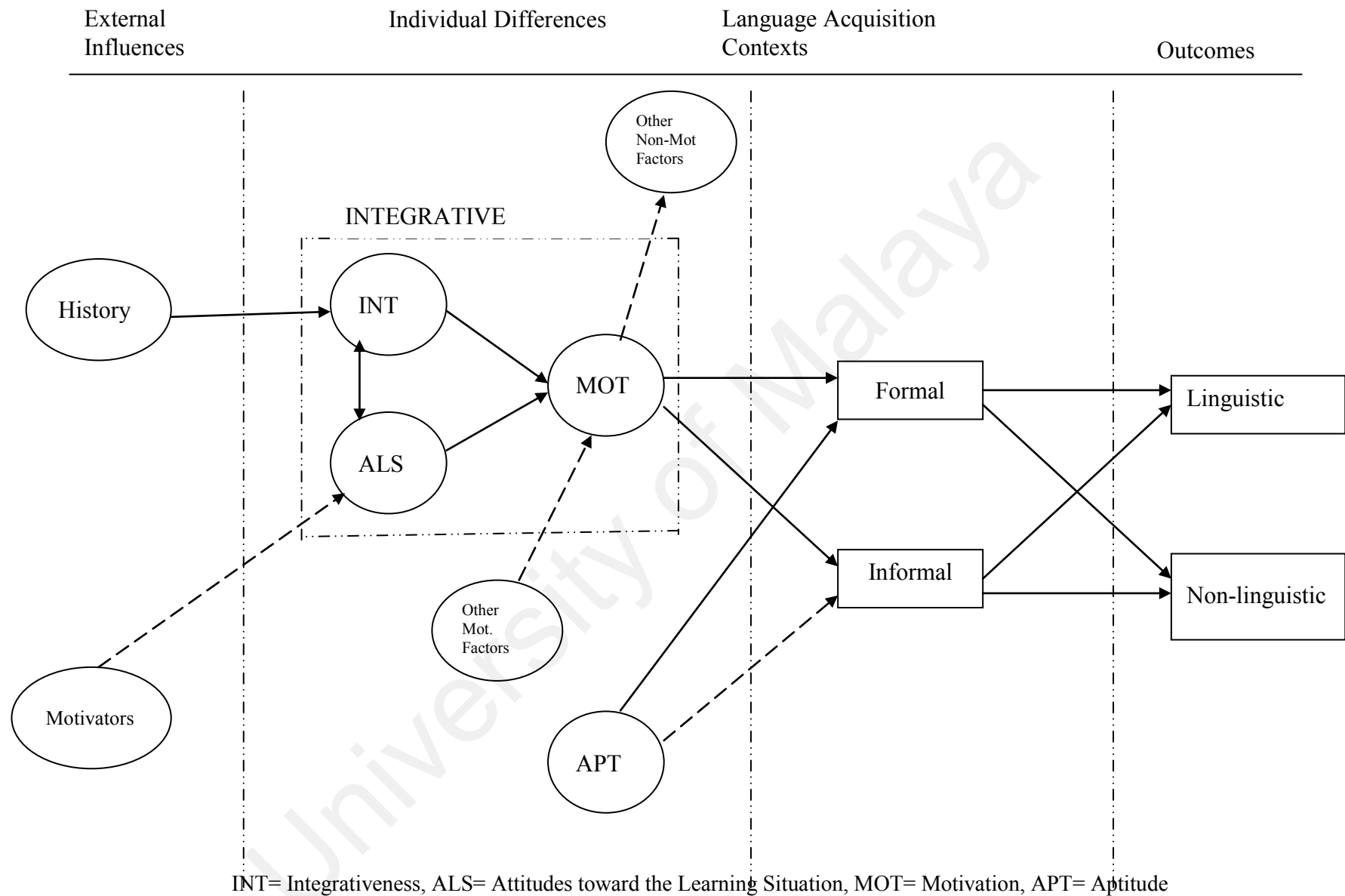


Figure 0.1: Socio-Educational Model (Gardner 2001)

As presented in Figure 1.1 above, the model comprises four parts: individual differences, external influences, context of language acquisition, and outcomes.

Variables that might affect language learning are referred to as External influences. Two categories of such effects are shown as motivators and history. History refers to a composite of personal and social factors individuals bring with them, influencing L2 acquisition, like the individuals' personal family background and the socio-cultural setting in which they live. Motivators involve four principles which are considered significant in this construction of motivation, namely making the basic conditions of motivation, producing student motivation, keeping and support motivation, and promoting individual positive self-evaluation. In the model, attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS) are directly affected by these motivators. Gardner (2001a) proposed that ALS can be affected by teacher variables and it is suggested that these indicate differences in techniques that teachers use to motivate the students.

Under the individual differences section, the variable motivation (MOT) is shown to be directly affected by the factors, attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS), and integrativeness (INT). The variable INT, is defined as a real interest in learning L2 to "come closer psychologically to the other language community" (Gardner, 2001a: 7). He defines the factor, ALS, as "attitudes toward any aspect of the situation in which the language is learned" (p.8), such as the course in general, the teacher, one's classmates, extra-curricular activities, the course materials, etc.

The factor MOT, concerns "the driving force in any situation." (Gardner, 2001: 8). In the model, L2 learning motivation requires three components. First, the motivated individuals attempt to learn the target language. Second, they want to reach the goal. Third, they will enjoy and love language learning task. These three elements are necessary to recognize more motivated from less motivated individuals; however, each

component, by itself, is not sufficient to show motivation. In other words, the motivated individual shows all three components simultaneously when learning the new language.

Motivation in Gardner's (2001a) socio-educational model (Fig 1.1) is supported by the variables – Integrativeness (INT) and Attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS) all of which together as a complex of goal-directed, attitudinal, and motivational characteristics form an integrative motive to enhance language learning.

As Figure 1.1 shows, these three classes of variables, that is, INT, ALS, and MOT, together form a complex of goal-directed, attitudinal, and motivational characteristics called integrative motivation. In the model, INT and ALS are two connected supports for motivation, however as Gardner (2001a, 2007) and Masgoret and Gardner (2003) believe only motivation is considered as the cause of achievement in L2. Formal and informal contexts are affected by both Motivation and aptitude. Formal learning contexts is defined as any kind of situation in which language teaching occur such as the language laboratory, language classroom, language computer laboratories, while any other environment in which the a person might learn language is the informal context like radio and television broadcasts, language clubs, movies, and written material. In these contexts the language is experienced in an environment where no instruction takes place. Motivation has a direct effect on such a context.

The language aptitude has a role in what amount the person would profit from the learning experience, but it has an indirect influence, because it does not play any role until the person had entered the setting. However, as the figure also shows, aptitude enhances successful learning in a formal situation.

Both kinds of language learning contexts, namely formal and informal have linguistic and non-linguistic results. Linguistic outcomes are different aspects of language proficiency (i.e., vocabulary, grammar, aural comprehension, oral production,

etc). Non-linguistic outcomes are other language learning outcomes like various attitudes, motivation, language anxiety, willingness to utilize the language, etc.

As also stated previously (see section 1.1), two other kinds of variables are also indicated in the model. These factors are supposed not to have any direct relationship with the learning contexts. One is named other motivational factors, which has a possible influence on MOT. Therefore, there might be instrumental variables which contributes to motivation (Dornyei 1994a, 2001), or other individual motivational variables (Gardner, Tremblay and Masgoret, 1997). Such individual difference factors that could promote motivation are self-confidence, self-efficacy and all other personal traits that increase motivation. The second factor is called other non-motivational variables which involve factors like language learning strategies. Gardner (2001a) believes that employing such strategies can affect language achievement by giving techniques and schema to help learning the material and to the degree that they have a role in learning the language it would be assumed that they would be utilized by the motivated individuals, and thus the potential connection between MOT and other non-motivating variables. Gardner (2001a) does not consider these other non-motivational variables to be linked to learning contexts in any way: directly or indirectly.

The variable aptitude (APT) is not considered in this study since the researcher aims to refer specifically to personality and learning strategies and to investigate the other-motivational and other non-motivational factors namely self-efficacy and strategy use as two important factors contributing to motivation, but not aptitude, and hence second/foreign language achievement. Gardner (2005) maintains that motivation and aptitude are independent of each other since some learners who have high ability may have high or low motivation for a large number of reasons, and vice versa (p.5). Moreover, the relationship between motivation and learners' aptitude has been well researched since 1990's (Gardner, 1994). Therefore, there is a need to focus on

discovering the influence of other factors on motivation and second/foreign language learning. In his recent work, Gardner (2008) did not include language aptitude (Bernaus and Gardner, 2008). Above all one of the features of a good model, as it is with the socio-educational model, is to be testable; the researcher must be able to formulate and test different hypotheses based on that model (Gardner, 2001a). In the socio-educational model different variables together with the means of measuring them are identified and hence different hypotheses about the effect of motivation in L2 learning can be evaluated (Gardner, 2001a).

Therefore, the model upon which the present study is based is an adapted form of Gardner's (2001a) Socio-Educational model in which "other motivational factors", which is a vague term has been replaced by the clearly defined term self-efficacy, and "other non-motivational factors" by language learning strategy use.

1.5 Definition of Key Terms

For a better understanding, the terms motivation, self-efficacy, and language learning strategies are defined clearly below.

1.5.1 Motivation

As stated by Gardner (2001a, 2005, 2007) providing a simple definition for motivation is impossible because it is a very complex and multifaceted construct. Similar propositions have been given by researchers like Dornyei (2003), Csizer and Dornyei (2005), Noels, Pelletier, Clement, and Vallerand (2003), Schmidt and Watanabe (2001), and Gardner (1985). Therefore, describing motivation in simple and clear terms seems complex and different definitions have been given for the term motivation (Gholami, Allahyar, & Rafik-Galea, 2012).

Results of studies in the area of motivation in general and second language (SL) or foreign language (FL) learning in particular have very often produced perplexed relationships and ambiguous findings that complicate the understanding of SL/FL

motivation. These discrepancies all seem to lie in the fact that each theory defines and uses the same terms in a rather different fashion. A comparison between the definitions provided by psychologists and second language teaching specialists show that both groups share views on the multiplicity of factors motivating students. In other words, theorists and researchers from both fields believe that motivation is a multi factorial entity not a single one and is usually originated by a number of causes. However, these causes seem to be identified differently by psychologists and L2 experts. While the former recognize these sources to be intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic reward or a combination of both (Deci and Ryan 1985; Dickinson 1995; Fisher 1990), the latter consider them to be related to integrative or instrumental purposes (Gardner & Lambert 1972; Gardner 1985). Although the traditional view of L2 motivation dominated the field of second/ foreign language learning for a long time, new dimensions have been recently added to the concept by other researchers. As mentioned previously, in this study, Gardner's (2001a, 2005, 2007) definition of motivation has been adopted which defines motivation as the interdependency of aim, desire to attain the aim, effort, and positive affect.

He stated that motivated individuals are: goal-directed, they make effort in achieving their aim, they are persistent and attendant to the tasks as are required to attain the aims, they strongly desire to achieve the goals and enjoy the activities and tasks that are required to accomplish the goals (Gardner, 2001a, 2005, 2007, 2010).

1.5.2 Self-efficacy

As stated by Grabe (2009), educational psychologists consider self-efficacy as a major element or the main characteristic of social cognitive theory.

As stated by Bandura (1986, 1997) in social cognitive theory, learning is affected by the complex interaction of the person's beliefs, environment, and behavior (Schunk, 2004, Schunk & Zimmerman, 2006). According to this theory, humans have a system of

self-beliefs that make them capable to be in charge of their own thoughts, feelings, as well as actions; "what people think, believe, and feel affect how they behave" (Bandura, 1986: 25). Then, based on the results of a particular behavior, the individuals create some expectations for future behavior and hence, they become the products as well as the producers of their own surroundings (Millis, 2004). Indeed in this theory, individuals are capable of affecting and shaping their environment (Raofi, Tan, & Chan, 2012).

Identified as another motivational construct in educational psychology literature, as mentioned before (see section 1.1), self-efficacy is referred to as "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" by Bandura (1997: 3). A person's self-efficacy is an indicator of past successes, abilities, willingness to exert effort and the likelihood to persist towards an achievement goal (Bandura, 1982). Perceived self-efficacy has a very significant role in individual functioning since it influences behavior both directly and by its effect on other key determining factors like outcome expectations, goals and aspirations, and understanding of obstructions and occasions in the social situation (Bandura, 1995, 1997). Efficacy beliefs influence the individuals in if they think self-enhancingly or self-debilitatingly, pessimistically or optimistically; the aims and challenges they put for themselves and their obligation and commitment to them; the kind of courses of activity they prefer to continue; the amount of effort they extend in an enterprise; the amount of time they persist when they encounter impediments; the results they hope their attempts to make; their resiliency to suffering or adversity; the performances they accomplish; and how much depression and stress they feel when dealing taxing environmental requirements (Bandura, 2001).

At this point it should be mentioned that although oftentimes self-efficacy, self-confidence and self-esteem are used interchangeably, they are in fact different concepts.

As mentioned above, self-efficacy is individuals' judgments of their abilities, whereas self-confidence refers to the strength of such judgments. As for self-esteem, it is related to individuals' judgments of self-worth and his feelings of self-like or dislike. Bandura (1997) states that although one might not feel competent in a certain area of activity, lacking a feeling of self-efficacy, one might not underestimate oneself in terms of worthiness and worthlessness. Mone, Baker and Jeffries (1995) further differentiate self-efficacy and self-esteem by mentioning that the former predicts the goals people set for themselves and their performance attainments, while the latter has no effect on personal goals or performance.

The two concepts of self-esteem and self-efficacy are not only different in the way they are defined, but also in the sources that cause them. According to Bandura (1986, 1997), self-esteem can result from self-evaluations based on personal competence or the possession of attitudes that are culturally stereotyped as positive or negative. On the other hand, as cited in Pajares (1996c) and Bandura (1997) sources of self-efficacy beliefs are mastery experience (the individuals' interpretations of their actions), vicarious experience (the results brought about by the acts of others), verbal persuasion (exposure to the verbal judgments of others) and physiological states (physical reactions to anticipated events). One must be cautious, therefore, not to equate the two concepts or consider them as holding part-whole relationships within the same phenomena (Bandura, 1997).

Therefore, as a motivational variable, self-efficacy is potentially capable of influencing a person's desire for learning, the effort the person puts forth and the enjoyment the person feels during the learning process. Similarly, as Gardner (2001a) shows in his model, a number of motivational and non-motivational constructs influence learners' foreign language achievement. Being motivational, the self-efficacy trait could

be measured and accounted for in the socio-educational model, which is what the present study attempts to do.

1.5.3 Language Learning Strategies

To define learning strategies, a review of related literature shows that O'Malley and Chamot (1990) believed that the process by which learning strategies were retrieved and stored could be identified. Therefore, the description provided for learning strategies, as stated by Flemens (2008), originated from Anderson's (1980) cognitive theory. The theory pinpoints how information is retrieved and stored (Chamot & O'Malley, 1990; Oxford, 1990). In the cognitive model, learning is considered as an active process and learners have an active role in the learning process; learners choose information from their surrounding, organize it, connect it to previous knowledge, keep the important parts, and recover it when necessary (Anderson, 1980; Chamot and O'Malley, 1994). Many researchers believe that the learners who have an active role in their own learning are better learners than those who are not active participants (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994; Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 2000).

A close look at the literature on language learning strategies will indicate that in virtually all the definitions given for the term "language learning strategies" (e.g., Cohen, 1998a; Dansereau, 1985; Ellis, 1994; Jones, Palinscar, Ogle, & Carr, 1987; Nickerson, 1988; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Rigney, 1978; Rubin, 1975, 1987; Weinstein & Underwood, 1985), they are considered to be consciously selected specific procedures and methods that make the learning, retention and the utilization of language-related information easy. In other words, as Alexander and Judy (1988) put it, the learners' knowledge of strategies is crucial to the acquisition and use of knowledge, which in turn, facilitate more strategy use. Specifically, among all definitions of learning strategies, Oxford's (1990) definition is viewed as one of the most appropriate and oftentimes referred to explanations given to date. She described learning strategies

as "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations" (Oxford, 1990: 8).

As related to the socio-educational model (Gardner, 2001a), "non-motivational variables" involve factors like learning strategies, which influence language learning. Since Gardner does not concentrate much on the classification of the term "strategy", Oxford's (1990) classification of strategy which allows more specificity regarding self-efficacy assessment, is used for the purpose of clarity of discussion in the present study. Oxford (1990), views learning strategies as L2 learning tools that involving six types of strategies which are divided into direct and indirect categories. Direct strategies include (a) memory strategies, such as using pictures and sounds for language items, making mental connections between material, employing action based on the situation, and reviewing the learnt items well (b) cognitive strategies, which involve examining and arguing and producing structures for input and output, receiving, employing, and sending messages, and (c) compensation strategies, including surmounting limitations in writing and speaking and guessing intelligently. On the other hand, indirect strategies involve (a) metacognitive strategies, like planning learning, and assessing learning, (b) affective strategies, including self-encouragement, lowering anxiety, and (c) social strategies, such as collaborating with others, sympathizing with others, and asking questions.

1.6 Objectives of the Study

This study addresses two main objectives. The first objective of this study is to determine the relation of self-efficacy, language learning strategy use, and motivation with each other and with the English language achievement of Iranian EFL students, using Gardner's (2001a) socio-educational model of SL/FL learning. The second objective of this study is to determine the correlation between integrativeness and

attitudes toward the learning situation and how they relate to self-efficacy, language learning strategy use, and motivation as well as to the English language achievement among Iranian EFL students.

1.7 Research Questions

The objectives noted above are going to be realized by the following research questions:

1a. What is the structural relationship between the variables, namely, motivation (MOT), strategy use (STR), self efficacy (SE), and language achievement (ACH), in the proposed adapted version of Gardner's model in an Iranian English language learning context?

1b. What is the structural relation of attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS) and integrativeness (INT), with motivation (MOT), strategy use (STR), self efficacy (SE), and language achievement (ACH), in the proposed adapted version of Gardner's model in an Iranian English language learning context?

1c. Is there a correlation between the Iranian EFL students' attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS) and integrativeness (INT)?

1.8. The Proposed Conceptual Model and Hypotheses

The model upon which the present study is based is an adapted form of Gardner's (2001a) Socio-Educational model. In the adapted version "other motivational factors", which is a vague term has been replaced by the clearly defined term "self-efficacy", and "other non-motivational factors" by "language learning strategy use". According to Gardner (2001a) and the literature on L2 learning and educational psychology (for example, Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997), one could conclude that "other motivational factors" could refer to concepts such as self-efficacy and the "other non-motivational" ones to language learning-strategy use. As a result, a number of arrows indicating possible relationships can be added to the figure. These paths are added according to what exists in the relevant literature. These paths together with the ones

already existing in the original model are presented, supported and shown in figure 1.2 below.

Since the proposed model, shown in Figure 1.2 below, and the relationships between the variables, are complex, to clarify the relationships and hypotheses, the overall model is broken down into the following subordinate models for each hypothesis. Indirect paths are represented by dashed arrows in the subordinate models.

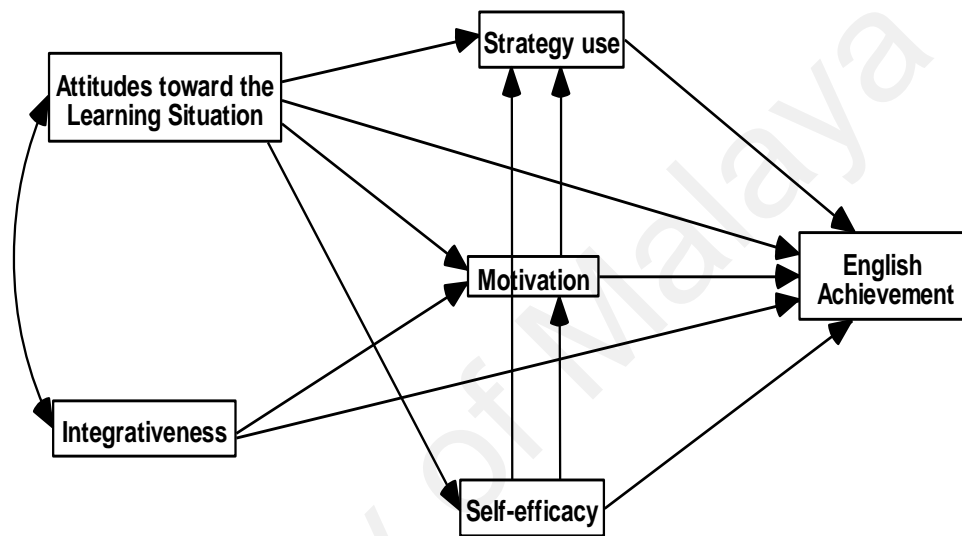


Figure 0.1: Proposed conceptual model

The significantly high positive relationship between attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS) i.e. "attitudes toward any aspect of the situation in which the language is learned" (p.8), such as the course in general, the teacher, one's classmates, extra-curricular activities, the course materials, etc. and Integrativeness (INT) i.e. a real interest in learning L2 to "come closer psychologically to the other language community" (Gardner, 2001a: 7), has been shown in different studies (e.g., Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Gardner, 1985, 1995, 2000, 2001a, 2001b, 2005, 2007; Gardner & Smyth, 1975, 1981; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Masgoret, Bernaus, & Gardner, 2001). Therefore, it would be expected that persons with high levels of integrativeness and those who are fond of learning the target language to become identified and integrated with another language community and culture possess a positive view toward language

learning situation and vice versa. Based on such studies, the following hypothesis is suggested.

H1: Attitudes toward the learning situation are positively correlated to integrativeness (see Figure 1.3).

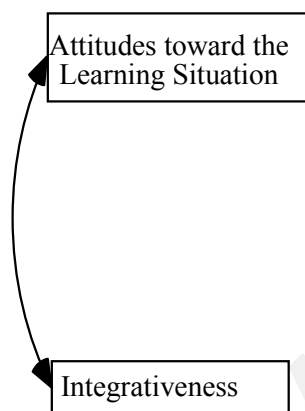


Figure 0.2: Subordinate model 1: the relation of attitudes toward the learning situation with integrativeness

Self-efficacy can be affected by ALS. Masgoret, Bernaus, and Gardner (2001) reported that among the variables influencing the students' judgments of their English ability and achievement, ALS showed to have the most influence. Similarly, Huang and Chang (1996) found that learners' ALS has a great positive influence on their self-efficacy and particularly this variable, self-efficacy, was affected by participants' attitudes toward class assignment topics as well as feeling and perceptions of the teacher's support. The direct positive effect of attitudes toward the learning situation on self-efficacy has also been reported by Cheung and Huang (2005), Garcia (2007), Huang and Chang (1998), and Tremblay and Gardner (1995). In another study, Durndell and Haag (2002) also came to the conclusion that learners' attitudes related to their self-efficacy. Furthermore, a recent study, (Sani and Zain 2011) indicated that learners with more positive attitudes displayed higher levels of self-efficacy in L2. Such an effect emphasizes the need to promote students' attitudes and self-efficacy in order to improve

L2 reading (Sani & Zain, 2011). Swalander and Taube (2007) also found that learners' attitudes affected their reading ability, verbal self-concept as well as their self-efficacy. Wang (2004) has also reported that students' attitudes were among the factors affecting self-efficacy. Based on such studies, the following hypothesis is suggested.

H2: Attitudes toward the learning situation relate positively and directly to self-efficacy (see Figure 1.4).

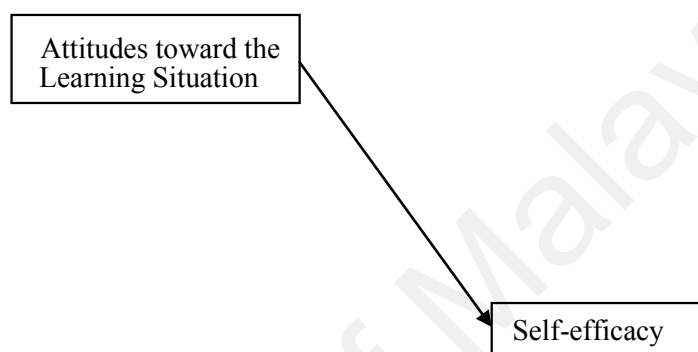


Figure 0.3: Subordinate model 2: the direct influence of attitudes toward the learning situation on self-efficacy

Attitudes have played an effective role in the language learners' application and choice of learning strategies as well as successful second or foreign language learning (Chamot and Kupper, 1989). Different researchers have argued that attitudes or attitudinal variables are powerful and significant sources of influence on students' language learning strategies use and the extent of using such strategies (Oxford, 1990; Oxford, Nyikos, & Crookall, 1987; Politzer, 1983; Politzer & McGroarty, 1985; Yin, 2008).

Gardner (2000) himself stated that ALS could influence learner's use of strategies. Similarly, in exploring the individual difference factors including attitudes, that predict English learning strategy use, Mistar (2001) found that attitudes were significant predictor of students' strategy use. The findings of MacIntyre and Noels' (1996) study

on Gardner's socio-educational model also affirmed that learner's ALS has a significant positive correlation with strategy use.

The important direct effect of attitudes on strategy use is also shown in Kuramoto's (2002) research which showed that as students established more positive attitudes, they used more and more learning strategies. In their study, Hakuta and D'Andrea (1992) again concluded that students' attitudes did affect their use of strategies. Bialystok (1978, 1981) reported that language learning attitudes determine the learners' application and choice of language learning strategies. Moreover, in their strategy training research, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) found that students' negative attitude and lack of motivation caused one instructor to stop strategy training.

Furthermore, in Gardner's (2001a) study the possible effect of motivation on other Non-motivational factors which include learning strategy use creates the possibility that ALS and INT influence learners' strategy use through the mediation of motivation; the way learners evaluate their class and learning environment as well as their interest in the other language itself and learning it to identify and integrate with another language community and culture, affect their motivation to learn, which in turn influences their utilization of strategies and such an indirect link is also consistent with the findings of Gardner, Tremblay, and Masgoret (1997). On the basis of these studies, thus, the following hypotheses are suggested.

H3: Attitudes toward the learning situation have direct positive impact on strategy use, and have an indirect impact on strategy use through motivation (see Figure 1.5).

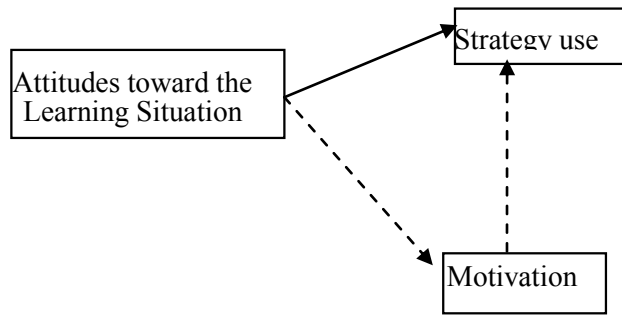


Figure 0.4: Subordinate model 3: the direct and indirect (through motivation) influences of attitudes toward the learning situation on strategy use

H4: Integrativeness is indirectly related to strategy use through motivation (see Figure 1.6).

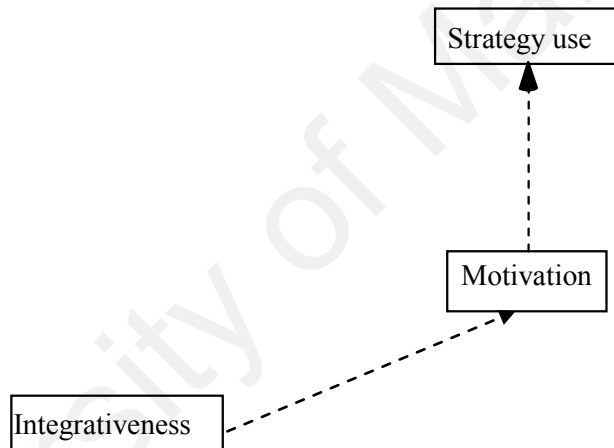


Figure 0.5: Subordinate model 4: the indirect (through motivation) influence of integrativeness on strategy use

Motivation can have an important influence on language learning strategy use. In addition to Gardner's (2001a) statement regarding the potential connection between MOT and learning strategy use, based on the findings of their research, Mistar (2001) and Oxford and Nyikos (1989) emphasized that among the factors influencing language learning strategy use, motivation was regarded as the best predictor of strategy use and was considered as the single factor that has the greatest effect on strategies in language learning. Compared with the learners who are less motivated, those who are highly motivated utilize more strategies frequently (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Lavasani &

Faryadres, 2011; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989). The plausible explanation is that the more motivated the learners are, the more likely they are to expend effort and time required to employ in using strategy, because strategies are referred to as behaviors requiring effort (MacIntyre & Noels, 1996). Specifically, among learner variables, motivation is considered as the most important factor determining the types and frequencies of strategy use (Bialystok, 1981; Nyikos & Oxford, 1993; Politzer, 1983). Therefore, using FL/SL learning strategies is dependent on the variable motivation (Mohammadi, Moenikia, & Zahed-Babelan, 2010). In his research, Engin (2009) also concluded that students' language achievement and learning techniques can be developed by teachers' understanding of the significance of motivation. In this regard as mentioned previously in section 1.2, Dornyei (2005) has asserted that to some extent, all the variables involved in FL/SL learning presuppose motivation. Also, MacIntyre's (1994) model of strategy use and Yin's (2008) study show that motivation is a strong source of influence on students' use of English learning strategies. All these claims confirm the significant role played by motivation in learners' language learning strategy use.

Among the studies which have investigated the direct influence of motivation on language learning strategy use are those of Bonney, Cortina, Smith-Darden, and Fiori (2008), Gardner, Tremblay, and Masgoret (1997), MacIntyre and Noels (1996), Mistar (2001), Mohammadi, Moenikia, and Zahed-Babelan (2010), Oxford, Nyikos, and Crookall (1987), Politzer (1983), Politzer and McGroarty (1985), Schmidt and Watanabe (2001), Seo (2001). The results of these studies show that motivation positively and directly impacts specific language learning strategy use and overall strategy use. The relation of motivation to strategy use in language learning has been also indicated in different studies (see Chun-huan, 2010; Domakani, Roohani, & Akbari, 2012; He, 2001; Okada, Oxford, & Abo, 1996; Oxford & Ehrman, 1995; Park,

2005; Prokop, 1989; Schmidt et al., 1996; Teh, Embi, Yusoff, & Mahamod, 2009; Wharton, 2000).

Hence, the following hypothesis is suggested.

H5: Motivation positively impacts language learning strategy use (see Figure 1.7).

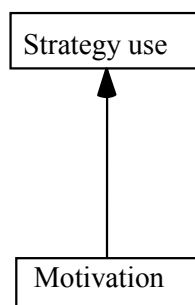


Figure 0.6: Subordinate model 5: the direct influence of motivation on strategy use

Motivation has a direct influence on and is responsible for second/foreign language achievement. Studies have shown that high levels of second or foreign language achievement can be achieved based on motivation (Bernaus, Wilson, & Gardner, 2009; Gardner, 2000, 2001a, 2005; Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). Also, as proposed by Gardner (1985) and Spolsky (1989), motivation promotes overall effort and causes successful second or foreign language achievement and proficiency. Kam (2006) maintains that an essential condition for learners to learn the target language is to have high levels of motivation which will cause high language achievement. Indeed, second or foreign language teachers and researchers generally believe that motivation is an effective contributor to learners' language learning success (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 2001c; Ellis, 1994; Lett & O'Mara, 1990; Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Motivation causes learners to make effort, exert time, and persist on different kinds of learning tasks (Clark & Estes, 2002; Gardner, 2001b).

This may show the extensive understanding of teachers who consider learner motivation as the most significant variable in educational success (Dörnyei, 2001b). In

his study, Engin (2009) concluded that students' language achievement and learning techniques can be developed by teachers' understanding of the significance of motivation.

The direct positive impact of motivation on English language achievement is indicated in some studies (e.g., Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Bernaus, Wilson, & Gardner, 2009; Gardner, 1983, 2007; Gardner & Smythe, 1981; Kam, 2006; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Mohammadi, Moenikia, & Zahed-Babelan, 2010; Yuanfang, 2009). In addition, some studies have found strong relationships between motivation and L2 achievement (Clement, 1980; Dornyei & Clement, 2001; Gardner, 1979, 1985, 1988, 2006; Kam 2002; Masgoret, Bernaus, & Gardner, 2001; McDermott, Mordell, & Stoltzfus, 2001; McGroarty, 1996; Noels, 2001; Oxford, 1996; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Thang, Ting, & Jaafar, 2011). Therefore, the following hypothesis is suggested based on these studies.

According to Scarcella and Oxford (1992) motivation results in using different kinds of language learning strategies which can help develop higher levels of second or foreign language achievement and greater language-learning skills. Indeed, motivation is considered as a predictor for language learning strategy use which in turn promotes high levels of second/foreign language achievement or higher language-learning skills (Ellis, 1994; Kam, 2006; Oxford, Nyikos, & Crookall, 1987). In addition to Gardner's (2001a) explanation regarding the possible connection between motivation, language learning strategies, and language achievement, in their investigation on the influence of motivation on strategy use and language achievement, Oxford and Nyikos (1989), observed that motivation showed a strong impact on learners' utilization of strategies and students who utilized strategies more frequently showed higher language achievement. Generally, as stated by Bonney, Smith-Darden, and Fiori (2008), several researchers have proposed that learners' utilization of strategies can mediate the

relationship between motivation and academic achievement, especially in psychology and science domains (see Pintrich, 2000; Pintrich & Garcia, 1991; Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, & McKeachie, 1993).

And specifically, different studies have shown that motivated strategies for SL/FL learning is regarded as the predictor for language achievement including English (Brown, 2001; Dornyei, 2003; Gardner, 2000; Mohammadi, Moenikia, & Zahed-Babelan, 2010; Pintrich, 2003; Ryan, & Deci, 2000; Skinner, & Madden, 2009). On the basis of such studies, thus, the following hypothesis is suggested.

H6: Motivation directly and positively affects English achievement, and indirectly and positively affects English achievement through strategy use (see Figure 1.8).

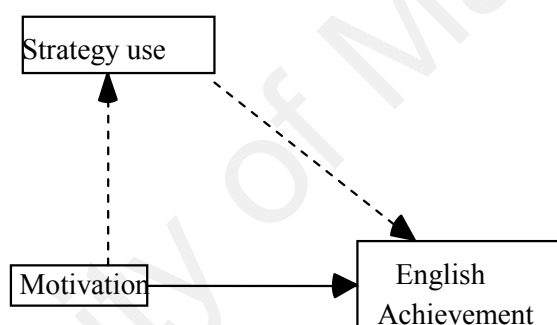


Figure 0.7: Subordinate model 6: the direct and indirect (through strategy use) influences of motivation on English achievement

However, as mentioned by Gardner (2001a) this does not mean that ALS and INT measures do not directly affect second or foreign language achievement. As stated by Krashen (1981), "attitudes play a largely filtering role in influencing the extent to which second or foreign language material is satisfactorily input" (p. 2). Gardner (2000) pointed out that attitudes including ALS and INT, are important factors because they affect the learner's activeness in L2 learning. The significant effect of these two variables on language achievement was also shown by Gardner in 2005 and Lalonde and Gardner in 1985. Littlewood (1983 as cited in Thang, Ting, & Jaafar, 2011: 41) claims that negative attitudes "produce an obstacle in the learning process" and prevent

the students from learning L2 knowledge. Attitudes are considered as contributors to second or foreign language proficiency and achievement (Lett & O'Mara, 1990; Spolsky, 1969). In another study, Hsieh (2008) reported attitudes to be good predictors of foreign language achievement. Martinez, Perez, and Fernandez (2013) also found that students with higher English achievement indicated more positive attitudes toward learning including their teacher and textbooks. Indeed, differences in motivation and attitudes will cause dissimilarities in the target language achievement (Lalonde & Gardner, 1985). In addition, in the context of foreign language learning many investigators have proposed that learners' success in language learning is significantly affected by motivation and attitude (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei, 2003, 2005; Ehrman & Oxford, 1995; Gardner & Lambert, 1972).

The significant direct positive effect of these two factors, INT and ALS, on English language achievement has been indicated by some researchers including, Bernaus, Wilson, and Gardner (2009), Csizér and Dörnyei (2005), Dörnyei and Clément (2001), Kam (2006), and Masgoret and Gardner (2003). The direct but negative effect of ALS on English achievement has also been shown in Bernaus and Gardner's study (2008). Furthermore, strong positive relationships have been seen between the two variables and second or foreign language achievement including English (e.g., Atay & Kurt, 2010; Gardner, 1985, 2005, 2007; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; Gordon, 1980; Lalonde & Gardner, 1985; Masgoret, Bernaus & Gardner 2001; Sani & Zain, 2011; Spolsky, 1989; Zairi, 1996). Hence, the following hypothesis is suggested.

In several studies done by Gardner himself (1983, 1985, 2000, 2001a, 2001b, 2005, 2007) and together with his colleagues (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Gardner, Lalonde & Pierson, 1983; Gardner, Masgoret, & Tremblay, 1999; Gardner & Smythe, 1975; Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Tremblay &

Gardner, 1995) it has been shown that these two variables (attitudes toward the learning situation and integrativeness), directly influence the learner's motivation and are seen as positive predictors and support for motivation; motivation is affected and maintained by integrativeness and attitudes toward the learning situation. In formal contexts, the learning environment and classroom dynamics play a significant role in motivation and FL/SL learning (Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994; Gardner, 1985, 2007).

Furthermore, Dörnyei and his colleagues have postulated integrativeness can strongly predict high motivation and language achievement (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Clément, 2001). Kam (2006) found that students' attitudes including attitudes toward the learning situation and integrativeness highly affected their motivation and specifically he mentioned that attitudes toward English courses were significant in forming learners' motivation.

Not only is motivation affected and maintained by attitudes toward the learning situation and integrativeness but it also mediates the actual influence of these variables on English language achievement (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008, Gardner, 2007). Individuals who possess open integrative attitudes and show positive attitudes toward the learning situation, are motivated to learn the target language, hence obtain high levels of target language achievement (Gardner, 1979, 1985, 2000; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991; Gardner & Smythe, 1981; Gardner, Smythe, Clément, & Glikzman, 1976; Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997). Holmes (1992) believes that individuals who have positive feelings towards the target language group are highly motivated and as a result are more successful in learning another language. The effect of motivation on second or foreign language achievement and specifically on English language achievement as supported by the two factors, namely integrativeness and attitudes toward the learning situation, is shown in different studies (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008, Gardner, 1983, 1997, 2000, 2001a, 2001b, 2005, 2007; Kam, 2006). Therefore, the two

variables, INT and ALS, will not specifically affect second or foreign language achievement highly unless they are linked with motivation (Gardner, 2000, 2005). It is predicted that motivation has a higher influence on second or foreign language achievement than do ALS or INT (Gardner, 2001b, 2005, 2007; Gardner & Smythe, 1975; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). Therefore, the following hypothesis is presented.

The relationship between attitudes and second/foreign language achievement can also be mediated by self-efficacy. Huang and Chang (1996) found that students' attitudes affected their performance through self-efficacy. Also, Huang and Chang (1998) studying Chinese learners of English reported that students' attitudes have shown to be among the factors that influenced self-efficacy beliefs which in turn affected learners' achievement. Masgoret, Bernaus, and Gardner (2001) also reported that among the variables influencing the students' judgments of their English ability and achievement, ALS had the most effect and such judgments were found to influence the learners' measure of English achievement. The following hypotheses are suggested based on such studies.

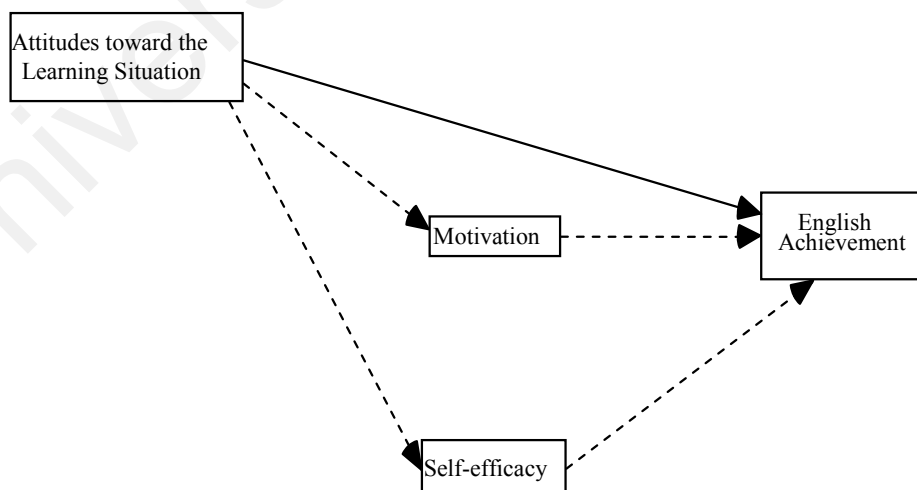


Figure 0.8: Subordinate model 7: the direct and indirect (through motivation and through self-efficacy) influences of attitudes toward the learning situation on English achievement

H7: Attitudes toward the learning situation relate positively and directly to English language achievement, and relate indirectly to English achievement through motivation, and through self-efficacy (see Figure 1.9).

H8: Integrativeness relates positively and directly to English language achievement, and relates indirectly to English achievement through motivation (see Figure 1.10).

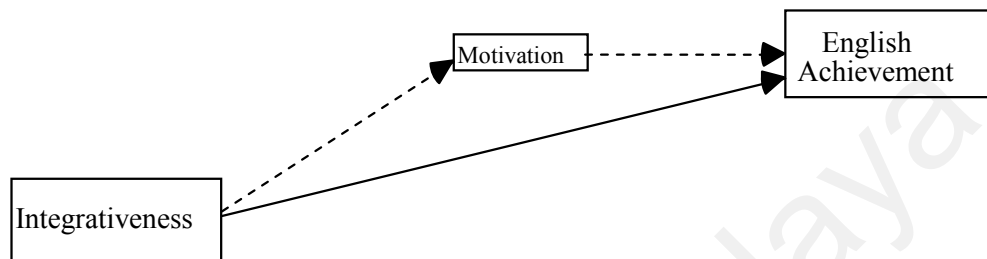


Figure 0.9: Subordinate model 8: the direct and indirect (through motivation) influences of integrativeness on English achievement

Motivation is not only supported by ALS and INT but also by self-efficacy. Individuals' self-efficacy, defined as "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments, affect almost everything they do; how they think, motivate themselves, feel, and behave" (Bandura, 1997: 3, 19). As mentioned in the background of the present study (section 1.2), employing the self-efficacy construct in language learning context seems to be highly appropriate because language learners' assessment of their ability to perform language skills has a great influence on their motivation as well as the behaviors needed to achieve a learning goal (Wu, 2006). Therefore, self-efficacy has a strong influence over an individual's choice of actions, the type of effort he expends, and the degree of effort maintained when facing difficulty (Bandura, 1997). In the L2 literature, as stated by Ehrman (1996), self-efficacy is regarded as an important or key variable which affects second/foreign language learners' motivation. In the same vein, Deci and Ryan (1985) maintained that feeling efficacious and possessing a sense of accomplishment is one of the primary conditions of motivation. Individuals who think that their failure or success

is caused by the variables within their control tend to have higher motivation and have also more positive expectation for future accomplishments than learners who think that success cannot be determined or controlled and that failure is permanent (Weiner, 1979).

Therefore, self-efficacy has a crucial role in L2 learning motivation (Bandura, 1997; Dornyei, 2001a; Ehrman, 1996; Pintrich 1999; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002; Wolters & Rosenthal 2000; Zimmerman, 2000) and is considered as a significant predictor of learners' motivation and language learning (Ehrman & Oxford, 1995; Horwitz, 1988; Saito, Horwitz & Garza, 1999; Zimmerman, 2000). The reason for such a role is that for learners to be capable of focusing on learning with maximum effort and determination, they must have a sound view of their abilities in learning (Dornyei, 2001b).

Moreover, as mentioned by Zhang (1995), self-efficacy beliefs have made contributions to motivation in several ways: it can determine the amount of effort individuals put forth, the purposes that they put for themselves, how long they persist when facing difficulties, and their ability to recover quickly from failure. "Students with high efficacy set themselves challenging goals and maintain strong commitment to them. They maintain a task-diagnostic focus that guides effective performance. They heighten and sustain their efforts in the face of failure" (Bandura, 1993: 144). Therefore, an individual's desire for learning, the effort the person expends as well as the enjoyment he feels in the learning process can be influenced by self-efficacy as a motivational variable. In their studies, Hsieh (2008), Tremblay and Gardner (1995), Tuckman and Abry (1998) showed that in language learning, self-efficacy has a direct positive influence on motivation. Therefore, the following hypothesis is suggested based on these studies.

H9: Self-efficacy positively impacts motivation (see Figure 1.11).

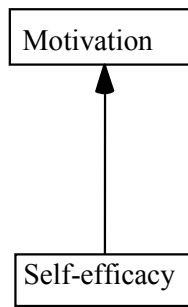


Figure 0.10: Subordinate model 9: the direct influence of self-efficacy on motivation

Language learners are supposed to hold various competence-focused judgments dependent upon their previous learning experiences, and such judgments influence how they employ different learning strategies in the learning process (Oxford, 1990). Learners who show positive motivational beliefs like high self-efficacy often possess increased levels of cognitive processing and employ increased metacognitive strategies (Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990; Pintrich & Garcia, 1991). Indeed, "students need a sense of efficacy for learning material before they will engage in strategic effort" (Meyer, Turner, & Spencer, 1997: 503); learners with low self-efficacy do not try as much required to make or use efficient strategies. Some investigators have proposed that the way learners employ learning strategies as well as the way they learn a foreign or second language are influenced by their self-efficacy (Abraham & Vann, 1987; Horwitz, 1987, 1988; Wenden, 1986, 1987). Pajares and Schunk (2001) also discovered that learners who thought that they had the ability to perform tasks employed more metacognitive as well as cognitive learning strategies compared with the students who did not.

The direct positive impact of self-efficacy on language learning strategy is shown in studies such as those of Pintrich and Garcia (1991), Wolters and Pintrich (1998), Pintrich and DeGroot (1990), Schunk and Gunn (1986), Schunk and Rice (1993), and Tuckman and Abry (1998). Therefore, the learners who have high judgments about themselves and their abilities are more likely to employ strategies which assist them to

learn and use the language they are studying. Specifically related to cognitive strategies, as cited in Ma (2010), various studies (e.g., Pintrich & Schrauben, 1992; Schunk, 1983, 1984, 1987, 1996) have shown that students who have high self-efficacy typically employ various cognitive strategies to enhance learning. Kim (2001), and Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1990) also reported that self-efficacy results in greater utilization of language learning strategies.

In addition, different studies has reported that self-efficacy is strongly related to language learning strategy use involving EFL, including those of Chamot (1994), Graham (2006), Magogwe and Oliver (2007), Pajares and Schunk (2001), Pape and Wang (2003), Rossiter (2003), Schunk (1989), Siew and Wong (2005), Su & Duo (2012), Yang (1992), Yilmaz (2010), Zimmerman (1989), and the two studies performed by the National Capital Language Resource Center (NCIRC) (2000a, b) which show that learners who showed to have higher self-efficacy reported more utilization of strategies. Indeed, self-efficacy is linked with greater utilization of strategies in language learning.

Motivation can mediate the influence of self-efficacy on strategy use. The research evidence has indicated that self-efficacy is connected to SL/FL learning motivation (Bandura, 1997; Dornyei, 2001a; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002) and to greater utilization of learning strategies (Siew & Wong, 2005; Wolters & Pintrich, 1998; Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons 1990). As stated by Yang (1999) based on the work of Dweck and Leggett (1988) who presented a model that accounted for significant behavioral patterns in connection with fundamental psychological processes, it is assumed students' self-efficacy influence their motivational patterns and goals, which in turn affect their strategy use and learning behaviors. Yang (1999) also noted that the cognitive studies reviewed (e.g., Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Pintrich & De Groot, 1990) have shown that

there are connections among students' self-efficacy, motivation, as well as strategy use.

The following hypothesis is suggested based on such studies.

H10: Self-efficacy has a direct positive effect on strategy use, and has an indirect effect on strategy use through motivation (see Figure 1.12).

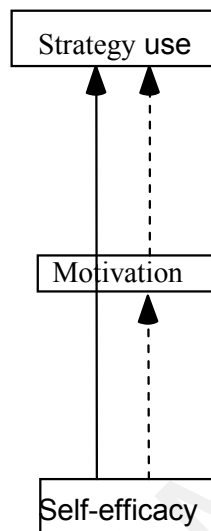


Figure 1.11: Subordinate model 10: the direct and indirect (through motivation) influences of Self-efficacy on Strategy use

Self-efficacy can also affect target language achievement. Bandura (1997) maintains that when performance determines the outcomes, self-efficacy beliefs are mainly responsible. If individuals feel that they can succeed in particular tasks, they will perform well in them (Zeldin, Britner, & Pajares, 2008). Graham and Weiner (1996) pointed out that among motivational constructs, self-efficacy has the most predictive utility for behavioral outcomes, particularly in education and psychology. As noted by Grabe (2009), educational psychologists consider self-efficacy as a major element of social cognitive theory of human functioning contributing to the idea that, as mentioned previously (see chapter 1 section 1.2), humans can regulate their behavior, emphasizes that achievement is affected by interactions among environmental, personal, and behavioral factors (Bandura, 1986, 1997). Human beings have a self-beliefs system which makes them able to exert control over their thoughts, feelings, and actions (Millis, 2004). Thus, as mentioned previously (see chapter 1 section 1.5.2), "what

people think, believe, and feel affect how they behave" (Bandura, 1986: 25). In addition to students' skill, knowledge, value, and expectation, self efficacy is viewed as an important variable in learners' achievement, (Schunk, 2003). Self-efficacy is considered as the central mediator of an endeavor due to the fact that "the movement from having adequate knowledge to superior performance in a task is mediated by the efficacy beliefs of the learner" (Bandura, 1986).

Therefore, in the learning process, self-efficacy can have a key role by assisting or impeding the progress of the learners (Bandura, 1984). Specifically, it has an important role in language learning including English (see e.g., McCollum, 2003; Rahimi & Abedini, 2009; Sani & Zain, 2011; Templin, 1999; Tilfarlioglu & Ciftci, 2011; Tilfarlioglu & Cinkara, 2009). Efficacy beliefs determine the choice of activity as well as the individuals' readiness to put effort in that activity (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997). High self-efficacious students often indicate higher intrinsic interest in academic affairs and correct self-assessment of their academic accomplishment, and they obtain higher intellectual accomplishment (Bouffard-Bouchard, 1990). Conversely, learners who have low self-efficacy might prefer to completely refrain from completing the given task or they might prefer to do the tasks which are simple and need the least possible effort and limited diligence (Millis, 2004). Hence, academic success or failure can be better predicted by self-efficacy than actual abilities and such beliefs are powerful determinants of one's level of achievement (Bandura, 1997). Different investigations have shown the significant positive relation of self-efficacy to learners' academic achievement (Bandura, 1986, 1989; Dweck & Legget, 1988; Multon, Brown & Lent, 1991; Nicholls, 1984; Pajares, 2002; Pajares & Johnson, 1996; Schunk, 1994; Wu, Lowyck, Sercu, & Elen, 2012; Zimmerman, 1989). Furthermore, some researchers have presented self-efficacy as the important predictor of foreign language achievement

including English (Hsieh, 2008; Hsieh & Schallert, 2008). When learners have high self-efficacy, their English language achievement will improve (Mahyuddin et al. 2006).

The direct positive influence of self-efficacy on English language achievement has also been indicated in studies such as those of Abry (1998), Chiang et al. (2014); Huang and Chang (1996), Jones (2008), McCollum (2001), Pajares and Miller (1994), Schunk and Swartz (1993), Tuckman (1993), Tilfarlioglu and Ciftci (2011), and Zimmerman and Bandura (1994). The following hypothesis is suggested based on such studies.

Self-efficacy is considered to be at the root of motivation (Bandura, 1992) and researchers have examined self-efficacy in connection with motivation (Glynn, Taasobsharazi, & Brickman, 2007; Zimmerman, Bandura & Martinez-Pons, 1992). Therefore, in investigating the influence of self-efficacy on achievement, motivation should be considered. Motivation researchers believe that self-efficacy has an effect on language learning through motivational, affective, and cognitive influences (Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). McCrudden, Putney, and Perkins (2005) explain the positive relation of self-efficacy, motivation, and achievement by asserting that learners with high self-efficacy and interest persist in their tasks and this would enhance the amount of their practice in language tasks which in turn would lead to improved language skills and better performance. Hence, the impact of self-efficacy on SL/FL achievement can be direct or indirect through the mediation of motivation. Research has also shown that in second/foreign language learning situations, some students have exhibited low self-efficacy beliefs (Oxford and Shearin, 1994) and this in turn has weakened the students' motivation and hence their performance in English (Wong, 2005).

As noted by researchers such as Pajares, 1997; Pajares and Urdan, 2006; Pintrich and Schunk, 2002, self-efficacy influences the level of motivation in selecting actions,

expending effort, and persevering in a goal-directed task. Thus, learners' self-beliefs with regard to learning an L2 are significant determinants of their effort, persistence, and learning behaviors (Bandura, 1997). In their study, Tremblay and Gardner (1995), and Tuckman and Abry (1998) showed that the positive impact of self-efficacy on language achievement was mediated by students' motivation. Self-efficacy influences or predicts motivation and hence language achievement; learners who have high self-efficacy often report high motivation and achievement (Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 1997, 1996a; Pajares & Urdan, 2006; Valentine, Dubois, & Cooper, 2004; Zimmerman, 2000). The impact of self-efficacy on language achievement can be mediated by learning strategy use. In their study on the learners' strategy use, self-efficacy, and performance Pintrich and DeGroot (1990) and Tuckman and Abry (1998) found that self-efficacy indirectly affected students' performance and achievement through its influence on strategy use. Meyer, Tuner, and Spenser (1997) maintained that the students who have higher self-efficacy utilize more learning strategies and this causes them to exert academic effort for higher achievement.

Similarly, other investigators proposed that self-efficacy impacts the way of employing learning strategies and hence the way of SL/FL learning (Abraham & Vann, 1987; Wenden, 1986, 1987). Therefore, the following hypothesis is suggested based on these studies.

H11: Self-efficacy has a positive direct effect on English achievement, and has an indirect effect on English achievement through motivation and through strategy use (see Figure 1.13).

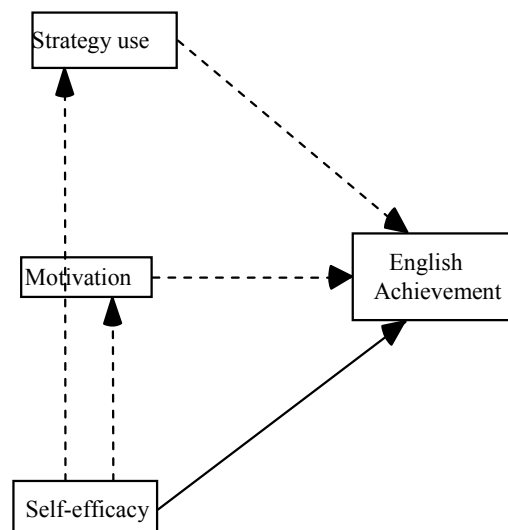


Figure 0.12: Subordinate model 11: the direct and indirect (through motivation and through strategy use) influences of self-efficacy on English achievement

As mentioned previously (see section 1.5.3), language learning strategies are described as "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations (Oxford, 1990: 8)." This definition is regarded as one of the most applicable, comprehensive, and frequently cited definitions given for learning strategies to date. Rubin (1987) suggested that to make language learning more effective, strategies should be learned and hence individuals' abilities in language learning could be enhanced. Gardner and his colleagues as well as some other SL/FL learning specialists maintained that the using learning strategies influences how well students learn another language; the employing learning strategies helps to promote language achievement and function significantly in the development and progress of language learners (Chamot, 2001; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; Hsaio & Oxford, 2002; Oxford 1989; Rubin 1987; Takallou, 2011; Wenden & Rubin, 1987; Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1990). Furthermore, language learning strategies are considered as one of the individual difference variables that have the most effect in second/foreign language learning by Skehan (1989). In their study, Oxford and Nyikos (1989) showed that improved language learning was seen among the students who utilized learning

strategies more frequently and they concluded that appropriate and suitable learning strategies are highly associated with successful language achievement (Oxford and Nyikos, 1989). Similarly, according to Bruen (2001), Ehrman and Oxford (1990), Gerami and Baighlou (2011), Griffiths (2008), Liu (2004), Oxford (1994), and Oxford and Ehrman (1995), compared to learners who are less proficient, more proficient language learners utilize more varieties of learning strategies. In their study, Yang and Plakans (2012) found that discourse synthesis strategy use directly and positively affected L2 students' English writing performance.

Also, many other studies have been carried out to show the direct positive effect of learning strategies on English language achievement (see Abry, 1998; Cesur, 2011; Dreyer & Oxford, 1996; Jie & Xiaoqing, 2006; Kang, 2000; MacIntyre & Noels, 1996; Nisbet, Tindall & Arroyo, 2005; Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990; Rossi-Le, 1989). Therefore, learning strategy use is considered as an important predictor of foreign language achievement. Moreover, the significant positive relation of language learning strategies to SL/FL achievement including English has also been shown by different researchers such as Bremner (1998), Choi and Joh (2001), Chou (2002), Green and Oxford (1995), Grenfell and Macaro (2008), Kaylani (1996), Lan and Oxford (2003), Park (2005), Tam (2013), Wang, Spenser, and Xing (2009), Wharton (2000), and Yu (2003).

Therefore, the following hypothesis is suggested based on these studies.

H12: Strategy use relates positively to English language achievement (see Figure 1.14).

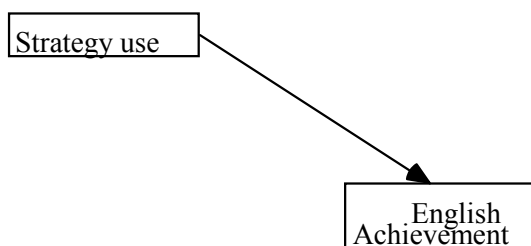


Figure 0.13: Subordinate model 12: the direct influence of strategy use on English achievement

1.8.1 Summary of the Research Hypotheses

As a summary, the research hypotheses related to the research questions, which the present study addresses to examine the relations between the factors, can be formulated as the following.

H1: Attitudes toward the learning situation are positively correlated to integrativeness (see Figure 1.3).

H2: Attitudes toward the learning situation relate positively and directly to self-efficacy (see Figure 1.4).

H3: Attitudes toward the learning situation have direct positive impact on strategy use, and have an indirect impact on strategy use through motivation (see Figure 1.5).

H4: Integrativeness is indirectly related to strategy use through motivation (see Figure 1.6).

H5: Motivation positively impacts language learning strategy use (see Figure 1.7).

H6: Motivation directly and positively affects English achievement, and indirectly and positively affects English achievement through strategy use (see Figure 1.8).

H7: Attitudes toward the learning situation relate positively and directly to English language achievement, and relate indirectly to English achievement through motivation, and through self-efficacy (see Figure 1.9).

H8: Integrativeness relates positively and directly to English language achievement, and relates indirectly to English achievement through motivation (see Figure 1.10).

H9: Self-efficacy positively impacts motivation (see Figure 1.11).

H10: Self-efficacy has a direct positive effect on strategy use, and has an indirect effect on strategy use through motivation (see Figure 1.12).

H11: Self-efficacy has a positive direct effect on English achievement, and has an indirect effect on English achievement through motivation and through strategy use (see Figure 1.13).

H12: Strategy use relates positively to English language achievement (see Figure 1.14).

1.9 Significance of the Study

Gardner (2001a) believes that many variables "are dependent on motivation for their effects to be realized" (p.2). Oxford (1994) like Williams et al. (2002) and Dornyei (2003), argues that new research approaches which build upon the established traditions are needed to strengthen current understandings of language motivation (Oxford, 1994: 513). This is perhaps why Gardner himself has called on researchers to take on the "challenge" of expanding the motivational research agenda with more extensive empirical investigations (Gardner, 2001a; Gardner & Tremblay, 1994). The present study has taken up that challenge, and attempts to contribute to existing motivational research.

Furthermore, few empirical studies have been performed on the interactions and relationships of the variables, motivation, strategy use, and self-efficacy, with each other and with learning and achievement. Therefore, this study is significant in that it gives attention to the combination of particular factors that might potentially influence FL learning specifically in Iran. These factors, which are related to individual differences between learners, might be either motivational or non-motivational. Using Gardner's (2001a) socio-educational model which is considered as the dominant model of L2 learning motivation in the field, the researcher examines personality and learning strategies to which Gardner (2001a) did not refer specifically.

In addition, as mentioned earlier (section 1.2), the study investigates the role played by self-efficacy in English language learning regarding which there has been a paucity of research.

Given that English language teaching and learning is different from that of other content subjects (Bernaus, Wilson, & Gardner, 2009) this study has focused on the socio-psycho educational aspect as an efficient way to improve the learning and

teaching of the language. The findings of the present study can raise awareness among teachers of the factors that ease or impede the learning process.

Thus, the theoretical significance of the study is that the results of such a study could contribute to the existing body of motivational research in order to come up with a coherent model of self- efficacy, language learning strategies, and motivation.

Moreover, the study is pedagogically significant in that a careful evaluation of the findings of this study could lead researchers as well as classroom teachers to well-informed decision-making at different levels of educational planning, such as development of curriculum and materials, preferences for classroom activities and techniques, decisions about individualized instruction and the identification of characteristics of students that lead to more efficient teaching and learning. Moreover, it could give the interested individual a general picture of the relationship between English language students' motivation and self-efficacy. If such a relation is found, teachers could implement methods of teaching, in which cognitive and metacognitive strategies are included, so that student motivation and level of learning would improve. Also, it will help shed light on the relationship between achievement level and motivation and self-efficacy, so that predictions could be made about certain learners and learning styles, and possible learning and teaching inadequacies and deficiencies can be overcome.

1.10 Limitations of the Study

One limitation of this research is its confinement to one language institute called the Iran Language Institute (ILI) which is one of the most popular language institutes in Iran and the final grades are used to make decisions about a large group of language learners. Hence, the study of the variables affecting language learning in such a context gains importance. It is assumed that the sample would be representative of English

language learners, thus the findings of this study can be generalized to the entire population.

Also, Dornyei (2003) points out that motivation changes over time. Thus this is an issue which should be investigated but it was beyond the scope of the present study to conduct a longitudinal study due to limitation of time.

1.11 Organization of the Chapters

An overview of the study was presented in this chapter involving the problem of the study, background of the study, Gardner's (2001a) socio-educational model, definitions of key terms, research questions, the objectives of the study, significance of the study, and the limitations of the study. Chapter 2 reviews second/foreign language learning motivation including a description of the theories of motivation adapted by SLA researchers to show the dominance of Gardner's socio-educational model. Moreover, the literature related to second/foreign language learning self-efficacy and strategy use is presented. The research on strategy use in language learning contains definitions as well as classifications of language learning strategies. Chapter 2 also tries to show the relation of the variables mentioned with each other and to language achievement together with clarifying the areas in which studies have been scarce or totally absent. Chapter 3 describes the participants, instruments, sample selection and procedures, data analysis procedures, as well as the pilot study. The results, discussion, and some important implications are offered in chapter 4. Chapter 5 provides a summary and conclusion of the study, the pedagogical implications, and the suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A review of literature is provided in this chapter focusing on motivation, self-efficacy, and strategy use in second/foreign language learning. An attempt has also been made to show how previous research has demonstrated the relationship of these factors with each other and to language achievement. Specifically, the areas in which studies have been scarce or totally absent are made clear in order to illuminate and justify the purpose of this research. A general summary of the Gardner's socio-educational model is given in the section on language learning motivation, discussing some of the main elements and concepts of the model, followed by a description of the theories of motivation adopted by SLA researchers. In addition, the findings of the studies related to the effect of motivation on L2 success are presented. The discussion of language learning self-efficacy addresses social cognitive theory, upon which the concept of self-efficacy is founded, as well as the limited research on self-efficacy beliefs and language learning. Investigations related to self-efficacy and language constructs such as strategy use are also presented. The part related to strategies in language learning involves definitions as well as classifications of such strategies and the researches on the relation of strategy use to L2 success and the key learner variable motivation. Finally, this chapter discusses and reviews the limited number of studies conducted on the interactions and relationships of the variables mentioned together.

2.1 Motivation

Cohen and Dörnyei (2002) maintained that "motivation is often seen as the key learner variable because without it, nothing much happens" (p.172). Indeed, as stated by different researchers, motivation is regarded as a primary factor affecting students' success or failure in L2 learning (Dörnyei, 1998; Ellis, 1994; Gardner, 2001a; Ghazvini & Khajehpour, 2011; Gholami, Allahyar, & Rafik-Galea, 2012; McDonough, 1983) and thus, examining it is of value and significance (Gardner, 2007; Hsieh, 2008). As

mentioned previously (see section 1.2), many definitions have been provided for the term motivation in the L2 learning literature. The current study has taken the conceptualization proposed by Gardner (2001a, 2005, 2007) regarding motivation as the interdependency of aim, effort, desire to attain the aim, and positive affect.

To provide a better comprehension of the L2 motivation, the socio-educational model of SL/FL learning, proposed by Gardner (2001a) as well as popular SLA theories of motivation in educational psychology will be explained in the following.

2.1.1 Gardner's Socio-Educational Model

The initial drive in second language motivation studies originated from the work of Robert Gardner, Wallace Lambert and their associates (Dörnyei, 2005).

Gardner and Lambert (1959) carried out a research on high school Canadian native English speakers who were studying French. From the findings of the study the researchers concluded that two variables namely, motivation and linguistic aptitude connected to the students' achievement in French. The researchers found that the students with this type of motivational orientation, showing willingness to be like and identified as the members of the second language community, defined as possessing integrative orientation, were more successful and showed greater positive attitudes than students who were instrumentally oriented, that is, learners with a more practical view of the language.

This initial study was the first step in developing the socio-educational model which is regarded as the most influential and important method of constructing motivation in second/foreign language research. Indeed, the major work in second language motivation since 1972 has been connected with Gardner and his colleagues in investigating the impact of social variables on L2 learners.

Based on a series of investigations, Gardner (1985) evolved a socio-educational model to examine language learners' motivation, claiming that integrative orientation

can be regarded as the primary factor determining learning behaviors and actual achievement (Gardner, 1983; Gardner & Lambert, 1972). Gardner (1985) considered integrative and instrumental orientations as important factors that account for starting learning behaviors and supporting motivation. He stated that this orientation stemmed from a learner's desire to learn L2 based on a positive attitude toward the target language community and the willingness to exchange information and ideas with its speakers. Instrumental orientation showed a student's willingness to learn the L2 for certain pragmatic goals like external rewards, course credit, passing examination or job promotion (Gardner, 1985). These two positions led to learners' motivation to start actions in learning L2. Gardner attested that it was more desirable for students to take an integrative orientation since those who assumed and adopted the cultural and social features (e.g., cultural values, attitudes, and beliefs) of the second language were more likely to answer positively in their feelings, thoughts and actions. These responses in turn resulted in more successful and efficient L2 learning outcomes. In other words, learners' motivation and achievement in an L2 can be predicted by their attitudes (Gardner, 2001a).

Gardner and his associates in their early research supported the claim that instrumental orientation proved to be less important to the socio-educational model; one study even represented an argument that instrumental variables might be demotivating to learners of L2 (Clément, Gardner, & Smythe, 1977b). Gardner (2001b) also demonstrated that instrumental variables are not certain supports for motivation and only might lead to motivation (Gardner, 2001b: 7). These variables were instead classified as one of the “other support” factors. Moreover, Gardner and MacIntyre (1993: 188) contended that the instrumental orientation was “both conceptually and empirically...quite diverse” and that it was the least internally consistent factor among all the measures. Gardner, however, has since moderated his initial position about the

superiority of integrative factors over instrumental ones. Gardner and MacIntyre (1991), illustrated that to measure instrumental motivation, researchers must “establish a situation in which such motivation will be salient” (p. 59). As regarded by Ghazvini and Khajehpour (2011), such integrative or instrumental dichotomy is at the goal/orientation level and hence "is not part of the core motivation component" (p: 1210). Gardner (2001b) has also proposed a high positive correlation between instrumental and integrative orientations, revealing that “neither class of reasons is mutually independent” (Gardner, 2001b: 15). Similarly, Lamb (2004) asserts that the possible connection between instrumental and integrative orientations (goals) have been indicated among EFL learners.

To create direct relation between motivation and psychological mechanisms of L2 learning, to see the link between motivation as examined or discussed in other subject fields than L2 and motivation as explained in previous L2 researches, and lastly to see the obvious implications that such previous L2 studies have for language pedagogy Gardner proposed his model of second-foreign language learning in 2001 (discussed earlier in Chapter 1 section 1.3), maintaining that the model is capable of organizing the main concepts seem to be included in L2 learning motivation. By modifying his earlier models, Gardner (2001a) claims that he has evolved the socio-educational model into a more inclusive one which accounts for various external and individual variables influencing final achievement in the learning context.

Over the years, majority of L2 studies on motivation has been based on the structure of motivation characterized in Gardner's (2001a), attributed in large part to the strong experimental proof presented by Gardner and his colleagues (Gardner, 2001a).

Thus, it must be acknowledged that the model proposed by Gardner (2001a), is regarded as one of the most complete and comprehensive models of L2 learning, accounting for motivation in relation to other factors such as strategy use as well as

other social, individual, and contextual aspects. As mentioned earlier (see chapter 1 section 1.3), in this model, Gardner pays special attention to factors external to the learners, such as history and motivators. By history, unlike Clement (1980), who considered language learning to be same as any other subject, Gardner (2001a) refers specifically to the language learner's social and historical background, while motivators as Dornyei (1994a, 1998, 2001a) and Dornyei and Csizer (1998) also pointed out, refer to the conditions teachers create for the students' learning, that is, they refer to four principles which are considered significant in this construction of motivation, namely making the basic conditions of motivation, producing student motivation, keeping and supporting motivation, and promoting individual positive self-assessment. In addition to these external factors, the socio educational model allows room for the contexts of language acquisition, which could either be formal (in the classroom context) or informal (outside the classroom). And finally, it shows the relationships these contexts have with the linguistic outcomes, that is, the language actually learned and the learner's proficiency, as well as nonlinguistic outcomes such as anxiety and actual social language use (Gardner, 2001a).

To address some important parts of the model involved in this study, one construct that is primal to the socio-educational model needs to be highlighted. As proposed by Gardner (2001a, 2005) this concept includes the word integration. As explained previously, Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1985) focused on integrative orientation. Since then Gardner and his colleagues have modified and extended the terminology of the socio-educational model. They have asserted that the word indicating this particular view in the model is "Integrativeness", which Gardner (2001a, 2010) described as actual interest in learning L2 in order to get nearer psychologically to L2 community and to be identified with that cultural group. In other words, integrativeness involves a person's openness and willingness to get on the characteristics of the target cultural/linguistic

group (Gardner, 2001a, 2005, 2007). Learners would be considered low in integrativeness if their ethnolinguistic heritage is a prominent component of their identity, while learners who are considered to have high integrativeness are not interested in other cultural communities and their ethnicity is not the main part (Gardner, 2001a, 2005).

On The Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB), three distinct subscales are used to measure integrativeness regarded as a complex of attitudes: “Integrative orientation” (desire to learn the target language because of willingness to communicate with other language group), “Attitudes toward the language community;” and “Interest in foreign languages” (Gardner2001a, 2004, 2005, 2010). Integrativeness reflects individuals' attitudes toward the target culture as well as all other cultures and to their own ethnic identity. Gardner and his associates have repeatedly contended that learners showing a motivation connected to Integrativeness have reported higher language learning and achievement (Clément, Gardner & Smythe, 1977a, 1977b; Gardner, Day, & MacIntyre, 1992; Gardner & Lambert, 1959).

Studies related to integrativeness beyond the ones reported by Gardner and his associates, have shown mixed results. Some researchers have supported the relation of integrative motivation to achievement. For instance, Dörnyei together with his colleagues have postulated that integrativeness predicted high motivation and language achievement (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Clément, 2001). However, not all research conducted based on the socio-educational model have reflected the same results. Most notably, some studies presenting results in certain contexts, apart from foreign language programs, specifically in United States or Canada, have proposed that integrative orientation was an insignificant or minor indicator of motivation and attitude, or that this orientation did not significantly improve language acquisition. As stated by Wesely (2009) studies producing these results have investigated, for instance,

second language learners of English in Canada (Belmechri and Hummel, 1998; Clément and Kruidenier, 1983), foreign language students in Hungary (Nikolov, 1999), and Arabic students in Israel (Kraemer, 1993). Instrumental and integrative motivation have been used in many studies to address issues of motivation and attitude; disregarding the fact that these concepts developed from a multi-faceted and complex model, and one that already involved attitude (see Kuhlemeier, Van Den Berg, & Melse, 1996; Sung & Padilla, 1998; Yeon & Baik, 2006). As argued by Gardner himself (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991; Gardner & Tremblay, 1994), treating these two concepts, instrumental and integrative motivation, as merely two essentials of the central constructs of the socio-educational model was indeed a misunderstanding and misinterpretation of Gardner's work.

Gardner (2001a, 2005) claimed that in the socio-educational model, attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS), as having the same relationship with motivation as the integrativeness variable, have proved to be more effective than instrumentality. The class of variables related to ALS includes "any aspect of the situation in which the language is learned" (Gardner, 2001a: 8; 2010: 12). "In the school context, these attitudes could be directed toward the teacher, the course in general, one's classmates, the course materials, extra-curricular activities associated with the course" (Gardner, 2001a: 8; 2010: 12). On the AMTB, two separate subscales are used to measure this variable: "Evaluation of the target language course" and "Evaluation of the target language teacher" (Gardner, 2001a). Gardner has differentiated the meaning of attitudes toward the learning situation from the attitudes towards learning the language by explaining the relationship between learners' attitudes towards learning the language and their motivation. He states that "the motivated individual will enjoy the task of learning the language. Such an individual will say that it is fun, a challenge, and enjoyable, even though at times enthusiasm may be less than at other times" (Gardner,

2001a: 10). By this interpretation the factor attitudes toward language learning is made an approximately unchangeable attribute that may merely change in the strength of the interest connected with it.

Gardner (2001a) claims that motivation involves three parts: desire to learn the language, motivational intensity defined as the effort individuals expend to learn the language, and attitudes toward learning the language. These same three indicators are used as three separate subscales to measure motivation on AMTB. Learners' success in learning an L2 depends on their feeling about both the learning situation and the target language groups speaking the L2. Therefore, according to the socio-educational model students' strong and positive feelings towards the learning situation (e.g., language teacher and language course) and towards the second/foreign language community (i.e., integrativeness) and a desire to make effort, reflect their integrative motivation, which makes the students to be successful second language learners (Gardner, 2001a).

As mentioned previously (see section 1.1), the model also indicates two other variables, other non/motivational factors which are supposed not to have any direct link to the context of learning. These factors, which are related to individual differences between learners, might be either motivational (contributing to motivation) or non-motivational (promoted by motivation). Other motivational factors (factors contributing to motivation), is shown as having a possible effect on MOT. Therefore, there might be instrumental variables that increase motivation (Dornyei, 1994a, 2001a), or other individual motivational variables (Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997). The combination of motivation and instrumental variables is labeled as instrumental motivation by Gardner (2001a, 2010). Such individual difference factors that could promote motivation are self-confidence, self-efficacy and all other personal factors that promote motivation. Other non-motivational factors (factors promoted by motivation) would involve variables such as language learning strategies. Gardner (2001a) states

that employing such strategies can affect language achievement by giving techniques and schema to help learning the material and to the degree that they function in language learning they would be assumed to be utilized by the motivated individuals, and hence the potential link between MOT and other non-motivating variables. Therefore, Gardner (2001a) explained the proposed relationships between these other non/motivational factors with motivation, but he viewed them as to be peripheral to motivating and motivation. Despite the fact that the model suggests that such factors can play a role in L2 achievement, it does not pertain specifically to personality or learning strategies. In addition, Gardner (2001a) did not regard the two other non/motivational variables to have any direct relations on each other, or on linguistic and non-linguistic results. Specifically, the nature and the extent to which the variable motivation mediates these other non/motivational variables appear to be rather vague in Gardner's model. This study attempts to explore these ideas.

2.1.2 Alternate Theories of Motivation Adopted by SLA Researchers

In order to extend our comprehension of L2 motivation and to show the socio-educational model as the dominant model of L2 learning motivation in the field and the most comprehensive model of learning a second/foreign language which accounts for motivation in connection with factors such as social, individual, and contextual aspects, the researcher has included popular theories of motivation in educational psychology that have all made inroads into the second language acquisition (SLA) motivation literature such as self-determination theory, expectancy-value theory, attribution theory, and social cognitive theory (Dornyei, 1990; Dornyei, 1994; Dornyei, 2000; Noels, Pelletier, Clement, & Vallerand, 2000; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Schunk & Zimmerman, 2006 as cited in Grabe, 2009).

2.1.2.1 Self-determination Theory

Self-determination Theory is concerned with the need people have to feel that they are possibly in control and competent (Guthrie, Wigfield, & VonSecker, 2000). This theory distinguishes between various kinds of motivation on the basis of different purposes or reasons that causes an action to occur (Deci & Ryan, 2000: 55). Two key components of self-determination theory are extrinsic and intrinsic motivation (Guthrie, Wigfield, & VonSecker, 2000; Noels, Pelletier, Clement, & Vallerand, 2000; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). An intrinsically motivated learner values the learning task intrinsically. The learner enjoys the learning task for itself, and this is the reason the learner is trying to learn (Deci & Ryan, 2000). In intrinsic motivation the individual finds satisfaction in the activity or behavior itself (Covington & Dray, 2002; Deci & Flaste, 1995; Gardner & Lambert, 1972, 1985; Noels, Pelletier, Clement, & Vallerand, 2000). Although intrinsic motivation and integrative motivation are similar, they are different in that the latter involves positive feelings towards the target group and a strong tendency to have communication with people of that group. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation is concerned with doing something for the outcome it brings about, such as a better job, entrance into a university, etc., not for the learning itself (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Vansteenkiste, Lens, & Deci, 2006). The purpose of learning in extrinsic motivation is receiving some kinds of rewards that are not essentially linked with the learning itself (Ehrman, Leaver, & Oxford, 2003). This concept is essentially the same as Gardner's instrumental motivation in the socio-educational model. Boggiano and Pitmann (1992) stated that instrumental orientation is generally associated with extrinsic motivation. Gardner (1994) believes that a prior condition for any kind of action that is to be rewarded intrinsically is self-determination. Hence, rather than considering extrinsic motivation as an opposite counterpart of intrinsic motivation, self-determination theory identifies a "continuum between self-determined and controlled forms of motivation"

which includes five kinds of regulations (Dornyei, 2001b: 47). These five categories include: (i) external regulation which refers to the activities determined by external sources, that is motivation results from outside sources in the form of rewards to avoid punishment; by removing the reason for language learning, there would be no inducement to continue the learning process (Dornyei, 2001b; Noels, Pelletier, Clement, & Vallerand, 2003); (ii) interjected regulation is defined as the reasons to perform an activity because of some kind of pressure or force that individuals incorporate and integrate into the self, in a way that they oblige themselves to perform that activity to avoid feeling guilty (Dornyei, 2001b; Noels, Pelletier, Clement, & Vallerand, 2003); (iii) identified regulation is explained as the energy the individuals invest in an activity because of some personal reasons and hence, in such a situation, learners would accomplish the activity due to its importance to attain a valued goal (Noels, Pelletier, Clement, & Vallerand, 2003) (iv) integrated regulation includes regulations that are completely incorporated into the learner's other needs, values, and identities (Dornyei, 2001b). Therefore, in this level the behavior is chosen based on the students' needs, values, and identities; and (v) involvement of the individual in an action only in the interest of that activity which is referred to as intrinsic motivation (Dornyei, 2001b).

Studies have indicated the significance of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in learning in general and with L2 learning specifically (Dornyei & Csizer, 2002; Noels, Pelletier, Clement, & Vallerand, 2000; Thang, Ting, & Jaafar, 2011; Wang, 2008; Zubairi & Sarudin, 2009). Guthrie, Wigfield, and VonSecker (2000) state that both types of motivations positively affect the amount of reading the learners engage in. Koller, Baumert, and Schnabel (2001) found out that whether learners' choose to be involved in more challenging and difficult mathematics courses was significantly affected by intrinsic motivation. In addition, the students who showed higher

performance in mathematics had higher intrinsic interest in mathematics than those who reported lower achievement.

Dornyei and Csizer (2002) examined the role of motivation in students' choice of the foreign languages they wanted to learn. They found that "instrumentality", which was the term they used in their research instead of extrinsic motivation, had a significant correlation with the learners' language choice as well as the effort they expended in order to learn the language.

2.1.2.2 Expectancy-Value Theory

Expectancy-Value Theory assumes that human motivation is identified or formed by two main concepts: expectancy and value (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002; Wigfield, Tonk, & Eccles, 2004). This theory emphasizes the opinion that behavior or action is a reciprocal role of individuals' anticipations of attaining special outcomes or achievement as the use of carrying out an action as well as the degree to which the outcomes are valued by the individuals (Pintrich, 1989). Expectancy refers to what learners expect to occur if they attempt to learn something. For instance, if the students expect that they will obtain a high grade, then they form a positive expectancy. Research has indicated that expectancy has a relationship with effort and achievement (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002; Wolters & Pintrich, 1998). Learners who have high expectations to be successful in a particular task will be more engaged in the task and persist longer than will learners who show low expectations of being successful. In determining the learners' engagement within a task, another motivational component should be also considered, namely, value.

Value refers to the value that learners ascribe to what they are learning. Eccles and Wigfield (1994 as cited in Pintrich & Schunk, 2002) have claimed that there are four principal types of value. Attainment value is the significance that learners assign to a particular task because it affirms who they think they are. For example, if individuals

suppose that they have a natural talent or gift to learn languages, then to learn another language will affirm such a belief about them; hence, learning the language becomes important for these people. Intrinsic value is defined as the joy learners obtain from learning a special thing (Eccles & Wigfield, 1994 cited in Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). Utility value, the third type of value, is the significance of the learning task to achieve some other purposes. The learners have a utility value, for instance, if they value learning a second/foreign language as a requirement for graduating from university or college. As stated by Kline (2006) this value is similar to instrumental motivation in Gardner's socio-educational model as well as extrinsic motivation in self-determination theory. The negative outcomes that students think may originate from pursuing a learning task, is the fourth kind of value called cost belief value (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). Most research shows that different kinds of value have larger influence on the learner choices concerning learning tasks but has a lesser influence on the effort learners extend (Koller, Baumert, & Schnabel, 2001; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). Gan, Humphreys, and Hamp-Lyons (2004) believe that values have a strong effect on L2 success. In their qualitative study of Chinese students learning English, Gan and his colleagues found that successful L2 learners, compared to unsuccessful students, ascribed greater value to English. Wu (2006) states that Outcome expectations are significant because learners are not prompted to perform in a manner they think will lead to negative results; they do not pursue things which they do not value. On the other hand, motivation and learning are influenced, but not guaranteed by values and outcome expectations (Wu, 2006). He suggests that learners will not do a learning task if they do not perceive that they are capable of doing it, even though they value the task. In other words, learners must have faith in their abilities to accomplish a task before they make the decision to take part in the activity. Two important theories are noticeable in the domain of expectancy: self-efficacy and attribution theories.

2.1.2.3 Attribution Theory

Attribution theory proposes that one's expectancy is connected to attributions about his/her success (Ehrman, Leaver, & Oxford, 2003). These researchers believe that some students think that their success in language learning is attributable to their abilities and or actions, but others think that their success is dependent upon other individuals or fate. This theory assumes that prior successes and failures as well as the perceived reasons for those successes or failures influence the learners' understandings of their own abilities, which in turn affect their motivation (Covington, 1984; Dornyei, 2003; Williams, Burden, & Al-Baharna, 2001). Covington (1984) stated that according to this theory, successful learners "attribute their successes to a combination of skill and effort," while failing learners "attribute their successes to external factors such as luck, task ease, or the generosity of a teacher" (Covington, 1984: 93). Thus, successful learners think that their failure originates from "a lack of proper effort," and failing learners ascribe failure to "lack of skill or ability" (Covington, 1984: 93). Researches have indicated that successful learners are more likely to try challenges and put effort and energy into their work, whereas unsuccessful learners prevent challenges and expect constant failure or disappointment in classroom (Nicholls, 1984). Therefore, more successful learners show higher while unsuccessful learners show lower motivation in the classroom. Moreover, Dornyei (2003) believes that if individuals attribute their past failure on a specific task to their low ability, it is possible that they will never do the activity again, while if they think that the problem is due to insufficient endeavor or inappropriate learning strategies that they employed, it will be more probable that they try again. More recent researches on the attribution theory have indicated that reactions from teachers and classmates might have more effect on learners and their motivation rather than achievement, to an extent that they "override the significance of the achievement itself" (Hareli & Weiner, 2002: 183).

2.1.2.4 Self-efficacy Theory

Self-efficacy theory is similar to attribution theory in the sense that it is based partly on students' judgments of personal ability and the degree to which they have internal controllability (Bandura, 1997). As mentioned previously (see chapter 1 section 1.1), self-efficacy was defined as "people's judgment of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" by Bandura (1997: 3). The learners who have self-efficacy, feel able to be successful in an academic situation, and self-efficacy theory maintains that "the best predictors of behavior in specific situations are individuals' self-perceptions within those situations" (Schunk, 1991: 212). Compared to a learner with low self-efficacy, one who has high self-efficacy is practically involved in performing an activity and hence he obtain higher grade even if they have low ability (Raouf, Tan, & Chan, 2012).

As stated by Wesely (2009) self-efficacy theory is different from, and debatably, expands on attribution theory in a way that it does not concentrate on success or failures; it indicates different kinds of elements that associate with how students see themselves. She states that attributions are indeed just one of several kinds of cues that learners utilize to assess their own efficacy (Wesely, 2009). Therefore, self-efficacy and attribution theory are alike because both acknowledge the effect of expectations and values, but self-efficacy theory also includes and emphasizes the significance of learners' beliefs regarding their capabilities (Schunk, 1991). Individuals act based on ideas or beliefs about the probable results of their performance, and about their beliefs and ideas concerning what they can accomplish. Self-efficacy has also shown to predict motivation and achievement; learners who have high self-efficacy often report high motivation and achievement (Bandura, 1997; Zimmerman, 2000). However, self-efficacy is not considered as the only source of learner's motivation.

2.1.2.5 Social Cognitive Theory

Social Cognitive Theory has greatly influenced second language acquisition motivation researchers. As mentioned in the background of the study (see section 1.2), the theory asserts that learning is affected by the complex interaction of the individuals' beliefs, environment, and behavior (Schunk, 2004). This interaction is called "triadic reciprocity" because each part affects and is affected by the other parts (Pajares, 1996a). Therefore, the social cognitive theory like socio-educational model, place a great emphasis on social variables.

The main characteristic of the social cognitive theory that has drawn the attention of L2 researchers has been self-efficacy, which, as mentioned before, refers to the set of learners' beliefs about their abilities to achieve special tasks (Clark, 1999; McCollum, 2003; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). As stated by Kline (2006), self-efficacy tends to be much more specific than expectancy which is a more global concept. As Clark (1999) believes, the amount and the quality of effort learners put forth are greatly affected by self-efficacy. In addition, the research seems to indicate that the self-efficacy variable is much more predictive than expectancy (Pajares, 1996a). Hence the researcher, in this study, will focus on self-efficacy and not expectancy.

Self-efficacy beliefs are also connected with goal orientations. Goals have been a central component of L2 motivation (Belmechri & Hummel, 1998). Tremblay and Gardner (1995) showed that orientation studies are related to various goal theories. As stated by Dweck and Leggett (1988), learners enter the learning situation with various goals that result in various response patterns in skill-related activities. Goal orientation theory involves affective, cognitive, and behavioral parts. This theory is related to explaining various academic performances and behaviors (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). Two kinds of goals are often considered in the studies including performance goals and mastery goals (Ames, 1992; Maehr and Midgley, 1991). These two types of goals are

different in the primary reasons for their motivational patterns and responses. Ames (1992) believes that learners who have mastery goals are supposed to perform tasks in order to master new skills and knowledge as well as gaining a sense of efficacy. Also, they assume various motivational patterns including high intrinsic motivation, perseverance on encountering failure, and preference for difficult and challenging tasks (Ames, 1992). Performance goals, in contrast, lead learners to maladaptive patterns of learning (decreased interest, exerting no effort in the face of difficulty, and preference for simple and easy tasks) and to attribute failure to absence of ability (Elliott & Dweck, 1988). Performance goals can also elicit mastery goals for various positive outcomes such as obtaining public recognition or demonstrating ability in a competence-related activity (Elliott & Dweck, 1988); therefore, a framework has been proposed by Elliott and Harackiewicz (1996) that differentiate performance goals by avoidance and approach orientation. They carried out two experiments that were intrinsic motivation-related and aimed to test the predictive ability of the avoidance and approach achievement goal framework. They randomly assigned the college-level students to four experimental situations. It was hypothesized that only avoidance goals would have a damaging influence on learners' intrinsic motivation and the results confirmed this hypothesis.

Another experiment was performed with the aim of replicating the influences indicated in the previous (first) experiment. Results of the study showed that avoidance and approach goals were regarded as two separate motivational constructs; only participants with avoidance goal-orientation showed decrease in their intrinsic motivation. Elliott and Harackiewicz (1996) believe that similar to mastery goals, performance-approach goals show affective, cognitive, and behavioral outcomes, but these responses intend to indicate ability, obtain good grades, and achieve public recognition. Avoidance goal-oriented learners are easily affected by how others

understand their ability. Learners who are apprehensive to be judged as incompetent tend to follow strategies in order to prevent demonstrating inability (Covington, 1992).

Achievement goals present a clearer account of learners' motivation and performance. The impacts of goals on outcomes and learning activities have been investigated in many studies, the results of which have reported that performance goals, mastery goals, and avoidance goals are associated with different motivational variables that affect learning behaviors (Barker, McIntyre, & Dowson, 2002; Elliot & Church, 1997). According to social cognitive theory learners engage in various cognitive activities based on their personal beliefs regarding their capability to process information (Wu, 2006). To improve the learning quality, mastery goal-orientated learners who undertake specific activities in an adaptive style employ various strategies, including self-regulatory strategies employed to direct interactions with the learning situation and deep processing strategies (involving skills such as critical thinking or elaboration) used to encode information (Wu, 2006). Performance goals, in contrast, are related to inefficient or the surface processing strategies (involving repetitive practice of information or rote memorization) (Ames, 1992; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002).

Barker (2002) and his associates examined the influences of motivational goals on the recall skills of verbal information by Australian learners. The experimental research assumed that goals influence cognitive performance. Results of this investigation showed that an important and meaningful interaction occurred between students' motivational goals as well as their cognition. Learners with performance approach goal had higher performance than their classmates in the avoidance goal, mastery goal, and the control groups.

Elliot, McGregor, and Gable (1999) carried out two studies to explore the predictive role of the goals and the associated strategies in college classroom in the United States. Achievement goals were considered as predictors and study strategies regarded as

mediators to investigate their relationship with exam performance. The participants were given an achievement goals questionnaire two weeks before their midterm exam. Results of the study showed that mastery goal-oriented learners utilized deep processing strategies. Moreover, they continued learning on encountering obstacles. Learners with approach goals achieved the best in the examination situation but the students with avoidance goals showed the lowest performance. Learners' strategies acted as mediators between test results and achievement goals. Deep processing strategy was found to have a positive relation with approach and mastery goals and exam performance. Surface processing had a positive relationship with avoidance goal-oriented learners.

Self-efficacy has also been a significant factor showing relationship with different kinds of achievement goals (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). Bell and Kozlowski (2002) examined the relations among task performance, goal orientation, the skill of study strategies, and self-efficacy in a college environment. The findings showed that only mastery goal had a significant positive connection with task performance and self-efficacy. The researchers concluded that learning outcomes and goals had an indirect relationship when other motivational factors such as strategy and self-efficacy were included.

Elliot and Harackiewicz (1996) investigated the predictive role of achievement goals on intrinsic motivation in a college setting. From the self-reported and behavioral data, they discovered that students with avoidance goal performed as well as the students with mastery goal. Learners' levels of behavioral and affective investment were determined by the qualitative variations of the motivation. The findings of the research indicated that only avoidance goals reduced learners' intrinsic interest and task involvement. Elliot and Church (1997) also performed a research to investigate the impacts of achievement goals on students' performance and their intrinsic motivation. It was found that performance goals were considered as the strongest predictor of learners'

final grades and mastery goals promoted intrinsic motivation. Furthermore, performance goals represented to have negative influences on intrinsic motivation. In their longitudinal study, Harackiewicz et al. (1997) represented that performance approach goals had a positive relationship with learners' performance, and learners with mastery goals showed more interest toward the class. Students who had avoidance goals showed the lowest performance. Creating interest in a particular area is considered as a significant predictor of academic success (Harackiewicz et al., 2002).

Mastery goals result in taking more risks, choosing more challenging tasks, and considering help-seeking as a strategy that foster learning (Ames, 1992; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Performance goals are connected to learners' avoidance of difficult tasks and less willingness to seek help or take risks because these students are afraid that it may represent their incompetency (Ames, 1992; Pintrich and Schunk, 2002).

Therefore, most researches consider mastery goals as positive predictors of achievement (e.g., Elliot & Church, 1997; Elliot, McGregor, & Gable, 1999; Harackiewicz et al., 2002; McGregor & Elliot, 2002). In the face of difficulty, approach goals have shown a negative or no connection to behaviors (Wolters, 2003), positive thoughts (McGregor & Elliot, 2002), and feelings (Harackiewicz et al., 2002).

In summary, some popular theories and models have been discussed in order to extend our comprehension of L2 motivation. However, as asserted by Wesely (2009), in theories like expectancy-value and goal orientation the role of affect is not clear. It appears that, regardless of the learner, the path from causal roots to causal attribution, to causal dimensions, to expectation of success, and to effect is viewed as automatically determined (Oxford & Shearin, 1996; Weiner, 1984). Deci and Ryan (2002), two of the leading scholars of self-determination theory, considered this a failure to “acknowledge any human nature of deep design to human psyche other than plasticity and docility” (2002: 434).

Of course there are some criticisms against Gardner's model. For instance, Crookes and Schmidt (1991) maintained that Gardner's (1985) model had to be modified in order to observe the link between motivations examined in other branches of knowledge and motivation as explained in prior SL studies, to create direct connection from motivation to psychological mechanisms in L2 learning, and lastly to view comprehensible implications for language pedagogy of earlier second language investigations. In reaction to these criticisms, Gardner (2001a) proposed his modified model and pointed out that the socio-educational model is capable of organizing the major conceptions that seem to be included in L2 learning motivation. In this model it is stressed that students are most importantly considered as the major supporters to language learning motivation, and second, the learner's background and other external factors like the teacher. Gardner (2001a) claims that he has transformed the socio-educational model into a more inclusive one which accounts for different individual variables influencing final achievement in the learning context.

Also, Au (1988), Ellis (1994), and Oxford (1996) criticized the model in that the relations between attitudes, motivation, and orientations on the one hand and measures of language achievement on the other are inconsistent, being influenced by the learning environment and age of the students. However, in his meta-analysis, Gardner (2003) rejected their criticism and showed that the relationships between the variables in his model were all consistent and not affected by age and the context of learning.

Since this study focuses on the individual difference variables and specifically the ones that are related to motivation, and not on the process as in Dornyei's model, Gardner's (2001) model has been used. Indeed, Gardner's model has thus far been considered as the most comprehensive and dominant model of second/foreign language learning, accounting for motivation in relation to other factors such as strategy use and other social, individual, as well as contextual aspects and has been praised for its

consideration of the cultural as well as the social setting in which learning takes place (MacIntyre, MacKinnon, & Clement, 2009).

2.1.3 Motivation's Influence on L2 Success

Recent research has focused on discovering the things that differentiate successful from unsuccessful language learners as the main reason in characterizing successful learners, specifically their use of modifiable second language (L2) factors. It is hoped that such information can be transferred to less successful learners so as to improve their learning abilities. Noticeable among these L2 factors that can be modified is L2 motivation (Wharton, 2000). According to Noels (2001), it is generally agreed that motivation to learn an L2 is at least as important as language aptitude for successful language acquisition. However, L2 researchers, teachers, and administrators consider motivation but not aptitude as a particularly fascinating concept since it can seemingly be raised in an appropriate social situation. Dornyei (2005) maintained that second language motivation provides "the primary impetus to initiate L2 learning and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process" (p. 65). As stated by Li and Pan (2009), among other factors influencing L2, motivation is regarded as an innermost cause of students' different achievements. Similarly, Gholami, Rahman, and Mustapha (2012) consider motivation as a chief contributor to second/foreign language learning. Many studies have indicated the effect that motivation has on L2 success including specifically the ones on the basis of Gardner's Socio-Educational Model. Some of these studies and their findings are reported below.

Noels, Clement, and Pelletier (2001) performed an investigation to examine the relation of extrinsic/intrinsic motivation to integrative orientation among French Canadian learners who studied English. A questionnaire measuring students' reasons for L2 learning, effort in language learning, competence and self-reliance, course achievement, and motivation to continue English studies were completed by 59

participants. The researchers claimed that the subjects indicated high motivation. students' interest in knowing English community as well as achieving personal goals like course grades or jobs were considered as the causes of high motivation.

Noels, Pelletier, Clement, and Vallerand (2000) also studied the role intrinsic and extrinsic motivations had on language learning among Canadian university students learning French. They learned that identified regulation, which is a type of extrinsic motivation, and intrinsic motivation significantly correlated with the participants' intentions to continue studying French.

In another study Hernandez (2006) aimed at investigating the ability of the predictability of three factors: instrumental motivation, integrative motivation, as well as the requirement to complete an FL need, for students' grades on Spanish proficiency interview. A sample of 130 18-24 year old university students (52 males and 78 females) enrolled in the last semester of their Spanish course of a Midwestern university, participated in the study. An adapted version of the questionnaire developed by Ely (1986) was utilized to assess the learners' instrumental/integrative motivation as well as the foreign language requirement. The learners' oral proficiency was assessed by an oral proficiency interview. Findings of the regression analyses reported that integrative motivation significantly predicted students' oral proficiency scores; students who had higher integrative motivation reported higher oral proficiency scores. However, the foreign language requirement and the instrumental motivation were not considered as significant predictors. In addition, learners' desire to continue studying Spanish was significantly predicted by both the foreign language requirement and the integrative motivation. Students' decisions to continue their Spanish studies were negatively correlated to foreign language requirement. The researcher concluded that to increase the learners' success in foreign language classroom and their achievement, classroom activities and assignments that enhance integrative motivation should be utilized.

Liu (2007) studied the attitudes towards English learning and the motivation types

and level of 202 (151 male and 51 female) Chinese non-English majors studying at a national Chinese university. The researcher also aimed at examining the correlations of these variables, English learning motivation types and attitudes, with the learners' English proficiency. The students were administered an adopted form of the motivation questionnaires made by Clément et al. (1994) and Gardner (1985) to measure their attitudes and motivation. Students' English proficiency was assessed by a simulated CET English proficiency test designed by the researcher. The findings of this study indicated that participants had moderate or strong positive attitudes towards and high motivation to learn English. Learners reported higher instrumental motivation compared with integrative motivation to learn English. In addition, results of the correlation analysis indicated that learners' instrumental motivation and attitudes had significant positive relationships with their English language proficiency. Students with more positive attitudes toward learning English had higher English proficiency scores. In the same way, learners with higher instrumental motivation achieved higher scores on the English proficiency test. Moreover, significant positive correlations were found between the students' motivation types and their attitudes.

Yuanfang (2009) examined foreign language learning motivation and achievement among 151 (95 female and 56 male) Australian students learning Chinese and 344 (221 male and 123 female) Chinese students learning English at university level. To assess the learners' attitudes and motivation, a modified version of Gardner's (1985) AMTB was used. Participants' semester results were considered as the measure of language achievement. Multiple regressions conducted between students' language achievement and their language learning motivation categories including intensity, integrative/instrumental motivation for Chinese, and two types of integrative/instrumental motivation for the Australians. The findings of this study showed that Australian participants had higher integrative motivation whereas Chinese learners had higher instrumental motivation. Moreover, language achievement related positively with integrative motivation for Australian students

while this relationship was significantly negative among Chinese.

In a recent study, Sayadian and Lashkarian (2010) examined the attitudes and motivation of Iranian EFL learners. For this purpose, 537 non-English major university students were given a questionnaire based on Gardner's AMTB to elicit information of learners' attitudes towards learning English, integrative motivation, and instrumental motivation, including the categories of each component. The researchers also examined whether gender and particular course pursued by the subjects influenced their attitudes and motivation. The researchers came up with the following results. The participants showed poor attitude toward English speakers but had high attitude toward interest in foreign languages and learning English. Both males and females showed high percentages in integrative motivation (65.86% and 66.76% respectively). All the learners were highly instrumentally oriented. Regarding class anxiety, males indicated lower attitude compared to females. Except the class related to interest in foreign languages (0.020), the whole subdivisions of attitudes toward learning English were insignificant. Females differed from males only in their interest in foreign languages.

Thang, Ting, and Jaafar (2011) similarly conducted a research to explore the attitudes and motivation of 143 Chinese, Malay, and Iban male students from Art and Science classes. Moreover, the study explored the differences in students' attitudes and motivation with different proficiency levels. The participants were studying English as their compulsory subject to complete the SPM (Malaysian Certificate of Education). To examine the learners' attitudes and motivation an adapted version of Gardner's (1985) Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) was utilized. Results of the descriptive statistics and ANOVA revealed learners had positive attitudes and students with higher proficiency level showed to have positive motivation and attitudes.

In another recent study Gholami, Allahyar, and Rafik-Galea (2012) planned to examine the performances of 95 Iranian high school (third grade) students to determine the dominant type of motivation among them as a whole and among high

achievers. The study also aimed at determining the difference in learners' achievement with instrumental or integrative motivation. To measure students' instrumental and integrative motivation, an adapted version of Gardner's (1985) Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) and Clement et al. (1994) was used. The learners' English achievement was their scores on the final-year achievement test. It was shown that instrumental orientation was the dominant type of motivation among these EFL students. Furthermore, findings related to t-test revealed that participants who were motivated integratively outperformed the learners with instrumental motivation and high achievement students had integrative motivation.

Engin (2009) also aimed at studying the significance of motivation types including instrumental, integrative, and work avoidance in successful foreign learning. 44 university students within the age range of 17-21 were involved in the study. The participants enrolled in two classes and each class consisted of 18 females and four male students from Ataturk University. To assess their motivations, the researcher prepared a motivation scale based on Entwisle (1972) and Costello's (1967) work. Students' English language learning was measured by an achievement test. Results of the study reported significant positive correlations between the learners' success in second language learning and their instrumental and integrative motivation. Specifically, integrative motivation compared with instrumental motivation, showed to be more effective for students' success. Moreover, work avoidance motivation was negatively correlated with learners' success. Therefore, the findings of the study confirmed the significance of the instrumental, integrative, and work avoidance motivations in L2 learning (Engin, 2009). In addition, the investigator reported that both female and male students had enough integrative motivation in learning the target language. 17 and 21 year old students were slightly more eager to learn the foreign language, compared to 18 to 20 year old students. Both male and female students had the same level of instrumental motivation. Also, the idea about work avoidance was reported to be similar for both males and females. The researcher

stated that the students were opposed to this motivation-type, work avoidance. This reveals that the learners did not possess any motivation to refrain from studying the target language (Engin, 2009). The researcher concluded that students' language achievement and learning techniques can be developed by teachers' understanding of the significance of motivation.

Bernaus and Gardner (2008) conducted a study to investigate language teaching strategies which were reported by both students and teachers. In addition, they aimed to find the influence of such strategies on learners' motivation. Students' motivation, attitudes, and language anxiety were also examined using mini-Attitude Motivation Test Battery of Gardner and MacIntyre (1993). Participants of the study were 31 English language teachers together with their students (694) in Catalonia. The students involved were 15 year old learners in their last year of secondary education. For the purpose of the study, the teachers and students were provided a series of questionnaires, planned to recognize the strategies which were used by the teachers, and both rated the frequency of 26 strategies used in the classroom. The findings of the study showed that teachers' reported use of strategies had no relationship with learners' English language achievement, motivation, attitudes, and language anxiety. However, the learners' perception of the strategies was connected to their motivation and attitudes. In addition, students' frequency ratings of traditional strategy use had a negative correlation with English language achievement. Considering other variables involved in the study it was found that motivation was predicted by the variables integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS), and instrumental orientation and student's English achievement was positively predicted by motivation. However, learners' English achievement was negatively predicted by ALS and language anxiety. Furthermore, although teachers' reported use of strategies did not impact the regression coefficients, learners' reported use of strategies positively influenced the regression coefficient found between motivation and English language achievement.

Kam (2006) carried out a study to recognize the variables related to English language learning in Sydney and Hong Kong. For this purpose, 247 students in Sydney and 628 students in Hong Kong were given questionnaires and short tests in Chinese and English to find out the connection between factors such as integrativeness, home language, motivation, ALS, language proficiency, goals setting, and anxiety. The participants chosen from Sydney attended Chinese schools. Factor analysis showed that motivation was strongly connected to achievement. The factors anxiety, attitudes toward the language courses, and integrative orientation had significant roles in forming learners' motivation.

In another study, Kam (2002), Examined a sample of 247 Chinese students enrolled in weekend Chinese schools in Sydney as well as 628 Hong Kong primary and secondary school students. Participants' ethno-linguistic vitality and their integrativeness, instrumental orientation, attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS), motivation, English class anxiety, self-efficacy, English use anxiety were assessed by two kinds of questionnaire on the basis of Gardner's socio- educational model. Also, to measure students' proficiency in Chinese and English, they were given two language tests. Results of the study suggested that the correlation between English proficiency and ethno-linguistic vitality was not significant. However, motivation had significant positive and direct relationship with integrativeness, language achievement, and ethno-linguistic vitality, and positive indirect relationship with language achievement. The findings of this study also showed strong correlations in the students' ALS, desire for learning English, assessment of English course, and their assessment of English learning.

Zairi (1996) performed a study aiming at describing the connection between the students' attitudes concerning learning English and their English achievement. For this purpose 115 students selected randomly from some schools in Malaysia participated in this study. A standardized English examination as well as the attitude and motivation questionnaire adapted from Gardner and Lambert's (1972) AMTB were

used to measure the learners' English achievement and attitudes respectively. Results of the correlation analysis indicated that learners' attitudes had significant positive relationship with their English achievement (.32).

Tremblay, Goldberg, and Gardner (1995) examined the effect of students' trait motivation on their state motivation and Hebrew achievement. Eighty eight Canadian university students participated in a three-part test consisting of Likert attitudinal scales, a learning task with 26 Hebrew words, and the AMTB questionnaire. The researchers confirmed their hypothesis concerning the influence of trait motivation on state motivation. Findings also revealed that state motivation influenced the learners' rate of learning. In addition, it was confirmed that learning success did significantly and positively influence attitudes toward Hebrew, but the generalizing of attitudes toward Jewish people was not marked.

Tremblay and Gardner (1995) investigated measures of attitudes toward and motivations for achievement in second-language courses. Canadian secondary school students (N= 75) enrolled in French language courses at a Francophone school were asked to complete a questionnaire determining French language background and experience, performance expectancy, and attitudes and motivations. The variables for motivation included those from Gardner's (1985) Socio- educational model, as well as persistence, attention, goal specificity, and causal attribution. Student achievement was assessed through essays and final course grades. The researchers found support for a model which specified that achievement was directly influenced by French language background and motivational behavior.

Lalonde and Gardner (1985) investigated the relation of the variables attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS), motivation and integrativeness to three kinds of criteria including French achievement measurement, French grades, and the purpose to continue learning French or not. The study was performed for two continuous years in Canada. In the first year, 24 samples including 96 to 225 students participated and for the second year, 15 samples involving 38 to 194 students participated in the study.

All learners were in grades 7-11. For the two years, the correlations between motivation and the three kinds of measures were higher than such a relation for the factors ALS and integrativeness. Moreover, motivation significantly related to students' intention for both years. However, 92% of the relations of ALS and integrativeness to intention were statistically significant. The correlations of motivation, integrativeness, and ALS with French achievement were 79%, 64%, and 64% respectively. The correlations of such variables with French grades were 74% for ALS and integrativeness and 92% for motivation.

While most of the researches have been performed to test the validity of Gardner's model in different L2 contexts such as Bernaus and Gardner (2008), Kam (2006), Lalonde and Gardner (1985), Sayadian and Lashkarian (2010), Tremblay and Gardner (1995), Ushioda (1996b), and Zairi (1996), less attention has been given to the combination of particular factors that might potentially influence L2 learning. These factors, as mentioned previously (see chapter 1 section 1.1), which are related to individual differences between learners, might be either motivational or non-motivational, depending on whether they contribute or are promoted by motivation. The present study aims at testing the Socio-Educational Model using two of the potentially individual difference constructs, i.e. self-efficacy and strategy use, as other motivational and non-motivational factors respectively, and investigating how the two variables fit into Gardner's (2001a) model and what their possible relationship might be. In the following sections, the variables self-efficacy and language learning strategy use will be studied in more detail in order to show how they could be related generally to foreign/second language learning and motivation and to the Socio-Educational Model more specifically.

2.2 Self-efficacy and Social Cognitive Theory

Bandura's (1986, 1997) social cognitive theory as an individuals' functioning theory, contributes to the idea that humans can control their behavior. As mentioned previously

(see chapter 1 section 1.8), humans have a self-beliefs system enabling them to manage and exert control on their actions, feelings, and thoughts (Millis, 2004). Based on this theory, as mentioned previously (see chapter 1 section 1.5.2), "what people think, believe, and feel affect how they behave" (Bandura, 1986: 25). The special significance of the interaction among environmental, behavioral, and personal affects is considered as the gist of Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory. The interplay of these three factors can determine the individual's behavior. Then, the results of a behavior are employed to create expectations and beliefs about future behavior and hence, humans become both products and producers of their own environments (Millis, 2004).

She goes on to say that this self-system allows individuals to apply a certain amount of control on five distinct human abilities: forethought, symbolizing, vicarious learning, self-reflection, and self-regulation (Millis, 2004). Therefore, individuals select their course of effort and activity, check if their behavior is suitable, explain the results, form beliefs about their abilities, and keep such knowledge and information in order to guide future behavior (Bandura, 1997). Self-reflection was considered by Bandura (1997) as the most effective determiner and controller of human agency. People assess the adequateness of their behavior, thought, and motivation and change their thought as well as their resulting or future behavior by reflective self-examination procedure (Bandura, 1997).

Among the most pervading factors that determine self-reflection are perceptions of self-efficacy or internal judgments of a person's abilities to execute and organize a course of activity that is necessary to achieve future performance (Bandura, 1997). As mentioned previously (see chapter 1 section 1.5.2), Grabe (2009) has stated that educational psychologists consider self-efficacy as the major component in social cognitive theory. Thus, self-efficacy beliefs depend on what individuals believe they may achieve by their personal skill but not on their capabilities. Self-efficacy is,

therefore, often considered as a better predictor of one's success than his/her past skills or accomplishments (Mutton, Brown, & Lent, 1991; Schunk, 1991). Some researchers claimed that such beliefs affect one's pursued course of action, effort put forth in given endeavors, perseverance when encountering barriers, and resilience to adversity (Bandura & Schunk, 1981; Pintrich & De Groot, 1990; Schunk, 1995). Self-efficacious people then deal with difficulties as they have the purpose and expectation to master, and accordingly increase their attempts and perseverance (Millis, 2004). If the self-efficacy of such persons is lowered they quickly improve it and ascribe failure to inadequate attempt or lack of knowledge. Bandura (1997) maintained that individual's self-efficacy "affect almost everything they do; how they think, motivate themselves, feel, and behave" (p.19).

According to Bandura (1997) self-efficacy beliefs are made by four main sources of knowledge: 1) mastery experiences which are considered as the most effective source of self-efficacy, refer to past performances that can be interpreted negatively or positively. People interpret the results of past performances and form beliefs about their abilities from the future self-appraisal. Successful performances intensify self-efficacy beliefs while, failed performances weaken self-efficacy. Successful performances hence contribute to the expectation and prediction of future success. Therefore, mastery experiences provide individuals with a dependable foundation from which they can evaluate self-efficacy and anticipate successful performances of future activities. Individuals with positive past experiences related to a learning task develop stronger self-efficacy than those who have had negative experiences.

2) Vicarious experiences refer to one's appraisal of his or her own abilities in connection to the performances of peers. By observing the successes of peers, individuals understand that a task can be easy or possible and encourage the belief that they might also have similar abilities. This experience hence may strengthen the

individual's perception of competence. Conversely, by observing the failure of peers, individuals' perceptions of their abilities to succeed are greatly undermined. Thus, through vicarious experiences, people can acquire information about their abilities, which may lead and motivate personal self-development in a positive or negative manner (Bandura, 1997).

3) Bandura (1997) maintains that verbal persuasion which is explained as individuals' judgments or assessment of another's ability to achieve a specific activity, may also affect self-efficacy. Verbal persuasion, like encouragement in dealing with obstacles or performance feedback, can provide particular information about one's competence and can be regarded as a considerable source of self-efficacy information. Positive verbal messages and encouragement can cause successful future performances because they lead individuals to start tasks, try new strategies, or expend continued effort. However, negative persuasions can weaken people's perceptions of their competence and prevent the development of a high sense of efficacy. Bandura (1997) asserts that "it is easier to sustain a sense of efficacy, specially when struggling with difficulties, if significant others express faith in one's capabilities than if they convey doubts" (p. 101).

4) Lastly, physiological and emotional indexes during task performance, like anxiety, fatigue, or stress, can be considered as additional source of self-efficacy information. People's emotional states throughout task performance affect their perceptions of competence that create either improving beliefs of future success or an expectation for failure. Relaxed physical state and positive emotions during task performances can make efficacy beliefs strong and contribute to the anticipation of subsequent successful performances, while high levels of anxiety or arousal can weaken performance.

Self-efficacy beliefs play a vital role in motivation and learning (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). This factor is considered as the heart of motivational construct in the social

cognitive theory, which, as mentioned previously (see chapter 1 section 1.2), emphasizes that achievement is affected by interactions among environmental, personal, and behavioral variables (Bandura, 1986, 1997). These variables in turn influence the level of motivation in selecting actions, expending effort, and persevering in a goal-directed task (Pajares, 1997; Pajares & Urdan, 2006; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002; Valentine, Dubois, & Cooper, 2004).

Learners with positive beliefs about their abilities to do well persist on countering difficulties (Bandura, 2000; Schunk & Pajares, 2004). Likewise, as mentioned previously (see chapter 1 section 1.2), individuals who believe that some factors within their control can determine their success or failure, tend to be more motivated and have more positive expectation for future accomplishments than ones who think that success can not be determined or controlled (Weiner, 1979). Along the same line, Zimmerman (2000) and Alderman (1999) maintain that self-perception can influence motivation. An individual's motivation to achieve a specific activity can be destroyed by self-perception dependent upon the idea that there is no capability to do that specific activity; or due to the idea that the activity does not have challenging components, motivation is prevented (Alderman, 1999; Bandura, 1997). Studies have indicated that learners with high beliefs and perceptions of themselves pursue more challenging goals (Zimmerman, 2000; Zimmerman, Bandura, & Martinez-pons, 1992).

In an academic setting, learners define aims before beginning tasks, and then form a belief about their capability to perform the actions that will let for goal attainment (Schunk, 2003). Learners only get involved in the tasks they think they can deal with well and prevent those they think they do not possess the competence to carry out adequately (Bandura, 1986).

It could be concluded from the given background, that self- efficacy is considered as a motivational variable that is able to affect an individual's desire for learning, the effort

the person expends as well as the enjoyment he feels in the learning process. Likewise, a number of motivational and non-motivational variables affect learners' foreign language achievement, as presented in Gardner's (2001a) model. Being motivational, the self-efficacy construct could be measured and explained in the socio- educational model, which is what the present study proposes to achieve.

2.2.1 Self-efficacy and Academic Achievement

Bandura (1997) stated that individuals act only if they believed they could cause desired outcomes. Efficacious people take advantage of opportunities quickly, and find ways to overcome or change constraints in their way, while inefficacious individuals are less able to exploit their environment, and are rather easily discouraged by obstacles. According to social cognitive theory, upon which the concept of self-efficacy is founded, different behavioral choices, which root back in a person's self-influence and self-efficacy, bring about certain outcomes, the anticipation of which causes people to judge how well they can perform in given situations. Highly efficacious learners are confident in their achievement, set themselves difficult situations to which they are obligated to perform, to prevent failure they work harder, are highly flexible and consider deficient attempt or insufficient skills and knowledge that can be acquired as the cause of failure (Ching, 2002). As stated previously (see chapter 1 section 8), high self-efficacious students often indicate higher inherent interest in academic affairs and correct self-assessment of their academic accomplishment, and they obtain higher intellectual achievement (Bouffard-Bouchard, 1990). Zimmerman (2000) stated that numerous researches propose that the predictability of past successes and other general measurements of individuals' abilities to achievement can be increased by self-efficacy beliefs. Bandura (1997) maintains that when performance determines the outcomes, self-efficacy beliefs are mostly responsible. As students' beliefs are often predictive of their academic achievement and career choice (Lent, Brown, & Larkin, 1986) as well as

their persistence and success in specific academic majors (Brown, Lent, and Larkin, 1989; OBrien, Brown, and Lent, 1989), personal competence beliefs have been indicated to help shape their academic, social, and vocational development. Studies have indicated that students' learning skill is affected by the influence of self-efficacy on persistence through enhancing persistence (Schunk, 2003; Zimmerman, 2000).

Many researchers have investigated the relation of self-efficacy with learning and academic achievement (Bandura, 1986, 1989; Dweck and Legget, 1988; Multon, Brown and Lent, 1991; Nicholls, 1984; Pajares, 2002; Pajares and Johnson, 1996; Pajares and Miller, 1994; Schunk, 1994; Zimmerman, 1989). As Schunk and Pajares (2001) maintain, when engaged in activities, students are affected by personal and situational influences which give them clues showing the degree of their learning. In academic settings, when learners realize that they are becoming more skillful or doing well, self-efficacy increases. It should be noted, however, that when learners believe that by making more attempts or employing more efficient strategies they can do better than their self-efficacy will not necessarily decrease if they do not succeed or show progress (Schunk, 1995).

The above-mentioned dimension of self-efficacy, which is called "academic self-efficacy", has been defined by Schunk (1991) as individual's realized ability to do specific academic activities at the levels desired. Many research findings affirm the social cognitive theorists' arguments supporting the role played by self-efficacy in academic settings, emphasizing that academic performances are strongly predicted by self-efficacy beliefs. Students may have differing-domain specific or task-specific beliefs of their efficacy. For instance, for domain-specific beliefs of efficacy, students might feel competent in their foreign language capabilities but less competent in their mathematics capabilities. In reference to task-specific beliefs of efficacy, learners might

feel more proficient in their foreign language reading capabilities and less proficient in their foreign language speaking capabilities.

Researchers interested in the motivational affects on learning have examined the practicality of the self-efficacy construct in different areas. Pajares (2003) states that researches in medicine, athletics, media studies, business, psychology, education, and other areas have shown a strong connection between human beings' beliefs in their own capability to perform and attaining the desired results. Graham and Weiner (1996) argued that self-efficacy, as a motivational construct, has the best predictive utility for behavioral outcomes particularly in education and psychology fields of study. In the field of education, for instance, results have confirmed positive connections between self-efficacy, learning behaviors, and academic achievement in different academic subjects, such as writing (Klassen & Georgiou, 2008; Page-Voth & Graham, 1999; Pajares, 2003; Pajares & Johnson, 1999; Pajares & Valiante, 1999; Pajares & Valiante, 2001), mathematics (Anjum, 2006; Pajares, 1996b; Pajares & Graham, 1999; Pietsch, Walker, & Chapman, 2003), reading (Chapman & Tunmer, 2003), science (Igbaria & Livari, 1995; Posey & Piccoli, 2009; Saleh, 2008; Simmering, Smith & Fouad, 1999), and social studies (Zimmerman, Bandura, & Martinez-Pons, 1992). Self-efficacy is an effective predictor of task performance and achievement. In the field of writing, for instance, different studies have reported positive connections between self-efficacy and writing results.

Pajares and Valiante (1999) investigated if writing self-efficacy of the middle-school students functioned as an independent support to their competence when the learners advanced to higher levels. Results showed that learners' writing competence was only predicted by writing self-efficacy among all other motivational constructs. The motivational constructs involved were writing apprehension, self-efficacy for self-regulation, writing self-concept, and writing achievement.

Pajares and Johnson (1994) examined the writing self-efficacy, apprehension, as well as perceived value of writing amongst college students. They reported a regression model that explained 68% of variance in learners' writing performance. The findings also showed that students' efficacy level of writing skills was an important predictor of performance. Risemberg (1996) carried out a correlational study to examine the link between two writing strategies, self-efficacy for writing, reading, and writing quality. A significant correlation was shown between essay quality and all of these factors.

Pajares and Valiante (1997) studied the effect of writing apprehension, writing self-efficacy, and writing aptitude on learners' essay-writing performance. It was revealed that self-efficacy predicted writing performance amongst fifth graders. Moreover, self-efficacy was reported to be the mediator of writing aptitude on perceived usefulness, writing apprehension, and performance. Based on path analysis study for writing, Zimmerman and Bandura (1994) concluded that writing self-efficacy could significantly predict college learners' measures for writing quality.

Self-efficacy studies done in science and mathematics indicate that learners' efficacy is a mediator between learners' abilities and academic achievement (Britner & Pajares, 2001; Pajares, 1996a; Pajares & Graham, 1999).

Self-efficacy also acts as a moderator between math experience, ability, anxiety, and performance (Lopez, Lent, Brown, & Gore, 1997; Pajares & Kranzler, 1995). Pajares (1996b) reported similar moderating influences in his research focusing on gifted learners in a middle school. Using path analysis, he investigated the mediational and predictive role of self-efficacy among gifted middle school learners' problem-solving skills in mathematics. The results showed a positive correlation among math self-efficacy, low anxiety, and self-efficacy in self-regulated acquisition or learning. Self-efficacy also contributed to students' accomplishment in solving algebra problems. Together with gifted learners' prior experience, self-efficacy served as a mediator

between math performance and the cognitive ability of gifted students. Self-efficacy, unlike other self-concepts, looks at the learner's perceived competence in a particular situation. The situation-specific quality of self-efficacy and its effect in a goal-directed context of learning are highly efficient in students' achievement (Linnenbrink and Pintrich, 2003; Walker, 2003).

In a research conducted on learners' self-monitoring, Zimmerman (2000) found that efficacious learners monitored their working time more efficiently and were more persistent. Results of the research also showed that with equal aptitude, students with higher efficacy had a better solving problems performance compared to inefficacious learners (Zimmerman, 2000).

Smith and Fouad (1999) conducted a research on the domain-specificity of some motivational constructs namely self-efficacy, expectations, interests, intentions and goals, and outcome, in mathematics, social studies, science, art, and English. Sixteen instruments were constructed in order to measure the agreement between these factors and the subject-matter indicators. The questionnaires were administered to volunteer college students. The findings confirmed that all motivational factors had better predictability when they were specific to subject matter.

Self-efficacy should be made distinct from other concepts related to broader sense of self like self-concept (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). Self-concept refers to "a description of one's own perceived self, accompanied by a judgment of self-worth" (Pajares & Schunk, 2002: 21). These researchers claimed that generalized perceptions of self are regarded as global self-concept. Self-concept can be classified into more specific components. Non-academic self-concept involves self-concepts about emotional, physical, or social aspects of self, whereas academic self-efficacy is explained as a person's perceptions of self and self-worth judgment in academic domains (Pajares and Schunk, 2001; Marsh, 1990). Academic self-concept can be further grouped into academic domain-specific

self-concepts like science self-concept or Spanish learning self-concept. Furthermore, Spanish learning self-concept can be divided into the domains of Spanish writing self-concept or Spanish reading self-concept.

Self-concept influences academic results in different fields (Skaalvik, 1997). Some investigators think that the relation of self-concept to measures of performance and achievement is moderate and positive (Byrne & Worth Gavin, 1996; Hattie, 1992). Some other researchers have found a strong association between self-concept and the constructs of value, anxiety, and intrinsic motivation (Pajares & Miller, 1994; Pajares, Miller, & Johnson, 1999; Pajares & Valentine, 1999). However, compared to self-concept, self-efficacy has stronger influences on performance in different academic fields (Britner & Pajares, 2001).

Self-concept is different from self-efficacy in the sense that self-concept refers to a descriptive judgment of an individual's perceived self, whereas self-efficacy is regarded as an individual's judgment of his ability to achieve a specific task or to involve in an activity (Millis, 2004). Self-efficacy beliefs indicate individual's views regarding his ability to perform a given learning task; whereas self-concept beliefs refer to wider assessment of individual's general esteem or self-worth (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003). Self-efficacy is theoretically different from motivational concepts like self-concept or outcome expectations since it is considered as a performance-based measurement of an individual's realized ability (Zimmerman, 2000). Self-efficacy items, as mentioned by Millis (2004), often involve the question "how confident are you that you can....." and ask learners to assess their competence at specific tasks while self-concept questions often include questions of feeling and being like "how do you feel about yourself as a French student". Replies to such self-efficacy items ask learners to assess if they have high confidence or low confidence in order to involve in such questioned activities, while responses to self-concept items display positive or negative feelings of self-worth

related to the subject area and how people feel about themselves in specific academic domains (Millis, 2004).

Pietsch, Walker, and Chapman (2003) carried out a correlational study to examine the links among self-concept, self-efficacy, and achievement in a high-school setting. The researchers asserted that self-concept and self-efficacy need to be treated as two independent factors because there are important theoretical differences between them. Results from different factor analysis models indicated that self-efficacy is considered as a stronger predictor, than self-concept, of learners' performance on specific tasks. It was asserted that to maximize the predictive value of the self-efficacy instrument, motivational instruments and the academic subject chosen must be matched together. Also, Mone, Baker, and Jeffries (1995) maintain that in general, the superiority of self-efficacy beliefs over self-concept as predictors of academic outcomes has been indicated by the results that have been brought by the specificity provided by self-efficacy measures.

In addition, self-confidence and self-efficacy are sometimes utilized interchangeably but they are different concepts. Self-confidence, the belief that an individual has the capability to produce results, achieve goals or accomplish tasks competently, is considered as a significant dimension of self-concept and it is utilized in a more general sense than self-efficacy (Dornyei, 1994b). Self-confidence measures are utilized to measure more generalized ideas about competence (Dornyei, 1994b). Self-efficacy items evaluate perceived competence at particular tasks while self-confidence items in foreign language studies have reflected generalized or global attitudes about capabilities (Pajares, 1996a).

For instance, some researchers have evaluated learners' self-confidence in foreign language skills involving speaking, writing, reading, and listening with only one item for each skill (e.g., how well can you write in the foreign language?) (Clement, Dornyei,

& Noels, 1994; Noels, Pon, & Clement, 1996). The use of one item gives information about confidence beliefs but the knowledge obtained is quite limited. For example, a learner's perceived competence in reading a novel and in reading a short postcard in the foreign language would be considerably different. Therefore, using one item would not represent such nuances. Assessing self-efficacy with such items that lack specificity compels learners to evaluate their perception of competence without a clear comprehension of a specific task in mind. Hence, measures of general self-confidence obscure what is being evaluated and change beliefs of competence into more general personality attributes (Pajares, 1996a).

MacIntyre and his colleagues have used a construct called perceived competence in order to evaluate language learners' confidence beliefs (Baker & MacIntyre, 2000; MacIntyre, Clement, & Donovan, 2002). Although this construct seems to parallel self-efficacy, there is no theoretical framework that can be used as its foundation. Furthermore, the assessment of perceived competence has often been accompanied by the assessment of motivation constructs such as attitude, motivation, and integrativeness (MacIntyre, Clement, & Donovan, 2002).

Studies have also revealed the impact of self-efficacy on first language achievement. Some studies results have indicated the effect of learners' self-efficacy on L1 writing performance (Pajares & Johnson, 1996, 1994; Pajares, Miller, & Johnson, 1999; Pajares & Valentine, 2001, 1999, 1997; Shell, Murphy, & Bruning, 1989) and L1 reading achievement (Paris & Oka, 1986; Shell, Murphy, & Bruning, 1989). As both reading and writing are complex tasks which require the integration of different subskills, self-efficacy mediates the use of such skills to affect first language writing and reading achievement.

Self perceptions of first language reading can affect a person's choice of reading activities, attitude toward reading, overall reading comprehension performance, and

perseverance and involvement with the written text (Henk & Melnik,1995). Students who have low self-efficacy in first language reading often resist involving in reading activities or involving in the reading process (McCabe & Margolis, 2001) while confident first language readers use different reading strategies to enhance their comprehension (Casteel, Isom, & Jordan, 2000).

Shell, Murphy, and Bruning (1989) studied first language reading self-efficacy and first language reading performance of 153 college students. The findings of the study revealed that first language reading self-efficacy was a strong predictor of students' reading performance. Research indicates that reading self-efficacy can be improved by teaching language reading strategies, personalizing the reading process, promoting collaborative discussion, as well as encouraging learners to self-assess their development toward achieving pre-determined reading aims (Schunk, 2003; Walker, 2003). In their suggestions to improve learners' first language reading self-efficacy, McCabe and Margolis (2001) maintained that "with a strong self-perception and a quality reading program geared to their needs, the probability that students will become good readers increases dramatically" (p.49).

As has been discussed, relationships between self- efficacy and first language skills have been studied, showing that compared with students who possess lower self-efficacy, those who have higher self-efficacy do better on language arts. However, these studies do not mention anything about the acquisition of second language skills.

2.2.2 Self-efficacy and Second Language Learning

It seems that majority of the recent studies of self-efficacy have been focused on science education (e.g., Ryan, Ryan, Arbuthnot, & Samuels, 2007) or technology use in the classroom. The influences of self-efficacy are also important to language learning achievement. Motivation researchers believe that self-efficacy may affect language learners highly through its affective, cognitive, and behavioral influences (Tremblay &

Gardner, 1995; Oxford & Shearin, 1994). The variables investigated in previous L2 motivation research have mainly focused on instrumental and integrative orientation (Dornyei, 1994a). However, such studies do not clearly explain learners' appraisals of their ability to do a language task and/or anticipate their achievement in learning situations (Wu, 2006).

Learners' self-beliefs with regard to learning an L2 are significant determinants of their effort, persistence, and learning behaviors (Bandura & Schunk, 1981). Consequently, these efficacy beliefs affect learners' course achievement and language success. Employing the self-efficacy factor in language learning context seems to be highly appropriate because as mentioned previously (see chapter 1 section 1.2), language learners' assessment of their ability to perform language skills affects their attitude and motivation as well as the behaviors needed to attain a learning goal (Wu, 2006).

However, the number of researches related to L2 learning self-efficacy has been rather scarce. Among the few studies carried out in this area are those by Chen and Hasson (2007), Chiang et al. (2014); Huang and Chang (1998, 1996), Lai, Ching-yee (2002), Matthews (2001), McCollum (2001), McCollum (2003), Mills, Pajares, and Herron (2006), Rahimi and Abedini (2009), Tilfarlioglu and Ciftci (2011), Tilfarlioglu and Cinkara (2009), and Wang and Pape (2002).

Tilfarlioglu and Ciftci (2011) carried out an investigation to explore the relation of self-efficacy and learner autonomy with academic performance in English and with academic success. The connection between self-efficacy and learner autonomy were also examined. In addition, the influence of autonomy and self-efficacy on learners' achievement in English was investigated. For these purposes two hundred fifty EFL university students in Turkey completed Autonomous Learner Questionnaire (ALQ) and Self-Efficacy Questionnaire (SEQ). The data was analyzed by SPSS. Findings indicated

that self-efficacy significantly and positively correlated with learner autonomy ($r = .667$) and with English performance ($r = .597$). Also, students' learner autonomy significantly and positively correlated with their academic success ($r = .506$). Furthermore, findings related to multiple regression analyses showed that learner autonomy and self-efficacy had significant influences on academic achievement in English. Autonomy and self-efficacy accounted for %25.6 of variance and %35 of variance in learners' language learning respectively. Autonomy and self-efficacy were considered as significant predictors of students' English achievement; the more autonomous the students were and the higher their self-efficacy was, the better language learning performance they had.

Rahimi and Abedini (2009) investigated the relation of learners' self-efficacy to listening proficiency. Participants were 61 freshmen undergraduate students within the age range of 19-23 who studied English as a foreign language. Of these learners, 43 were female and 18 male. The researchers used a listening proficiency test adopted from TOEFL and made a self-efficacy questionnaire to test the students' listening proficiency and self-efficacy respectively. Pearson correlation and paired sample T-test indicated that high self-efficacy significantly and positively affected listening test performance.

Similarly, Chen and Hasson (2007) conducted a study examining the relation of EFL university students' self-efficacy beliefs with their English listening achievement in Taiwan. English listening comprehension classes of two universities in Taiwan were chosen for the study. Grades obtained by the subjects in the listening course were regarded as indicators of their listening proficiency level. To conduct the study, the researchers used an author designed questionnaire which included the sub-scales of English anxiety together with English value scale as well as the scale of English listening self-efficacy which were adapted from Eccles' (1983) Learner Attitude and Mathematics Anxiety Scale of Betz (1987). It was indicated that learners' self-efficacy

correlated significantly and positively with their listening achievement. It was also indicated that compared to students' anxiety and perceived value, self-efficacy beliefs of the learners predicted their English listening comprehension performance much more strongly. In the same way in Mills, Pajares, and Herron's (2006) study, also results of the regression analyses indicated that reading self-efficacy of the university students studying French in U.S. reported to have a significant positive influence on their reading proficiency. In addition, females' listening self-efficacy showed significant positive effect on their listening proficiency.

Wang and Pape (2002) carried out a study aiming at examining the relationship between young children's self-regulated learning behaviors, self-efficacy, and their English achievement. To achieve the objectives, they collected data from five fourth-grade English students. The authors used some instruments including a self-report inventory to ascertain achievement in learning English, a self-efficacy toward studying English questionnaire, a self-regulated learning strategies questionnaire, and parental interview on students' background, self-efficacy, and learning strategies. In addition, the researchers observed the students' behavior and use of English at play. Analyses from the five participants revealed that successful learners of English were more efficacious and used more self-regulated learning behaviors than unsuccessful learners.

McCollum (2001) constructed a scale to measure self-efficacy and learning goal orientation in the foreign language-learning domain. He also investigated the relationship between self-efficacy, learning goal orientation and foreign language achievement. One hundred twenty eight foreign language students at Pennsylvania State University completed his newly constructed instrument- the Measure of Foreign Language Achievement Potential (MOFLAP)- which found to have high reliability as well as predictive and discriminant. It was also found that self-efficacy is highly predictive of course grades and learning orientation is moderately predictive of course

grades. Moreover, goal orientation construct had a slight improvement over using self-efficacy alone to predict foreign language course grades. Similar results were obtained by McCollum (2003) and Templin (1999) who found that compared with students possessing low self-efficacy, those who had high self-efficacy obtained higher grades in L2 classes.

To describe the motivational characteristics of 287 introductory-level public university students who were learning foreign languages of Portuguese, Italian, French, or Spanish in U.S., Matthews (2001) used the constructs of achievement task values, language learning self-efficacy as well as achievement goal orientations and attempted to distinguish motivationally among classroom foreign language learners and foreign language students who sought individual tutoring at the university's tutoring program. He found that both tutored and classroom foreign language students' composite scores for language learning self-efficacy, goal orientations, and intrinsic interest task values averaged between 4.59 and 5.61 which were well above the center point of the seven-point Likert-scale ratings. The data suggested that all learners were relatively interested in the FL, valued the domain, and wanted and expected to do reasonably well in the foreign language classroom. Another finding was that the two groups were similar regarding their FL self-efficacy and their FL class grades.

Huang and Chang (1998) investigated self-efficacy in case studies of Japanese, Korean, and Taiwanese learners (N= 2, 1, and 1 respectively) who enrolled in a reading and writing course at the most advanced level of an intensive English program at a Midwestern university. Data were drawn from student and teacher interviews, five class observations, writing assignments, and responses to a 30-item self-efficacy questionnaire developed by Mikulecky, Lloyd, and Huang (1995). Results of each phase of the study were reported for each student to illustrate six aspects of self-efficacy: first, self-efficacy and achievement did not always correlate; second, achievement

corresponded significantly to self-perception of ability; third, self- efficacy was affected by students' interest in reading content and students' feeling about the teacher; fifth, required assignments improved self- efficacy in the areas of persistence and motivation; and finally, self-efficacy was related to a range of other factors including performance, task complexity, effort, and peer comparisons.

Although the studies mentioned directly related to self-efficacy in language learning, they seem to provide insufficient information about the nature of this relationship, since they are either case studies conducted on a very small number of learners within a large age range (young children to university students), or only focus on the relation of self-efficacy to a single language-related variable, disregarding other variables which might equally influence the learning process. Some of the studies focus on only one skill. Furthermore, since each of these studies is performed only once on a single group of students, it is not known whether the results are generalizable to other language learners with different characteristics and backgrounds as well. In other words, although, the claims of social cognitive theory that concerns the role played by self-efficacy is confirmed by such results in general (Dornyei, 2005; Multon, Brown & Lent, 1991), they are not sufficient in explaining the nature or character of the relation of self-efficacy beliefs to other learner-related variables. Among the limited number of researches related to self-efficacy and language constructs such as strategy use, are the studies carried out by Graham (2006), Magogwe and Oliver (2007), Pajares and Schunk (2001), Siew and Wong (2005), Su and Duo (2012), Yang (1999).

Magogwe and Oliver (2007) examined the relations of self-efficacy beliefs to language learning strategies. The participants were 480 learners from a tertiary institution, primary schools, and secondary schools. The data on strategies and self-efficacy was collected through an adopted form of Oxford's (1989) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) and Jinks and Morgan's (1999) Efficacy Scale

respectively. It was revealed that learning strategies use was significantly and positively connected to self-efficacy beliefs for all learners with the three proficiency levels mentioned. Similar results were obtained by Siew and Wong (2005) who investigated such a relationship among 74 Malaysian college graduate English language teachers in Kuching, Sarawak, and found that self-efficacy had a significant positive correlation with language learning strategies; compared with teachers with low self-efficacy, teachers possessing high self-efficacy used greater number of learning strategies more often.

In a recent study Su and Duo (2012) also carried out a study to examine the association of reading self-efficacy with reading strategy use among 182 Chinese English students. They were studying at a university in China. It was shown that students' self-efficacy was significantly and positively related to their reading strategy use. Specifically, learners' reading self-efficacy showed significant positive relationship with affective/social, cognitive, as well as metacognitive strategies. Compared with students possessing low self-efficacy, learners having high self-efficacy employed more reading strategies. Similarly, in Pajares and Schunk's (2001) study students who thought that they had the ability to achieve tasks or specific activities utilized more metacognitive and cognitive strategies and continued for a longer period of time.

Yang's (1999) work determined the association of learners' language learning beliefs with their use of strategies. Participants involved Taiwanese university students studying English for at least six years. To measure the students' self-efficacy and strategy use, Yang (1999) used the BALLI (Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory) and SILL. Results of the research reported a strong correlation between learners' use of six different classes of learning strategies and their self-efficacy. High achieving learners showed high self-efficacy and had positive emotional reactions for learning English. However, one limitation of Yang's study was self-efficacy items

which did not evaluate the students' perceived ability to do a particular aspect of language skill. The self-efficacy items were not specific enough as they are required to be and they were related to learners' emotional reactions to accomplish a language task.

In separate but similar studies Pintrich and DeGroot (1990) and Wolters and Pintrich (1998) surveyed American junior high school students who were studying English or social sciences to examine the effect of self-efficacy and value on strategy use. Results of the research revealed that self-efficacy and intrinsic value significantly predicted learners' strategy use. Specifically, Wolters and Pintrich (1998) reported that 15% and 9% of the variance of cognitive strategy use were accounted by value and self-efficacy among English learners.

The significance of the relation of self-efficacy to SL/FL learning motivation has also been emphasized by investigators like Bandura (1997), Dornyei (2001a), Ehrman (1996), Pajares (2003), and Zimmerman (2000). The learner who dwells on his/her deficiency and remembers the obstacles he/she encounters when performing challenging tasks, is a low self-efficacious learner who considers difficult tasks as threats (Dornyei, 2001a). The reason to link self-efficacy with SL/FL learning motivation is that for learners being capable of focusing on learning with their maximum effort and determination, they must have a sound view of their abilities in learning (Dornyei, 2001b).

Tremblay and Gardner's (1995) study is one of the few researches that involves self-efficacy as a motivational factor. They assumed that learners' attributions of their failure or success have direct effect on self-efficacy. They surveyed secondary learners in Canada who were involved in a bilingual program. Results indicated that self-efficacy acted as a moderator between learners' motivational behaviors and language attitudes and in turn affected students' achievement in French. However, rather than testing the perceived efficacy of language learners to accomplish a particular task, the self-efficacy

instrument used by Tremblay and Gardner (1995) was developed to test the learners' perceived likelihood of doing certain language functions in French. Indeed, this mismatch between the theoretical quality of the construct and the instrument items may have destroyed the utility of the findings.

In addition, among the restricted number of researches associated with self-efficacy and attribution which can influence motivation, as stated by Weiner (2000), one might point to the study conducted by Hsieh and Schallert (2008) in which 500 undergraduate students who were studying French, German, and Spanish participated. The learners were inquired to tell if test grades expressed an unsuccessful or successful result as well as giving self-efficacy valuations and attribution when they receive their scores. To assess the learners' attributions, two scales, language achievement attribution scale and the causal dimension scale were used. In addition, to measure self-efficacy, a foreign language specific questionnaire was utilized. The scores that students reported on the language tests were regarded as their achievements. Using regressions, the findings indicated that the strongest predictor was self-efficacy which was complemented by attributions. Learners who did not make effort attributions had lower self-efficacy than the learners who assigned failure to their lack of effort.

Also, to explore the interrelationships between self-efficacy, attributions, and English achievement, Hsieh and Kang (2010) performed a study on 192 Korean ninth-grade EFL students. The learners were asked to give self-efficacy and attribution ratings upon obtaining test grades. It was indicated that compared to learners with lower self-efficacy, the learners who reported to have higher self-efficacy ascribed their test results to factors which were more internal control. For unsuccessful learners, more powerful and effective personal control attributions were created by the ones who showed higher self-efficacy, while the ones with lower self-efficacy attributed the results of their test to more external attributions like to the teacher.

Cubuku (2008) carried out a study to explore the relation of self-efficacy to one motivational variable namely language learning anxiety. The participants of the research included 100 college students studying at the junior level of an English teacher training program in Turkey. To measure the learners' language learning anxiety, the authors used FL learning anxiety scale adopted from Horwitz's et al. (1986) Anxiety Scale. To collect information on students' self-efficacy, the researcher developed a foreign language self-efficacy scale which assessed learners' beliefs about their language learning ability and competency. Findings of the research revealed that students' self-efficacy did not show significant correlation with their anxiety. However, compared to learners who had high self-efficacy, students with low self-efficacy had higher language learning anxiety. In addition, the t-test results indicated that boys and girls had similar self-efficacy and anxiety level. Although the connection between self-efficacy beliefs and anxiety was determined in this research, no examination regarding the link between any of these motivational factors with language learning was done. The association between self-efficacy beliefs and anxiety was also investigated in another recent study done by Erkan and Saban (2011) in Turkey. The participants were 188 EFL students. The researchers reported that students' writing self-efficacy had a significant negative connection with their writing anxiety.

As mentioned earlier since studies on the relation of self-efficacy with learner variables regarding language learning have been rare, part of the present study has focused on exploring the relation of self-efficacy to second language achievement, and clarifying its relationship with language learning motivation and the learning strategies use by Iranian EFL students.

2.3 Language Learning Strategies

The research related to second language learning strategy goes back to the year 1975 (Grenfell & Macaro, 2007). Since the movement toward more communicatively-oriented and learner-centered language teaching, investigating how learners learn and what affects their learning has gained great importance as deciding what is to be learned. Studies on the good language learner tried to identify actions, mental processes, motivation, and personality characteristics of successful language learners (Naiman et al., 1978; Rubin, 1975). Rubin (1975) characterized the good language learners as (1) having a powerful and unrestricted cause to communicate; (2) making use of inferencing accurately and willingly; (3) practicing often; (4) paying attention to form and meaning; (5) monitoring his/her own speech as well as the speech of others. Good language learners has been similarly described by Stern (1975) in using strategies like practicing, self-monitoring, paying attention to meaning and form, and making use of the language in actual communication. Such strategies utilized by good language learners were then considered as early instances of strategy studies(Grenfell & Macaro, 2007), which centered on recognizing a collection of behaviors or mental steps that facilitated success in learning a new language (e.g., Bialystok, 1981; Rubin, 1975, 1981; Stern, 1975, 1978).

2.3.1 Definitions and Classifications of Language Learning Strategies

In researches related to good language learners, various kinds of behaviors were indicated by researchers which were regarded as strategies; specifically a number of educators tried to explain or define strategies.

As stated by Grenfell and Macaro (2007), the contribution made, by different theorists, to define language learning strategies dates back to 1975 (Grenfell & Macaro, 2007).

Learning strategies are series of activities employed by learners to " facilitate the acquisition, retention, or retrieval of information" (Rigney, 1978: 165). Similarly, learning strategies are defined by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) as the particular behaviors or ideas used by an individual to assist him understand, learn, or keep new knowledge or information. Therefore, as also described by Weinstein, Humsan and Dierking (2000, cited in Cesur, 2011) language learner strategies were regarded as ideas, behaviors, beliefs, or feelings which assist individuals in transferring new knowledge to other situations; learning strategies were considered as particular methods of processing knowledge which enhance learning, comprehension, and retention of the knowledge.

According to some studies on language learning strategies (Dansereau, 1978; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990) language learning strategies are supposed to be intentional on the learners' part and have learning facilitation as a purpose. In such studies the purpose of strategy utilization is to influence the individual's affective or motivational condition, or the method by which he chooses, acquires, integrates, or organizes new information (Dansereau, 1978; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

Oxford and Crookall (1989) define learning strategies as specific thought processes and behaviors utilized by the individual to ease acquisition, use, and storage of knowledge. Oxford (1990) extended this description to the affective domain by stating that "learning strategies are specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations (p.8)."

Rubin (1975) gives a slightly different definition for the term strategies. She defines strategies as "techniques and devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge" (Rubin, 1975: 43). However, as stated by Mokhtari (2007), in describing specific strategies utilized by successful learners, Rubin includes learners' features or general

approaches and techniques or devices. Rubin (1981) differentiates between direct and indirect processes that contribute to learning.

Rubin (1987) considers language learning strategies as strategies that develop the language system in an easier way either directly or indirectly. This is accordant with explanations that are accepted in current researches: "learning strategies are any set of operations, steps, or plans used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information" (O'Malley et al., 1985).

Additionally, learning strategies are regarded by Rubin (1987) as a subgroup of three kinds of techniques utilized in language learning. He considers thoughts of language learning as different assumptions on students of language: (a) Not all learners have the same level of success, (b) The learning process involves explicit as well as implicit knowledge, (c) Consciousness-raising is important to learning, (d) Successful strategies can be utilized effectively by less effective learners, (e) Teachers can encourage and advance learners' strategy use, (f) Being trained, students can decide the way of dealing with the language learning task, (g) Language learning is similar to other types of learning, (h) Self-direction enhances learning outside and inside the classroom, (i) The "critical" faculty employed by individuals in communicating is important in language learning, (j) learner successfulness in other disciplines can be applied to language learning (Rubin, 1987: 15-18).

As stated by Hong (2006), the idea of the critical faculty given by Rubin seems to be similar to monitoring, which is individual's knowingness that is connected to planning, correcting or repairing, and learning. Rubin (1987) suggested that learning strategies can lead to more effective language learning, and hence strategy training could enhance individuals' language learning ability. Different frameworks have been designed by other researchers that successfully carried out to increase students' knowingness of

strategy use and provide them chances to employ the strategies in new learning contexts (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994; Oxford et al., 1990; Pearson & Dole, 1987).

While earlier explanation of learning strategies centered and concentrated on learning outcomes and behaviors that reflect cognitive process that cannot be observed, definitions finally developed to a better and more comprehensible understanding of what students think and perform in learning a new language (Mokhtari, 2007). For instance, Cohen (1998b) acknowledges that the essential factor to distinguish strategic from non-strategic thought processes is the component of consciousness. He argued that if learners cannot identify the strategies related to learning behavior, then they would be regarded not as strategies but as processes. If a learner is conscious while guessing the meaning of a new word in a reading context and knows why such guess is working then it can be called a strategy if not it is regarded as a process. Therefore, he describes learning strategies as " processes which are consciously selected by learners and which may result in action taken to enhance learning or use of a second or foreign language through the storage, retention, recall, and application of information about the language" (Cohen, 1998b: 4). In a recent survey Cohen (2007) suggests that language learner strategies are conscious mental action must include an activity together with an aim, as well as a learning environment. Cohen (1998b) maintains that language learning strategies involve strategies which are employed for "identifying the material that needs to be learned, distinguishing it from other material if needed, grouping it for easier learning, having repeated contact with the material, and formally committing the material to memory when it does not seem to be acquired naturally" (p. 5).

As mentioned previously (see chapter 1 section 1.8), Oxford's (1990) definition is regarded as one of the most applicable, comprehensive, and frequently cited definitions given for learning strategies to date. She describes language learning strategies as "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable,

more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations" (p. 8). Hong (2006) believes that this definition reflects the purpose of the learner as well as the particular actions which he can take and it involves how context acts in the process of language learning (Hong, 2006).

In order to identify and define language learners' strategic behaviors, there was also a need to classify language learning strategies besides providing a good description for them.

Bialystok's (1978) theoretical model considered biological, social, and other variables potentially associated with differences in language learning across language learners. In order to employ accessible knowledge for improving proficiency and competence in L2 learning, Bialystok (1978) stressed that individuals should make use of learning strategies that occurred within three phases of learning including input, knowledge, and output. Four classes of language learning strategies were identified by Bialystok: 1) Monitoring for modifying and correcting linguistic output, 2) functional practicing or making use of the language for "authentic communication purposes", 3) formal language practicing that concerns the language knowledge connected to syntactical as well as grammatical components, and 4) inferencing used to guess an unfamiliar form or meaning in L2 (1978: 78-80).

Also, Bialystok (1981) assessed learners' utilization of the four strategy categories in the language learning oral-and text-based context. She used standardized tests to determine the connections between students' strategy use and achievement and showed that inferencing and monitoring strategies were applied the most. Functional practice was reported to be the only strategy which significantly affected students' verbal and written tasks achievement. A remarkable result was the negative correlation between achievement on written measures and formal practice strategies, implying that lab works, homework, and the like do not have a significant function in successful language

learning. It is emphasized that in utilizing language learning strategies, quality affects successful language achievement but not quantity (Bialystok, 1981).

Rubin (1981) studied the strategies used by language students, and focused on comprehending the cognitive processes that had the most important contribution to L2 learning for EFL and ESL university students in Hawaii. She distinguished between the two types of activities that students got involved with, namely; "actions that contribute directly to learning and those that permit learning" (Rubin, 1981: 118). The first and the second types of strategies were classified as indirect like motivation to practice versus direct like the actual practice activity respectively. The first class of strategies helped in determining an individual's predisposition towards language learning, while the other class comprised the strategies that might be presented to improve language learning.

Specifically, drawing on the concept of learning as the process through which information is stored and retrieved, Rubin (1981) described cognitive strategies as the particular actions that contribute directly to the process of learning. Cognitive strategies are subcategorized into (a) monitoring, (b) clarification or verification, (c) guessing or inductive inferencing, (d) deductive reasoning, (e) memorization, and (f) practice.

In a more comprehensive explanation of cognitive processes, Rubin (1981) described deductive inferencing and guessing or inductive inferencing as two types of inferencing used by language learners. She maintained that in inductive inferencing, meanings are derived based on some hunches from a large range of sources of meaning for a specific circumstance, while in deductive reasoning, students look for general rules based on their knowledge about a language or based on generalizations for various inductive observations. She continued monitoring, as a subcategory of cognitive strategies, is described as conscious or unconscious examination of errors and examinations of how the message is acquired and explained by the addressee (Rubin, 1981). Memorization is described as a significant part of language learning that includes the use of strategies

like pronouncing out loud, note-taking, and building associations to improve memory knowledge about language(s) and to form generalizations based on which inductive observations are made.

Indirect processes, on the other hand, involve two subcategories (a) production tricks that link to drive, communication focus, and motivation such as circumlocution, repetition, paraphrasing, and using gestures, and (b) creating opportunities for practice such as questioning and answering, initiating conversations, and creating occasions for practice with native speakers (Rubin, 1981).

Adapting Politzer's (1983) questionnaire which was developed to group learning strategies in connection with classroom behaviors, general behaviors, and interacting outside the classroom, Ramirez (1986) examined the strategies used by French language learners. To consider such classifications and those of previous researches like Rubin, Ramirez (1986) concluded that in such a learning situation the grouping technique might be found to be an effective approach to learners and teachers.

Therefore, some earlier studies (e.g., Bialystok, 1978; Politzer, 1983; Ramirez, 1986; Rubin, 1981) concentrated on creating a perfect representation of strategies which were utilized by language learners and classifying them in informative and related groups.

According to Cohen (1998b) language learning strategies involve four subsets namely, rehearsal, retrieval, communication, and cover strategies. Structures of the target language are practiced through rehearsal strategies which include language use and language learning strategies. The language material that are stored can be activated through memory searching strategies like sound association and mental linkages which are all function of retrieval strategies. Communication strategies concentrate on approaches to convey informative and meaningful messages to the reader or listener such as intralingual strategies which involve overgeneralizing vocabulary meaning or a grammar rule from one context to the one where it cannot apply, and negative transfer

which refers to applying the patterns of a language in the target language to which those patterns cannot apply. Cover strategies include creating the impression that individuals have control over the knowledge when they do not. Examples for such strategies are complexification that is concerned with saying something by elaborate and complex circumlocution, and simplification which refers to producing simplified utterances. Both of these examples are used to link knowledge gaps in L2.

O'Malley and Chamot together with their colleagues (1985) carried out a study to determine the range of language learning strategies utilized by beginning and intermediate ESL learners. Results of the small group interviews with students identified twenty-six strategies which were categorized into three principal classes of strategies: socio-affective, cognitive, as well as metacognitive strategies. Beginning and intermediate students had generally a tendency towards using cognitive strategies than metacognitive ones.

Repeating their first study with college and EFL students O'Malley and Chamot (1990) found that EFL learners reported similar patterns in utilizing metacognitive and cognitive strategies. In addition, the researchers proposed the same three categories of language learning strategies as reported in their previous study. As mentioned, these three categories include socio-affective, cognitive, and metacognitive strategies. Cognitive strategies refer to changing the learning materials in order to improve learning like for example grouping, rehearsal, summarizing, inferencing, classifying words, and elaboration. Metacognitive strategies involve monitoring, planning, as well as self-assessment strategies. Socio-affective strategies include interaction with other people or control over affect such as self talk, cooperation, and questioning for clarification.

On the basis of the combination of earlier work related to language learning strategies (e.g., Naiman et al., 1975; Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975) and considering the four

language skills namely listening, reading, writing, and speaking (Hosenfeld, 1976; Papalia & Zampogna, 1977), Oxford (1990), as stated by Ellis (1994), Heo, Stoffa, and Kush (2012), and Nambiar (2009) provided the most widely used and comprehensive classification to assess strategies to date. She utilized the two major categories of direct and indirect strategies as suggested by Rubin (1981). Each class of strategies was also divided into subcategories. Oxford's (1990) classification was different from Rubin's in that Oxford grouped the strategies regarding their involvement with L2 and not their contribution to the processes of language learning as proposed by Rubin (1981).

According to Oxford (1990; Lavasani & Faryadres, 2011) L2 strategies involve six types of strategies classified as indirect and direct categories. Direct strategies include strategies which deal directly with learning or producing L2 include cognitive, memory, and compensation strategies (Oxford, 1990). Memory strategies assist learners in keeping and recalling the new information, such as using pictures and sounds, creating mental linkages between material, employing action, and reviewing well (Oxford, 1990). Cognitive strategies are skills which include transforming or manipulating language learning materials such as examining and arguing, producing structures for input and output, receiving and sending messages, and practicing. Compensation strategies are strategies that are used to overcome missing knowledge of the language like making guesses and compensating limitations in writing or speaking.

Indirect strategies are techniques or behaviors that assist in regulating individuals' emotional responses and the learning process. These strategies include metacognitive, social, and affective strategies. The techniques that learners use to direct the learning process are metacognitive strategies which involve centering, planning, and evaluating learning (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994; Oxford, 1990). The importance of metacognitive strategies is evident when the learners want to understand their own approaches and have control over the learning process (Oxford, 1990; Wenden, 1999). Affective

strategies assist learners in controlling their attitudes, emotions, and motivations (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Richards & Renandya, 2002). Affective factors can be considered as a predictor or impediment of L2 achievement (Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley 2000; Oxford, 1990). Social strategies are related to learners' behavior in involving and communicating with other individuals in the process of language learning, like cooperating with others, asking questions, and developing empathy with others (Oxford, 1990). Ellis (1994) maintained that in Oxford's (1990) classification system, cognitive and metacognitive strategies are described in a more explicit manner than other work.

As it was shown, the cognitive component in almost all the classifications emphasizes the role of mental processes like rehearsal and inferencing in the learning process and focuses on the strategic mental steps that the learners take to help the processing of linguistic elements and to facilitate keeping these elements in their long-term memory (Yin, 2008). In addition, as stated by Yin (2008) and shown above, some classifications such as O'Malley and Chamot's (1990), Oxford's (1990), and Rubin's (1981), lay emphasis on the function of metacognitive and social interaction strategies in L2 learning while in other categorizations like Cohen's (1998b) only communication strategies are considered as the major category.

One obvious difference between Rubin's (1981) classification of language use strategies and those of O'Malley and Chamot (1990), and Oxford (1990), is that in Rubin's (1981) model monitoring is labeled as a cognitive process, while in O'Malley and Chamot's (1990), and Oxford (1990) systems of categorizations it is regarded as a metacognitive strategy (Yin, 2008).

Furthermore, social and affective strategies, which are considered as two separate strategy groups in Oxford's model, have been collapsed into one category in O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) classification (Yin, 2008). Affective strategies assist learners in

controlling their attitudes, emotions, and motivations (Oxford, 1990; Richards & Renandya, 2002), whereas, social interaction strategies are primarily concerned with facilitating interpersonal communication. Indeed as maintained by Hsiao and Oxford (2002), Oxford's classification is superior to other classifications such as O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) and Rubin's (1981, 1987) in that it accounts for the various learning strategies of language learners.

To summarize, in almost all the definitions provided for learning strategies (for example, Cohen, 1998a; Dansereau, 1978, 1985; Ellis, 1994; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Rigney, 1978; Rubin, 1975, 1987), they are viewed as specific procedures and techniques that make the learning, keeping and use of language related information much more easier. Specifically, among all definitions of learning strategies, as mentioned previously, Oxford's (1990) is considered as one of the most applicable and frequently cited definitions given to date.

In the same way many investigators attempted to classify language learning strategies (e.g., Cohen, 1998b; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Politzer, 1983; Rubin, 1981). Of these categorizations, Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) has been regarded as the most widely used and comprehensive classification to assess strategies to date (Chamot, 2004; Ellis, 1994; Heo, Stoffa, & Kush, 2012; Nambiar, 2009). Oxford's strategy taxonomy, as stated by Magogwe and Oliver (2007) is detailed, comprehensive and systematic. Hsiao and Oxford (2002) carried out a comparative study in which three popular grouping systems utilized in the field were compared including that of O'Malley and Chamot (1990), Oxford (1990), and Rubin (1981) and found that the Oxford classification system was superior in that it accounts for various strategies which were reported by language learners.

In relation to the socio-educational model (Gardner, 2001a), "non-motivational factors" involve factors like learning strategies, which influence language learning. Since, as mentioned previously (see chapter 1 section 1.5.3), Gardner does not concentrate much on the classification of the term "strategy", Oxford's (1990) classification of strategy which allows more specificity regarding self-efficacy assessment, is used for the purpose of clarity of discussion in this work.

2.3.2 Language Learning Strategies and Second Language Learning

As stated by Chamot (2001) and Hsaio and Oxford (2002), a large body of research indicates that language learning strategy use influences how well learners learn an L2.

Effective language learning has long been linked with language learning strategies (e.g., Ahour & Mohseni, 2014; Bremner, 1998; Chamot & El-Dinary, 1999; Chang, 1991; Chou, 2002; Dreyer & Oxford, 1996; Gan, Humphreys, & Hamp-Lyons, 2004; Gerami & Baighlou, 2011; Gunning & Oxford, 2014; Lan & Oxford, 2003; Nisbet et al, 2005; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Park, 1997; Tam, 2013; Tkallou, 2011; Wang et al, 2009; Wharton, 2000; Yang, 2007; Yang & Plakans, 2012). Except a few remarkable studies (e.g., Mullins, 1992; Phillips, 1991) it has been generally asserted that compared to less or weaker proficient students, good language learners are more frequent strategy user and use strategies in more situations (e.g., Ehrman & Oxford, 1990; Rubin, 1975).

The study of learning strategies has recently gained much importance due to the fact that both teachers and students have come to understand that during the process of learning, learners face many situations which are not fit to their preferences. Successful learners in such situations are those who can use different strategies in order to adapt to the many different (and sometimes diverse) conditions that come up in the classroom to enhance their own learning. The responsibility of the teacher in such circumstances is to assist learners build the strategies and skills required for learning efficiently from

teaching sessions that do not fit the learning style which students prefer. McKeachie, Pintrich, and Lin (1985) and Weinstein and Mayer (1986) maintained that in effective and good teaching, not only the content of one's subject is to be communicated, but also the learners should be both motivated to continue learning and taught the strategies and the skills required for continued learning. Research also shows that in addition to learning the strategies themselves, it is important for the students to know how to select appropriate strategies for particular tasks and when and how to use them during the task. Also, a successful student will need to be conscious about how to transfer strategy use to other tasks (Nickerson, 1988).

Research carried out on strategies in the field of foreign/second language learning shows much similarity with the developments made in cognitive psychology (Williams & Burden, 1997). In most of the studies done on language learning strategies, researchers have been interested in the way learners process new knowledge as well as the types of strategies they use to comprehend, learn or recall the foreign/second language information (Hismanoglu, 2000). As mentioned before many researches have been carried out to test the effect of strategies on achievement, some of which are presented in the following pages.

Nisbet, Tindall and Arroyo (2005) examined the relation of English proficiency with language learning strategy preferences among Chinese university students. For the purpose of the study, 168 (139 females and 29 males) English major students studying at Henan University were given the questionnaires of an institutional version (ITP) of TOEFL and Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) measuring their English proficiency and learning strategy preferences respectively. Pearson correlations showed that metacognitive strategies correlated significantly with ITP-TOEFL score ($r = .17$). Also, only 4% of variation in TOEFL grade was accounted by learning strategies. Specifically, findings of the multiple regression analysis

indicated that students' English proficiency reported to have a significant correlation with the combination of metacognitive and affective strategies. Cognitive and social and strategies had no role in making prediction of learners' TOEFL scores. Similar results obtained by Dreyer and Oxford (1996). Studying 305 university students who were learning English in South Africa, they showed that learning strategy use accounted for approximately 45% of the variation in English proficiency (TOEFL scores). Moreover, results of the regression analysis revealed that metacognitive strategies explained the largest part of the variance, while affective and social strategies accounted for much smaller amounts. Canonical correlation indicated a high significant relation of the parts of the TOEFL with the categories on the SILL ($r=.73$).

In a very recent study, Tam (2013) investigated the relation of students' English proficiency with language learning strategies. The participants were 50 (20 females and 30 males) university students studying at Hong Kong Polytechnic University. The students' age range was 14-64. The researcher also aimed at examining the relations of gender and socioeconomic status with the language learning strategies. A modified version of Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) was employed to measure the learners' learning strategy use as well as their socioeconomic status. Also, to assess the students' English proficiency, The Use of English Examination (UE) was used. Correlational analysis showed that social, cognitive, and compensation strategies had a significant positive relation with students' English proficiency; students who had higher English proficiency reported more and better strategy use. Findings of ANOVA signified that females reported more frequent and more effective utilization of strategies than males. Moreover, compared with poorer students, learners from wealthier families reported more successful utilization of social strategies.

Wang, Spenser, and Xing (2009) investigated the influences of students' metacognitive strategies and beliefs on CFL (learning Chinese as a Foreign Language). The participants involved were forty-five English-speaking second-year university students of Nottingham. To measure students' CFL achievement, a questionnaire, adapted from Shen (2005), consisting of three parts was developed. Part one dealt with strategies for learning Chinese characters. Part two, adopted from Pintrich and de Groot (1990), assessed learners' metacognitive knowledge or beliefs. Part three, derived from Graham (1997) and Wang (2008) and dealt with CFL learners' metacognitive strategies. The findings indicated that metacognitive strategies affected learners' CFL achievement. Students' metacognitive beliefs were also positively correlated with learners' CFL achievement.

Takallou (2011) also aimed at investigating the influence of metacognitive strategies instruction on EFL students' reading comprehension performance as well as their metacognitive awareness. To this end, 93 Iranian English major students studying at Kermanshah Azad University were given TOEFL and reading comprehension tests as well as SILL. First, TOEFL was given to students in order to homogenize them in terms of their language proficiency as well as validating the reading comprehension test. Second, the students involved in two experimental groups and those in one control group were given SILL before strategy instruction. Then, the experimental groups received sessions of training on metacognitive strategies. After finishing sessions of training for the experimental group, students of all group received the comprehension test as well as the SILL questionnaire. Results of multivariate Anova indicated that the experimental groups reported to have a better reading comprehension performance than the control group which did not receive instruction, showing that metacognitive strategies instruction had significant influence on reading comprehension performance.

In addition, results of paired samples t-tests revealed that students' metacognitive awareness enhanced after instruction.

To show the effect of learning strategy use on only one skill in another recent study, Yang and Plakans (2012) explored L2 writers' use of strategy as well as its relationship with learners' writing test performance. The participants involved were 161 ESL university students in America. They were from diverse countries, involving, China, France, Egypt, Brazil, Japan, Iran, Korea, Taiwan, Vietnam Turkey, and Mexico. They were also from different majors, including Social Sciences, Natural Sciences, Engineering, and Fine Arts. An integrated reading-listening-writing test task chosen from the TOEFL (IBT) was used in this study. Strategy Inventory for Integrated Writing was used to measure students' strategy use. Using structural equation modeling, results of the study indicated that writing strategy use consisted of three factors: test-wiseness strategy use, discourse synthesis strategy use, as well as self-regulatory strategy use. Furthermore, it was shown that synthesis strategy use directly and positively affected students' test performance and test-wiseness strategy use reported to have a direct but negative effect on test performance.

Gerami and Baighlou (2011) examined the utilization of learning strategies by successful versus unsuccessful learners. For the purpose of the study 200 Iranian EFL university students studying English translation and TEFL participated. To separate successful from unsuccessful learners, the researchers used a TOEFL test according to which three proficiency levels including low, medium, and high were recognized. Oxford's (1990) SILL was administered to learners in order to measure learning strategy use. Results showed that successful learners utilized strategies more often. Also, successful students used different strategies from those often used by unsuccessful learners; successful students used metacognitive strategies frequently while unsuccessful learners employed surface level cognitive strategies. Using SILL, Other

researchers like Chamot and El-Dinary (1999), Chou (2002), Griffiths (2003), Lan and Oxford (2003), Oxford and Nyikos (1989), Park (1997), and Wharton (2000), also explored the relation of language learning strategy use to ESL/EFL learners' proficiency and all reported greater employment of learning strategies among more successful learners; the higher the students' proficiency, the greater their strategy use. The researchers concluded that compared with less proficient students, more proficient ones utilized more learning strategies. Participants who had higher proficiency utilized strategies more often and more effectively (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989). Moreover, results of multiple-regression analyses in Rossi-Le's (1989) study showed that self-management strategies like formal practice ($p < .02$), and evaluating and planning ($p < .006$) was utilized significantly more often by more proficient ESL learners, compared with less proficient ESL learners.

To show the type of strategies used by students at different levels of proficiency, Bremner (1998) explored whether there are differences in the utilization of strategies by students at different proficiency levels. To this end 149 EFL University students in Hong Kong were involved. Discrete-item language tests as well as written and spoken tasks were used to measure the students' English proficiency. It was shown that learners of different levels of proficiency used affective, cognitive, and compensation strategies differently. More proficient learners utilized compensation as well as cognitive strategies more frequently. However, lower English proficient students reported a greater utilization of affective strategies.

Unlike such studies, some investigations indicated negative relationship between learning strategy use and English proficiency. For instance, Mullin (1992) examined the role of strategy use in the English language proficiency of 110 Thai university-level EFL majors. The students' English language proficiencies were determined by the scores from an English placement test and the Thai university entrance examination.

English proficiency did not show significant relationship with overall learning strategy use and affective strategy use correlated negatively ($r = -.32$) with grades of language entrance examination. More proficient students were lower strategy users, especially regarding affective strategy use. The possible explanation according to Mullin (1992) was that very anxious students and those who resorted to affective techniques did less well on the examination. In addition, he argued that these findings might be due to the fact that the discrete items of the placement test and the university English entrance examination did not match with the Oxford's (1990) SILL.

Phillips (1991) found a different, curvilinear rather than linear, relationship between strategy use and English proficiency among 141 ESL learners in seven states in America. Regarding the whole strategy categories, no consistent differences were found between low-proficiency students and high-proficiency ones, so she looked at strategies singly. Learners with moderate proficiency level had higher overall strategy use compared with low proficient and high proficient students. Utilization of greater number of strategies more frequently by learners with moderate proficiency level created a curvilinear pattern. In addition, Phillips found that learners who had high TOEFL scores utilized some strategies more frequently than students with low scores on TOEFL who in turn used some other strategies more frequently.

Chang (1991) also utilized the strategy questionnaire (SILL) to examine the learning strategies and three measures of proficiency (self-ratings, the TOEFL and the Ilyin Oral Interview) to measure English proficiency. The participants involved were 50 Taiwanese and Chinese ESL university students in the U.S. Strategy use was affected differently by the measures of proficiency. The researcher did not find any significant relationship between the overall strategy use and the scores on the TOEFL or the self-ratings, but more social strategies was used by learners whose scores on the oral interview was high, compared with those with low grades.

In summary, as stated by Hong (2006) many studies have indicated the correlation between improved L2 proficiency and learners' appropriate utilization of strategies. Green and Oxford (1995), MacIntyre (1994), and Skehan (1989) believe that such a relationship can be bi-directional rather than one-way; that is strategy use can be the result or the cause of improved L2 proficiency.

2.3.2.1 Motivation and Language Learning Strategy Use

As stated by Yin (2008) strategy research have indicated the connection between learners' use of learning strategies and other significant learner variables including motivation. Even the effect of other important learner variables such as gender and academic major on learning strategy use can be explained by or can result from individuals' motivations, attitudes, and learning styles (Green & Oxford, 1995; Hong, 2006). Indeed "All the other factors involved in second or foreign language acquisition presuppose motivation to some extent" (Dornyei, 2005: 65). Therefore, another category of research concerning strategy use in learning is related to those studies seeking to explore relationships between motivation and strategy use. Thus far two classes of such variables have emerged. The first class considers motivation as a factor affecting strategy use, while the other class shows that the ability to use strategies caused learners to become motivated. Due to the importance the results of such studies have for the present research, a review of a number of works in each group will be presented in the following.

Learners who are highly motivated utilize more strategies frequently compared with those who are less motivated (Domakani, Roohani, & Akbari, 2012; Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989). Among the studies which have explored the impact of motivation on language learning strategy use are Bonney, Cortina, Smith-Darden, and Fiori (2008), Domakani, Roohani, and Akbari (2012), He (2001), MacIntyre and Noels (1996), Mistar (2001), Okada, Oxford, and Abo (1996), Oxford and Ehrman (1995),

Park (2005), Prokop (1989), Schmidt and Watanabe (2001), Seo (2001), Teh, Embi, Yusoff, and Mahamod (2009), and Wharton (2000). The results of these studies show that motivation influenced the utilization of specific learning strategies as well as overall strategy use.

One example of the studies that have reported motivation to predict strategy use is the one by Bonney, Cortina, Smith-Darden, and Fiori (2008) who investigated the relation of motivational structure with the utilization of language learning strategies. Participants involved 649 Midwestern high school learners of foreign language classes. The 36 foreign language classes included beginning through advanced levels of German, French, Spanish, and Latin. The learners completed questionnaires which were adopted from a combination of various learning strategy and motivation scales including Dörnyei (1990), Gardner, Tremblay, and Masgoret (1997), Noels, Pelletier, Clement and Vallerand (2000), Study Process Questionnaire (SPQ), Biggs (1987), Green (1999), Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), Oxford (1990), Schmidt, Boraie and Kassabgy (1996), Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ), and Pintrich et al. (1993). Correlation coefficients together with multiple regression analyses indicated that integrative motivation showed to be a better predictor of collaborative and compensatory strategies whereas intrinsic motivation predicted extracurricular learning activities to the highest degree.

In another study Mistar (2001) explored if factors such as personality traits, motivation and effort, attitudes, and language aptitude could predict English learning strategy use. For this purpose, 386 university students in East Java participated in the study. The researcher used The Modern Language Aptitude Test (MLAT), the short form of the revised Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (BPQ- R Short Form), the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB), and the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) for data collection. Using regression analyses and factor analysis, it

was indicated that the collections of all variables had a significant contribution to learning strategy use. Moreover, of these variables, motivation regarded as the best predictor of using strategies.

In a recent study, Domakani, Roohani, & Akbari (2012) investigated motivation types and the learning strategy employment and the among 152 Iranian EFL university students. Besides, the relation of learners' strategy use with their motivation was examined. To assess the students' strategy use and motivation, the SILL as well as a motivational questionnaire which was developed by Roohani (2001), were employed respectively. Findings of the correlational analysis revealed that there was a significant positive correlation between motivation and all kinds of learning strategies as well as overall utilization of strategies ($r = 0.52$). Also, findings of the descriptive analysis indicated that learners had higher integrative motivation and compensation strategies regarded as the most common reported strategy type. The relation of motivation with language learning strategy use has also been examined by Oxford and Nyikos (1989) and Wharton (2000) who found that motivation had the strongest influence on students' strategy use compared to the variables gender and proficiency which were also examined. Specifically, in Oxford and Nyikos's (1989) study four out of five learning strategy categories- general study strategies, interaction strategies, formal practice strategies, and functional practice strategies- were utilized more frequently by highly motivated learners than less motivated ones.

In another study, Schmidt and Watanabe's (2001) study explored the role of motivation in strategy use among 2089 university students in Hawaii. To determine the learners' motivation, the researchers created a motivation scale that measured 13 motivation constructs. Four language learning strategies were assessed: cognitive, coping, study skills, and social strategies. In general, overall strategy use had a

significant correlation with overall motivation. However, all strategy groups were not affected by motivation factors.

Focusing on different types of motivation and different strategy categories, Okada, Oxford, and Abo (1996) showed the role of motivation in the strategy use of students in America. The participants were learning Spanish or Japanese. The investigators used SILL and Affective Survey (AS) to determine the students' strategy use and their motivation respectively. Findings of the study revealed significant correlations between desire to use L2, effort, and intrinsic motivation and students' learning strategy use. Specifically, different strategy categories related to different motivational factors. For students learning Spanish, affective strategies had a significant relationship with their intrinsic motivation and desire to use the target language which was the only factor that had significant correlation with cognitive strategy use among students who were learning Japanese.

Similarly, Oxford and Ehrman (1995) also investigated how language learning strategies correlated with different types of motivation namely intrinsic, extrinsic, desire in using the target language and effort. To this end, 520 American adult students learning different foreign languages in an intensive program participated in this investigation. Using Ehrman and Oxford's (1991) Affective Survey to examine different types of motivation, it was found that the overall learning strategy use had a significant and positive relationship with intrinsic motivation, desire to use the target language, and the total motivation. Specifically, it was found that cognitive as well as metacognitive strategies were strongly influenced by intrinsic motivation. In their study on adult English learners in Egypt, Schmidt, Boraie, and Kassabgy (1996), also found that learners' intrinsic motivation significantly related to their learning strategy use.

In his research on university students in Germany, Prokop (1989) also studied the influence of three kinds of motivation, namely instrumental, integrative, and intellectual

on language learning strategy use. Findings of the study indicated that students with instrumental motivation tend to utilize learning strategies more frequently. Similarly, in a research conducted by Oxford, Park-Oh, Ito, and Sumrall (1993) on one hundred and seven high school students of Japanese, Findings of the study revealed that learners with high integrative or instrumental motivation reported using more learning strategies, than less motivated learners.

The correlation between motivation and the utilization of language learning strategies was also examined by Teh, Embi, Yusoff, and Mahamod (2009). In addition, they investigated the level and the types of learners' motivation. 457 Form four students (228 male and 229 female) who were learning Arabic in thirteen religious secondary schools in Malaysia participated in the study. Adopted forms of SILL (1990) as well as the language learning motivation part of the Affective Survey created by Ehrman and Oxford (1991) were used to assess the learners' strategy use and their motivation respectively. It was showed that students were moderately motivated. Students' motivation was significantly and strongly related to their learning strategies use. Students who had higher levels of motivation reported using learning strategies more frequently, compared to less motivated students. MacIntyre and Noels (1996) reported that the motivated students utilized more language learning strategies more frequently. Better language learning results were reported by highly motivated individuals.

Park (2005) examined the role of motivation in students' learning strategy use. Participants were 209 EFL Korean high school students. It was indicated that learners' overall language learning strategies as well as all six strategy groups as in SILL were significantly affected by language learning motivation. Higher motivated students reported using more learning strategies more frequently, compared to less motivated learners. The investigator concluded that motivation can determine the frequency and type of learning strategy use (Nyikos & Oxford, 1993).

Using a goal mediational model, Seo and Kim (2001) investigated the role played by learners' motivational beliefs in their language learning strategies among 178 fourth graders studying at two Korean elementary schools. Of these students 95 were males and 83 were females. Results of the structural equation modeling reported a modified model of goal mediation that was applicable to the Korean elementary students involved in the study. Learners' goal orientations directly affected their language learning strategies use and mediated the influences caused by motivational factors, such as effort, attitudes, and competence beliefs. Learners with learning goal orientation showed positive attitudes and considered their effort as the cause of their success. These students employed effective learning strategies. Learners with performance goal orientation concentrated on their ability and attempted to show high ability. These learners also used learning strategies significantly and effectively.

In some of the studies reviewed above (e.g., Okada, Oxford, & Abo, 1996; Oxford & Ehrman, 1995; Park, 2005; Teh, Embi, Yusoff, & Mahamod, 2009; Wharton, 2000), the relation of language learning motivation with learning strategy use was interpreted as a causal relationship. In interpreting significant relationships between variables, the use of words such as cause, influence, and effect which indicate causal claims should be avoided. Thus, the statistical technique called structural equation modeling that explain and justify causal relationships, is used in this study.

Also, a point worth mentioning here is that these studies have regarded the motivation construct as a whole rather than one composed of other constructs like integrativeness or attitudes toward the learning situation. However, studies have also been conducted which attempted to find the relationships between attitudes towards the learning situation or integrativeness and learning strategy use. Among the limited number of such studies are the ones conducted by Hakuta and D'Andrea (1992), Kuramoto (2002), and Yin and Oxford (2004).

Kuramoto (2002) carried out research with Japanese third year high school students, aged seventeen and eighteen, who were taking oral communication classes. He used the AMTB to elicit information regarding the students' intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and attitude toward language learning, and another (self- designed) questionnaire to measure the extent to which students used language learning strategies. He found that as students established more positive attitudes, they used more and more learning strategies.

Yin and Oxforrd (2004) investigated the effect of interest-in-target culture and interest-in-English, as two types of motivational orientations, on learning strategies. The findings, based on a sample of 340 Chinese university students, showed that the two types of motivational orientations mentioned, had a significant influence on the overall utilization of learning strategies and the use of affective, cognitive, and metacognitive strategies. Affective, social, memory, as well as overall learning strategy use were significantly affected by the interactions between academic major and motivational orientation. The results confirmed the relation between learning strategy use and motivational orientations.

Hakuta and D'Andrea (1992) also studied second language attitude of a group of high school students. They used different questionnaires to determine the predictors for learners' language attitude, language behavior, and language proficiency. Their finding proposed that students language choice and their use of strategies was influenced by attitude, but their Spanish proficiency couldn't be predicted by attitudinal orientation.

Bialystok (1981) reported that attitudes towards L2 learning determine the learners' selection of learning strategies. In addition, in their strategy training research, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) found that students' negative attitude and lack of motivation caused one instructor to stop strategy training.

It is believed that high motivation result in utilization of language learning strategies but appropriate and frequent utilization of learning strategies may also lead to high motivation. Opposed to the results of the investigations mentioned above, some researchers (e.g., Bandura, 1997; Pressley et al., 1995; Weinstein & Mayer, 1986) suggest that the use of strategies increases learners' motivation and subsequent achievement rather than the other way round. However, empirical studies showing such relationships have been very rare. One piece of empirical work done in this area was conducted by Tuckman (2003), who selected 397 (54% male, 46% female) students at a large public university enrolled in an elective course. The independent variable was strategy training while the dependent variables were motivation and achievement. Covariance analysis was calculated and the results showed that students who received strategy training were higher in both motivation and final achievement grades.

Olivares (2002) also carried out a study, administering 39 college students who were enrolled in beginning Spanish classes an aptitude test, an FL anxiety survey, and a language learning strategy use survey. This investigation aimed at finding the relationship between FL anxiety, FL aptitude, language learning strategy use and their effect on Spanish learning motivation and performance in beginning level courses. Multiple regression analyses and correlations were utilized to identify significant relationships between the factors. The main result showed that three variables, namely language aptitude, FL anxiety, and compensation strategies accounted for 38.7% of the variability of the students' motivation, and 42.2% of the grade obtained in the final exam.

Therefore, the number of empirical studies showing that improved strategy use increases language learning motivation is very limited. Lessard–Clouston (1997) pointed to what seems crucial if the field is to develop. He maintains that the studies to be done on language learning strategies and strategy training should make effort to find

answers to a broad range of questions like: What is the role of motivation and language proficiency in language learning strategies use? How can an individual best evaluate and estimate successfulness in utilization of language learning strategies? It is assumed that by answering these questions and many other ones from investigations in different kinds of settings, the way for establishing the theory that appears to be essential for more language learning strategies to work for the improvement of current foreign/second language teaching practice will be paved.

2.4 Holistic Studies

As can be inferred, the questions posed by Lessard – Clouston (1997) are not necessarily confined to the study of language learning strategies in themselves, but may also be very closely related to the relationship these strategies might have with other learning constructs. Learning another language is a course of development in which many psychological, cognitive and social factors play a part. What seems to be of major importance is to discover how these numerous factors act in concert with each other and with learning and achievement. As discussed in the previous sections, many studies have been carried out in order to find single relationships between factors like motivation, self-efficacy and strategy use and learning. However, few empirical investigations have been done on the interactions and relationships of these factors together. Among the limited number of studies, one can point out that of Abry (1998) who found attitude (locus of control, self-efficacy), metacognitive strategies (monitoring, planning, and utilization of feedback) as well as cognitive strategies (elaborating, coding, and organizing) to be able to predict achievement.

Hsieh (2008) explored the relation of self-efficacy beliefs with FL learning motivation, including measures of integrative and instrumental orientation, interest, attitude, and anxiety, as defined by Gardner et al. (1979), in a foreign language context to find how these factors together are connected to language achievement. Also, it was

intended to see if unsuccessful and successful students with different self-efficacy levels endorsed the factors attitude, motivation, and anxiety differently. Participants of the study comprised 249 undergraduate learners of French, German, and Spanish. Multiple regression results indicated that self-efficacy, anxiety, and positive attitude were all good predictors of students' language achievement. Results of MANOVA showed that learners in the unsuccessful group reported being more instrumentally oriented and having higher anxiety. In addition, students whose self-efficacy level was higher showed significant higher interest in learning the foreign language, higher integrative orientation, and more positive attitude. The results of the interaction between learners' heritage connection and group status (successful or unsuccessful) indicated that although heritage learners showed no differences, that is, both groups had low anxiety and high positive attitude, successful non-heritage learners reported to have more positive attitude toward the language and lower anxiety than successful non-heritage learners.

Gardner (2007) reported a study that he conducted in Spain to show the correlation of the factors attitudes toward the learning situation, integrativeness, motivation, language anxiety, parental encouragement, and instrumental orientation, with scores in English. In addition, the study aimed at investigating if the influence of these factors on English achievement were mediated by motivation. The participants consisted of 166 E.S.O.2 and 136 E.S.O.4 (Education Secundaria Obligatoria or compulsory secondary education) students in Barcelona. The findings showed that motivation, language anxiety, integrativeness, and instrumental orientation had all significant correlation with grades in English for both samples of learners. Of these relationships, motivation showed to be the highest correlate. Next highest (negative) relationship was language anxiety, and next highest (positive) link was that of integrativeness. Finally, instrumental orientation reported to be the next highest correlate, though not very high.

However, no significant relationship was seen between parental encouragement and learners' English grades. Also, the relation of students' attitudes toward the learning situation with their grades in English reported to be low. Findings of path analysis showed that all the coefficients were significant for the E.S.O.2 sample. Attitudes toward the learning situation, integrativeness, and parental encouragement showed to have a positive effect on Motivation, but anxiety had a negative effect.

High relationships were found between attitudes toward the learning situation, instrumental orientation, integrativeness, and parental encouragement. Attitudes toward the learning situation and integrativeness had the greatest effect on Motivation. These findings emphasize the role played by cultural and educational contexts in L2 learning. Similar results were reported for the E.S.O.4 learners. Except for the instrumental orientation which had a slight effect on motivation, the other correlations, mentioned above, were evident for these learners as well. Moreover, parental encouragement did not show a direct effect on motivation for E.S.O.4 learners.

Another related study was that conducted by Masgoret and Gardner (2003). They investigated the relation of L2 achievement with five attitude/motivation factors in Gardner's (2001a) model, namely, motivation, integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, integrative orientation, and instrumental orientation. Results demonstrated that compared to the correlation coefficients between achievement and attitudes toward the learning situation, integrativeness, instrumental or integrative orientation, the relation of achievement with motivation was higher in a uniform manner. Neither age nor availability was found to have clear moderating effects.

Gardner, Masgoret, and Tremblay (1999) examined the connection between the socio-cultural environment of the learner and L2 acquisition in terms of how motivation and anxiety influence the degree to which a person acquires an L2 successfully. Participants of the study were 75 male and 34 female students. They were studying at

the Western Ontario University. They had to complete a questionnaire consisting of three parts. The first section had to do with the French course they had taken in high school (the past). Part two dealt with current language learning attitudes and motivations (the present). Part three had to do with the assessment of French proficiency. Many of the criteria were taken from the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery. The sub-scales, which measured the past, were motivation intensity, French course and teacher evaluations, French class anxiety, percent of French speaking group, and parental encouragement. The sub-scales that measured the present day reactions were: attitudes toward learning French, French use anxiety, attitude toward French Canadians, and desire to learn French. Their research indicated that the more exposure to a second language, the more the probability of acquisition of the target language. They also found that the level of motivation influences anxiety, meaning that high levels of motivation lower the anxiety in acquiring a second language, while low motivation increases the level of anxiety and makes it difficult to learn a second language.

Tuckman and Abry (1998) studied measures of three constructs: strategy (self-regulation), attitudes towards self (self-efficacy), and drive (motivation including student goals, test anxiety, intrinsic value, parent goals). The results showed that all these predictors shown with significant loadings in the causal path. It was found that student goals (a component of motivation) indicated as the great mediator affected by self-efficacy for course, parent goals, and grade point average. Achievement was influenced indirectly by self-efficacy through student goals.

Gardner, Tremblay, and Masgoret (1997) carried out a study of the factors contributing to second-language acquisition. For these purpose 102 students of beginning French were given questionnaires and achievement tests to determine the relationship of language learning strategies, language aptitude, self-confidence, motivation, and orientation to learning achievement and to each other, and to assess the

adequacy of Gardner's (1985) causal model of second language learning. Factor analysis indicated the language aptitude, motivation, field independence, self-confidence and language learning strategies utilization positively related to L2 learning. Also, functional relations among the objective achievement criteria and classes were shown not to be mutually exclusive. It was concluded that the socio-educational model strongly supported the suggested relationships, positing that language aptitude and motivation are the cause of L2 achievement.

Pintrich and De Groot (1990) also identified the five variables strategy use, self-efficacy, test anxiety, intrinsic value, and self-regulation as predictive of 7th grader's school achievement in a correlational study. Students' language learning strategy use and motivation were measured by the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ). Learners' self-efficacy and intrinsic value had significant correlations with their learning strategy use. In addition, the relationship was stronger for intrinsic value than self-efficacy.

Similarly, using factor analysis, Tuckman (1993) studied college students' achievement outcomes and recognized some variables affecting it: self-efficacy; test anxiety, self-reported score importance, and two behavioral criteria indicating score importance; and a variable that mainly showed ability (i.e., achievement test grades and aptitude), which also involved cognitive strategy.

Lavelle, Smith and O'Ryan (2002) designed a study based on a model of writing approaches proposed by Biggs (1985) that defined the relation of a writer with writing task along continuum consisting of deep and surface process that indicated learners' strategies and motives which connected to writing outcomes. They factor analyzed the learners' answers to items related to writing strategies and beliefs in order to define the students' writing approaches. In addition, it was intended to investigate the relation of learners' writing approaches to their writing preferences, self-regulatory efficacy, and

writing outcomes. Students' grades in writing classes as well as a writing sample were used as their outcomes. Regression analyses showed that learners' writing success was significantly explained by their self-regulatory efficacy.

2.5 Conclusion

Regarding the subject of motivation, general answers to many questions are in hand to some degree, however SL/FL aspects of this topic have not been addressed in an adequate manner so far (Crookes and Schmidt, 1991). In other words, researchers generally agree that although many of the questions regarding motivation have been dealt with partly, these answers were rarely found in SL/FL contexts. Specifically, as mentioned previously, Dornyei (1994a, 2005), Graham (2003), and Oxford and Sherain (1994) have suggested several times that researchers include motivation study in foreign language learning. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) suggest that language learning occur within a social context, and social based attitudes can give significant support for motivation. However, they maintained that Gardner's (1985) model had to be modified in order to observe the link between motivations examined in other branches of knowledge and motivation as explained in prior SL studies, to create direct connection from motivation to psychological mechanisms in L2 learning, and lastly to view comprehensible implications for language pedagogy of earlier second language investigations. In reaction to these criticisms, Gardner (2001a) proposed his modified model and pointed out that the socio-educational model is capable of organizing the major conceptions that seem to be included in L2 learning motivation. In this model it is stressed that students are most importantly considered as the major supporters to language learning motivation, and second, the learner's background and other external factors like the teacher. He has also maintained that L2 learning differs from other school subjects because in L2 learning the learner makes a part of another cultural population a part of his self, and that teachers would be more successful if they

accounted for this difference by teaching certain strategies and learning procedures. Gardner (2001a) claims that he has evolved the socio-educational model into a more inclusive one which accounts for various and individual variables influencing final achievement in the learning context. Gardner (2001a, 2005) believes the researcher can hypothesize and examine relationships among factors that might help the student and the teacher achieve higher levels of success. Using Gardner's (2001a) socio-educational model of second/foreign language learning, findings of the present study can be helpful for the teacher to become more familiar with the factors that ease or impede the learning process. Such knowledge can be used to modify teaching methods, materials, classroom activities and learning tasks, plus finding ways to encourage more effective methods of enhancing student motivation, self-efficacy, and use of strategies, hence increasing the process of learning and improving the final learning outcomes, or achievement.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

The purpose of the current research is to investigate and test a modified form of Gardner's (2001a) socio-educational model of second/foreign language learning and examine the causal interrelations among a number of individual difference variables namely, integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, motivation, strategy use, self efficacy, and English language achievement, among Iranian students as depicted in the conceptual model in chapter one (Figure 1.2). Specifically, this study addresses the following research questions:

1a. What is the structural relationship between the variables, namely, motivation (MOT), strategy use (STR), self efficacy (SE), and language achievement (ACH), in the proposed adapted version of Gardner's model in an Iranian English language learning context?

1b. What is the structural relation of attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS) and integrativeness (INT), with motivation (MOT), strategy use (STR), self efficacy (SE), and language achievement (ACH), in the proposed adapted version of Gardner's model in an Iranian English language learning context?

1c. Is there a correlation between the Iranian EFL students' attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS) and integrativeness (INT)?

Furthermore, in relation to the research questions, in order to test the model, this study proposed the following hypotheses based on available theory and literature regarding the relationships among the variables as depicted in chapter one (Figure 1.2):

H1: Attitudes toward the learning situation are positively correlated to integrativeness.

H2: Attitudes toward the learning situation relate positively and directly to self-efficacy.

H3: Attitudes toward the learning situation have direct positive impact on strategy use, and have indirect impact on strategy use through motivation.

H4: Integrativeness is indirectly related to strategy use through motivation.

H5: motivation positively impacts language learning strategy use.

H6: Motivation directly and positively affects English achievement, and indirectly and positively affects English achievement through strategy use.

H7: Attitudes toward the learning situation relate positively and directly to English language achievement, and relate indirectly to English achievement through motivation, and through self-efficacy.

H8: Integrativeness relates positively and directly to English language achievement, and relates indirectly to English achievement through motivation.

H9: Self-efficacy positively impacts motivation.

H10: Self-efficacy has a direct positive effect on strategy use, and has an indirect effect on strategy use through motivation.

H11: Self-efficacy has a positive direct effect on English achievement, and has an indirect effect on English achievement through motivation and through strategy use.

H12: Strategy use relates positively to English language achievement.

This chapter demonstrates the methodology of the research. It begins with a description of the participants of the study, and continues with the study's instrumentation including a report on the validity and reliability of the quantitative instruments; sample selection and procedures; methods of organizing and analyzing the data; and the pilot study.

3.1 Participants

To achieve the objectives of this study, 240 Intermediate learners of English as a foreign language at the Shiraz branch of the Iran language Institute (ILI), took part in this study. The sample consisted of 142 (59%) female and 98 (41%) male students, with an age range of 16-20 years whose various levels of education were high-school (79.6%), high school diploma (12.9%), and university (7.5%). (The sampling process will be described in detail in Section 3.3)

It is assumed that due to their language learning experience and after about 3 years of formal training at the institute, these intermediate students would have most likely formed certain motivational beliefs and self-efficacious feelings about their language learning, and would be therefore capable of judging their language learning self-efficacy as well as their use of strategies. In addition, since the Iran Language Institute is one of the most popular language institutes of Iran and the final grades are used to make decisions about a large group of language learners, many people will be influenced by these final scores. Hence, the study of the variables affecting language learning in such a context gains importance. This language institute has different branches in different cities of Iran but all use the same text books, and the teachers adopt the same methods of teaching and testing, and procedure. So, the participants are representative of the learners of English language learning at IL.

3.2 Instruments

Three questionnaires, the Attitude Motivation Test Battery (AMTB), the Self-Efficacy Questionnaire (SEQ), and the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) were administered to the participants of this investigation to measure their language learning motivation, self-efficacy and strategy use respectively. These questionnaires are provided in Appendices A, B, and C respectively. Although all these questionnaires had already been tested for validity and reliability by their designers, they were also administered to 90 intermediate Iranian EFL learners, 43 male and 47 females, as part of the pilot study (see Section 3.5).

3.2.1 Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB)

To measure the students' language learning motivation, The Attitude Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) developed by Gardner (2004), was used (Appendix A part II). As a research instrument, it was developed to measure the major affective elements indicated to be included in L2 learning. Up to now, the major applications of this test have

included investigating (a) the connection of motivation and attitudes to classroom behavior (b) the influence of special excursions, programs, etc., on attitudinal/motivational features, and (c) the correlation coefficients of sub-tests as well as integrated test grades with scales of language achievement as well as behavioral aims to continue language learning. The AMTB was selected for this study since the purpose was in line with the third mentioned application that is, measuring correlation coefficients of sub-tests and combined marks with other learning-related factors. Moreover, as stated by Gardner (2005), AMTB fits directly into the socio-educational model and hence functions as a useful method to concern particular aspects of the model. The AMTB includes items intended to measure Attitudes toward the Learning Situation, Integrativeness, and Motivation.

Three distinct subscales are used to measure Integrativeness: "Integrative Orientation" defined as the desire to learn the language because of willingness to have communication with the other language group members, (*e.g., Studying English is important because it will allow me to be more at ease with people who speak English*), "Attitudes toward English Speaking-people;" (*e.g., I wish I could have many native English speaking friends*), and "Interest in Foreign Languages" (*e.g., I wish I could read newspapers and magazines in many foreign languages*) (Gardner 2004).

Two separate subscales are used to measure the variable Attitudes toward the Learning Situation: "English Course Evaluation" (*e.g., I would rather spend more time in my English class and less in other classes*) and "English Teacher Evaluation" (*e.g., I really like my English teacher*) (Gardner, 2004).

Gardner (2004) claims that Motivation involves three parts: "Attitudes toward Learning English" (*e.g., Learning English is really great*), "Desire to Learn English" (*e.g., I would like to learn as much English as possible*), and "Motivational Intensity" which is defined as the effort individuals expend to learn the language (*e.g., I really*

work hard to learn English). These same three indicators are used as three separate subscales to measure motivation on AMTB.

The questionnaire consists of statements which the participants respond to by deciding to what extent they agree or disagree, based on a 6 point Likert-type scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree".

To assure reliability and validity, Gardner (2005) reported that he tested the questionnaire in different EFL countries in which the median reliabilities were invariably high, ranging from .79 to .88. Also, correlation coefficients of the measures of questionnaire with scores acquired in English were all significant. Atay and Kurt (2010) similarly measured the reliability and the construct validity of the AMTB in their studies on Turkish EFL students. They followed the same procedure that Gardner used in his studies in other European countries. The median value of reliability was reported to be .86 and the correlation coefficients of the measures of questionnaire with students' final grades in English as well as their scores on the Cando scale were all statistically significant. To show the construct validity of the AMTB, Atay and Kurt (2010) performed principal components factor analysis. The findings revealed that the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) coefficient, indicating the sampling adequacy of the contents of the AMTB, was .87 and the Bartlett test of sphericity was reported to be significant. Indeed the AMTB first developed and tested by Gardner in 1985 and the results showed a correlation of .85 for the sub-scales, and a median of .61 was obtained by the test-retest reliability estimation. He also noted the significant multiple correlations that were found between the scores of the AMTB and the Modern Language Aptitude Test (MLAT), which is a standardized test of language aptitude, and the students' final language scores. The median of these multiple correlations was reported to be .52, and it was therefore concluded that the instrument had construct validity. In this study, the

AMTB came with a background profile to gather the demographic information of the learners (e.g., age, gender, see Appendix A Part I).

3.2.2 The Self-Efficacy Questionnaire (SEQ)

The learners were administered the self-efficacy questionnaire (SEQ), developed by Sadighi et al. (2004) (Appendix B) for intermediate Iranian EFL learners, based on Bachman's (1990) framework of language organizational competence, to measure their self-efficacy. According to this framework, organizational competence refers to one's abilities to control the formal structure of language, in order to produce or recognize "grammatically correct sentences, comprehending their propositional content, and ordering them to form texts" (p.87). As put forward by Sadighi et al. (2004) the questionnaire involves 22 items on grammatical competence (such as I can correctly use parts of speech (i.e., nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc.) when I'm writing, I can write a simple sentence with proper punctuation and grammatical structure, and I can correctly use plurals, verb tenses, prefixes, and suffixes in my writing), and 18 on textual competence (such as I can speak for a few minutes in such a way to clearly express my idea, I can give a lecture with a good ordering of ideas, and use of transitional signals, I am able to tell a well-organized reading passage from a poorly organized one, I can use good sentences to start or end an essay, and I can write different kinds of essays- narrative, descriptive, explanatory, etc.). The unequal number is due to the unequal underlying components of each, and the stronger emphasis put on the purely grammatical aspect in language classes.

The questionnaire comprises 40 items (e.g., *I can write a simple sentence with proper punctuation and grammatical structure*). All the items were designed on the basis of a Likert-type scale (100 points), with 10-point intervals. The learners were inquired to assess themselves on this scale. The SEQ took about 30-35 minutes to administer.

The estimated Cronbach's alpha for the SEQ was .97, which shows an acceptable internal consistency of the questionnaire. To show the construct validity of SEQ, principal components factor analysis was performed. The findings showed that the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) coefficient, which indicated the sampling adequacy of the contents of the SEQ, was .94, which is considered as a highly remarkable estimation of sampling adequacy. In addition, the Bartlett test of sphericity was estimated to be 6161.1, significant at the $p < .00001$ level. Factor analysis outcomes revealed that there was a general factor underlying 95% of the items of the SEQ. The eigen value for this factor was 18.02, which explained 40% of the variance of the SEQ.

3.2.3 The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), developed by Oxford (1990) (Appendix C) was utilized to assess the students' strategy use. This questionnaire consists of 50 items including 6 subscales which were organized using a factor analysis. These subscales involved memory strategies, like imagery, grouping, structured reviewing, and rhyming, (*e.g., I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them*), cognitive strategies, such as analyzing, reasoning, general practicing as well as summarizing (*e.g., I say or write new English words several times*), metacognitive strategies, like making plan for language tasks, paying attention, self-assessment of one's progress, monitoring errors, and consciously seeking for practice occasions (*e.g., I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English*), compensation strategies like making use of gestures and synonyms to make known the meaning whenever the exact expression is not understood and guessing meanings from reading and listening contexts, (*e.g., when I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures*), affective strategies, like self-encouragement, anxiety reduction, and self-reward, (*e.g., I give myself a reward when I do well in English*), and finally, social strategies, like becoming culturally aware, asking questions, and cooperating with

native language speakers (*e.g.*, *I practice my English with others*), (Oxford 1990). The questionnaire utilizes five Likert-scale answers for every strategy described, ranging from "never or almost never true of me", to "always or almost always true of me". Learners were instructed to provide a response (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) to strategy descriptions according to the extent to which they used each strategy.

Acceptable reliabilities were reported for the SILL by researchers who had used the instrument. Andersons' (1993), Bremner's (1998), Brown, Robson, and Rosenkjar (2001), Lee's (1998), Magogwe and Oliver's (2007), Park's (1997), Phillips' (1991), and Yang's (1992) studies showed reliabilities of .91, .92, .94, .93, .89, .93, .87, .94 respectively. In addition, Hsiao and Oxford (2002) and Yang (1999) have reported alpha values above .90 for this instrument. Takallou (2011) has also cited some other studies done by Oxford and her colleagues in which reliability coefficients ranging from .89 to .98 has been reported for SILL (*e.g.*, Ehrman & Oxford, 1990; Nyikos & Oxford, 1993; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1993; Oxford & Ehrman, 1995). Therefore, according to Oxford & Burry-Stock (1995) the reliability of the SILL is very acceptable. High validity of SILL has also been shown in previous studies (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). Researches have evidenced the criterion-related validity and content validity of the SILL (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). Its construct validity is indicated in significant relations of the SILL to language performance. In studies such as Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995), Rossi-Le's (1989), and Liu's (2004), results of the multiple regression analyses reported that strategy use was predicted by language proficiency level. In addition, in a study performed by Oxford et al. (1993) strategy use was also showed to be connected to language achievement grades of 107 Japanese high school students. Multiple regression analysis showed that language achievement was moderately but significantly predicted by strategy use.

Dornyei (2005: 182), however, asserted that using SILL is not justifiable in that "one can use only one strategy that perfectly suits the particular learner's personality and learning style; and even if someone uses several strategies, it does not necessarily mean that the person is an able strategy user". However, since most of the time students can't remember the strategies that they use, SILL with its specificity is capable to show the various strategies used by the learners. Therefore, it is a useful tool for the students to recall the strategies that they use. Moreover, since in this study success in English language achievement is considered important, one can not use only one strategy successfully to be considered as a successful language learner. Therefore, quantity becomes important in this study. Different strategies concentrate on different things that are considered important in successful language achievement in which all skills are considered. SILL connects individual strategies, as well as groups of strategies, with each of the four skill areas of listening, speaking, reading and writing (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). Meanwhile, many researchers have shown that the more successful language learners use more strategies.

Oxford's (1990) classification of strategies allows more specificity regarding self-efficacy assessment, and hence it is used for the purpose of clarity of discussion in the present study.

No qualitative measures were used in the study. The researcher is well aware that there are different ways of collecting data like oral interviews and observations that may give more insights about the learners and lead to better understanding of the factors involved in the present study. Specifically, as stated by Dornyei (2001b) among the range of qualitative approaches available, interviews hold a crucial role.

However, where self-efficacy is concerned, one main reason not to use qualitative measures such as interview is that to ask about the specific notions of competence through the interview is not possible since it involves many questions which are similar

to those in the questionnaire. As stated by Millis (2004) self-efficacy items measure perceived competence at particular tasks. Therefore, to assess such competence by some general questions is not reliable and valid. Self-efficacy researchers are advised to assess this construct with a specificity that is in agreement with the task and domain that is being evaluated (Bandura, 1986). That is why in almost all limited number of studies conducted on language learning self efficacy, the valid instrument used to assess this construct has been the questionnaire. Also, in the few studies in which self-efficacy has been measured through interview questions, they were all very general questions which were not related to or could not cover the students' perception of their competence at specific tasks. As stated by Pajares (1996c) such self-efficacy assessments "reflect global or generalized attitudes about capabilities bearing slight or no resemblance to the criteria task with which they are compared" and hence are not able to evaluate its affect (p. 4).

Furthermore, as stated by Chamot (2004), the most efficient and frequent technique for recognizing learners' language learning strategies is by the questionnaire. Synthesizing the results of seven research projects regarding language learning strategies, Nyikos (1990) found that the learners were generally and mostly unaware of the learning strategies they utilized. Oxford (1989) also maintained that research shows that language learners use strategies but most of them do not know the learning strategies they employ. For this reason, in almost all studies done on language learning strategies, the learners' strategy use has been measured through questionnaire and specifically through Oxford's (1990). Oxford's questionnaire has been utilized widely to gather data on many learners in different studies (Chamot, 2004; Nambiar, 2009). Oxford's (1990) SILL is considered as the most comprehensive as well as extensively used strategy inventory of language learning to date (Oxford, 1990; Oxford and Nyikos, 1989). Quantitative approach produces reliable and replicable data and the testing

methods that offer useful statistics through which the results of the study are analyzed and evaluated. Furthermore, as Dornyei (2001b) argues, motivational studies have generally relied on psychometric methods of analyzing data, where a self reported questionnaire, which collects quantifiable data, has been the main research instrument. In the socio-psychological model used by Gardner and his colleagues, motivation was assessed through a questionnaire which largely yielded quantitative data. This data were then subjected to a psychometric analysis. Hence, even in recent years, where new research designs exploring learners' motivation have become popular, the questionnaire is still one of the most popular and reliable research instruments. The major advantages of this approach are that it produces reliable and replicable data. Dornyei (2001b) maintained that statistically significant results are readily generalizable, hence revealing broader tendencies. The current study drew on the strengths of quantitative research paradigm which were obtained through questionnaires.

Above all, generally the purpose of qualitative study is developing models when there is no theoretical model or when there is conflict in the existing models (Matheus, 2009). Hence, a better alternative for the present study (as will be explained in the data analysis part below (section 3.4), was to use quantitative procedures. The statistical technique that was utilized to examine the data was structural equation modeling (SEM) which is basically a quantitative research approach. It has been well established that quantitative methods like surveys or questions are regarded as appropriate techniques and methods to verify and test the relationships between variables (Creswell, 2002).

3.3 Sample Selection and Procedure

Prior to the collection of data, the researcher received permission from the relevant people to conduct the study, that is, the institute authority, management and teachers. The directions concerning the procedures of administration and completion of the

questionnaires were given to the teachers by the researcher. Also, the aim and nature of the research were explained to the teachers by the researcher herself.

The list of all intermediate level students within the age range of 16-20 years was obtained. Of all the 330 intermediate 16-20 year old students, 90 students, (47 (52%) females and 43 (48%) males), were selected through systematic random sampling for the purpose of carrying out the pilot study. The list of names of the 330 students was printed out, cut into separate strips, placed in a large basket, and thoroughly mixed. Then, 330 names were pulled out by 5 different teachers. As the teachers pulled out the names, one by one, they were entered into the computer to make a random list. Next, the interval size, and sampling fraction was estimated and was found to be 3.67. Since the interval was not an integer, the random starting point was selected as a non-integer between 0 and 3.67 and reported to be 2.60. Finally to select the sample (90 students), starting with the 2.60 unit, every 3.67 unit was taken and each non-integer selected was rounded up to the next integer through the computer using the Microsoft excel program.

Three questionnaires, the Attitude Motivation Test Battery (AMTB), the Self-Efficacy Questionnaire (SEQ), and Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) were administered to these 90 students in July 2009 within a two-week period. The date and time of administration was prearranged with the teachers and students. The administrations of all questionnaires were preceded by brief explanations of the design of the questionnaires and instructions for completing them. The students were encouraged to question if they did not comprehend the instructions. In addition, students were guaranteed of the confidentiality of their personal information and responses. It was also announced that their answers would not influence their grades. During the sessions the researcher herself was present to give directions and answer questions related to the meanings of the items not clear to the students. At the first session, the AMTB together with the background information questionnaire were distributed half an

hour before the regular class time by the teachers; the students were inquired to complete the background information followed by the AMTB. The time needed for completing the AMTB was approximately sixty minutes. The SILL and SEQ were administered in a second session. The order of administration, however, was not the same for all classes; in half of the sections the SEQ was given first and in the other half the SILL was administered first. This was done so as to minimize the possible impact of one questionnaire over another. The administration of the first questionnaire, SILL or SEQ, started half an hour before the class time. The SEQ and SILL took about 30-35 and 40-45 minutes respectively, to administer.

Immediately after conducting the pilot study, excluding the 90 students involved in the pilot study, the remaining 240 intermediate students within the age range of 16-20 years old, 142 females (59%) and 98 (41%) males, were administered the same questionnaires in August 2009 within a 3-week period in different sessions. Again the date and time of administration were arranged with the teachers and students. The same procedure as that of the pilot study was followed for collecting data for the main study.

However, the teachers administered the AMTB and the background information questionnaire in one session of the regular class time. The SILL and SEQ questionnaires were administered in two different sessions, both starting half an hour before the class time. For both pilot and the main study, after the completion of the instruments, the teachers collected the questionnaires and gave them to the institute office to be returned to the researcher immediately.

At the end of the term, the institute gave the researcher the participants' accumulative grades in their English course for one semester (final course grades) as their measure of English language achievement.

3.4 Data Analysis

For each student, the scores on the AMTB, SEQ, and SILL and their subtests were calculated and codified. The coded data were then run through SPSS for the estimation of descriptive statistics and correlational analysis. Then, to address the research questions and the hypotheses, the data was analyzed through the SEM (Structural Equation Modeling) research method as this study was based on a quantitative research approach. Quantitative method is connected with positivism as a philosophical view. Positivists believe that using objective techniques to collect and measure the data is viewed as the best method of explaining and predicting human behavior (Kim, 2004). Indeed, quantitative methods like surveys or questions are considered as appropriate techniques and methods to verify and test the relationships between variables (Creswell, 2002). In addition, quantitative methods provide descriptions of population characteristics through generalizing the results of investigating a representative sample to a larger population (Creswell, 2002). The data and methods of the present study needed quantitative analysis rather than a qualitative approach. As stated by Heiman (2001, cited in Matheus, 2009), a qualitative study needs a more participant mode on the part of the researcher. The outcomes tend to be primarily subjective views which are developed by close observation and long interviews by the researcher (Matheus, 2009). As stated earlier, the purpose of qualitative studies is developing models basically when there are no theoretical models or when there is conflict in the existing models (Matheus, 2009). Hence, since none of these 'conditions' apply to the present study, a better alternative was to use a quantitative procedure. The statistical technique that was utilized to make analysis of the data was structural equation modeling (SEM).

3.4.1 Structural Equation Modelling

SEM is a combination of three statistical methods: regression analysis, path analysis (causal modeling), and factor analysis (Kunnan, 1998) of which the analysis of path coefficients (causal modeling) was the focus of the present study. Indeed, path analysis, as stated by Blunch (2008) is the reason for the creation of SEM as a statistical technique. Also, Csizer and Dornyei (2005b) have claimed that path analysis is an appropriate technique to test "comprehensive models made up of complex, interrelated variables" (p. 19). As stated by Gardner (2007) path analysis is a method that allows a researcher to test a particular model of the connection among a series of factors, and leads to a diagram showing the correlations between exogenous factors and regression coefficients connecting the endogenous factors with the exogenous ones as well as other endogenous variables.

In order to conduct a SEM analysis, a researcher would need to run a series of statistical tests and procedures, namely, regression analysis, and path analysis, in case the variables are measured in continuous scales for the latter analysis. Regression analysis investigates the relation of a set of dependent factors to a set of independent variables (which need to be measured and introduced to the machine) looking at how well the independent variables predict the variability in the dependent variables. Path analysis investigates both the indirect and direct impacts of the independent factors on the dependent ones and tests theoretical relationships between the two. Therefore, path analysis is the most suitable statistical technique to explore the possible causal relationships (effects) between one or more independent variables and one or more dependent variables. However, SEM offers techniques to explore all of the above relationships, along with the relationships among latent variables and the measurement errors. The methodology allows researchers to specify, estimate, and test the hypothesis about the substantive relationships among variables based on theory and literature

(Bentler, 1995, cited in Kunnan, 1998). The theory needs to provide the researcher with a research framework based upon which the researcher would collect experiential data to test the applicability, adequacy and possibility of generalizing the research findings.

Structural Equation modeling examines interrelated dependence and multiple relations in a single model (Hair et al., 1998). Furthermore in SEM, dependence relations can be interrelated and have a multiple relationship because a variable which is dependent in one relationship may play an independent role in other relationships (Kim, 2004). This creates the possibility of examining and explaining complex relations among variables (Byrne, 1994; Hair et al., 1998; Kline, 1998). Therefore, a structural model which is a pictorial portrayal of the expected relationships among variables can be created and as pointed out by Agresti and Finlay (1997), such a causal modeling is used to provide the theoretical explanations for the causal relationships existing between the variables. Through using this method, all of the variables as well as direct and indirect effects (paths) can be analyzed at the same time.

Since the goal of this research was to examine the interrelations among some individual difference variables as shown in figure 1.2 (Chapter 1: Section 1.7.1), SEM was an appropriate research method. Its primary advantage is that it tests the whole model rather than coefficients individually. The path diagram indicates the hypothesized relations among variables. The software that was used in the present study for SEM was AMOS 5.0.1 which is popular because of its easy interface for the user.

In a typical SEM model of relationships among variables (path relationships or the structural model), causality of a variable towards the other variable is represented in β values. Garson (2009) and Joreskog (1993) believe that model generation in which researchers first generate a tentative initial model, test it with empirical data, and then modify it based on SEM model modification index and substantive theory is the most commonly used type of model formulation modes. The process of model generation is

repeated until a satisfactory model is obtained. In this case, some proposed path correlations/relationships might be removed due to the results of the analysis.

SEM involves a number of steps (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010; Kline, 2005; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). In the first step of a SEM analysis, a model is specified, that is, the hypothesized relationships among all factors are included in the model. The next step is to confirm that the model is identified, which means all parameters are either uniquely estimable from the covariance matrix or there is more than one way to estimate the parameter(s). Then, estimations of all parameters are calculated, using Maximum Likelihood Methods (MLM) if the data are normally distributed. The use of MLM is decided on the bases of the nature of the data and the requirements of the methods used (Ho, 2006). The next step is to examine the model fit from a variety of fit indices. These indices may vary depending on the patterns of distribution of variance across the collected data. Finally, if the model does not show a satisfactory fit (best representation of the variance of the data), then researchers may decide to fix certain paths to zero (delete paths) after examining the parameter estimates (Bentler & Wu, 1995). Kunnan (1998) noted in his comprehensive review article on SEM that using multiple data with SEM, is highly recommended to enable researchers to explore many variables of interest, such as personal characteristics and test performance, along with test validity, reliability, and fairness.

3.4.1.1 Model Fit Criteria

According to Byrne (2010) after one has proposed or specified the model based on theory or empirical research, the model is tested to determine if it is theoretically sound and if it fits or describes the sample data adequately. As Hair et al., (1998: 611) put it, the objective is to gauge "the correspondence of the actual or observed input (covariance or correlation) matrix with that predicted from the proposed model". To measure such goodness-of-fit, many goodness-of-fit statistics are used but no one index is superior to

the other (Yuan, 2005). In the SEM literature it is recommended that several fit indexes be involved to have a better comprehension of the model strength. Kline (2005) believes that the minimum set of fit indexes required explaining the goodness of fit is four. Garson (2009) has suggested reporting the root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA), Chi-square referring to ratio of minimum discrepancy (CMIN), as well as one of the baseline indexes including NFI, TLI, and CFI. Also, as stated by Webb and Pitt (2003), in addition to Normed Chi-square, that is, its value is divided by the degrees of freedom (CMIN/DF), the fit indexes of GFI, AGFI, and CFI are among the typically used indices to identify the overall goodness-of-fit. According to Byrne (2010) the primary fit indexes among these are the RMSEA and CFI values.

Following such recommendations from Kline (2005) and other researchers, multiple fit indices were utilized in this research in order to assess the model fit including Chi-square together with its value divided by degrees of freedom called Normed Chi-square (CMIN, CMIN/DF), two incremental fit indexes i.e. comparative fit index (CFI) and Normed fit index (NFI), as well as the absolute fit indexes of goodness of fit (GFI), root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA), and adjusted goodness of fit (AGFI) and The Tucker-Lewis coefficient (TLI).

Incremental fit indexes compare the hypothesized model with a null model called baseline model which includes observed uncorrelated variables, in order to assess the proportionate fit improvement, while absolute fit indexes measure how well the hypothesized model makes a prediction about the observed covariance matrix or reproduces the sample data (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Chi-square as a common test statistic is utilized to calculate the overall fit of the model to data since it tests and examines the null hypothesis that the proposed model shows a perfect fit with the sample covariance matrix (Mueller, 1996). The comparative fit index (CFI) is designed to assess the extent to which the model fits better than an

independent model (Tate, 1998). Also, the Normed fit index (NFI) shows the degree of improvement in the hypothesized model fit compared to a null model (Kline, 2005). Tucker-Lewis Index or TLI compares the hypothesized model fit with the fit of a null or an ideal model (Kline, 1998). The root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA) indicates the discrepancy between a hypothesized model and observed data per degree of freedom (Tate, 1998). Goodness of fit index or GFI assesses discrepancy between model-implied covariance and observed covariance, that is, how well the model fits the data compared with no model at all (Kline, 2005). Adjusted goodness of fit (AGFI) also addresses the matter of parsimony by including a penalty for the incorporation of additional parameters and "it adjusts for the number of degrees of freedom in the specified model" (Byrne, 2010).

Chi-square value that is not significant indicates a good fit and the normed Chi-square (CMIN/DF) value of less than 5 and less than 2 show appropriate and very good model fit respectively (Byrne, 2001; Hair et al., 2010; Ho, 2006; Kline, 2005; Webb & Pitt, 2003). Ho (2006) argues that in a SEM model, the goodness-of-fit of the proposed model is met by the non-significance value of difference between the observed and the predicted covariance matrices. In other words, the smaller the Chi-square value, the better fit the model would be. Moreover, these researchers reported that the threshold of CFI, GFI, AGFI, TLI, and NFI is larger than .90. For all these indexes unity (1) shows a perfect fit (Arbuckle, 1997). Specifically, CFI, GFI, and TLI values greater than .95 show very good model fit; however a RMSEA value less than .08 indicates acceptable fit and less than .06 shows a good fit (Hu and Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2005).

As previously stated (see chapter 3 section 3.4), the proposed model was analyzed by AMOS. Therefore, to address the research questions of this study, it is essential to ensure that the model fits the sample data adequately. As Table 3.1 shows the model fits the data according to the Chi-square goodness-of-fit (2.828) at 2 degrees of freedom

($p = .243$, CMIN/DF= 1.414). Furthermore, other model fit indices such as RMSEA (.042), CFI (.998), GFI (.996), AGFI (.959), NFI (.995), and TLI (.988) indicate very good model fit.

Summary of fit indices for the hypothesized model is shown in Table 3.1.

Table 0.1: Summary of fit indices for the hypothesized model

Index	Shorthand	Hypothesized model
Chi-Square (CMIN)	χ^2	2.828 ($p = .243$)
Degrees of freedom	df	2
Normed Chi-Square	χ^2/df	1.414
Goodness of Fit Index	GFI	.996
Adjusted goodness of fit index	AGFI	.959
Root mean square error of approximation	RMSEA	.042
Normed Fit Index	NFI	.995
Comparative Fit Index	CFI	.998
The Tucker-Lewis coefficient	TLI	.988

3.5 Pilot Study

Although three questionnaires (the Attitude Motivation Test Battery-AMTB, The Self-Efficacy Questionnaire- SEQ, and the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning-SILL) had already been tested for validity and reliability by their designers, they were administered to 90 intermediate Iranian EFL learners (43 males and 47 females) to see if they were suitable for the purposes of this investigation. The Cronbach alpha was calculated for the SEQ questionnaire. The alpha, found to be .74, shows that the instrument is internally consistent.

To assess the reliability of the AMTB, Cronbach alphas were computed for all subscales. The obtained alphas (see Table 3.2) show that the instrument is internally consistent.

Table 0.2: Internal consistency reliabilities of the variables of AMTB

Variable	Al pha
Attitudes toward English speaking people	.77
Interest in foreign languages	.79
Integrative orientation	.72
English teacher evaluation	.84
English course evaluation	.81
Motivational intensity	.86
Desire to learn English	.83
Attitudes toward learning English	.77

Furthermore, Table 3.3 indicates the computed correlation coefficients between the subscales of the AMTB and the total scores. As can be seen from the table, all subscales had significant correlation with the total score on the AMTB.

Table 0.3: Correlation coefficients between the AMTB total scores and its subscales

Variable	INT 1	INT 2	INT 3	MOT1	MOT2	MOT3	ALS1	ALS2	TOTAL
INT1	1								
INT 2	-.13	1							
INT 3	.01	.01	1						
MOT1	.36**	.58**	.31**	1					
MOT2	.45**	.43**	.33**	.48**	1				
MOT3	.25*	.38**	.32**	.20	.39**	1			
ALS1	.30**	.48**	.44**	.67**	.61**	.43**	1		
ALS2	.47**	.52**	.26*	.67**	.64**	.54**	.29**	1	
TOTAL AMTB	.50**	.63**	.43**	.82**	.79**	.60**	.78**	.82**	1

INT = Integrativeness; MOT = Motivation; ALS = Attitudes toward the Learning Situation

** significant at the 0.01 level

* significant at the 0.05 level

It could be concluded from the alphas, Table 3.2 and Table 3.3, that AMTB is a reliable and valid instrument for measuring motivation, Integrativeness, and attitudes of learners toward the learning situation.

Table 0.4: Correlation coefficients between SILL total scores and the subscales

Variable	Str 1	Str 2	Str 3	Str 4	Str 5	Str 6	TOTAL
Memory Str 1	1						
Cognitive Str2	.54**	1					
Compensation Str 3	.37**	.49**	1				
Metacognitive Str 4	-.04	.08	.04	1			
Affective Str 5	.39**	.25*	.36**	.14	1		
Social Str 6	.08	.25*	.29**	.31**	.26*	1	
TOTAL SILL	.67**	.76**	.68**	.39**	.64**	.55**	1

Str= Strategy

** significant at the 0.01 level

* significant at the 0.05 level

In order to check the reliability and validity of the SILL for this research, the alpha coefficient was calculated for this questionnaire and was found to be .73 which demonstrates the internal consistency of the SILL. Furthermore, the correlation coefficients for the scores on the subscales and the total score on the SILL were computed. The findings, as revealed in Table 3.4, showed that the relationships were all significant.

The pilot testing of the instruments confirmed their validity and reliability and thus were used confidently to collect data for the study proper.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS, DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The present study aimed to investigate and test a modified form of Gardner's (2001a) socio-educational model of second/foreign language learning and find the causal relation of the individual difference variables namely: integrativeness and attitudes toward the learning situation with motivation, strategy use, self efficacy, and English language achievement, among Iranian students as depicted in the conceptual model in chapter one (Section 1.8.1; Figure 1.2). Specifically, this study addresses the following research questions and hypotheses:

1a. What is the structural relationship between the variables, namely, motivation (MOT), strategy use (STR), self efficacy (SE), and language achievement (ACH), in the proposed adapted version of Gardner's model in an Iranian English language learning context?

1b. What is the structural relation of attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS) and integrativeness (INT), with motivation (MOT), strategy use (STR), self efficacy (SE), and language achievement (ACH), in the proposed adapted version of Gardner's model in an Iranian English language learning context?

1c. Is there a correlation between the Iranian EFL students' attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS) and integrativeness (INT)?

Furthermore, in order to test the model, this study proposed the following hypotheses based on theory and literature regarding the relationships among the variables as depicted in Chapter One in Figure 1.2. (Section 1.8.1):

H1: Attitudes toward the learning situation are positively correlated to integrativeness.

H2: Attitudes toward the learning situation relate positively and directly to self-efficacy.

H3: Attitudes toward the learning situation have direct positive impact on strategy use, and have an indirect impact on strategy use through motivation.

H4: Integrativeness is indirectly related to strategy use through motivation.

H5: motivation positively impacts language learning strategy use.

H6: Motivation directly and positively affects English achievement, and indirectly and positively affects English achievement through strategy use.

H7: Attitudes toward the learning situation relate positively and directly to English language achievement, and relate indirectly to English achievement through motivation, and through self-efficacy.

H8: Integrativeness relates positively and directly to English language achievement, and relates indirectly to English achievement through motivation.

H9: Self-efficacy positively impacts motivation.

H10: Self-efficacy has a direct positive effect on strategy use, and has an indirect effect on strategy use through motivation.

H11: Self-efficacy has a positive direct effect on English achievement, and has an indirect effect on English achievement through motivation and through strategy use.

H12: Strategy use relates positively to English language achievement.

The data analyzed in this study were collected from 240 Intermediate learners of English as a foreign language at the Iran Language Institute (ILI) who responded to different types of questionnaires as explained in Chapter Three (Sections 3.2.1, 3.2.2, 3.2.3), to show their language learning motivation, self-efficacy and strategy use.

The data were analyzed through the SEM (Structural Equation Modeling) research method, explained in Chapter 3 (Section 3.4.1), which examines interrelated dependence and multiple relations in a single model with path coefficients. By using this method, all of the variables as well as direct and indirect effects (paths) can be analyzed at the same time. The software that was used for SEM was AMOS.

This chapter provides the findings of the study in four parts. The first section reports the descriptive statistics for the factors investigated in this research. The second section presents the correlation among variables of the study. Following that the results of the

SEM analysis as related to the research questions and hypotheses are provided in the next section. Finally, a discussion of the findings and their implications are presented.

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

As can be gleaned from Table 4.1 below, the analysis of the results of the Attitude Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) shows that the students' integrativeness ranged from 2.32 to 5.59, with a mean of 4.3922 and standard deviation of .62991. The AMTB also measured the participants' motivation which, as can be seen from Table 4.1, ranged from 2.93 to 5.53. The mean was 4.3506 with a standard deviation of .63794. The final intent of the AMTB was to measure students' attitudes toward the learning situation. As Table 4.1 shows, students' scores ranged from 2.15 to 5.75 with a mean of 4.2494 and a standard deviation of .70114. Where the SILL was concerned, it was found that the least strategy user scored 2.10 (out of 5), while the most strategy user scored 4.84. The mean of strategy use for the whole sample was 3.5173, with a standard deviation of .58191. The analysis of the results of the SEQ revealed that students judged themselves to have self-efficacy, ranging from 22.50 to 95.25, with a mean of 65.1520, the standard deviation being 15.84402. Finally, students' English achievement scores ranged from 45 to 96, with a mean of 75.5742 and standard deviation of 11.34750.

Table 0.1: Minimum and maximum scores, means, and standard deviations for the variables

Variable	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
INT	240	2.32	5.59	4.39	.63
MOT	240	2.93	5.53	4.35	.64
ALS	240	2.15	5.75	4.25	.70
STR	240	2.10	4.84	3.52	.58
SE	240	22.50	95.25	65.15	15.84
ACH	240	45.00	96.00	75.57	11.35
Valid N (listwise)	240				

INT = Integrativeness; MOT = Motivation; ALS = Attitudes toward the Learning Situation; STR = Language Learning Strategy; SE = Self-efficacy; ACH = English Achievement

4.2 Correlation Matrix of the Variables

Table 4.2 below presents the correlation between the variables of the study including attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS), integrativeness (INT), motivation (MOT), self-efficacy (SE), strategy use (STR), and achievement (ACH). All six variables were significant at the 0.01 level. In detail, integrativeness had a positive correlation with motivation ($r = .623$), attitudes toward the learning situation ($r = .612$), strategy use ($r = .305$), self-efficacy ($r = .309$), and achievement ($r = .448$). This analysis showed that motivation had a positive correlation with attitudes toward the learning situation ($r = .637$), strategy use ($r = .411$), self-efficacy ($r = .433$), and achievement ($r = .458$). Attitudes toward the learning situation was found to have a positive correlation with strategy use ($r = .294$), self-efficacy ($r = .407$), and achievement ($r = .384$). In addition, strategy use was positively correlated with self-efficacy ($r = .561$), and achievement ($r = .388$). Finally, self-efficacy had a positive correlation with achievement ($r = .423$).

Table 0.2: Correlation matrix of the variables

Variable	INT	MOT	ALS	STR	SE	ACH
INT	1					
MOT	.623**	1				
ALS	.612**	.637**	1			
STR	.305**	.411**	.294**	1		
SE	.309**	.433**	.407**	.561**	1	
ACH	.448**	.458**	.384**	.388**	.423**	1

** $p < .01$ (two-tailed)

INT = Integrativeness; MOT = Motivation; ALS = Attitudes toward the Learning Situation; STR = Language Learning Strategy; SE = Self-efficacy; ACH = English Achievement

4.3 Testing the Hypothesized Model

In order to investigate the research questions and to examine the relationships among the variables, a number of hypotheses were formulated based on the hypothesized research model as indicated in Figure 1.1 in Chapter One. As shown in this path model, there are six measured variables. Two of these variables are independent

variables including attitudes toward the learning situation and integrativeness. There are three mediating variables namely, strategy use, motivation, and self-efficacy. The direct and indirect impacts of the independent and mediating variables were measured on English language achievement, that is, the dependent variable of the present study. In this section, correlation between the two independent variables, factor loadings for the direct and indirect paths, and factor loadings among the mediating variables are discussed.

The following section represents the tests of the hypotheses formulated to investigate the research questions based on the data analysis for the structural model. As explained in Chapter 3 (section 3.4.1) the data were analyzed through Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) and the software used was AMOS 5.0.1.

4.3.1 Research Questions and Hypotheses

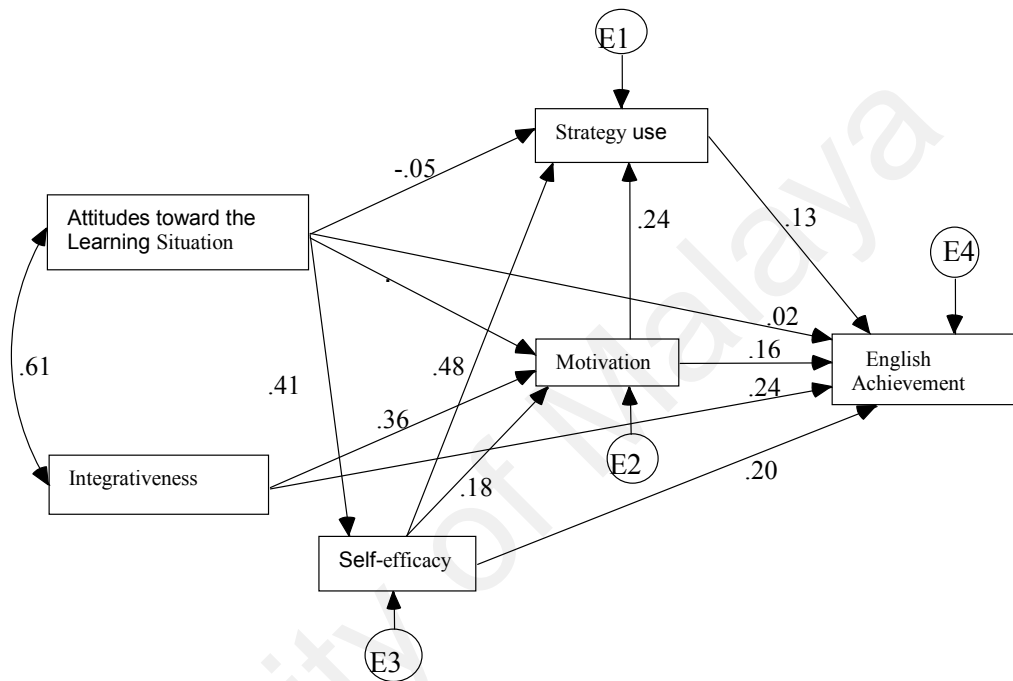
1a. What is the structural relationship between the variables, namely, motivation (MOT), strategy use (STR), self efficacy (SE), and language achievement (ACH), in the proposed adapted version of Gardner's model in an Iranian English language learning context?

1b. What is the structural relation of attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS) and integrativeness (INT), with motivation (MOT), strategy use (STR), self efficacy (SE), and language achievement (ACH), in the proposed adapted version of Gardner's model in an Iranian English language learning context?

1c. Is there a correlation between the Iranian EFL students' attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS) and integrativeness (INT)?

In a typical SEM model of relationships among variables (path relationships or the structural model) causality of a variable towards the other variable is represented in β values (standardized regression weights). Also, some researchers use the critical ratio (C.R.) or z-value which is the parameter estimate or regression weight estimate divided

by its standard error (S.E.). When the critical ratio (C.R.) for a parameter estimate is greater than 2.0 ($>\pm 1.96$), it shows that the estimate is statistically significant at the .05 probability level (Byrne, 2010). Figure 4.1 below shows the hypothesized model with standardized estimates.



E1-E4= measurement errors
 Chi-square= 2.828, $p=.243$, $df=2$, ratio=1.414, RMSEA=.042, GFI=.996, GFI=.959, CFI=.998, NFI=.995, TLI=.988

Figure 0.1: The hypothesized model with standardized estimates

As stated previously, to clarify the relationships and hypotheses, the overall hypothesized model is broken down into several subordinate models showing each hypothesis. Indirect paths are represented by dashed arrows in the subordinate models.

Hypothesis 1: Attitudes toward the learning situation are positively correlated to integrativeness.

Figure 4.2 shows the relation of attitudes toward the learning situation with integrativeness in regard to hypothesis 1.

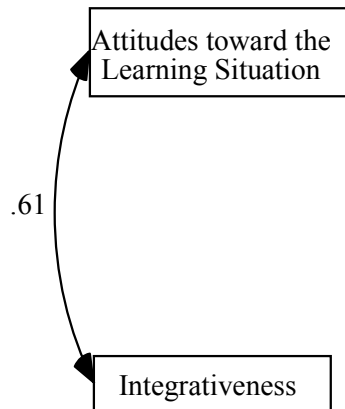


Figure 0.2: Test of hypothesis 1 (standardized regression coefficients)

Hypothesis 1 is supported. As indicated in Figure 4.2, there is a significant $r=.61$ (61%) correlation/relationship between integrativeness and attitudes toward learning situation (the two independent factors of the study).

Hypothesis 2: Attitudes toward the learning situation relate positively and directly to self-efficacy.

Figure 4.3 shows the direct influence of attitudes toward the learning situation on self-efficacy in regard to hypothesis 2.

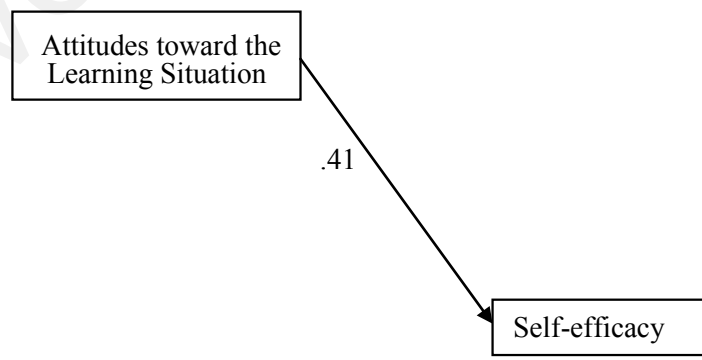


Figure 0.3: Test of hypothesis 2 (standardized regression coefficients)

As indicated in Figure 4.3 and Table 4.3 below, there is a significant and positive path coefficient ($\beta = 0.41$, C.R= 6.89, $p < .001$) from attitudes toward the learning

situation to self-efficacy. Attitudes toward the learning situation are considered as significant direct predictors of students' self-efficacy. Thus, hypothesis 2 is supported.

Table 0.3: Standardized estimates

Regression Weights			Standardized Estimate	Standard Error	Critical Ratio	P
SE	←	ALS	.407	2.670	6.893	***
MOT	←	ALS	.347	.082	5.755	***
MOT	←	INT	.356	.078	6.268	***
MOT	←	SE	.184	.001	3.731	***
STR	←	SE	.482	.003	8.218	***
STR	←	ALS	-.053	.144	-.762	.446
STR	←	MOT	.236	.106	3.393	***
ACH	←	SE	.200	.001	2.922	.003
ACH	←	STR	.135	.026	2.030	.042
ACH	←	MOT	.159	.047	2.014	.044
ACH	←	ALS	.018	.062	.240	.810
ACH	←	INT	.237	.060	3.243	.001

INT = Integrativeness; MOT = Motivation; ALS = Attitudes toward the Learning Situation; STR = Language Learning Strategy; SE = Self-efficacy; ACH = English Achievement

Hypothesis 3: Attitudes toward the learning situation have direct positive impact on strategy use, and have indirect impact on strategy use through motivation.

Figure 4.4 shows the direct and indirect (through motivation) influences of attitudes toward the learning situation on strategy use in regard to hypothesis 3.

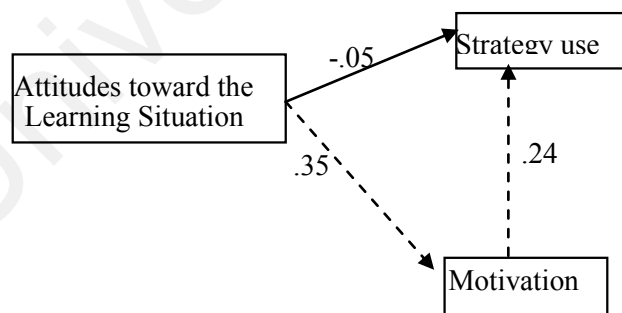


Figure 0.4: Test of hypothesis 3 (standardized regression coefficients)

The direct effect of attitudes toward the learning situation on strategy use is not significant. The estimate of standardized regression weight from attitudes to strategy use

is -.05, and its C.R. is -.76 which is smaller than 1.96 at .446 level. There is a non-significant negative relation of attitudes toward the learning situation to participants' strategy use, thus the hypothesis that attitudes toward the learning situation have a direct positive impact on strategy use, is rejected. Therefore, attitudes toward the learning situation might not be a direct predictor of determining the students' strategy use. However, even though the relationship between these factors is not supported, the results show a negative relationship. This means learning strategy use is expected to decline by .05 standard deviation provided there is a change in attitudes of one standard deviation, assuming other factors are controlled.

In regard to the effect of attitudes toward the learning situation on motivation, the standardized estimate of regression weight is .35, and its C.R. is 5.76 at the .001 level. Therefore, the relation between attitudes toward the learning situation and motivation is significant; attitudes can be considered as important and positive predictors in determining the students' motivation.

Regarding the relation of motivation to strategy use, the relation is significant ($\beta = 0.24$, C.R. = 3.39, $p < .001$). Motivation provides a positive impact on strategy use.

Therefore, in response to hypothesis 3, attitudes toward the learning situation are not related to strategy use directly, but indirectly related to strategy use through motivation. The indirect influence of attitudes on strategy use through motivation is .08 ($.35 \times .24$).

Hypothesis 4: Integrativeness is indirectly related to strategy use through motivation.

Figure 4.5 shows the indirect (through motivation) influence of integrativeness on strategy use in regard to hypothesis 4.

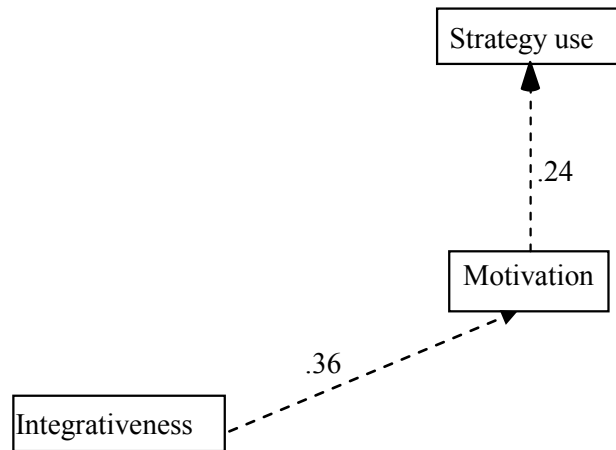


Figure 0.5: Test of hypothesis 4 (standardized regression coefficients)

There is a significant and positive path coefficient ($\beta = 0.36$, C.R= 6.27, $p < .001$) from integrativeness to motivation. Integrativeness is considered as a significant direct predictor of students' motivation. Also, as mentioned above, the relation between motivation and strategy use is significant ($\beta = 0.24$, C.R. = 3.39, $p < .001$). Thus, integrativeness is indirectly related to strategy use through the mediation of motivation. The indirect influence of integrativeness on strategy use through motivation is .09 ($.36 \times .24$).

Hypothesis 5: Motivation positively impacts language learning strategy use.

Figure 4.6 shows the direct influence of motivation on strategy use in regard to hypothesis 5.

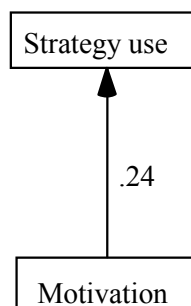


Figure 0.6: Test of hypothesis 5 (standardized regression coefficients)

As Table 4.3 and Figure 4.6 shows and as stated above, there is a significant and positive path coefficient ($\beta = 0.24$, C.R. = 3.39, $p < .001$) from motivation to strategy use. Motivation is considered as a significant direct predictor of students' strategy use. Thus, hypothesis 5 is supported. This means learning strategy use is predicted to improve by .24 standard deviation provided there is a change in motivation of one standard deviation, while other factors are controlled.

Hypothesis 6: Motivation directly and positively affects English achievement, and indirectly and positively affects English achievement through strategy use.

Figure 4.7 shows the direct and indirect (through strategy use) influences of motivation on English achievement in regard to hypothesis 6.

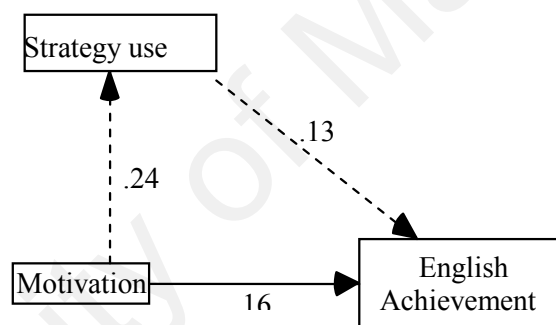


Figure 0.7: Test of hypothesis 6 (standardized regression coefficients)

The direct path from motivation to English achievement is statistically significant ($\beta = 0.16$, C.R. = 2.01, $p < .05$). The relation of motivation to English language achievement is significant and positive, thus the hypothesis that motivation is directly and positively connected to English achievement, is supported. Motivation is considered as a significant direct predictor of students' English language achievement.

As previously reported, the effect of motivation on learning strategy use is significant ($\beta = 0.24$, C.R. = 3.39, $p < .001$). Motivation provides a positive impact on strategy use. Therefore, motivation can be considered as an important and positive predictor in determining the students' strategy use.

Regarding the impact of strategy use on students' English achievement, the standardized estimate of regression weight is .13, and its C.R. is 2.03 at the .05 level. Therefore, the relation of language learning strategy use to English achievement is significant; learning strategy use can be considered as an important and positive predictor of students' English achievement.

In brief, the results support the hypothesis that motivation directly and positively affects English achievement, and indirectly and positively affects English achievement through strategy use. The indirect influence of motivation on English achievement through strategy use is .03 ($.24 \times .13$).

H7: Attitudes toward the learning situation relate positively and directly to English language achievement, and relate indirectly to English achievement through motivation, and through self-efficacy.

Figure 4.8 shows the direct and indirect (through motivation and through self-efficacy) influences of attitudes toward the learning situation on English achievement in regard to hypothesis 7.

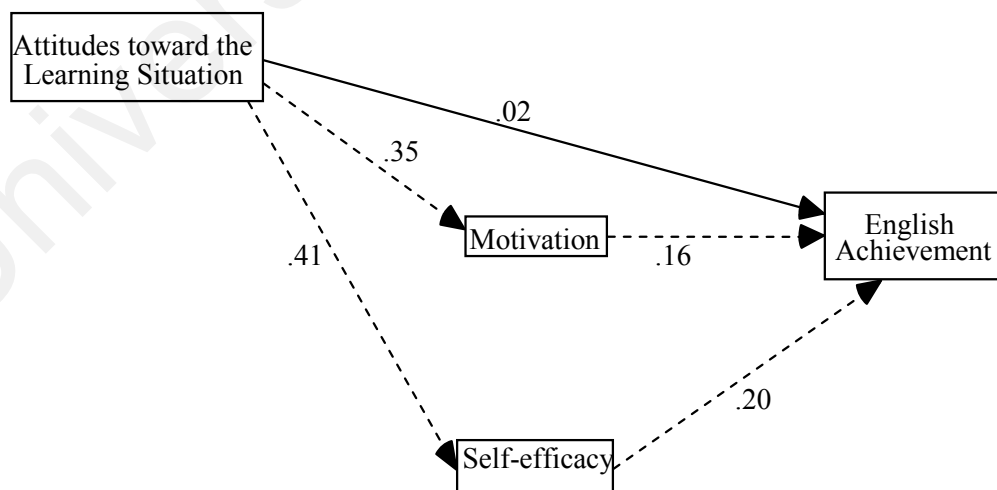


Figure 0.8: Test of hypothesis 7 (standardized regression coefficients)

As can be observed from Figure 4.8 and Table 4.3 the direct path coefficient from Attitudes toward the learning situation to English language achievement is not statistically significant ($\beta = 0.02$, C.R. = .24, $p = 0.81$). In other words, results indicate that learners' attitudes might not be considered as a significant direct predictor defining achievement in English. Thus, the hypothesis that Attitudes toward the learning situation relate positively and directly to English language achievement is rejected.

As previously reported, the data analysis indicates that direct effects of students' attitudes on motivation ($\beta = .35$, C.R. = 5.75, $p < .001$) and motivation on English achievement ($\beta = 0.16$, C.R. = 2.01, $p < .05$) are positive and significant. Attitudes and motivation can be considered as important and positive predictors in determining the students' motivation and English achievement respectively.

In addition, as reported above, attitudes toward the learning situation have significant positive impact on self-efficacy ($\beta = 0.41$, C.R. = 6.89, $p < .001$). In regard to the effect of self-efficacy on English achievement, the standardized estimate of regression weight is .20, and its C.R. is 2.92 at the .001 level. Hence, the relation of self-efficacy to achievement is significant.

Thus, the findings indicate that although attitudes toward the learning situation are not directly related to students' English language achievement, they relate indirectly to English achievement through the mediation of motivation and self-efficacy. The indirect influence of attitudes toward the learning situation on English achievement through motivation is .06 ($.35 \times .16$) and through self-efficacy is .08 ($.41 \times .20$).

H8: Integrativeness relates positively and directly to English language achievement, and relates indirectly to English achievement through motivation.

Figure 4.9 shows the direct and indirect (through motivation) influences of integrativeness on English achievement in regard to hypothesis 8.

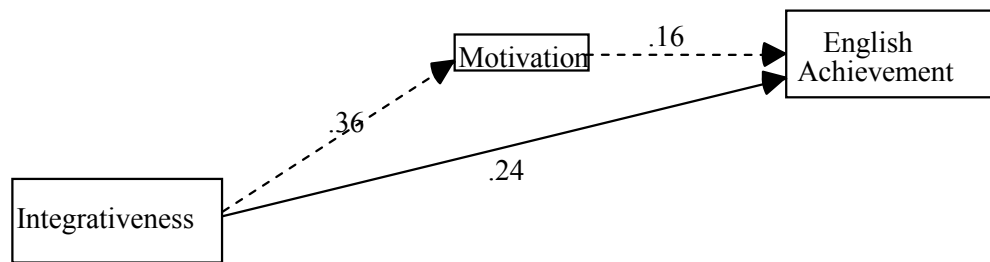


Figure 0.9: Test of hypothesis 8 (standardized regression coefficients)

The data analysis indicates that integrativeness reports a direct positive effect on English achievement by $\beta = .24$. The structural model shows that integrativeness is a significant predictor of students' English achievement (C.R. = 3.24, $p = .001$).

This means English achievement is predicted to improve by .24 standard deviations provided there is a change in integrativeness of one standard deviation, while other factors are controlled. Thus, the hypothesis that integrativeness is directly and positively related to English achievement is supported.

With regard to the effect of integrativeness on motivation, the standardized estimate of regression weight is .36, and its C.R. is 6.27 at the .001 level. Therefore, the relation between integrativeness and motivation is positive and significant; integrativeness can be considered as an important and positive predictor in determining the students' motivation. In terms of the direct relation between motivation and English achievement, as previously shown, the data analysis reports that the path coefficient from motivation to English achievement ($\beta = 0.16$, C.R. = 2.01, $p < .05$) is positive and statistically significant.

Therefore, in response to hypothesis 8, integrativeness relates positively and directly to English language achievement, and relates indirectly to English achievement through

motivation. The indirect influence of integrativeness on English achievement through motivation is .06 ($.36 \times .16$).

H9: Self-efficacy positively impacts motivation.

Figure 4.10 shows the direct influence of self-efficacy on motivation in regard to hypothesis 9.

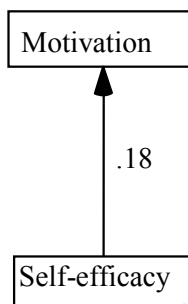


Figure 0.10: Test of hypothesis 9 (standardized regression coefficients)

The direct path from self-efficacy to motivation is statistically significant ($\beta = 0.18$, C.R. = 3.73, $p < .001$). The relation of self-efficacy to motivation is significantly positive, thus the hypothesis that self-efficacy positively impacts motivation is supported; students' motivation is directly predicted by self-efficacy.

H10: Self-efficacy has a direct positive effect on strategy use, and has an indirect effect on strategy use through motivation.

Figure 4.11 shows the direct and indirect (through motivation) influences of self-efficacy on strategy use in regard to hypothesis 10.

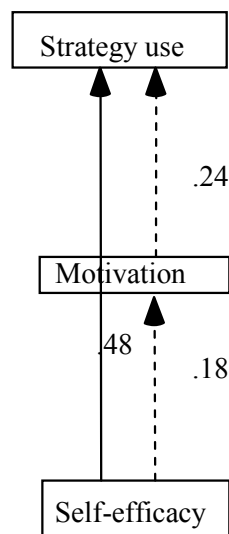


Figure 0.11: Test of hypothesis 10 (standardized regression coefficients)

The direct impact of self-efficacy on strategy use is statistically significant. The estimate of standardized regression weight from self-efficacy to strategy use is .48, and its C.R. is 8.22 at the .001 level. Self-efficacy has a significant positive relation with participants' strategy use, thus the hypothesis that self-efficacy has a direct positive effect on strategy use, is supported. Therefore, self-efficacy is considered as a direct predictor of determining the students' strategy use.

As noted above, there is a significant and positive path coefficient ($\beta = 0.18$, C.R. = 3.73, $p < .001$) from self-efficacy to motivation. Self-efficacy directly predicts students' motivation. Furthermore, the relation between motivation and strategy use is significant ($\beta = 0.24$, C.R. = 3.39, $p < .001$). Thus, self-efficacy is indirectly related to strategy use through the mediation of motivation. The indirect influence of self-efficacy on strategy use through motivation is .04 ($.18 \times .24$).

H11: Self-efficacy has a positive direct effect on English achievement, and has an indirect effect on English achievement through motivation and through strategy use.

Figure 4.12 shows the direct and indirect (through motivation and through strategy use) influences of self-efficacy on English achievement in regard to hypothesis 11.

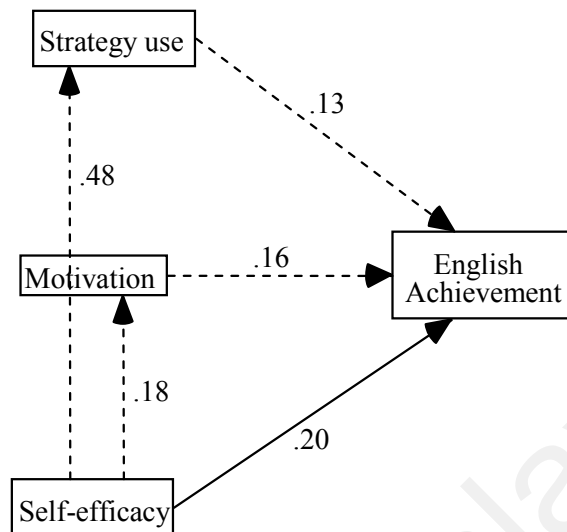


Figure 0.12: Test of hypothesis 11 (standardized regression coefficients)

As Figure 4.12 and Table 4.3 show, the direct path coefficient from self-efficacy to English language achievement is statistically significant and positive ($\beta = .20$, C.R. = 2.92, $p = .003$). In other words, results indicate that students' self-efficacy is regarded as a significant direct predictor defining achievement in English. Thus, the hypothesis that self-efficacy relates directly and positively to English language achievement is supported.

As previously seen, the direct influence of self-efficacy on motivation is statistically significant ($\beta = .18$, C.R. = 3.73, $p < .001$); self-efficacy provides a positive impact on motivation and is regarded as an important and positive predictor in determining the students' motivation. The data analysis also revealed that motivation has a direct positive impact on English achievement ($\beta = .16$, C.R. = 2.01, $p < .05$). This means English achievement is predicted to improve by .16 standard deviations provided there is a change in motivation of one standard deviation, while other factors are controlled. Furthermore, as reported in hypothesis 10, the direct effect of self-efficacy on strategy use is statistically significant ($\beta = .48$, C.R. = 8.22, $p < .001$) and strategy use has a

significant positive relation to English achievement; the estimate of standardized regression weight from strategy use to students' English achievement is .13, and its C.R. is 2.03 ($p < .05$).

In brief, the results support the hypothesis that self-efficacy has a positive direct effect on English achievement, and has an indirect effect on English achievement through motivation and through strategy use. The indirect influence of self-efficacy on English achievement through motivation is .03 ($.18 \times .16$) and through strategy use is .06 ($.48 \times .13$).

H12: Strategy use relates positively to English language achievement.

Figure 4.13 shows the direct influence of strategy use on English achievement in regard to hypothesis 12.

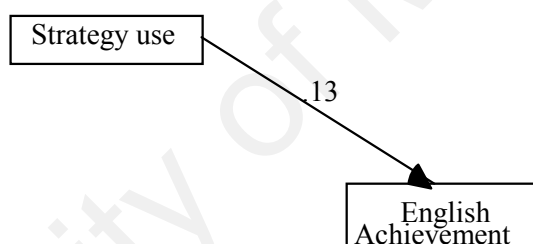


Figure 0.13: Test of hypothesis 12 (standardized regression coefficients)

There is a significant positive path coefficient ($\beta = .13$, C.R. = C.R. is 2.03, $p < .05$) from learning strategy use to English achievement, supporting hypothesis 12 that strategy use relates positively to English language achievement.

Table 0.4: Standardized indirect effects

	INT	ALS	SE	MOT	STR
SE	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
MOT	.000	.075	.000	.000	.000
STR	.084	.296	.043	.000	.000
ACH	.068	.181	.100	.032	.000

INT = Integrativeness; MOT = Motivation; ALS = Attitudes toward the Learning Situation; STR = Language Learning Strategy; SE = Self-efficacy; ACH = English Achievement

Table 0.5: Standardized Total Effects

	INT	ALS	SE	MOT	STR
SE	.000	.407	.000	.000	.000
MOT	.356	.422	.184	.000	.000
STR	.084	.243	.525	.236	.000
ACH	.305	.200	.300	.190	.135

INT = Integrativeness; MOT = Motivation; ALS = Attitudes toward the Learning Situation; STR = Language Learning Strategy; SE = Self-efficacy; ACH = English Achievement

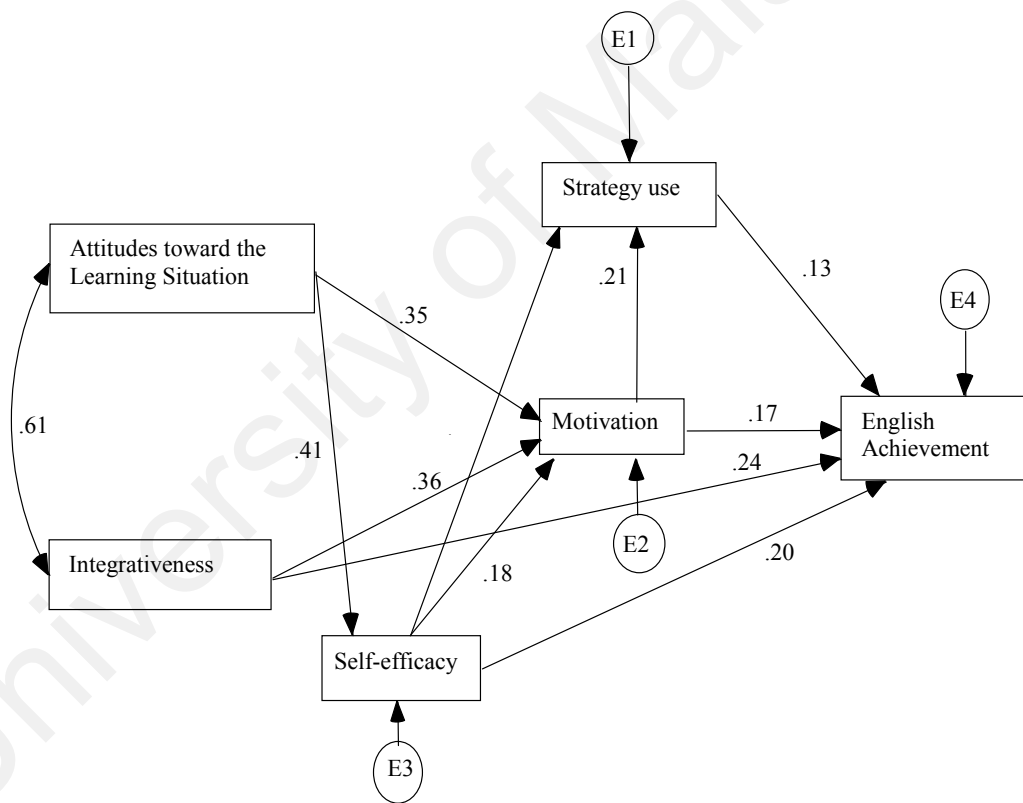
Strategy use is considered as a significant direct predictor of students' English achievement; English achievement is expected to improve by .13 standard deviation given a change in strategy use of one standard deviation, while other factors are controlled.

Table 0.6: Summary of the Results of the Hypotheses

Hypotheses	Result
H1: Attitudes toward the learning situation are positively correlated to integrativeness	Supported
H2: Attitudes toward the learning situation relate positively and directly to self-efficacy	Supported
H3: Attitudes toward the learning situation have direct positive impact on strategy use, and have an indirect impact on strategy use through motivation	Not supported
H4: Integrativeness is indirectly related to strategy use through motivation	supported
H5: Motivation positively impacts language learning strategy use	Supported
H6: Motivation directly and positively affects English achievement, and indirectly and positively affects English achievement through strategy use	Supported
H7: Attitudes toward the learning situation relate positively and directly to English language achievement, and relate indirectly to English achievement through motivation, and through self-efficacy	Not supported
H8: Integrativeness relates positively and directly to English language achievement, and relates indirectly to English achievement through motivation	Supported
H9: Self-efficacy positively impacts motivation	Supported
H10: Self-efficacy has a direct positive effect on strategy use, and has an indirect effect on strategy use through motivation	Supported
H11: Self-efficacy has a positive direct effect on English achievement, and has an indirect effect on English achievement through motivation and through strategy use	Supported
H12: Strategy use relates positively to English language achievement	Supported

As explained above, the following two hypothesized direct relationships were not statistically significant: Attitudes toward the Learning Situation → Strategy use, and Attitudes toward the Learning Situation → English Achievement. By removing these two links from the hypothesized structural model (Figure 4.1), the final model with standardized estimates is represented in Figure 4.14 below and as it is clear the model fit indexes indicate a very good model fit as well (Chi-square= 3.473, df= 4, p= .482, RMSEA= .000, CFI= 1.000, GFI= .995, AGFI= .974, NFI= .993, and TLI= 1.000).

When the non-significant paths are removed from the model, as shown in Figure 4.14, the following very small changes can be seen.



E1-E4= measurements errors

Chi-square= 3.473, p=.482, df=4, ratio=.868, RMSEA=.000, GFI=.995, AGFI=.974, CFI=1.000, NFI=.993, TLI=1.000

Figure 0.14: The final model with standardized estimates

The estimate of standardized regression weight from self-efficacy to strategy use is .47, and its C.R. is 8.24 at the .001 level (see Table 4.7). Furthermore, regarding the relationship of motivation to strategy use, the standardized coefficient path is $\beta = 0.21$,

and its C.R. is 3.59 at the .001 level (see Table 4.7). Finally, regarding the direct effect of motivation on English achievement, the standardized estimate of regression weight is $\beta = 0.17$, C.R. = 2.247, $p < .05$. As such changes reflect the related standardized indirect effects as well as the standardized total effects of these relationships are also given below (see Table 4.8 and 4.9).

Table 0.7: Standardized estimates

Regression Weights	Standardized Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
SE ← ALS	.407	2.670	6.893	***
MOT ← ALS	.347	.082	5.755	***
MOT ← INT	.356	.078	6.268	***
MOT ← SE	.184	.001	3.731	***
STR ← MOT	.206	.087	3.593	***
STR ← SE	.473	.003	8.235	***
ACH ← MOT	.165	.044	2.247	.025
ACH ← STR	.134	.026	2.015	.044
ACH ← SE	.203	.001	3.040	.002
ACH ← INT	.244	.055	3.583	***

INT = Integrativeness; MOT = Motivation; ALS = Attitudes toward the Learning Situation; STR = Language Learning Strategy; SE = Self-efficacy; ACH = English Achievement

Table 0.8: Standardized indirect effects

	INT	ALS	SE	MOT	STR
SE	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
MOT	.000	.075	.000	.000	.000
STR	.073	.280	.038	.000	.000
ACH	.069	.190	.099	.028	.000

Table 0.9: Standardized total effects

	INT	ALS	SE	MOT	STR
SE	.000	.407	.000	.000	.000
MOT	.356	.422	.184	.000	.000
STR	.073	.280	.511	.206	.000
ACH	.312	.190	.302	.193	.134

In summary, attitudes toward the learning situation were positively correlated to integrativeness and were considered as significant direct predictors of students' self-efficacy which in turn showed a positive direct impact on motivation and strategy use. Self-efficacy reported also to have an indirect effect on strategy use through the mediation of motivation.

Students' attitudes toward the learning situation were not significantly connected to strategy use nor to English achievement directly, but had indirect link with strategy use through the mediation of motivation and with achievement in English through motivation and through self-efficacy. Results of the analysis revealed that motivation directly and positively affects English achievement and strategy use, and indirectly and positively affects English achievement through strategy use. Therefore, strategy use provided a positive impact on learners' English achievement. In addition, students' integrativeness related positively and directly to English language achievement, and related indirectly to English achievement and strategy use through motivation. Finally, self-efficacy was considered as an important and positive predictor in determining the students' English language achievement, both directly and indirectly through the mediation of motivation and strategy use.

In addition to the relationships mentioned, the proposed path model represented some other indirect aforementioned relationships constructed due to the interplay between the three mediators. This will be discussed in Section 4.4.

4.4 Discussion and Implications

As previously stated, the aim of this research was to investigate and test a modified form of Gardner's (2001a) socio-educational model of second/foreign language learning (updated in 2003). To this end causal interrelations among some individual difference variables including integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, motivation, strategy use, self efficacy, and English language achievement, were examined among

Iranian students as depicted in the conceptual model in chapter one (Figure 1.2). Specifically, the research questions addressed in the study were as the following.

1a. What is the structural relationship between the variables, namely, motivation (MOT), strategy use (STR), self efficacy (SE), and language achievement (ACH), in the proposed adapted version of Gardner's model in an Iranian English language learning context?

1b. What is the structural relation of attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS) and integrativeness (INT), with motivation (MOT), strategy use (STR), self efficacy (SE), and language achievement (ACH), in the proposed adapted version of Gardner's model in an Iranian English language learning context?

1c. Is there a correlation between the Iranian EFL students' attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS) and integrativeness (INT)?

In conjunction with the research questions the following hypotheses were formulated and examined (see section 4.3.1):

H1: Attitudes toward the learning situation are positively correlated to integrativeness.

H2: Attitudes toward the learning situation relate positively and directly to self-efficacy.

H3: Attitudes toward the learning situation have direct positive impact on strategy use, and have indirect impact on strategy use through motivation.

H4: Integrativeness is indirectly related to strategy use through motivation.

H5: motivation positively impacts language learning strategy use.

H6: Motivation directly and positively affects English achievement, and indirectly and positively affects English achievement through strategy use.

H7: Attitudes toward the learning situation relate positively and directly to English language achievement, and relate indirectly to English achievement through motivation, and through self-efficacy.

H8: Integrativeness relates positively and directly to English language achievement, and relates indirectly to English achievement through motivation.

H9: Self-efficacy positively impacts motivation.

H10: Self-efficacy has a direct positive effect on strategy use, and has an indirect effect on strategy use through motivation.

H11: Self-efficacy has a positive direct effect on English achievement, and has an indirect effect on English achievement through motivation and through strategy use.

H12: Strategy use relates positively to English language achievement.

The findings related to these hypotheses are discussed next. In addition to the relationships mentioned, the proposed path model also showed up other indirect relationships which had been constructed due to the interplay between the three mediators. This will be also discussed further.

4.4.1 The correlation between Attitudes toward the Learning situation and Integrativeness

Starting from the exogenous variables of the study, a significant positive $r=.61$ (61%) correlation/relationship was found between students' attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS) and their integrativeness. Such a relationship between attitudes toward the learning situation i.e. "attitudes toward any aspect of the situation in which the language is learned" (Gardner, 2001a: 8), such as the course in general, the teacher, one's classmates, extra-curricular activities, the course materials, etc. and integrativeness, i.e., a real interest in learning L2 to "come closer psychologically to the other language community" (Gardner, 2001a: 7), has been shown by various other studies (e.g., Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Gardner, 1985, 2000, 2001a, 2005, 2007; Gardner & Smyth 1975; Gardner & Smyth, 1981; Masgoret, Bernaus, & Gardner, 2001; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). However, since they were both exogenous variables of the study, no causal relationship was predicted between them. Therefore as mentioned

previously (see chapter 1 section 1.8), it would be expected that individuals whose levels of integrativeness is high and have a sense of concern with learning the target language to identify and integrate with another language community and culture would possess a positive view toward the language learning situation and vice versa; students who are more interested in the English language, and favor English people and their culture, are more likely to have a positive evaluation of the English curriculum at school, the learning program, extra-curricular activities, and English teachers.

4.4.2 The Direct effect of Attitudes toward the Learning Situation on self-efficacy

Another interesting finding was that the variable, ALS was found to be causally linked with self-efficacy ($\beta = 0.41$). ALS was considered as a significant direct predictor of students' self-efficacy. This finding is consistent with those of other research (Cheung & Huang, 2005; Garcia, 2007; Huang & Chang, 1996; Huang & Chang, 1998; Masgoret, Bernaus, & Gardner, 2001; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995) that found ALS had a direct positive impact on self-efficacy. Furthermore, as mentioned previously (see section 1.8), in a recent study, Sani and Zain (2011) indicated that the levels of self-efficacy in L2 in learners who showed more positive attitudes were higher. Such effects emphasize the need to promote students' attitudes and self-efficacy in order to improve L2 reading (Sani & Zain, 2011).

A possible explanation for such an effect could be traced back to the definitions of each variable. As mentioned previously, Gardner (2001a, 2005, 2007) had defined attitudes toward the learning situation as the individual's views and feelings towards the language teacher, classroom, materials, activities and tasks. On the other hand, self-efficacy refers to people's judgments about themselves, in terms of success, failure and their abilities to achieve (Bandura, 1986, 1997; Pajares, 2002), which could be interpreted as a type of personal attitude itself. Based on these definitions, which identify both constructs as attitudinal, it seems reasonable for the two variables to be

related. The nature of this relationship, however, seems to be one of the strongest ones in the model. As for the direction of this relationship, it appears that a positive attitude toward the learning situation can enhance the learners' self-efficacy. In other words, the better the learners' evaluation of the learning environment, the better their judgments of their own abilities to achieve. Such effect could be of great importance in classrooms and formal situations of language learning, where teachers could create pleasant environments for language learning.

4.4.3 The Direct and Indirect Effect of Attitudes toward the learning situation on Strategy use

An unanticipated aspect of the study was the fact that no significant direct causal relationship was found to exist between attitudes toward the learning situation and the learners' strategy use. This finding is contradictory to different studies which have shown that attitudes have played a significant role in the language learners' choice and application of learning strategies as well as successful second or foreign language outcomes (Chamot & Kupper, 1989; Oxford, 1990; Oxford, Nyikos, & Crookall, 1987; Politzer, 1983; Politzer & McGroarty, 1985; Yin, 2008). However the finding is in line with that of Gardner, Tremblay, and Masgoret, (1997).

However, close examination of the path diagram (Figure 4.14) indicates that ALS has a positive relationship with strategy use through its effect on motivation and self-efficacy. The negative influence proposes that to the degree that positive attitudes do not end in enhanced motivation and self-efficacy, tend to have a very small negative (non significant) impact on strategy use. This finding is expected; some learners might possess positive view toward aspects of the language learning situation but are not motivated to learn the foreign language or do not have high opinions about themselves and their abilities and, thus, might use strategies less frequently. Only when the positive attitudes are connected with motivation or self-efficacy will they end in more frequent

use of strategies. Therefore, this finding does not propose that ALS is negatively linked with learning strategy use (refer to Table 4.3 which shows that the relationship is not significant). It indicates that positive and favorable attitudes toward the learning situation lead positively to more frequent use of strategies only when they affect motivation or self-efficacy; otherwise, the influences tend to be negative.

ALS did not have direct positive impact on strategy use, but indirectly related to strategy use through motivation, indicating that the way learners evaluate their class and learning environment affects their motivation to learn, which in turn causes more frequent use of strategies. The indirect influence of attitudes on strategy use through motivation was .07 ($.35 \times .21$). This indirect relationship is consistent with the work of Gardner (2001a) and Gardner, Tremblay, and Masgoret (1997) who found language learning attitudes could influence learners' strategy use through the mediation of motivation.

The relationship between ALS and strategy use was mediated not only by motivation but also by self-efficacy, showing that the way learners evaluate their class and learning environment affects their motivation to learn, which in turn influences their utilization of strategies, and their self-efficacy, which again causes more frequent strategies utilization. As Figure 4.15 below shows, strategy use was indirectly influenced by attitudes through self-efficacy with the value of .19 ($.41 \times .47$). The way learners evaluate their class and learning environment also influences their self-efficacy, which in turn affects their motivation, which again results in their use of techniques and strategies to learn and use the language. This implies that improvement in teaching methods, materials, and tasks designed for language classes can increase motivation and self-efficacy, as well as the degree to which learners employ strategies to learn. The total effect of attitudes toward the learning situation on strategy use was .28 (see Table 4.8).

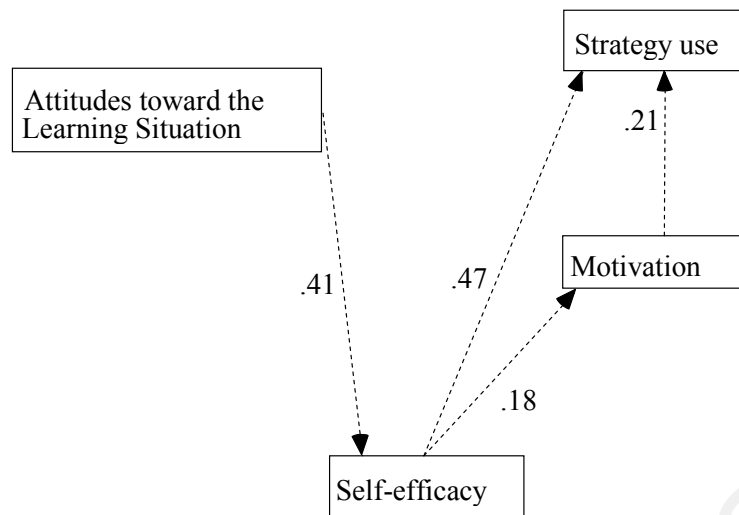


Figure 0.1: The indirect effect (shown by dashed arrows) of attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS) on strategy use through self-efficacy, and through self-efficacy and motivation (standardized regression coefficients)

4.4.4 The Indirect Effect of Integrativeness on Strategy Use

Similarly, students' integrativeness had an indirect effect on their strategy use through the mediation of motivation ($\beta = .07$), meaning that integrativeness causes motivation, which in turn, results in the use of strategies. This result could be interpreted in terms of the extent to which students favor speakers of the target language and their culture. This finding specifies that the more open the learners feel toward the foreign language speakers and their lifestyle, and the more willing they are to accept and appreciate them, the more motivated and eager they will be to learn their language, and as a result employ strategies to learn and use it. The inference that could be drawn from such a finding is that presenting an acceptable and appealing image of the target language, its speakers and culture to the students could result in better attitudes toward the foreign language and its speakers, hence students become better motivated and use language strategies more frequently. Therefore, students could achieve more autonomy and make the learning process more meaningful. This indirect relationship is consistent with that of Gardner (2001a) and Gardner, Tremblay, and Masgoret (1997) who found language learning attitudes including integrativeness could influence learners' strategy use through the mediation of motivation.

4.4.5 The Direct Effect of Self-efficacy on Strategy Use

Such findings also show the significance of self-efficacy as well as motivation in using strategies. Results of the analysis revealed that learners' self-efficacy related directly and positively to strategy use ($\beta = .47$), a fact that is also supported by a number of studies conducted previously, including Pintrich and DeGroot (1990), Pintrich and Garcia (1991), Schunk and Gunn (1986), Schunk and Rice (1993), Tuckman and Abry (1998), Wenden (1986, 1987), and Wolters and Pintrich (1998). Moreover, as mentioned previously in section 1.8, various studies (e.g., Pintrich & Schrauben, 1992; Schunk, 1983, 1984, 1987, 1996 all cited in Ma, 2010) also have shown that students who have high self-efficacy typically employ various cognitive strategies to enhance learning. Kim (2001), and Su and Duo (2012), Yilmaz (2010), and Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1990) also reported that self-efficacy results in greater use of language learning strategies utilization. This indicates that the learners who have high discernments about themselves and their abilities are more likely to utilize strategies. Interestingly, this relationship was found to be the strongest of the path coefficients obtained in the model, indicating that self-efficacy was the strongest cause for strategy use. This relationship could be explained in terms of the subcategories that make up the variable "strategy use". In other words, it seems reasonable to conclude that the judgment of a person regarding abilities could affect the number and extent to which memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies are used. A closer inspection of the definitions provided by Oxford (1990) can explain why such a relationship was found; it appears that since these constructs are all related closely to the ability of individuals' to store and retrieve information (memory strategies) understand, practice, and analyze incoming information (cognitive strategies), guess where knowledge alone is insufficient to understand input (compensation strategies), plan and give conscious attention to learn (metacognitive

strategies), regulating both positive and negative emotions (affective strategies), and finally exercise the language in authentic situations, and using it to interact with speakers (social strategies), it is in fact their judgment about themselves that they make when they report on the extent of strategy use. The items on the self-efficacy questionnaire ask the participants to judge their abilities to perform different language tasks. It is not unexpected, therefore, that the judgment of the ability to carry out these tasks be causally related to language strategy use.

As noted above, interestingly, self-efficacy as well mediated the impact of ALS on language learning strategies, having the second highest path coefficient of the model. Again, this shows the importance of the role played by self-efficacy as a factor that intervenes between ALS and strategy use. As such, it seems plausible to imply that in addition to being a mediator between ALS and strategy use, self-efficacy itself is a stronger predictor of strategy use.

4.4.6 The Indirect Effect of Self-efficacy on Strategy Use

In addition, the findings indicated that self-efficacy had an indirect effect on strategy use through the mediation of motivation by $\beta = .04 (.18 \times .21)$, showing that self-efficacy causes motivation, which in turn, results in the use of strategies. As previously mentioned in section 1.8, Yang (1999) stated it is assumed that students' self-efficacy beliefs influence their motivational patterns and goals, which in turn affect their strategy use and learning behaviors. Furthermore, Yang (1999) stated that cognitive studies reviewed (e.g., Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Pintrich & De Groot, 1990) have shown the connections among students' motivation, beliefs, as well as strategy utilization. Again, such a finding is interpreted by the significant role of self-efficacy in the model and specifically by its direct positive effect on motivation.

4.4.7 The Direct Effect of Self-efficacy on Motivation

As the results of the study show, self-efficacy is considered as a significant direct predictor of learners' motivation ($\beta = .18$). It was discovered that student expectation of self and self-evaluations of likelihood of success seem to have significant motivational influences, a fact also revealed by previous research done in areas of learning including language learning (Hsieh, 2008; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995; Tuckman & Abry, 1998). In their study self-efficacy had a direct positive influence on language learning motivation. As mentioned previously (see chapter 1 section 1.8), the reason for such a role is that for learners to be capable of focusing on learning with maximum effort and determination, they must have a sound view of their abilities in learning (Dornyei, 2001b). Therefore, self-efficacy is a motivational variable that can influence an individual's desire for learning, the effort the person expends as well as the enjoyment he feels in the learning process.

Furthermore, many studies including those of Bandura (1997), Dornyei (2001b), Ehrman (1996), Ehrman and Oxford (1995), Horwitz (1988), Pintrich (1999), Pintrich and Schunk (2002), Saito, Horwitz and Garza (1999), Wolters and Rosenthal (2000), Zimmerman (2000) have shown the crucial role of self-efficacy in L2 (second or foreign) learning motivation and considered it as a significant predictor of learners' motivation and language learning.

4.4.8 The Direct Effect of Motivation on Strategy Use

The results of the analysis have also indicated that students' motivation was another important factor that had a direct positive impact on their strategy use by $\beta = .21$. This finding is consistent with that of various research works including Bonney, Cortina, Smith-Darden, and Fiori (2008), Gardner, Tremblay, and Masgoret (1997), MacIntyre and Noels (1996), Mistar (2001), Mohammadi, Moenikia, and Zahed-Babelan (2010), Oxford, Nyikos, and Crookall (1987), Politzer (1983), Politzer and McGroarty (1985),

Schmidt and Watanabe (2001), Seo (2001). Therefore, as stated by Mohammadi, Moenikia, and Zahed-Babelan (2010), using L2 learning strategies is dependent on the variable motivation.

This result can again be traced back to the items of the AMTB, which by concentrating on effort, desire, and positive effect, seem to positively impact the use of strategies. That is to say that while "effort" is defined by Gardner (2001a) to be the attempt individuals make to learn the language, desire, the strength of their wish to learn, and positive effect, the enjoyment they experience while learning, all the factors seem to be prerequisites and contribute to the use of learning strategies, meaning that they will not use strategies unless they want to learn the language, try hard to learn and enjoy learning it. Furthermore, the plausible explanation is that the more motivated the learners are, the more likely they are to expend effort and time required for strategy use, because strategies are referred to as behaviors requiring effort (MacIntyre & Noels, 1996). Therefore, as concluded by Engin (2009), Lavasani and Faryadres (2011), and Oxford (1994), students' language learning techniques can be developed by teachers' understanding of the significance of students' motivation. Gardner (2001a) himself proposes that to the degree that such strategies have a role in learning the language they would seem to be utilized by the motivated individuals, and thus the potential connection between MOT and learning strategy use.

4.4.9 The Direct Effect of Attitudes toward the Learning Situation and Integrativeness on Motivation

Another result of the study was that significant relationships were found between ALS and motivation, and integrativeness and motivation (similar to Gardner, 2001a). They had the third and fourth highest path coefficients of the model respectively, which imply that the more favorable the attitudes of learners towards the target language and its speakers, and the learning situation in general, the more motivated learners are likely

to be. As mentioned previously in section 1.8, this result of the study is supported by several studies conducted by Gardner himself (1983, 1985, 2000, 2001a, 2001b, 2005, 2007) and together with his colleagues (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Gardner, Lalonde, & Pierson, 1983; Gardner, Masgoret, & Tremblay, 1999; Gardner & Smythe, 1975; Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; Kam, 2006; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995) in which it has been shown that these two variables (ALS and integrativeness) have a positive direct effect on the learner's motivation and are seen as positive predictors and support for motivation. In other words, motivation levels are affected and supported by integrativeness and ALS.

A skilled, committed, interesting teacher who possesses a good knowledge of the language, an exciting curriculum, purposeful assessment procedures, and carefully made lesson plans as well as an interesting and ordered course, will encourage higher levels of motivation than a teacher who lacks some of these characteristics or a course which is dull or confused (Gardner, 2005). Furthermore, learners' openness in taking the characteristics of the target cultural/linguistic group affects their motivation to learn that language (Gardner, 2001a, 2005).

4.4.10 The Indirect Effect of Attitudes toward the Learning Situation on Motivation

In addition, as Figure 4.16 below shows, the results showed that ALS was indirectly connected to motivation through the mediation of self-efficacy by $\beta = .07 (.41 \times .18)$, showing that ALS causes self-efficacy, which in turn, results in motivation. The way learners evaluate their class and learning environment affects their judgments of their own abilities to achieve, which in turn influences their level of motivation. Tremblay and Gardner (1995) also found that self-efficacy acted as a moderator between learners' motivational behaviors and language attitudes. Such a finding specifies that students,

who possess a positive view toward language learning situations, have a sound view of themselves in learning and this would enhance their motivation to learn the language.

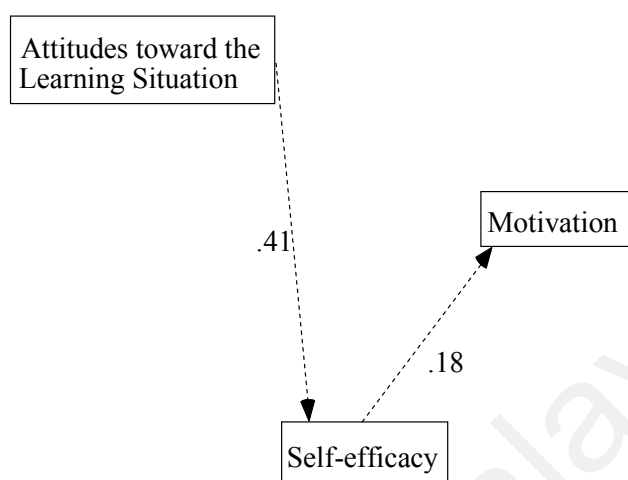


Figure 0.2: The indirect effect (shown by dashed arrows) of attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS) on motivation through self-efficacy (standardized regression coefficients)

4.4.11 The Direct and Indirect effect of Motivation on Achievement

Results of the research also indicate that motivation had a direct positive impact on English achievement ($\beta = .17$), and indirectly and positively affects English achievement through strategy use ($\beta = .03$). The direct positive influence of motivation on English language achievement is similarly indicated in various studies (e.g., Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Bernaus, Wilson, & Gardner, 2009; Gardner, 1983, 2007; Gardner & Smythe, 1981; Kam, 2006; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Mohammadi, Moenikia, & Zahed-Babelan, 2010; Yuanfang, 2009). Motivation causes learners to make effort, exert time, and persist on different kinds of learning tasks (Clark & Estes, 2002; Gardner, 2001b) that will cause high English achievement. Also, as mentioned previously in section 1.8, Kam (2006) asserted that an essential condition for learners to learn the target language is to have high levels of motivation which will cause high language achievement.

The indirect influence of motivation on English achievement through strategy use was .03 ($.24 \times .13$) indicating that motivation causes learners' utilization of language learning strategies, which in turn, leads to higher English achievement. This finding specifies that the more eager the learners are and want to learn the language, the more they try hard to learn it and the more likely they are to utilize strategies, and as a result the higher their English achievement will be. Hence motivation is considered as a predictor for language learning strategy use which in turn helps to promote high levels of second/foreign language achievement (Ellis, 1994; Kam, 2006; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Oxford, Nyikos, & Crookall, 1987). The more motivated L2 learners are, the more likely they are to expend effort and time required to employ in using strategy that leads to success in language learning (Domakani, Roohani, & Akbari, 2012). Gardner (2001a) himself believes to the extent that language learning strategies have a role in learning the language it would be assumed that they would be utilized by the motivated individuals.

In addition, as mentioned previously in section 1.8, different studies have shown that motivated strategies for SL/FL learning is regarded as the predictor for language achievement including English (Brown, 2001; Dornyei, 2003; Gardner, 2000; Mohammadi, Moenikia, & Zahed-Babelan, 2010; Pintrich, 2003; Ryan, & Deci, 2000; Skinner, & Madden, 2009).

4.4.12 The Direct and Indirect Effect of Attitudes toward the Learning Situation on English Achievement

Another unanticipated aspect of the study was the fact that students' ALS was found to have no significant direct effect on their English achievement ($\beta = .02$). This finding is contradictory to current literature (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Clément, 2001; Kam, 2006; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003), but in line with Gardner (2007) and Bernaus, Wilson, and Gardner (2009). This is surprising since as stated by Gardner

(2007), it is expected that in classes with good teaching materials, etc., and a skilled and experienced teacher, learners would have more favorable and positive attitudes toward the learning situation and hence would learn more English and as a result, get higher grades. What the teacher does and the materials he or she uses have an important role in the training of learners, but it is the learners who evaluate what the teacher does and what materials he or she recommends, and such attitudes will affect how they react to the task; the teacher's activities can affect the learners' level of motivation which in turn will have an influence on their achievement (Gardner, 2007).

It might be argued that ALS will not strongly affect L2 (foreign or second) language achievement unless they are linked with motivation (Gardner, 2000, 2005). It is predicted that motivation has a higher influence on second or foreign language achievement than do attitudes toward the learning situation (Gardner, 2001b, 2005, 2007; Gardner & Smythe, 1975; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). Therefore, as the results of this study also show, motivation mediates the actual influence of the variable ALS, on English language achievement (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008, Gardner, 2007). The indirect influence of ALS on English achievement through motivation was .06 ($.35 \times .17$).

The findings of this research also indicated that self-efficacy mediated the relation of ALS to English achievement. The way learners evaluate their class and learning environment affects the judgments of their own abilities to achieve, which in turn influences their level of achievement in English. This outcome is in agreement with the investigation of Huang and Chang (1996) and Masgoret, Bernaus, and Gardner (2001) who found students' attitudes toward the learning situation affected their English achievement through self-efficacy. The indirect effect of ALS on English achievement through self-efficacy, $\beta = .08$ ($.41 \times .20$), which has been reported to be stronger than the indirect effect through motivation, signifies that the prerequisite for being a self-

efficacious language learner is having positive attitudes toward the language classroom, teacher, course books, and by and large, the English curriculum.

Furthermore, due to the interplay between the three mediators (self-efficacy, motivation, and strategy use), the indirect impact of ALS on English achievement was also shown by other composites. As indicated in Figure 4.17 below, it was shown that ALS was indirectly related to English achievement through the mediation of motivation and strategy use by $\beta = .01$ ($.35 \times .21 \times .13$), revealing that the way learners evaluate their class and learning environment influences their motivation to learn, which in turn affects their utilization of strategies, which again impacts their level of English achievement. This finding specifies that if students possess a positive view toward the language learning situation, are more eager to learn the language, and the more they try hard to learn it, the more likely they are to utilize strategies. As a result the higher their English achievement is likely to be. As stated by Gardner, Tremblay, and Masgoret (1997), students who have a positive evaluation of the English curriculum at school, the learning program, extra-curricular activities, and English teachers, are motivated to learn more foreign language and will engage in a large number of strategies which can lead to high language achievement.

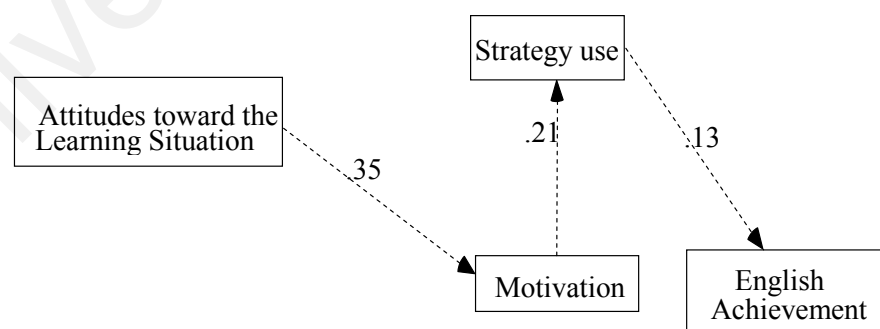


Figure 0.3: The indirect effect (shown by dashed arrows) of attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS) on English achievement through motivation and strategy use (standardized regression coefficients)

As Figure 4.18 below shows, the relation of ALS to English achievement was also mediated by self-efficacy and motivation ($\beta = .01$); students who have a positive view toward the language learning situation possess a sound view of them selves in learning

and hence, are capable of focusing on learning English with maximum effort and determination and this would enhance the amount of their practice in language tasks, which in turn would lead to improved language skills and better performance. Tremblay and Gardner (1995) also found that self-efficacy acted as a moderator between learners' motivational behaviors and language attitudes and this in turn affected students' achievement.

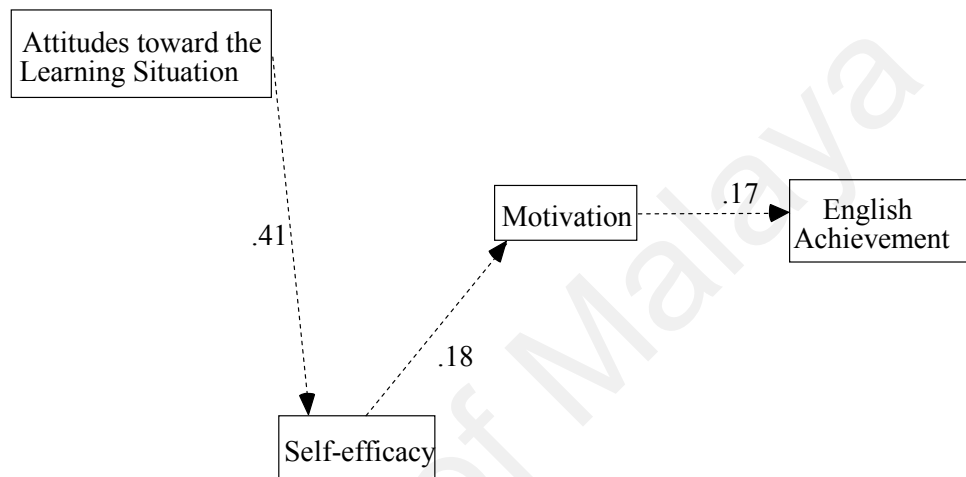


Figure 0.4: The indirect effect (shown by dashed arrows) of attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS) on English achievement through self-efficacy and motivation (standardized regression coefficients)

Another composite, as shown in Figure 4.19 below, related to the indirect effect of ALS on English achievement was the one mediated by self-efficacy and strategy use ($\beta = .02$). Results of the study showed that the way learners evaluate their class and learning environment affects their self-efficacy, which in turn influences their utilization of strategies, which again causes higher English achievement.

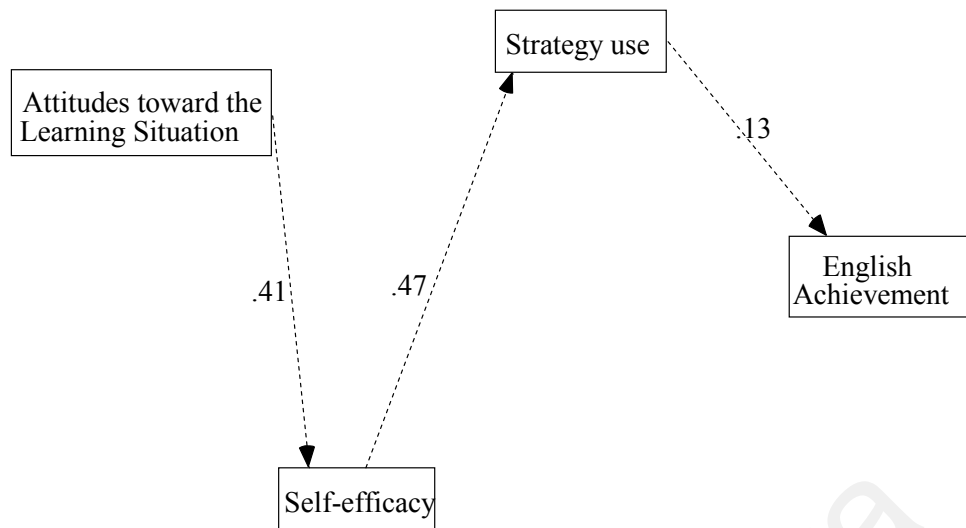


Figure 0.5: The indirect effect (shown by dashed arrows) of attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS) on English achievement through self-efficacy and strategy use (standardized regression coefficients)

In addition, as Figure 4.20 below shows, findings of the study show that the way learners evaluate their class and learning environment also influences their self-efficacy, which in turn affects their motivation, which again results in the utilization of techniques and strategies to learn and use the language leading to higher achievement ($\beta = .002$). This result specifies that learners with better perceptions about the language learning situation tend to have higher judgments about themselves and their capabilities, and hence are more motivated and keen to learn the language, and as a result they are more probable to utilize strategies that assist them learn and use the language they are studying. As a result, they obtain higher levels of English achievement. The total influence of ALS on English achievement, as Table 4.8 shows, was reported to be .19.

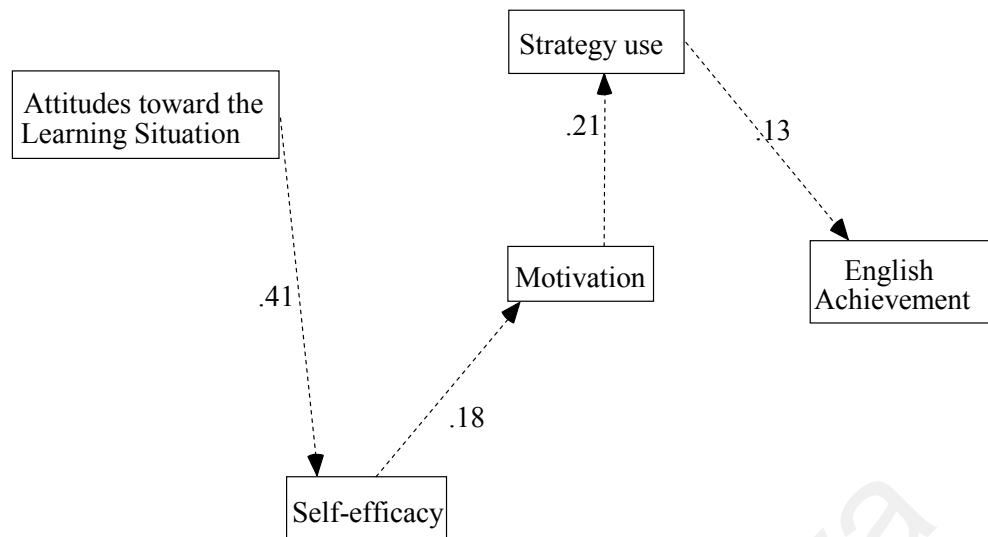


Figure 0.6: The indirect effect (shown by dashed arrows) of attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS) on English achievement through self-efficacy, motivation, and strategy use (standardized regression coefficients)

4.4.13 The Direct and Indirect Effect of Self-efficacy on English Achievement

An additional fact related to self-efficacy is that it was found to have a direct effect on students' English achievement ($\beta = .20$); a finding similar to those reported by researches such as Abry (1998), Chiang et al. (2014), Huang and Chang (1996), Jones (2008), McCollum (2001), Pajares and Miller (1994), Schunk and Swartz (1993), Tilfarlioglu and Ciftci (2011), Tuckman (1993), Zimmerman and Bandura (1994). As mentioned previously (see chapter 2 section 2.1.2.5), "what people think, believe, and feel affect how they behave" (Bandura, 1986: 25). In relation to language learning, learners' self-beliefs with regard to learning an L2 are significant determinants of their effort, persistence, and learning behaviors (Bandura, 1997). Hence, academic success or failure can be better predicted by self-efficacy than actual abilities and such beliefs are powerful determinants of one's level of achievement (Bandura, 1997) specifically foreign language achievement (Herron, 2006; Hsieh, 2008; Hsieh & Schallert, 2008). Indeed it is almost impossible to examine a person's motivation, learning, and academic performance without considering his/her self-efficacy (Pajares & Urdan, 2006).

Students' self-efficacy was also shown to have an indirect effect on their English achievement through motivation by $\beta = .03 (.18 \times .17)$, specifying that the higher the judgments students have about themselves and their abilities, the more eager they are to learn the language and the more they try hard to learn it, and hence the higher their English achievement is bound to be. Similar results are found in Tremblay and Gardner (1995), and Tuckman and Abry's (1998) studies. As mentioned previously in section 1.8, McCrudden, Perkins, and Putney, (2005) explain the positive link between self-efficacy, motivation, and achievement by asserting that learners with high self-efficacy and interest persists in their tasks and this would enhance the amount of their practice in language tasks which in turn would lead to improved language skills and better performance. In second/foreign language learning, some students are bound to have low self-efficacy beliefs (Oxford & Shearin, 1994) and this in turn weaken the students motivation and hence their performance in English (Wong, 2005).

The data analysis shows that the relation of self-efficacy to English achievement is mediated both by motivation and by strategy use. The indirect influence of self-efficacy on English achievement through strategy use was $.06 (.47 \times .13)$. In their studies on students' self-efficacy, strategy use, and performance, Pintrich and DeGroot (1990) and Tuckman and Abry (1998) also found learners' self-efficacy indirectly affected students' performance and achievement through its influence on strategy use.

Such a relationship, as Meyer, Tuner, and Spenser (1997) maintained, comes about because students who have higher self-efficacy level employ more learning strategies which causes them to undertake academic effort for higher achievement and this would thus lead to better performance. Similarly, it has been proposed that the way learners employ learning strategies and hence the way they learn L2 (second or foreign) is influenced by self-efficacy (Abraham & Vann, 1987; Horwitz, 1987, 1988; Wenden, 1986, 1987). Furthermore, as shown in Figure 4.21 below, outcomes of the investigation

show that the learners' judgments of their own abilities to achieve influences their motivation, which in turn affects their use of techniques and strategies to learn and use the language, which again impacts their level of achievement in English. The indirect influence of self-efficacy on English achievement through motivation and strategy was .005 ($.18 \times .21 \times .13$) and the total impact of self-efficacy on English achievement reported to be .30 (see Table 4.8).

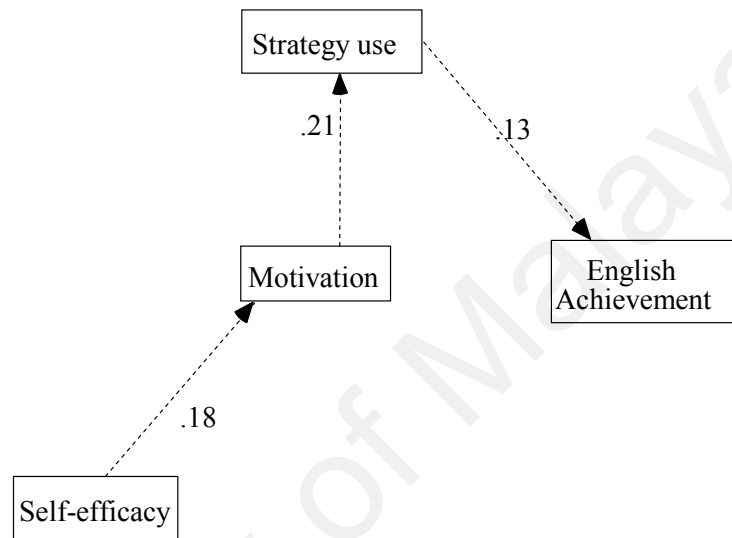


Figure 0.7: The indirect effect (shown by dashed arrows) of self-efficacy on English achievement through motivation and strategy use (standardized regression coefficients)

Therefore, the relation of self-efficacy to English achievement was found to be both direct and mediated by motivation as well as strategy utilization, indicating that the students' judgments of their own abilities to achieve affects their English achievement, their motivation to learn, which in turn influences their achievement in English, and their strategy use, which again causes higher English achievement. It can be inferred that encouraging and maintaining students' high judgments about their abilities can increase their motivation and the extent to which they employ strategies to learn, as well as their English achievement.

4.4.14 The Direct and Indirect Effect of Integrativeness on English Achievement

Moreover, as the analysis findings of the research revealed, integrativeness related positively and directly to English language achievement ($\beta = .24$), and related indirectly to English achievement through motivation ($\beta = .06$), and through motivation and strategy use ($\beta = .01$). Integrativeness can be considered as an important and positive predictor in determining the students' English achievement. Gardner (2000) considers integrativeness as an important variable that affects how active the learner will be in second or foreign language learning.

The significant direct positive influence of integrativeness on students' English achievement is similarly indicated in various studies, including, Bernaus, Wilson and Gardner (2009), Csizér and Dörnyei (2005), Dörnyei and Clément (2001), Kam (2006), and Masgoret and Gardner (2003). In addition, strong positive relationships have been seen between attitudes involving integrativeness and second or foreign language achievement, including English (e.g., Atay & Kurt, 2010; Gardner, 1985, 2005, 2007; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, Smythe, Clement, & Glikzman, 1976; Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; Gordon, 1980; Lalonde & Gardner, 1985; Masgoret, Bernaus & Gardner 2001; Sani & Zain, 2011; Spolsky, 1989; Zairi, 1996). Therefore, students who have better attitudes toward the foreign language and its speakers and feel psychologically closer and are more attracted to the target language community, have a better language achievement as compared to those who are less concerned about the speakers of the target language. Interestingly, as the model shows (see Figure 4.14), integrativeness was found to be the strongest direct cause for English achievement. Such a relationship could be explained in terms of the fact that currently many Iranian EFL students would like to travel and study abroad or to live there. Their interest in English speaking people, their culture, and their lifestyle has increased; they feel more open toward the foreign language speakers and their life styles and are more willing to

accept and appreciate them. Therefore, they make more effort to communicate and learn the target language. As stated by Domakani, Roohani, and Akbari (2012: 142), integrative motives like "interest in the English culture, getting more entertainment through English media, communicating with target language people and understanding how they behave can be important for Iranian students" and as a result affect their language achievement.

Another finding related to integrativeness is its indirect effect on English achievement through motivation by $\beta = .06 (.36 \times .16)$. This outcome is consistent with the work of Bernaus and Gardner (2008) and Gardner (2007). They detected that motivation mediated the actual influence of the variable integrativeness on English language achievement.

Similarly, various researchers have proposed that individuals who possess open integrative attitudes are motivated to learn the target language and thus obtain high degrees of target language achievement (Gardner, 1979, 1985, 2000; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991; Gardner & Smythe, 1981; Gardner, Smythe, Clement, & Glikzman, 1976; Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; Holmes, 1992). As mentioned previously (see chapter 1 section 1.8), Littlewood (1983, cited in Thang, Ting, & Jaafar, 2011: 41) stated that negative attitudes "produce an obstacle in the learning process" and prevent the students from learning L2 knowledge. Spolsky (1969) had clearly noted that attitudes are considered as contributors to second or foreign language proficiency and achievement.

The effect of motivation on second or foreign language achievement and specifically on English language achievement as supported by the two variables, namely ALS and integrativeness, has been reported in different studies like those of Bernaus & Gardner (2008), Gardner (1983, 2000, 2001a, 2001b, 2005, 2007), Gardner, Tremblay, and Masgoret (1997) and Kam (2006).

As indicated in Figure 4.22 below, integrativeness was also found to relate indirectly to English language achievement through motivation and strategy use by $\beta = .01$ ($.36 \times .21 \times .13$). As stated by Gardner, Tremblay, and Masgoret (1997), students who have positive attitudes including integrativeness are motivated to learn more foreign languages and will engage in a large number of strategies that are causes of language achievement, to help them. The total effect of integrativeness on English achievement was .31.

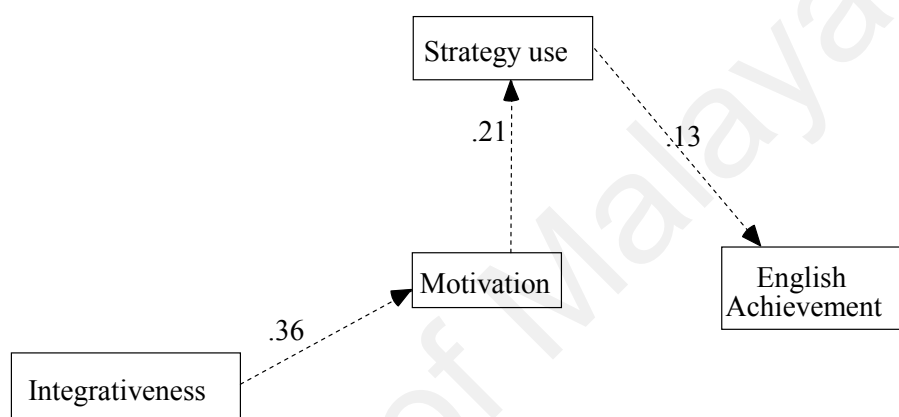


Figure 0.8: The indirect effect (shown by dashed arrows) of integrativeness on English achievement through motivation and strategy use (standardized regression coefficients)

4.4.15 The Direct Effect of Strategy Use on English Achievement

The final path to be discussed is the influence of strategy use on English achievement. Learners' strategy use provided a positive direct impact on English language achievement by $\beta = .13$. In other words, strategy use can be considered as an important and positive predictor in determining students' English achievement.

Also, Gardner and his colleagues as well as some other SL/FL learning specialists maintained that the using learning strategies influences how well students learn a second or foreign language; the employing learning strategies helps to promote language achievement and has an important role in the progress and development of language learners (Chamot, 2001; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; Hsaio & Oxford, 2002; O'Malley & Chamot 1990; Oxford 1989; Rubin 1987; Takallou, 2011; Wenden & Rubin, 1987; Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1990). Indeed,

this finding is supported by a large number of studies conducted previously, including that of Abry (1998), Cesur (2011), Dreyer and Oxford (1996), Jie and Xiaoqing (2006), Kang (2000), MacIntyre and Noels (1996), Nisbet, Tindall and Arroyo (2005), Pintrich and DeGroot (1990), Rossi-Le (1989), Yang and Plakans (2012), that show the direct positive effect of learning strategies on English language achievement.

As mentioned previously (see chapter 1 section 1.8), according to Bruen (2001), Ehrman and Oxford (1990), Gerami and Baighlou (2011), Griffiths (2008), Liu (2004), Oxford (1994), Oxford and Ehrman (1995), and Tam (2013), compared to learners who are less proficient, those with higher language proficiency utilize a greater varieties of learning strategies. Therefore, using learning strategies should be encouraged in L2 classes.

Therefore, the hypothesized relationships together with some new indirect relationships due to the interplay between the three mediators, made a more comprehensive model, which has been shown to be both statistically and theoretically adequate.

In summary, the results of the SEM analysis as related to the research questions and hypotheses were provided and discussed. It was revealed that except for two of the links, Attitudes toward the Learning Situation → Strategy use, and Attitudes toward the Learning Situation → English Achievement that were found to be statistically non-significant, the other hypothesized paths indicating the causal interrelations among the individual difference variables of the structural model were supported. In addition to the hypothesized relationships, the proposed path model also represented other indirect relationships constructed due to the interplay between the three mediators. The relationships between the variables were achieved as follows:

- 1- Attitudes toward the learning situation were positively correlated to integrativeness ($r=.61$).

- 2- Attitudes toward the learning situation related positively and directly to self-efficacy ($\beta = 0.41$).
- 3- Attitudes toward the learning situation did not have direct impact on strategy use, but had indirect impact on strategy use through motivation ($\beta = .07$), through self-efficacy ($\beta = .19$), and through self-efficacy and motivation (.02). The total effect of attitudes toward the learning situation on strategy use was .28.
- 4- Integrativeness was indirectly related to strategy use through motivation ($\beta = .07$).
- 5- Motivation had a positive influence on learning strategy use ($\beta = .21$).
- 6- Motivation directly and positively affected English achievement ($\beta = .17$), and indirectly and positively affected English achievement through strategy use ($\beta = .03$). The total impact of motivation on strategy use was .19.
- 7- Attitudes toward the learning situation were not related to English language achievement directly, but were related to English achievement indirectly through motivation ($\beta = .06$), through self-efficacy ($\beta = .08$), through motivation and strategy use ($\beta = .01$), through self-efficacy and motivation ($\beta = .01$), through self-efficacy and strategy use ($\beta = .02$), and through self-efficacy, motivation, and strategy use, ($\beta = .002$). The total effect of attitudes toward the learning situation on English achievement was .19.
- 8- Integrativeness related positively and directly to English language achievement ($\beta = .24$), and related indirectly to English achievement through motivation ($\beta = .06$), and through motivation and strategy use ($\beta = .01$). The total impact of integrativeness on English achievement was .31.
- 9- Self-efficacy had a positive influence on motivation ($\beta = .18$).
- 10- Self-efficacy had a direct positive effect on strategy use ($\beta = .47$), and had an indirect effect on strategy use through motivation ($\beta = .04$). The total impact of self-efficacy on strategy use was .51.

11- Self-efficacy had a positive direct effect on English achievement ($\beta = .20$), and had an indirect effect on English achievement through motivation ($\beta = .03$), through strategy use ($\beta = .06$), and through motivation and strategy use ($\beta = .005$). The total impact of self-efficacy on English achievement was .30.

12- Strategy use related positively to English language achievement ($\beta = .13$).

SEM analysis showed that the proposed model was consistent with the sample data adequately. A summary of this study, as well as a more comprehensive report of the findings and discussion are presented in Chapter Five.

University of Malaya

CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

A summary of the study is presented in this chapter as well as concluding remarks. The summary is centered around the aim of the study and specifically the research questions and the hypotheses. The implications of this research on the language learning context, specifically in Iran, are then discussed, followed by a number of suggestions for further research for those who are interested in continuing or expanding the present study.

5.1 Summary and Conclusion

Currently less attention has been focused on the combination and interaction of particular factors that might potentially affect L2 learning. These factors, which are related to individual differences between learners, might be either motivational (contributing to motivation) or non-motivational (promoted by motivation).

In this research an effort was made to examine the causal relationships among some individual difference variables namely, integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, motivation, strategy use, and self efficacy on English language achievement among Iranian students using Gardner's (2001a) socio-educational model of second/foreign language learning (updated in 2003). Thus far this model has been considered as the most comprehensive and dominant model of second/foreign language learning, accounting for motivation in relation to other factors such as strategy use as and other social, individual, as well as contextual aspects and has been praised for its consideration of the cultural as well as the social setting in which learning takes place (MacIntyre, MacKinnon, & Clément, 2009; Moyer, 2004).

Hence, Gardner's (2001a) model has been used as the theoretical base for the present research and the part of the model which was the focus of this study was the "individual differences" section in which a number of variables, namely, learners' integrativeness,

the learners' attitudes toward the learning situation, and their motivation were accounted for. To it were added students' self-efficacy and strategy use, which, by definition, had the potential to be placed as variables of the model labeled as "other motivational" and "other non-motivational factors" respectively. The effects that these five variables had on each other and on the final outcome of language learning (labeled as "achievement" in this study) were measured. Specifically, the present study dealt with the following research questions:

1a. What is the structural relationship between the variables, namely, motivation (MOT), strategy use (STR), self efficacy (SE), and language achievement (ACH), in the proposed adapted version of Gardner's model in an Iranian English language learning context?

1b. What is the structural relation of attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS) and integrativeness (INT), with motivation (MOT), strategy use (STR), self efficacy (SE), and language achievement (ACH), in the proposed adapted version of Gardner's model in an Iranian English language learning context?

1c. Is there a correlation between the Iranian EFL students' attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS) and integrativeness (INT)?

To address the research questions and to examine the relationships among the variables, the following hypotheses were formulated based on theory and literature as depicted in the conceptual model (see Figure 1.2):

H1: Attitudes toward the learning situation are positively correlated to integrativeness.

H2: Attitudes toward the learning situation relate positively and directly to self-efficacy.

H3: Attitudes toward the learning situation have direct positive impact on strategy use, and have an indirect impact on strategy use through motivation.

H4: Integrativeness is indirectly related to strategy use through motivation.

H5: motivation positively impacts language learning strategy use.

H6: Motivation directly and positively affects English achievement, and indirectly and positively affects English achievement through strategy use.

H7: Attitudes toward the learning situation relate positively and directly to English language achievement, and relate indirectly to English achievement through motivation, and through self-efficacy.

H8: Integrativeness relates positively and directly to English language achievement, and relates indirectly to English achievement through motivation.

H9: Self-efficacy positively impacts motivation.

H10: Self-efficacy has a direct positive effect on strategy use, and has an indirect effect on strategy use through motivation.

H11: Self-efficacy has a positive direct effect on English achievement, and has an indirect effect on English achievement through motivation and through strategy use.

H12: Strategy use relates positively to English language achievement.

To address the research questions and the hypotheses, three questionnaires namely, The Attitude Motivation Test Battery (AMTB), the Self-Efficacy Questionnaire (SEQ) and the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) were administered to 240 (142 female and 98 male) intermediate level English students in the Iran Language Institute (ILI) to measure their language learning motivation, self-efficacy and strategy use respectively. The participants' accumulative grades in their English course for one semester (final course grades), were considered as the measure of their English language achievement. The data collected were analyzed through the SEM (Structural Equation Modeling) which examines interrelated dependence and multiple relations in a single model (Hair et al., 1998). As pointed out by Agresti and Finlay (1997), such a causal modeling is used to show the theoretical explanations for the causal relationships existing among the variables. By using this method, all of the variables as well as direct and indirect effects (paths) can be analyzed at the same time.

Before investigating the structural relationships between the variables of the proposed model, it was determined if the structural model was theoretically sound and if the model fitted or described the sample data adequately. For this purpose, a number of goodness-of-fit statistics were used including Chi-square, Normed Chi-square, RMSEA, GFI, AGFI, NFI, and TLI. The model fit indexes revealed that the model fitted the data very well and the findings of the study supported the proposed model.

5.1.1 Selfefficacy

The results of this analysis show that most of the assumptions regarding causal relationships between the variables are confirmed. First, the significant direct effect of self-efficacy on motivation and strategy use together with its direct and indirect influences on English achievement made this variable more as an independent variable in the model than a mediator factor.

Noteworthy is the fact that the strongest causal relationship of the model was found to exist between self-efficacy and strategy use, indicating, as mentioned in the discussion, that self-efficacy strongly affected the use of language learning strategies by learners. Similarly, self-efficacy was regarded as a significant direct predictor of students' motivation. In other words, self-efficacy is a motivational factor which can influence an individual's desire for learning, the effort the person expends as well as the enjoyment he feels in the learning process. As stated by Dornyei (2001b), the reason for such a role is that for learners to be capable of focusing on learning with maximum effort and determination, they must have a sound view of their abilities in learning. Interestingly, both the effect of ALS on language learning strategies, having the second highest path coefficient of the model, as well as the effect of ALS on motivation were mediated by self-efficacy,. Again, as mentioned in the discussion and implications section, this shows the importance of the role played by self-efficacy as a factor that mediates the relation of ALS to strategy use and the link between ALS and motivation.

As such, it seems plausible to imply that self-efficacy itself is a stronger predictor of strategy use as well as motivation, in addition to being a mediator between ALS and strategy use and between ALS and motivation.

The model is also in line with studies mentioned previously that claim self-efficacy is causally linked with English achievement both directly and indirectly through the mediation of motivation and strategy use. This means that, self-efficacy beliefs motivate the learner, and motivation causes them to perform differently compared to a situation in which there was no motivation. Therefore, in order to be a motivated language learner, in addition to having positive attitudes towards the target language and its speakers, as well as the learning situation in general, the student should have high judgments of his/her own abilities to achieve. Self-efficacy could also affect English achievement indirectly through strategy use; students' judgments of their own abilities to achieve influence their use of techniques and strategies to learn and use the language, which in turn affects their level of achievement in English. It can be implied that encouraging and maintaining students' high judgments about their abilities can increase their motivation and the extent to which they employ strategies to learn, as well as their English achievement. The study has also shown that self-efficacy mediates the relationship between ALS and English achievement. As mentioned previously see section 4.4), this signifies that the prerequisite for being a self-efficacious language learner is having a positive attitude towards the language classroom, teacher, course books, and by and large, the English curriculum.

5.1.2 Motivation

In the present study, the variable motivation was shown to be central to the model (Figure 4.14). First, it was shown to be influenced by the two exogenous factors, namely, ALS and integrativeness, as the third and fourth strongest path coefficients of the model respectively, as well as self-efficacy, a relationship that was predicted by

previously reported literature. Another important finding was that motivation mediated the relationship integrativeness, ALS, as well as that which self-efficacy had with strategy use. This suggests that the variables integrativeness, ALS, and self-efficacy could impact strategy use indirectly through motivation. In other words, they motivate the learner, and this motivation causes them to use strategies differently from a situation in which there was no motivation. The model shows that having a positive attitude can help enhance strategy use for students so that they could achieve more autonomy and make the learning process more meaningful. It was also found that motivation mediated the relationship of the exogenous variables as well as self-efficacy with achievement. The effect of integrativeness and ALS and on English achievement and learning strategy use through the mediation of motivation was more than such an effect for self-efficacy. Such a finding shows the important role of the three individual difference factors in motivation, especially ALS and integrativeness.

5.1.3 Strategy use

Furthermore, the variable strategy use was found to have a direct positive impact on English achievement but it was shown to be caused by the variables motivation and self-efficacy, relationships that had been predicted by previously reported literature. However, it was not affected directly by the exogenous variable attitudes toward the learning situation. Learning strategy use also mediated the relationship motivation and self-efficacy had with English achievement, suggesting that the variables motivation and self-efficacy could affect English achievement indirectly through strategy use. In other words, these two mediating variables, motivation and self-efficacy, cause learners' use of language learning strategies, which in turn, help to promote high levels of English achievement. As stated by other researchers, learners' self-efficacy influences the way they employ their learning strategies and hence the way they learn a SL/FL (Abraham & Vann, 1987; Horwitz, 1987, 1988; Wenden, 1987, 1986). Hence, for

language learners to use more learning strategies, they should be motivated and have high judgments of their own abilities to achieve.

As the findings of the study show, although ALS had no significant direct impact on English achievement, integrativeness was considered as a significant direct predictor of students' English achievement. Students who have better attitudes toward the foreign language and its speakers and feel psychologically closer and are more attracted to the target language community, have better language achievement as compared to those who are less concerned about the speakers of the target language. As also mentioned in the discussion and implications section, it can be inferred that presenting an acceptable and appealing image of the target language, its speakers and culture to the students could result in better attitudes toward the foreign language and its speakers and hence better achievement. Therefore, students could achieve more autonomy and make the learning process more meaningful.

As a result of the interplay between the three mediators (self-efficacy, motivation, and strategy use), new composites related to the indirect effect of integrativeness and ALS on English achievement were also reported. It was shown that integrativeness and ALS had indirect relationship with English achievement through the mediation of motivation as well as strategy use, indicating that the way learners evaluate their class and learning environment and the extent to which they favor the foreign language and its speakers influence their motivation to learn, which in turn affects their utilization of strategies, which again impacts their level of English achievement. The relation of ALS to English achievement was also mediated by self-efficacy and motivation and by self-efficacy and strategy use; the way learners evaluate their class and learning environment affects their self-efficacy, which in turn influences their motivation as well as their utilization of strategies, which again cause higher English achievement.

Many of the relationships were those already verified or predicted by previous literature. However, other paths, specifically new indirect relationships, were found to exist that were not assumed to be related in previous literature. These new indirect paths together with the already established ones, combined to result in a more comprehensive model, which was both statistically and theoretically adequate. Such adequacies allow us to employ the model as a basis for further investigation of the variables included in the model, as well as other (motivational, non-motivational or attitudinal) variables that have the potential to be included. The area is vast, and the more studies conducted, the more information can be obtained concerning the nature of language learning.

5.2 Implications

The results of the study showed that the inclusion of self-efficacy and strategy use to Gardner's' socio-educational model presented a different picture. Results of the study came up with a coherent model of self- efficacy, language learning strategies, and motivation and hence could contribute to the existing body of motivational research. The knowledge from such findings can be used to find ways to encourage more effective methods of enhancing student's English learning motivation, self-efficacy, and use of strategies, hence enhancing the process of learning and improving the final learning outcomes, or achievement; results of the study show that improvement in teaching methods, materials, and tasks designed for English language classes plus creating better attitudes toward the English language and its speakers and culture can increase motivation and self-efficacy, as well as the extent to which students employ strategies to learn.

Therefore, the results of the present study could be utilized in order to enhance language learning and create a more successful learning environment in language classes. The findings could be used to help institutes of second/foreign language learning to function more effectively by concentrating on and emphasizing aspects of

language learning such as self-efficacy, attitudes toward the learning situation, and integrativeness to increase students' motivation and strategy use and hence English language learning.

5.2.1 Self-efficacy

As can be gleaned from the findings of this study, self-efficacy has a very significant role in learning. Knowing this, the classroom teacher might want to assist students increase their self-efficacy by helping them become confident in their abilities to accomplish language-related goals. This could also be done by improving students' attitudes toward the learning environment, which was shown to have a strong effect on self-efficacy. As the model presented in Figure 4.14 illustrates, such enrichment of students' self-efficacy could help develop their general language ability as well, since self-efficacy was recognized as having direct influence on final scores. Therefore, for instance, the teacher can assist students perform better by organizing activities in which the students are able to set reachable learning goals and thus they could boost their self-efficacy. On the other hand, since it was shown that self-efficacious individuals made significantly greater use of language strategies than the less self-efficacious, it seems safe to conclude that developing and increasing positive self-efficacy beliefs (either in themselves or via attitudes toward the learning situations or through its effect on motivation) could encourage the learners' use of strategies. Researchers have proposed that teachers could increase learners' self-efficacy and attitudes by encouraging them to set realistic and concrete goals as well as providing positive and accurate feedback (Hsieh, 2008). Teachers can also apply and utilize strategies to improve learners' quality of work and teach them to appreciate the attempts they make in each learning task. Moreover, as stated by Hsieh (2008), organizing realistic beliefs or expectations for performance and using different teaching methods can also assist learners develop high language learning self-efficacy and optimize the language learning experience. Based

on the studies done on the sources of self-efficacy suggested by Bandura (1997), some researchers reported that learners' interest, attitudes, successful experiences, persuasion, positive feedback from others, classroom climate, peer's successful performance, can enhance learners' self-efficacy (Greta, 2009; Wang & Pape, 2007). For instance, teachers should set tasks that learners can actually perform (Dornyei, 2001a), by which learners gain successful experiences. The teacher should encourage the students and give them positive feedback to satisfy learners' persuasion and hence enhance their self-efficacy. Furthermore, as stated by Raoofi, Tan, and Chan (2012), the teacher can provide opportunities to enable learners observe their classmates carry out tasks successfully. Such experiences help students to develop and increase positive self-efficacy beliefs about themselves.

5.2.2 Strategy use

Another important finding the classroom teacher might want to concentrate on is that in order to train better strategy users, it could be useful to improve their self-efficacy and motivation (defined as the desire to learn, efforts made for learning, and positive opinions about the learning process) either by themselves or via their judgments regarding the target language and speakers, and of the learning context. Improvement in learners' attitudes toward the learning environment can increase their self-efficacy and motivation and hence the degree to which they employ strategies to learn. Furthermore, improvement in teaching methods, materials, and tasks designed for language classes as well as presenting an acceptable and appealing image of the target language, its speakers and culture to the students could result in better attitudes and students becoming better motivated and using language strategies more frequently. Moreover, considering the effect of learning strategies on students' English achievement by itself, the teachers should provide more opportunities for the learners to practice strategies to help them make up for the missing areas in the use of strategies.

5.2.3 Integrative Motivation

Motivation is not a single factor and its role in English language learning becomes more significant when it comes in combination with other variables. The motivation of English language learners in Iran is dependent not only on their attitudes but also on their self-efficacy which in turn is strongly affected by students' attitudes toward the learning situation. In other words, in order to improve the students' motivation, in addition to paying attention to their attitudes, by having a skilled, committed, interesting teacher who possesses a good knowledge of the language, an exciting curriculum, purposeful assessment procedures, and carefully made lesson plans as well as an interesting and ordered course (Gardner, 2005) and presenting an acceptable and appealing image of the target language, its speakers and culture to the students, it could be useful to improve students' judgments of their own abilities to achieve and create a sound view of themselves in learning either in itself or again by means of their attitudes toward the learning environment. The relationship between English language students' motivation and self-efficacy shows that teachers can implement methods of teaching, in which cognitive and metacognitive strategies are included, so that student motivation and level of learning would improve.

Furthermore, the current study provides evidence that integrativeness plays a very significant role in learning and hence, the teacher can help students develop their language ability by creating better attitudes toward the foreign language and its speakers. Indeed, since learning a target language includes "taking on elements of another culture", its studying is different from most other subjects (Bernaus, Wilson, & Gardner, 2009: 26). Hence teachers should take this into consideration and look beyond methods and techniques which are utilized for other subjects (Gardner, 2001a). In addition to the important role played by such attitudes in students' learning, improvement in learners' motivation (either in itself or via attitudes toward the learning

situation, integrativeness, or self-efficacy) could help develop their achievement as well. In this regard, Gardner (2007) maintained that motivation may help develop the acquisition of language, but to achieve or attain a true mastery of second/foreign language, integrative motives are needed.

The teacher can encourage effort in and for language classes, so that students will participate more actively in class activities, seek out-of-class situations for practicing English (like listening to English radio programs, reading English magazines and newspapers, or speaking to native English speakers), and think more actively about their language classes. In addition, the teacher could make learners interested in language classes by creating inspiring conditions, emphasizing the importance of learning foreign languages, creating enjoyable and imaginative contents and adding a variety of novel and fascinating tasks and competitions to be carried out in the class. Moreover, in order to increase the students' desire to learn and use English, teachers could create more conditions in which students use the target language communicatively and take part in language specific activities in and outside of the classroom. As maintained by some researchers (e.g., Clement, Dornyei, & Noels, 1994; Gardner, 1985, 2007), the learning situation and classroom dynamics play an important role in motivation in formal contexts; what happens in the classroom affects students' motivation and attitudes (Bernaus, Wilson, & Gardner, 2009). The most powerful and strongest motivational techniques proposed by Madrid (2002) include group work, the use of new technologies and audiovisual resources, learner participation and involvement in classroom, satisfying learners' interests and needs, rewards and praises, and fulfillment of learners' success expectations and good grades. Moreover, in order to enhance motivation teachers are required to help their students to determine goals and to strengthen these through planned activities (Velayutham & Aldridge, 2013).

Furthermore, due to the effect of students' attitudes toward the learning situation on their self-efficacy as well as the interplay between the three mediators (self-efficacy, motivation, and strategy use), the classroom teacher might want to concentrate on another important finding that in order to improve learners' achievement in English, it could be also useful to encourage their use of strategies either by themselves or via students' motivation, self-efficacy, or attitudes).

Results of the study indicate that learners with better views toward aspects of the language environment tend to have higher judgments about themselves and their abilities, and are more motivated to learn the target language, and hence are more likely to utilize strategies which help them learn and use the language they are studying, and as a result, obtain higher levels of English achievement. Meanwhile learners who are more interested in the English language, and favor English people and their culture more and like to integrate with the English language community and culture, are more motivated to learn English. This in turn causes their use of techniques and strategies to learn and use the language, which again results in their better performance. Therefore, the relationships found among the variables in the model could help the student as well as the teacher to obtain higher levels of success. As stated by McKeachie, Pintrich and Lin (1985) and Weinstein and Mayer (1986), in effective and good teaching, in addition to the content of one's subject to be communicated, many other factors involved in learning needs to be considered by the teacher.

Therefore, by considering the significance of integrative motivation, self-efficacy as well as strategy use in English language learning, possible learning and teaching inadequacies and deficiencies can be overcome. Findings of this study can lead English classroom teachers to well-informed decision-making at different levels of educational planning, such as development of curriculum and materials, preferences for classroom activities and techniques, decisions about individualized instruction and the

identification of characteristics of students that lead to more efficient teaching and learning.

However, a very important point to be mentioned is that the model proposed in this study is by no means conclusive and one might come up with different findings if it is applied in other situations or FL learning contexts. Nevertheless, different findings can contribute to the completion and verification of the model to a more comprehensive finalized form.

5.3 Suggestions for Further Research

The present research focused on investigating the different variables which play a part in learning another language. These variables were measured with a whole language learning context in mind. The individual interested in this study might find it appealing to replicate the study with different samples from other institutes and educational settings, differing in age, education level, or field of study, and seeing whether or not the same results are obtained. Another choice would be for the interested researcher to narrow down the study to particular language skills, that is, listening, speaking, reading and writing, in order to see whether the same results are observed in a language skills class.

Another option for further studies is the utilization of the model, as a base for more comprehensive models which could include variables such as demographic characteristics, social class and status, family level and the like as exogenous variables, and other cognitive or affective variables as mediators and hence different measures of collecting data like oral interviews and classroom observations can be used which may provide better understanding about language learners.

REFERENCES

- Abraham, R. G., & Vann, R. J. (1987). Strategies of two language learners: A case study. *Learner strategies in language learning*, 85-102.
- Abry, D. (1998). *A structural model of self-regulatory behavior and college student achievement*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Florida State University, Tallahassee, FL.
- Agresti, A., & Finlay, B. (1997). *Statistical methods for the social sciences* (3rd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Ahour, T., & Mohseni, F. (2014). The effect of metacognitive strategies (planning, self-monitoring) instruction on EFL learners' reading comprehension. *Journal of Current Research in Science*, 2(3), 437-442.
- Alderman, M. K. (1999). *Goals and goal setting motivation for achievement: Possibilities for teaching and learning*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associate.
- Alexander, P. A., & Judy, J. E. (1988). The interaction of domain-specific and strategic knowledge in academic performance. *Review of Educational Research*, 58, 375-404.
- Al-Otaibi, G. N. (2004). Language learning strategy use among Saudi EFL students and its relationship to language proficiency level, gender and motivation. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 65(04), 1283. (UMI No. 3129188).
- Ames, C. (1992). Classrooms: Goals, structures, and student motivation. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 84(3), 261-271.
- Ames, C., & Archer, J. (1988). Achievement goals in the classroom: Students' learning strategies and motivation processes. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 80, 260-267.
- Anderson, J. R. (1980). *Cognitive psychology and its implications*. San Francisco: Freeman.
- Anderson, J.R. (1993). *Rules of the mind*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- Anjum, R. (2006). The impact of self-efficacy on mathematics achievement of primary school children. *Pakistan Journal of Psychological Research*, 21(3-4), 61-78.
- Arbuckle, J. L. (1997). *Amos User's Guide*. Chicago, IL: Smallwaters.
- Atay, D. & Kurt, G. (2010). The socio-educational model of second language acquisition: The Turkish context. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 2, 3088-3093.
- Au, S. Y. (1988). A critical appraisal of Gardner's social-psychological theory of second-language (L2). *Language Learning*, 38, 75-100.
- Bachman, L. F. (1990). *Fundamental considerations in language testing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bacon, S. (1992). The relationship between gender, comprehension, processing strategies, and cognitive and affective response in foreign language listening. *Modern Language Journal*, 76, 160-178.
- Baker, S. c., & MacIntyre, P. D. (2000). The role of gender and immersion in communication and second language orientations. *Language Learning*, 50, 311-341.
- Bandura, A. (1982). The self and mechanisms of agency. In J. Suls (Ed.), *Psychological perspectives on the self* (pp. 3-39). Hillsdale: Erlbaum.
- Bandura, A. (1984). Recycling misconceptions of perceived self-efficacy. *Cognitive Therapy and research*, 8(3), 231-255.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Printice Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1989). Human agency in social cognitive theory. *American Psychologist*, 44(9), 1175-1184.
- Bandura, A. (1992). *Self-efficacy mechanism in sociocognitive functioning*. Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association annual meeting, San Francisco, CA.

- Bandura, A. (1993). Perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning. *Educational Psychologist*, 28 (2): 117-148.
- Bandura, A. (Ed.). (1995). *Self-efficacy in changing societies*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: W.H. Freeman and Company.
- Bandura, A. (2000). Exercise of human agency through collective efficacy. *Current directions in psychological science*, 9(3), 75-78.
- Bandura, A. (2001). Social cognitive theory: An agentic perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52, 1-26.
- Bandura, A. & Schunk, D.H. (1981). Cultivating competence, self-efficacy, and intrinsic interest through proximal self-motivation. *The Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 41, 586–598.
- Barker, K. L., McInerney, D. M., Dowson, M. (2002). Performance approach, performance avoidance and depth of information processing: A fresh look at relations between students' academic motivation and cognition. *Educational Psychology*, 22(5), 572-588.
- Bell, B. S., & Kozlowski, S. W. 1. (2002). Goal orientation and ability: Interactive effects on self-efficacy, performance, and knowledge. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 497-505.
- Belmechri, F., & Hummel, K. (1998). Orientations and motivation in the acquisition of English as a Second Language among high school students in Quebec City. *Language Learning*, 48(2), 219-244.
- Bentler, P. M., & Wu, E. J. C. (1995). *EQS for windows user's guide*. Encino, CA: Multivariate Software.

- Bernaus, M., Gardner, R.C. (2008). Teacher motivation strategies, student perceptions, student motivation, and English achievement. *The Modern Language Journal*, 92, 387-401.
- Bernaus, M., Wilson, A., & Gardner, R.C. (2009). Teachers' motivation, classroom strategy use, students' motivation and second language achievement. *Porta Linguarum*, 12, 25-36.
- Bialystok, E. (1978). A theoretical model of second language learning. *Language Learning*, 28, 69-83.
- Bialystok, E. (1981). The role of conscious strategies in second language proficiency. *Modern Language Journal*, 65 (1), 24-35.
- Biggs, J. B. (1985). The role of metalearning study processes. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 55, 185-212.
- Blunch, N. (2008). *Introduction to structural equation modeling: Using SPSS and AMOS*. Los Angeles, California: Sage Publications.
- Boggiano, A. K., & Pittman, T. S. (1992). *Achievement and motivation: A social-developmental perspective*. Cambridge University Press.
- Bong, M., & Skaalvik, E. M. (2003). Academic self-concept and self-efficacy: How different are they really?. *Educational psychology review*, 15(1), 1-40.
- Bonney, C. R., Cortina, K. S., Smith-Darden, J. P., & Fiori, K. L. (2008). Understanding strategies in foreign language learning: Are integrative and intrinsic motives distinct predictors? *Learning and Individual Differences*, 18, 1-10.
- Bouffard-Bouchard, T. (1990). Influence of self-efficacy on performance in a cognitive task. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 130, 353-363.
- Bremner, S. (1998). Language learning strategies and language proficiency: Investigating the relationship in Hong Kong. *Asian Pacific Journal of Language in Education*, 1, 490-514.

- Britner, S. L., & Pajares, F. (2001). Self-efficacy beliefs, motivation, race, and gender in middle school science. *Journal of Women and Minorities in Science and Engineering*, 7, 269-83.
- Brown, H. D. (2001). *Teaching by principles: an interactive approach to language pedagogy*. (New York, Addison Wesley Longman).
- Brown, D. H. (2007). *Principles of language learning and teaching (5th ed)*. San Francisco: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Brown, J. (2006). Locus of learning and affective strategy use: Two factors affecting success in self-instructed language learning. *Foreign Language Annals*, 39 (4), 640-659.
- Brown, J. D., Robson, G., & Rosenkjar, P. R. (2001). Personality, motivation, anxiety, strategies, and language proficiency of Japanese students. In Z. Domyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition* (Technical Report #23, pp. 361-398). Honolulu: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.
- Brown, S. D., Lent, R. D., & Larkin, K. C. (1989). Self-efficacy as a moderator of scholastic aptitude-academic performance relationships. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 35, 64-75.
- Bruen, J. (2001). Strategies for success: Profiling the effective learner of German. *Foreign Language Annals*, 34(3), 216-225.
- Byrne, B. M. (1994). *Structural equation modeling with EQS and EQS/windows: Basic concepts, application, and programming*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Byrne, B. M. (2001). *Structural equation modeling with AMOS: Basic concepts, applications, and programming*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Byrne, B. M. (2010). *Structural equation modeling with AMOS: basic concepts, applications, and programming* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.

- Byrne, B. M., & Worth Gavin, D. A. (1996). The Shavelson model revisited: Testing for structure of academic self-concept across pre-, early, and late adolescents. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 88, 215-228.
- Carson, J. G., & Longhini, A. (2013). Focusing on learning styles and strategies: A diary study in an immersion setting. *Language Learning*, 52(2), 401-438.
- Casteel, C. P., Isom, B. A., & Jordan, K. F. (2000). Creating confident and competent readers. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, 36, 67-75.
- Cesur, M. O. (2011). Can language learning strategies predict Turkish university prep class students' achievement in reading comprehension? *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 15, 1920–1924.
- Chalak, A., & Kassaian, Z. (2010). Motivation and attitudes of Iranian undergraduate EFL students towards learning English. *GEMA Online Journal of Language Studies*, 10(2), 37-56.
- Chamot, A. U. (1994). A model for learning strategies instruction in the foreign language classroom. *Georgetown University Round Table on Languages and Linguistics*, 323-336.
- Chamot, A. U. (2001). The role of learning strategies in second language acquisition. In M. P. Green (Ed.), *Learner contributions to language learning: New directions in research* (pp. 25-43). New York: Longman.
- Chamot, A. U. (2004). Issues in language learning strategy research and teaching. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 1(1), 14-26.
- Chamot, A. O., & El-Dinary, P. B. (1999). Children's learning strategies in language immersion classrooms. *The Modern Language Journal*, 83(3), 319-338.
- Chamot, A. & Kupper, K. (1989). Learning strategies in foreign language instruction. *Foreign Language Annals*, 22, 13-24.

- Chamot, A. U., & O'Malley, J. M. (1994). *The CALLA handbook: Implementing the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach*. New York, NY: Addison-Wesley Publishing.
- Chapman, J. W., & Tunmer, W. E. (2003). Reading difficulties, reading-related self-perceptions, and strategies for overcoming negative self-beliefs. *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, 19, 5-24.
- Chang, S. F. (1991). *EFL learning motivation and learning strategies*. Paper presented at the annual convention of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, New York: NY.
- Chen, H.Y., & Hasson, D. J. (2007). The Relationship between EFL Learners' Self-efficacy Beliefs and English Performance. Retrieved October 10, 2009, from http://www.coe.fsu.edu/core/abstracts/mse/Huei-Yu_Chen_Abstract.doc
- Cheng, Y. (2002). Factors associated with foreign language writing anxiety. *Foreign Language Annals*, 35, 647-656.
- Cheung, W., & Huang, W. (2005). Proposing a framework to assess Internet usage in university education: An empirical investigation from a student's perspective. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 36(2), 237-253.
- Chiang, T. H., Yang, S. J., Huang, C. S., & Liou, H. H. (2014). Student motivation and achievement in learning English as a second language using Second Life. *Knowledge Management & E-Learning: An International Journal (KM&EL)*, 6(1), 1-17.
- Ching, L.C., (2002). Strategy and self-regulation instruction as contributors to Improving students' cognitive model in an ESL programme. *English for Specific Purposes*, 13, 261-289.
- Choi, S., & Joh, J. (2001). Korean high school students' strategy use in English language learning. *Studies in Language*, 17, 209-224.

- Chou, Y. C. (2002). An exploratory study of language learning strategies and the relationship of these strategies to motivation and language proficiency among EFL Taiwanese technological and vocational college students. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 63(07), 2481. (UMI No. 3058397).
- Chun-huan, F. (2010). A correlational study of language learning motivation and strategies of Chinese undergraduate. *Canadian Social Science*, 6(4), 202-209.
- Clark, R. E. (1999). The CANE model of motivation to learn and to work: A two-stage process of goal commitment and effort. In J. Lowyck (Ed.), *Trends in Corporate Training*. Leuven, Belgium: University of Leuven Press.
- Clark, R. E., & Estes, F. (2002). *Turning research into results*. Atlanta, G. A.: CEP Press.
- Clement, R. (1980). Ethnicity, contact and communicative competence in a second language. In H. Giles, W. P. Robinson & P. Smith (Eds.). *Language: Social psychological perspectives* (pp. 147-54). Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Clement, R., Dornyei, Z., & Noels, K. A. (1994). Motivation, self-confidence, and group cohesion in the foreign language classroom. *Language Learning*, 44, 417-448.
- Clement, R., & Gardner, R.C. (2001). Second language mastery. In W. P. Robinson & H. Giles (Eds), *The new handbook of language and social psychology* (pp. 489-504). Chichester, England: John Wiley.
- Clément, R., Gardner, R. C., & Smythe, P. C. (1977a). Inter-ethnic contact: Attitudinal consequences. *Canadian Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, 9(3), 205-215.
- Clément, R., Gardner, R. C., & Smythe, P. C. (1977b). Motivational variables in second language acquisition: A study of francophones learning English. *Canadian Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, 9(2), 123-133.
- Clément, R., & Kruidenier, B. G. (1983). Orientations in second language acquisition: I. The effects of ethnicity, milieu, and target language on their emergence. *Language Learning*, 33(3), 273-291.

- Cohen, A.D. (1998a). *Strategies for language learning and language use*. London: Longman.
- Cohen, A.D. (1998b). *Strategies in learning and using a second language*. London: Harlow, Essex: Longman.
- Cohen, A. (2007). Coming to terms with language learner strategies: Surveying the experts. In E. Macaro, & A. Cohen (Eds.), *Language learner strategies: 30 years of research and practice*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Cohen, M., & Dörnyei, Z. (2002). Focus on the language learner: Motivation, styles and strategies. In N. Schmitt (Ed.), *An Introduction to Applied Linguistics* (pp. 170-190). London: Arnold.
- Cohen, A. D., Weaver, S. J., & Li, T-Y. (1998). The impact of strategies-based instruction on speaking a foreign language. In A. D. Cohen, *Strategies in learning and using a second language* (pp. 107-156). New York: Longman.
- Covington, M. V. (1984). The motive for self-worth. In R. Ames & C. Ames (Eds.), *Research on Motivation in Education* (Vol. I, pp. 77-113). New York: Academic Press, Inc.
- Covington, M. V. (1992). *Making the grade: A self-worth perspective on motivation and school reform*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Covington, M. V. & Dray, E. (2002). The development of course of achievement motivation: A need-based approach. In A. Wigfield & J. S. Eccles (Eds.), *Development of Achievement Motivation* (First ed., pp. 33-56). Ann Arbor: Academic Press.
- Creswell, J. W. (2002). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Crookes, G., & Schmidt, R. (1991). Motivation: Reopening the research agenda. *Language Learning*, 41, 469-512.

- Csizer, K., & Dörnyei, Z. (2005a). Language learners' motivational profiles and their motivated learning behavior. *Language Learning*, 55 (4), 613-659.
- Csizer, K. & Dörnyei, Z. (2005b). The internal structure of language learning motivation: Results of structural equation modeling. *Modern Language Journal*, 89 (1), 19-36.
- Cubukcu, F. (2008). A study on the correlation between self efficacy and foreign language learning anxiety. *Journal of Theory and Practice in Education*, 4(1), 148-158. Retrieved April 15, 2008, from <http://eku.comu.edu.tr/index/4/1/fcubukcu.pdf>
- Dansereau, D. (1978). The development of a learning strategies curriculum. In H.F. O'Neil, Jr. (Ed.), *Learning Strategies* (pp.1-29). New York: Academic Press.
- Dansereau, D. (1985). Learning strategy research. In J. Segal and S. Chipman (Eds.), *Thinking and Learning Skills*. London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Deci, E. L., & Flaste, R. (1995). *Why we do what we do*. New York: Penguin Books.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. New York: Plenum.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The darker and brighter sides of human existence: Basic psychological needs as a unifying concept. *Psychological Inquiry*, 11 (4), 319-338.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2002). Self-determination research: Reflections and future directions. In E. L. Deci & R. M. Ryan (Eds.), *Handbook of self-determination research* (pp. 431-441). Rochester, New York: University of Rochester Press.
- Dickinson, L. (1995). Autonomy and motivation: A literature review. *System*, 23, 165-174.
- Domakani, M. R., Roohani, A., & Akbari, R. (2012). On the Relationship between Language Learning Strategy Use and Motivation. *3L: Language, Linguistics, Literature*, 18(4), 131-144.
- Domyei, Z. (1990). Conceptualizing motivation in foreign-language learning. *Language Learning*, 40(1), 45-78.

- Dornyei, Z. (1994a). Motivation and motivating in the foreign language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78, 273-284.
- Dornyei, Z. (1994b). Understanding L2 motivation: On with the challenge! *The Modern Language Journal*, 78, 515-523.
- Dornyei, Z. (1998). Motivation in second and foreign language learning. *Language Teaching*, 31, 117-135.
- Dornyei, Z. (2000). Motivation in action: Towards a process-oriented conceptualization of student motivation. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 70, 519-538.
- Dornyei, Z. (2001a). *Motivational strategies in the language classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2001b). *Teaching and researching motivation*. England: Pearson Education.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2001c). New themes and approaches in second language motivation research. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 21, 43-59.
- Dornyei, Z. (2003). Attitudes, orientations, and motivations in language learning: Advances in theory, research, and applications. *Language Learning*, 53, 3-32.
- Dornyei, Z., (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Clément, R. (2001). Motivational characteristics of learning different target languages: Results of a nationwide survey. In Z. Dörnyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition* (Vol. 23, pp. 399-432). Honolulu: University of Hawai'i, Second Language Teaching & Curriculum Center.
- Dornyei, Z., & Csizer, K. (1998). Ten commandments for motivating language learners: Results of an empirical study, *Language Teaching Research*, 2, 203-229.
- Dornyei, Z., & Csizer, K. (2002). Some dynamics of language attitudes and motivation: Results of a longitudinal nationwide survey. *Applied Linguistics*, 23(4), 421-462.

- Dörnyei, Z., & Schmidt, R. (2001). *Motivation and second language acquisition [technical Report #23]* Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press at Manoa.
- Dreyer, C., & Oxford, R. (1996). Learning strategies and other predictors of ESL proficiency among Afrikaans-speakers in South Africa. In R. L. Oxford (Ed.), *Language learning strategies around the world: Cross cultural perspectives* (pp. 17-18). Manoa: University of Hawaii Press.
- Durndell, A., & Haag, Z. (2002). Computer self efficacy, computer anxiety, attitudes towards the Internet and reported experience with the Internet, by gender, in an East European sample. *Computer in Human Behavior*, 18, 521-535.
- Dweck, C.S., & Leggett, E.L. (1988). A social-cognitive approach to motivation and personality. *Psychological Review*, 95(2), 256-273.
- Ehrman, M. E. (1996). An exploration of adult language learner motivation, self-efficacy, and anxiety. In R. Oxford (Ed.), *Language learning motivation: Pathways to the new century* (pp.81-103). Hawaii: University of Hawaii at Manoa.
- Ehrman, M. E., Leaver B. L., & Oxford, R. L. (2003). A brief overview of individual differences in second language learning. *System*, 31, 313-330.
- Ehrman, M., & Oxford, R. (1989). Effects of sex differences, career choice and psychological type on adults' language learning strategies. *Modern Language Journal*, 73 (1), 1-13.
- Ehrman, M. & Oxford, R. (1990). Adult language learning styles and strategies in an intensive training setting. *Modern Language Journal*, 74 (3), 311-327.
- Ehrman, M. E., & Oxford, R. L. (1995). Cognition plus: Correlates of language learning success. *The Modern Language Journal*, 79 (1), 67-89.
- Elliot, A. 1., & Church, M. (1997). A hierarchical model of approach and avoidance achievement motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 72(1), 218-232.

- Elliot, E. S., & Dweck, C.S. (1988). Goals: An approach to motivation and achievement. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54, 5-12.
- Elliot, A. 1., & Harackiewicz, 1. M. (1996). Approach and avoidance achievement goals and intrinsic motivation: A mediational analysis. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 70(3), 461-475.
- Elliot, A. 1., McGregor, H., & Gable, S. (1999). Achievement goals, study strategies, and exam performance: A mediational analysis. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 91, 549-563.
- Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Engin, A. O. (2009). Second language learning success and motivation. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 37(8), 1035-1042.
- Erkan, Y. D., & Saban, A. I. (2011). Writing Performance Relative to Writing Apprehension, Self-Efficacy in, Writing and Attitudes towards Writing: A Correlational Study in Turkish Tertiary-Level EFL. *The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly*, 13(1), 163-191.
- Fisher, R. (1990). *Teaching children to think*. Basil Blackwell: Oxford, UK
- Flemens, K. (2008). *Motivation, language-learning strategies, and course performance among English-speaking college students learning a romance language*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Lynn University.
- Gan, Z., Humphreys, G., & Hamp-Lyon, L. (2004). Understanding successful and unsuccessful EFL students in Chinese Universities. *Modern Language Journal*, 88(2), 229-244.
- Garcia, M. C. (2007). *Motivation, language learning beliefs, self-efficacy, and acculturation patterns among two groups of English learners*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Southern California.

- Gardner, R.C. (1979). Social psychological aspects of second language acquisition. In H. Giles, & R. St. Clair, (eds.), *Language and social psychology* (193-220). Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Gardner, R.C. (1983). Learning another language: A true social psychological experiment. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 2(4), 219-239.
- Gardner, R.C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Gardner, R. C. (1988). The socio-educational model of second language learning: Assumptions, findings, and issues. *Language Learning*, 38, 101-126.
- Gardner, R. C. (2000). Correlation, causation, motivation, and second language acquisition. *Canadian Psychology*, 41, 10-24.
- Gardner, R. C. (2001a). *Language learning motivation: The student, the teacher, and the researcher*. Paper presented at Texas Foreign Language Education Conference, University of Texas at Austin, Texas.
- Gardner, R. C. (2001b). Integrative motivation and second language acquisition. In Z. Dörnyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition* (Vol. 23, pp.1-19). Honolulu: University of Hawai'i, Second Language Teaching & Curriculum Center.
- Gardner, R. C. (2004). Attitude/Motivation Test Battery: International AMTB Research. Retrieved November 21, 2008, from <http://publish.uwo.ca/~gardner>
- Gardner, R. C. (2005). *Integrative motivation and second language acquisition*. Joint plenary talk presented at the meetings of the Canadian Association of Applied Linguistics and the Canadian Linguistics Association, University of Western Ontario, London, Canada.
- Gardner, R. C. (2007). Motivation and second language acquisition. *Porta Linguarum*, 8, 9-20.

- Gardner, R. (2010). Integrative Motivation: Past, Present and Future. Retrieved October 14, 2010 from <http://publish.uwo.ca/~gardner/docs/GardnerPublicLecture1.pdf>
- Gardner, R. C., Day, J. B., & MacIntyre, P. D. (1992). Integrative motivation, induced anxiety, and language learning in a controlled environment. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 14, 197-214.
- Gardner, R. C., Lalonde, R. N., & Pierson, R. (1983). The socio-educational model of second language acquisition: An investigation using LISREL causal modeling. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 2, 51-56.
- Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1959). Motivational variables in second-language acquisition. *Canadian Journal of Psychology*, 13(4), 266-272.
- Gardner, R. C. & Lambert, W. E. (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second-language learning*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Gardner, R. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (1991). An instrumental motivation in language study: Who says it isn't effective? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 13(1), 57-72.
- Gardner, R. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (1993). A student's contributions to second-language learning. Part II: Affective variables. *Language Teaching*, 26, 1-11.
- Gardner, R. C., Masgoret, A. M, Tennant, J, & Mihic, L. (2004). Integrative motivation: changes during a year-long intermediate-level language course. *Language Learning*, 54(1), 1-34.
- Gardner, R. C., Masgoret, A. M. & Tremblay, P. F. (1999). Home background characteristics and second language learning. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 18, 419-437.
- Gardner, R. C., & Smythe, P. C. (1975). Motivation and second language acquisition. *Canadian Modern Language review*, 31, 218-230.
- Gardner, R. C., & Smythe, P. C. (1981). On the development of the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 37, 510-525.

- Gardner, R. C., Smythe, P. C., Clément, R., & Glikzman, L. (1976). Social and psychological factors in second language acquisition. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 32, 198-213.
- Gardner, R. C., & Tremblay, P. F. (1994). On motivation, research agendas, and theoretical frameworks. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78(3), 359-368.
- Gardner, R. C., Tremblay, P. F. & Masgoret, A. M. (1997). Towards a full model of second language learning: An empirical investigation. *The Modern Language Journal*, 81, 344-362.
- Garson, G. D. (2009). Structural equation modeling: Goodness of fit tests. *StatNotes: Topics in multivariate analysis*. Retrieved January 1, 2009, from <http://faculty.chass.ncsu.edu/garson/PA765/statnote.htm> Web site:
<http://faculty.chass.ncsu.edu/garson/PA765/structur.htm>
- Gerami, M. H., & Baighlou, S. M. G. (2011). Language learning strategies used by successful and unsuccessful Iranian EFL students. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 29, 1567-1576.
- Ghazvini, S. D., & Khajehpour, M. (2011). Attitudes and motivation in learning English as second language in high school students. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 15, 1209-1213.
- Gholami, R. (2011). *Psychological traits and task-based performance of EFL learners*. LAP Lambert Academic Publishing Co. Germany.
- Gholami, R., Allahyar, N., & Rafik-Galea, S. (2012). Integrative motivation as an essential determinant of achievement: A case of EFL high school students. *World Applied Sciences Journal*, 17(11), 1416-1424.
- Gholami, R., Rahman, S. Z. A., & Mustapha, G. (2012). Social Context as an Indirect Trigger in EFL Contexts: Issues and Solutions. *English Language Teaching*, 5(3), 73-82.

- Glynn, S. M., Taasobsharazi, G., & Brickman, P. (2007). Nonscience majors learning science: A theoretical model of motivation. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 44 (8), 1088-1107.
- Gordon, M. S. (1980). The isomers of silacyclopropane. *Chemical Physics Letters*, 76(1), 163-168.
- Grabe, W. (2009). *Reading in a second language: Moving from theory to practice*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Graham, S. J. (2003). Learners' metacognitive beliefs: A modern foreign language case study. *Research in Education*, 70, 9-20.
- Graham, S. J. (2006). A study of students' metacognitive beliefs about foreign language study and their impact on learning. *Foreign Language Annals*, 39 (2), 296-309.
- Graham, S. J. & Weiner, B. (1996). Theories and principles of motivation. In D. C. Berliner & R. C. Calfee (Eds.), *Handbook of educational psychology* (63-84). New York: Simon & Schuster Macmillan.
- Green, J. M., & Oxford, R. L. (1995). A closer look at leaning strategies, L2 proficiency, and gender. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29(2), 261-297.
- Grenfell, M., & Macaro, E. (2008). Claims and Critiques. In A. D. Cohen & E. Macaro, (Eds.), *Language learner strategies: 30 years of research and practice* (9-28). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Greta, G. (2009). Investigating second language learner self-Efficacy and future expectancy of second language use for high-Stakes Program Evaluation. *Foreign Language Annals*, 42(3), 505-540.
- Griffiths, C. (2003). Patterns of language learning strategy use. *System*, 31, 367-383.
- Griffiths, C. (2008). *Lessons from good language learners*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Gu, Y. (2002). Gender, academic major, and vocabulary learning strategies of Chinese EFL learners. *RELC Journal*, 33 (1), 35-54.
- Guthrie, J. T., Wigfield, A., & VonSecker, C. (2000). Effects of integrated instruction on motivation and strategy use in reading. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 92(2), 331-341.
- Gunning, P., & Oxford, R. L. (2014). Children's learning strategy use and the effects of strategy instruction on success in learning ESL in Canada. *System*, 43, 82-100.
- Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L., & Black, W. C. (1998). *Multivariate data analysis* (5th ed.). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Hair, J. F., Jr., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Hakuta, K., & D'Andrea, D. (1992). Some properties of bilingual maintenance and loss in Mexican background high-school students. *Applied Linguistics*, 13, 72-99.
- Harackiewicz, T. M., Barron, K. E., Carter, S., Lehto, A., & Elliot, A. (1997). Determinants and consequences of achievement goals in the college classroom: Maintaining interest and making the grade. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 73, 1284-1295.
- Harackiewicz, T. M., Barron, K. E., Tauer, I. M., & Elliot, A. J. (2002). Predicting success in college: A longitudinal study of achievement goals and ability measures as predictors of interest and performance from freshman year through graduation. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 94(3), 562-575.
- Hareli, S., & Weiner, B. (2002). Social emotions and personality inferences: A scaffold for a new direction in the study of achievement motivation. *Educational Psychologist*, 37(3), 183-193.
- Hattie, J. (1992). *Self-concept*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

- He, T. (2001). Contrastive goal orientations in an EFL reading context: Influences on reading strategy use and comprehension patterns. *TESL-EJ*, 5, 1. Retrieved may10, 2008, from <http://www-writing.berkeley.edu/TESL-EJ/ej17/a2abs.html>
- Heiman, G. W. (2001). *Understanding research methods and statistics: An integrated introduction for psychology* (No. 04; BF76. 5, H4 2001.).
- Henk, W., & Melnick, S. (1995). The reader self-perception scale (RSPS): A new tool for measuring how children feel about themselves as readers. *The Reading Teacher*, 48 (6), 470-482.
- Heo, M., Stoffa, R., & Kush, J. C. (2012). Factor analysis of the ESL/EFL Strategy Inventory for Language Learning: Generation 1.5 Korean immigrant college students' language learning strategies. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 25(3), 231-247.
- Hernandez, T. (2006). Integrative motivation as a predictor of success in the intermediate foreign language classroom. *Foreign Language Annals*, 39(4), 605-617.
- Hismanoglu, M. (2000). Language learning strategies in foreign language learning and teaching. Retrieved 5 April, 2008, from <http://iteslj.org/Articles/Hismanoglu-Strategies.html>
- Ho, R. (2006). *Handbook of univariate and multivariate data analysis and interpretation with SPSS*. Boca Raton, FL: Chapman & Hall/CRC.
- Holmes, J. (1992). *An introduction to sociolinguistics New York*: . Longman Group UK Limited.
- Hong , K. (2006). *Beliefs about language learning and language learning strategy use in an EFL context: A comparison study of monolingual Korean and bilingual Korean-Chinese university students*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of North Texas.

- Horwitz, E. K. (1987). Surveying student beliefs about language learning. In A. Wenden & J. Rubin (Eds.), *Learner strategies in language learning* (pp. 119-129). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice/Hall International.
- Horwitz, E. K. (1988). The beliefs about language learning of beginning university foreign language students. *Modern Language Journal*, 72, 283-294.
- Hosenfeld, C. (1976). Learning about learning: Discovering our students' strategies. *Foreign Language Annals*, 9, 117-129.
- Hosseini, S. M. H. (2007). ELT in higher education in Iran and India: Critical view. *Language in India*, 7, 1-11.
- Hsiao, T., & Oxford, R. (2002). Comparing theories of language learning strategies: a confirmatory factor analysis. *The Modern Language Journal*, 86(3), 368–383.
- Hsieh, P. P. (2008). Why are college foreign language students' self-efficacy, attitude, and motivation so different? *International Education*, 38(1), 76-101.
- Hsieh, P. P., & Kang, H. S. (2010). Attribution and Self-Efficacy and Their Interrelationship in the Korean EFL Context. *Language Learning*, 60(3), 606–627.
- Hsieh, P. P., & Schallert, D. L. (2008). Implications from self-efficacy and attribution theories for an understanding of undergraduates' motivation in a foreign language course. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 33, 513–532.
- Hu, L., & Bentler, M. P. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 6(1), 1-55.
- Huang, S.C., & Chang, S. F. (1996). *Self-efficacy of English as a second language learner: An example of four learners*. (Research Report No. 143). Retrieved 15 February, 2008, from <http://ericae.net/ericdb/ED396536.htm> (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 396 536).

- Huang, S.C., & Chang, S. F. (1998). Self-efficacy in learners of English as a second language: Four examples. *Journal of Intensive English Studies*, 12, 23-40.
- Igbaria, M., & Iivari, J. (1995). The effects of self-efficacy on computer usage. *Omega*, 23(6), 587-605.
- Jie, L., & Xiaoqing, Q. (2006). Language learning styles and learning strategies of tertiary level English learners in China. *RELC Journal*, 37(1), 67-70.
- Jones, E. (2008). Predicting performance in first-semester college basic writers: Revisiting the role of self-beliefs. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 33, 209–238.
- Jones, B. F., Palinscar, A. s., Ogle, D. S., & Carr, E. G. (1987). *Strategic teaching and learning: Cognitive instruction in the content areas* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Joreskog, K. G. (1993). Testing structural equation models. In K. A. Bollen & J. S. Logn (Eds.), *Testing structural equation models (294-316)*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Kam, M.C. (2002). *Motivation in second language learning: Ethnolinguistic validity or psychological construct that counts?* Paper presented at the AARE Conference "Problematic Futures: Educational Research in an Era of Uncertainty: Department of educational Psychology, Counseling and Learning Needs, Brisbane, Australia.
- Kam, M.C. (2006). *English learning motivation for ethnic Chinese students in Hong Kong and Sydney*. Education and Youth Affairs Bureau, Macau SAR, China. <http://www.aare.edu.au/06pop/Kam06214.pdf>
- Kang, S. (2000). *Modeling relationships between the use of English as a second language learning strategies and the test performance of Asian students*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Illi nois, Urbana Champaign.
- Kaylani, C. (1996). The influence of gender and motivation on EFL learning: Strategy use in Jordan. In R. L. Oxford (Ed.), *Language learning strategies around the world. Cross cultural perspectives (75-88)*. Manao: University of Hawaii Press.

- Kim, H. J. (2001). Language learning strategies, learning styles and beliefs about language learning of Korean university students. *Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics*, 5(1), 31-46.
- Kim, S. J. (2004). *Exploring willingness to communicate (WTC) English among Korean EFL (English as a foreign language) Students in Korea: WTC as a predictor of success in second language acquisition*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Ohio State University.
- Klassen, R. M., & Georgiou, G. K. (2008). Spelling and Writing Self-efficacy of Indo-Canadian and Anglo-Canadian Early Adolescents. *International Migration and Integration*, 9, 311-326.
- Kline, R. B. (1998). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling*. New York, NY: The Guilford Press.
- Kline, R. B. (2005). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling* (2nd ed.). New York: Guilford Press.
- Kline, M. W. (2006). *The relationship between motivational variables, anxiety, exposure to English, and language learning strategies among adult ESL learners*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Southern California.
- Koller, O., Baumert, J., & Schnabel, K. (2001). Does interest matter? The relationship between academic interest and achievement in mathematics. *Journal for Research in Mathematics Education*, 32(5), 448-471.
- Kraemer, R. (1993). Social psychological factors related to the study of Arabic among Israeli high school students. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 15, 83-105.
- Krashen, S. (1981). *Second language acquisition and Second Language Learning*. Oxford: Pergamon.

- Kuhlemeier, H., Van Den Berg, H., & Melse, L. (1996). Attitudes and achievements in the first year of German language instruction in Dutch secondary education. *The Modern Language Journal*, 80(3), 494-508.
- Kunnan, A. J. (1998). An introduction to structural equation modeling for language assessment research. *Language Teaching*, 15(3), 295-332.
- Kuramoto, C. (2002). Improving motivation in oral communication classrooms in Japan: an action research project. *ELTED Electronic Journal*, 6.
- Lai, Ching-ye, E. (2002). *An exploration into the factors affecting Hong Kong pre-university students' self-perception of their English language ability*. Unpublished Masters Thesis, City University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong.
- Lalonde, R. N. & Gardner, R. C. (1985). On the predictive validity of the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 6, 403-412.
- Lamb, M. (2004). Integrative motivation in a globalizing world. *System*, 32, 3–19.
- Lan, R. L., & Oxford, R. L. (2003). Language learning strategy of elementary school students in Taiwan. *IRAL*, 41, 339-379.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2001). *Individual cognitive/ affective learner contributions and differential success in second language acquisition*. In P. Breen (ed.), *Learner contributions to language learning*, (12-24). Harlow: Pearson Education LTD.
- Lavasani, M. G., & Faryadres, F. (2011). Language learning strategies and suggested model in adults processes of learning second language. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 15, 191–197.
- Lavelle, E., Smith, J., & Oryan, L. (2002). The writing approaches of secondary students. *The British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 72, 399-418.

- Lee, J. Y. (1998). Language learning strategies and tolerance of ambiguity of Korean midshipmen learning English as a foreign language. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 59(03), 760. (UMI No. 9825883).
- Lent, R. W., Brown, S. D., & Larkin, K. C. (1986). Self-efficacy in the prediction of academic performance and perceived career options. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 33, 265-269.
- Lesserd-Clouston, M. (1997). Language learning strategies: An overview for L2 teachers. *The Internet TESL Journal*, 6, 8. Retrieved 20 April, 2008, from <http://iteslj.org/Articles/Hismanoglu-Strategies.html>
- Lett Jr, J. A., & O'Mara, F. E. (1990). Predictors of success in an intensive foreign language learning context. *DOCUMENT RESUME*, 222-260.
- Li, P. & Pan, G. (2009). The relationship between motivation and achievement: A survey of the study motivation of English majors in Qingdao Agricultural University. *English Language Teaching*, 2(1), 1-15.
- Linnenbrink, E. A., & Pintrich, P. (2003). The role of self-efficacy beliefs in student engagement and learning in the classroom. *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, 19, 119-137.
- Ling, C. (2008). Study on affective factors on listening performance of English majors in Xinjiang Agricultural University. *US-China Foreign Language, USA*, 6(3), 32-38.
- Littlewood, W. T. (1983). Contrastive pragmatics and the foreign language learner's personality. *Applied linguistics*, 4(3), 200-206.
- Liu, D. (2004). EFL proficiency, gender and language learning strategy use among a group of Chinese technological institute English majors. *ARECLS E-Journal*, 1, 1-16.
- Liu, M. (2007). Chinese students' motivation to learn English at the tertiary level. *Asian EEFL Journal*, 9(1), 126-146.

- Lopez, F. G., Lent, R. W., Brown, S. D., & Gore, P. A. (1997). Role of social-cognitive expectations in high school students' mathematics-related interest and performance. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 44(1), 44-52.
- Ma, E. C. (2010). *A comparative study of motivational orientation of elementary school English learners in a dual language immersion program and a transitional bilingual education program*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Southern California.
- MacIntyre, P. D. (1994). Toward a social psychological model of strategy use. *Foreign Language Annals*, 27, 185-195.
- Macintyre, P. D., Clement, R., & Donovan, L. A. (2002). Sex and age effects on willingness to communicate, anxiety, perceived competence, and L2 motivation among junior high school French students. *Language Learning*, 52, 537-564.
- MacIntyre, P. D., MacKinnon, S. P., & Clément, R. (2009). The baby, the bathwater, and the future of language learning motivation research. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 43-65). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- MacIntyre, P.D., MacMaster, K., & Baker, S.C. (2001). The convergence of multiple models of motivation for second language learning: Gardner, Pintrich, Kuhl, and McCroskey. In Z. Domyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition* (Technical Report #23, pp. 461-492). Honolulu: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.
- MacIntyre, P. D., & Noels, K. A. (1996). Using social-psychological variables to predict the use of language learning strategies. *Foreign Language Annals*, 29, 373-386.
- Madrid, D. (2002). The power of the FL teachers' motivational strategies. *Cauce*, 25.
- Maehr, M. L., & Midgley, C. (1991). Enhancing student motivation: A school wide approach. *Educational Psychologist*, 26, 399-427.

- Magogwe, M. J. & Oliver, R. (2007). The relationship between language learning strategies, proficiency, age and self-efficacy beliefs: A study of language learners in Botswana. *System*, 32, 338-352.
- Mahyuddin, R., et al. (2006). The relationship between students' self-efficacy and their English language achievement. *Journal Pendidik dan Pendidikan*, 21, 61-71.
- Marsh, H. W. (1990). The structure of academic self-concept: The Marsh-Shavelson Model. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82, 623-636.
- Martinez, D. U., Perez, J. G., & Fernandez, D. M. (2013). Attitudes of Mexican American students towards learning English as a second language in a structured immersion program. *Porta Linguarum*, 20, 205-221.
- Masgoret, A. M., Bernaus, M., & Gardner, R. C. (2001). Examining the role of attitudes and motivation outside of the formal classroom: A test of the mini-AMTB for children. In Z. Dornyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition* (Technical Report #23, pp. 281-295). Hhonorulu: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.
- Masgoret, A. M., & Gardner, R. C. (2003). Attitudes, motivation, and second, language learning: A meta-analyses of studies conducted by Gardner and associates. *Language Learning*, 53, 123-163.
- Matheus, A. (2009). *Factors affecting the successful use of web sites*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University at Albany.
- Matthews, P. H. (2001). *Achievement motivation in university foreign language learners*. Manuscript submitted for the University of Georgia Lecture Series, Georgia.
- McCabe, P. P., & Margolis, H. (2001). Enhancing the self-efficacy of struggling readers. *The Clearing House*, 75, 45-49.

- McCollum, D. L. (2001). *Utilizing non-cognitive predictors of foreign language achievement*. Submitted paper for the Department of Educational and School Psychology and Special Education, Pennsylvania State University.
- McCollum, D. L. (2003). Utilizing non-cognitive predictors on foreign language achievement. *Applied Language Learning*, 13(1), 19-32.
- McCrudden, M. T., Perkins, P. G., & Putney, L. G. (2005). Self efficacy and interest in the use of reading strategies. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education*, 20(2), 119-132.
Retrieved from
<http://www.thefreelibrary.com/Selfefficacy+and+interest+in+the+use+of+reading+strategies-a0141212570>
- McDermott, P., Mordell, M., & Stoltzfus, J. (2001). The organization of student performance in American schools: Discipline motivation, verbal learning, and nonverbal learning. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 93, 65-76.
- McDonough, S. (1983). *Psychology in foreign language teaching*. George Allen & Unwin: London.
- McGregor, H. A., & Elliot, A. 1. (2002). Achievement goals as predictors of achievement-relevant processes prior to task engagement. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 94(2), 381-395.
- McGroarty, M. (1996). Language attitudes, motivation, and standards. In S. L. McKay & N. H. Hornberger (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and Language Teaching* (pp.3-46). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- McKeachie, W. J., Pintrich, R. P., & Lin, Y. G. (1985). Teaching learning strategies. *Educational Psychologist*, 20, 153-160.
- McMullen, M. G. (2009). Using language learning strategies to improve the writing skills of Saudi EFL students: Will it really work? *System*, 37, 418-433.

- Meyer, D. K., Turner, J. C., & Spencer, C. A. (1997). Challenge in a Mathematics Classroom: Students' Motivation and Strategies in Project- Based Learning. *The Elementary School Journal*, 97(5), 501-521.
- Millis, N. A. (2004). *Self-efficacy of college intermediate French students: Relation to motivation, achievement, and proficiency*. Unpublished doctoral Dissertation, Emory University.
- Millis, N., Pajares, F., & Herron, C. (2006). A Reevaluation of the role of anxiety: Self-Efficacy , anxiety, and their relation to reading and listening proficiency. *Foreign Language Annals*, 39(2), 276-295.
- Mistar, J. (2001). English learning strategies of Indonesian university students across individual differences. *Asian Journal of English Language Teaching*, 11, 19-44.
- Mohammadi, M., Moenikia, M. & Zahed-Babelan, A. (2010). The relationship between motivational systems and second language learning. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 2, 3258-3262.
- Mokhtari, A. (2007). *Language learning strategies and beliefs about language learning: A study of university students of Persian in the United States*. Unpublished doctoral Dissertation, University of Texas, Austin.
- Mone, M. A., Baker, D. D., & Jeffries, F. (1995). Predictive validity and time dependency on self-efficacy, self-esteem, personal goals, and academic performance. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 55, 716-727.
- Mori, S. (2002). Redefining motivation to read in a foreign language. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 14, 91-110.
- Moyer, A. (2004). *Age, accent, and experience in second language acquisition*. Buffalo, N. Y.: Multilingual Matters, Inc.
- Mueller, R. O. (1996). *Basic principles of structural equation modeling: An Introduction to LISREL and EQS*. New York, NY: Springer-Verlag New York, Inc.

- Mullins, P. (1992). *Successful English language learning strategies of students enrolled in the Faculty of Arts, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, United States International University, San Diego, CA.
- Multon, K. D., Brown, S. D., & Lent, R. W. (1991). Relations of self-efficacy beliefs to academic outcomes. A meta-analytic investigation. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 38, 30-38.
- Naiman, N., Frohlich, M., Stern, H., & Todesco, A. (1975). The Good Language Learner. *TESL Talk*, 6, 58-75.
- Naiman, N., Fröhlich, M., Stern, H., & Todesco, A. (1978). *The good language learner*. Research in Education Series No. 7. Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.
- Nambiar, R. (2009). Learning strategy research-Where are we now? *The Reading Matrix*, 9(2), 132-149.
- National Capital Language Recourse Center (NCLRC) (2000a). *Elementary immersion students' perceptions of language learning strategies use and self-efficacy*. (Report No. FL 026 388). Department of Education, Washington, DC.
- National Capital Language Recourse Center (NCLRC) (2000b). *High school foreign language students' perceptions of language learning strategies use and self-efficacy*. (Report No. FL 026 392). Department of Education, Washington, DC.
- Nicholls, J. G. (1984). Conceptions of ability and achievement motivation. In R. Ames & C. Ames (Eds.), *Research on Motivation in Education* (Vol. I, pp. 39-73). New York: Academic Press, Inc.
- Nickerson, R. S. (1988). On improving thinking through instruction. *Review of Research in Education*, 15, 3-57.
- Nyikos, M. (1990). Seven research projects concerning language learning strategies. Information presented as part of a panel on Learning strategies: *Key choice factors and*

correlates (Short reports of new research at international TESOL convention. San Francisco, California.

Nikolov, M. (1999). "Why do you learn English?" "Because the teacher is short." A study of Hungarian children's foreign language learning motivation. *Language Teaching Research*, 3(1), 33-56.

Nisbet, D. L., Tindall, E. R., & Arrova, A. A. (2005). Language learning strategies and English proficiency of Chinese university students. *Foreign Language Annals*, 38(1), 100-107.

Noels, K. (2001). Learning Spanish as a Second Language: Learners' orientations and perceptions of their teachers' communication style. *Language Learning*, 51 (1), 107-144.

Noels, K. A., Clément, R., & Pelletier, L. G. (2001). Intrinsic, extrinsic, and integrative orientations of French Canadian learners of English. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 57(3), 424-442.

Noels, K. A., Pelletier, L. G., Clement, R., & Vallerand, R. J. (2000). Why are you learning second language? Motivational orientations and self-determination theory. *Language Learning*, 50(1), 57-85.

Noels, K. A., Pelletier, L. G., Clement, R., & Vallerand, R. J. (2003). Why are you learning a second language? Motivational orientations and self-determination theory. *Language Learning*, 53 (1), 33-63.

Noels, K. A., Pon, G., & Clement, R. (1996). Language, identity, and adjustment: The role of linguistic self-confidence in the acculturation process. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 15, 246-264.

Nyikos, M., & Oxford, R. L. (1993). A factor analytic study of language-learning strategy use: Interpretations from information-processing theory and social psychology. *Modern Language Journal*, 77 (1), 11-22.

- Obrien, K. M., Brown, S. D., & Lent, R. W. (1989). *Self efficacy and career behavior of academically under prepared college students*. Paper presented at the 97th Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association. New Orleans, LA.
- Ok, L. K. (2003). The relationship of school year, sex and proficiency on the use of learning strategies in learning English of Korean junior high school students. *Asian-EFL-Journal*. Retrieved April 10, 2008, from http://www.asian-efl-journal.com/sept_03_ind.html
- Okada, M., Oxford, R. L., & Abo, S. (1996). Not all alike: Motivation and learning strategies among students of Japanese and Spanish in an exploratory study. In R. Oxford (Ed.) *Language learning motivation: Pathways to the new century* (pp. 9-70). Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii, Second Language and Teaching Curriculum Center.
- Olivares, C. G. (2002). *The effect of foreign language aptitude, foreign language anxiety, and language learning strategies on Spanish performance at the college level*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of Southeastern Conference on Linguistics, The University of Memphis, Memphis, Tennessee.
- O'Malley, J. M., & Chamot, A. U. (1990). *Learning strategies in second language acquisition*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- O'Malley, J. M., Chamot, A. U., Stewner-Manzanares, G., Kupper, L. & Russo, R. P. (1985). Learning strategies used by beginning and intermediate ESL students. *Language Learning*, 35, 21-46.
- Onwuegbuzie, J. A., Bailey, P. & Daley, E. C. (2000). Cognitive, Affective, Personality, and Demographic Predictors of Foreign-Language Achievement. *The Journal of Educational Research*. 94(1), 1-15.

- Osanai, D. (2000). *Differences in language learning strategies between male and female, and also between Asian and Latino ESL students*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, TN.
- Oxford, R. L. (1989). Use of language learning strategies: a synthesis of students with implications for strategy training. *System*, 17(2), 235-247.
- Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*. New York: Newbury House.
- Oxford, R. L. (1994). Where are we regarding language learning motivation? *The Modern Language Journal*. 78(4), 513-514.
- Oxford, R. L. (1996). *Language learning strategies around the world: Cross-cultural perspectives*. Honolulu, HI: Second Language Teaching & Curriculum Center University of Hawaii.
- Oxford, R. L., & Burry-Stock, J. A. (1995). Assessing the use of language learning strategies worldwide with the ESL/EFL version of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). *System*, 23(1), 1-23.
- Oxford, R. L. & Crookall, D. (1989). Research on language learning strategies: Methods, findings, and instructional issues. *Modern Language Journal*, 73, 404-419.
- Oxford, R. L., Crookall, D., Cohen, A., Lavine, R., Nyikos, M., & Sutter, W. (1990). Strategy training for language learners: Six situational case studies and a training model. *Foreign Language Annals*, 22(3), 197-216.
- Oxford, R. L. & Ehrman, M. E. (1995). Adults' language learning strategies in an intensive foreign language program in the United States. *System*, 23, 359-386.
- Oxford, R. L., & Nyikos, M. (1989). Variables affecting choice of language learning strategies by university students. *Modern Language Journal*, 73, 291-300.

- Oxford, R. L., M. Nyikos, and D. Crookall. (1987). *Learning Strategies of University Foreign Language Students: a Large-Scale Study*. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.
- Oxford, R. L., Park-Oh, Y., Ito, S. & Sumrall, M. (1993). Learning Japanese by satellite: What influences student achievement? *System*, 21, 31-48.
- Oxford, R. L., & Shearin, J. (1994). Language learning motivation: Expanding the theoretical framework. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78(1), 12-28.
- Oxford, R. L., & Shearin, J. (1996). Language learning motivation in a new key. In R. L. Oxford (Ed.), *Language Learning Motivation: Pathways to the new century* (Vol.11, pp. 121-144). Honolulu: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.
- Pae, T. (2008). Second language orientation and self-determination theory. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 27(1), 5-27.
- Page-Voth, V., & Graham, S. (1999). Effects of goal setting and strategy use on the writing performance and self-efficacy of students with writing and learning problems. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 91, 230-240.
- Pajares, F. (1996a). Self-efficacy beliefs in academic settings. *Review of Educational Research*, 66(4), 543-578.
- Pajares, F. (1996b). Self-efficacy beliefs and mathematical problem-solving of gifted students. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 21(4), 325-344.
- Pajares, F. (1996c). Current directions in self-efficacy research. In M. Maehr & P. R. Pintrich (Eds.), *Advances in motivation and achievement* (Vol. 10, pp. 1-49). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Pajares, F. (1997). Current directions in self-efficacy research. In M. Maehr & P. R. Pintrich (Eds.), *Advances in motivation and achievement* (Vol. 10, pp. 1-49). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

- Pajares, F. (2000). *Self-efficacy beliefs and current directions in self-efficacy research*. Retrieved June, 2008 from <http://www.emory.edu/EDUCATION/mfp/effpage.html>
- Pajares, F. (2002). *Self-efficacy beliefs in academic contexts: An outline*. Retrieved February 5, 2009, from <http://www.emory.edu/EDUCATION/mfp/efftalk.html>.
- Pajares, F. (2003). Self-efficacy beliefs, motivation, and achievement in writing: A review of the literature. *Reading and Writing Quarterly*, 19(2), 139–158.
- Pajares, F. & Graham, L. (1999). Self-Efficacy, motivation constructs, and mathematics performance of entering middle school students. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 24, 124–139.
- Pajares, F., & Johnson, M. 1. (1994). Self-efficacy beliefs and the writing performance of entering high school students. *Psychology in the Schools*, 33, 163-175.
- Pajares, F. & Johnson, M. J. (1996). Self-efficacy beliefs and the writing performance of high school students. *Psychology in the Schools*, 33, 163-175.
- Pajares, F., & Kranzler, 1. (1995). Self-efficacy beliefs and general mental ability in mathematical problem-solving. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 20, 426-443.
- Pajares, F. & Miller, M. D. (1994). The role of self-efficacy and self-concept beliefs in mathematical problem solving: A path analysis. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 86, 193-203.
- Pajares, F., Miller, M. D., & Johnson, M. 1. (1999). Gender differences in writing self-beliefs of elementary school students. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 24, 390-405.
- Pajares, F., & Schunk, D. H. (2001). Self-beliefs and school success: Self-efficacy, self-concept, and school achievement. In R. Riding, & S. Rayner (Eds.), *Perception* (239-266). London: Ablex Publishing.
- Pajares, F., & Urda, T. (Eds.). (2006). *Adolescence and education: Vol. 5. Self-efficacy beliefs of adolescents* (307-337). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.

- Pajares, F., & Valiante, G. (1997). Predictive and mediational roles of the writing self-efficacy beliefs of upper elementary school students. *Journal of Educational Research*, 90, 353-360.
- Pajares, F., & Valiante, G. (1999). Grade level and gender differences in the writing self-beliefs of middle school students. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 24(4), 390-405.
- Pajares, F., & Valiante, G. (2001). Gender differences in writing motivation and achievement of middle school students: A function of gender orientation? *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 26(3), 366-381.
- Papalia, A. & Zampogna, J. (1977). Strategies used by foreign language students in deriving meaning from a written text and in learning vocabulary. *Language Association Bulletin*, 7-8.
- Pappa, E., Zafiropoulou, M., & Metallidou, P. (2003). Intervention on strategy use and on motivation of Greek pupils' reading comprehension in English classes. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 96, 773.
- 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, 419-449.
- Paris, S. G., & Oka, E. R. (1986). Children's reading strategies, metacognition, and motivation. *Developmental Review*, 6, 25-56.
- Park, G. P. (1995). Language learning strategies and beliefs about language learning of university students learning English in Korea. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 56/06, 2102. (UMI No. 9534918).
- Park, G. P. (1997). Language learning strategies and English proficiency in Korean University students. *Foreign Language Annals*, 30(2), 211-221.

- Park, S. H. (2005). *Language learning strategies and the relationship of these strategies to motivation and English proficiency among Korean EFL students*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Kansas.
- Peacock, M., & Ho, B. (2003). Student language learning strategies across eight disciplines. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 13 (2), 179-200.
- Pearson, P. D., & Dole, J. A. (1987). Explicit comprehension instruction: A review of research and a new conceptualization of learning. *Elementary School Journal*, 88, 151-165.
- Phakiti, A. (2003). A closer look at gender and strategy use in L2 reading. *Language Learning*, 53 (4), 649-702.
- Phillips, V. (1991). A look at learner strategy use and ESL proficiency. *CATESOL Journal*, 57-67.
- Pietsch, J., Walker, R., & Chapman, E. (2003). The relationship among self-concept, self-efficacy and performance in mathematics during secondary school. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 95(3), 589-603.
- Pintrich, P. R (1989). The dynamic interplay of student motivation and cognition in the college classroom. *Advance in Motivation and Achievement*, 6, 117-160.
- 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 (2000). Multiple goals, multiple pathways: The role of goal orientation in learning and achievement. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 92(3), 544-555.
- Pintrich, P. R. (2003). A motivational science perspective on the role of student motivation in learning and teaching contexts. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 95, 667-686.
- Pintrich, P. R. & De Groot, E. (1990). Motivational and self-regulated learning components of classroom academic performance. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82, 33-40.

- Pintrich, P. R., & Garcia, T. (1991). Student goal orientation and self-regulation in the college classroom. In M. L. Maehr & P. R. Pintrich (Eds.), *Advances in motivation and achievement* (Vol. 7, pp. 371-402). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Pintrich, P. R., & Schunk, D. H. (2002). *Motivation in education: Theory, research and applications* (2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Pintrich, P. R., Smith, D. A. F., Garcia, T., & McKeachie, W. J. (1993). Reliability and predictive validity of the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ). *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 53, 801-813.
- Politzer, R. (1983). An exploratory study of self-reported language learning behaviors and their relation to achievement. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 6, 54-65.
- Politzer, R. L., & McGroarty, M. (1985). An exploratory study of learning behaviors and their relationship to gains in linguistic and communicative competence. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19, 103-124.
- Pressley, M., Woloshyn, V., Burkell, J., Cariglia-Bull, T., Lysynchuk, L. M., McGoldrick, J., Schneider, B., Snyder, B., & Symons, S. (1995). *Cognitive strategy instruction* (2nd ed.). Cambridge, MA: Brookline Books.
- Prokop, M. (1989). *Learning strategies for second language users: An analytical appraisal with case studies*. Lewiston, NY: The Edwin Mellen Press.
- Rahimi, A., & Abedini, A. (2009). The interface between EFL learners' self-efficacy concerning listening comprehension and listening proficiency. *Novitas-ROYAL*, 3(1), 14-28.
- Rahimi, M., Riazi, A., & Saif, S. (2008). An investigation into the factors affecting the use of language learning strategies by Persian EFL learners. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 11(2), 31-60.
- Ramirez, A. (1986). Language learning strategies used by adolescents studying French in New York schools. *Foreign Language Annals*, 19, 131-141.

- Raofi, S., Tan, B. H., & Chan, S. H. (2012). Self-efficacy in Second/Foreign Language Learning Contexts. *English Language Teaching*, 5(11), 60-73.
- Richards, J. W, & Renandya, W. A. (2002). *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Rigney, J. W. (1978). Learner strategies: A theoretical perspective. In J. O'Neil (Ed.), *Learning strategies* (pp. 165-205). New York: Academic Press.
- Risemberg, R. (1996). Reading to write: Self-regulated learning strategies when writing essays from sources. *Reading Research & Instruction*, 35(4), 365-383.
- Rossi-Le, L. (1989). *Perceptual learning style preferences and their relationship to language learning strategies in adult students of English as a second language*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Drake University, IA, USA.
- Rossiter, M . J .(2003) . The effects of affective strategy training in the ESL classroom. *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*, 7(2), 1-20.
- Rubio, F. (2007). *Self-esteem and foreign language learning*. U. K.: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Rubin, J. (1975). What the "good language learner" can teach us? *TESOL Quarterly*, 9(1), 41-51.
- Rubin, J. (1981). Study of cognitive processes in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 11, 117-131.
- Rubin, J. (1987). Learner strategies: Theoretical assumptions, research history and typology. In A. Wenden & J. Rubin (Eds.), *Learner Strategies in Language Learning* (pp. 15-30). Englewood, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Ryan, R.M., & Deci, E.L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychology*, 55, 68–78.
- Ryan, K. E., Ryan, A. M., Arbuthnot, K., & Samuels, M. (2007). Students' motivation for standardized math exams. *Educational Researcher*, 36(1), 5-13.

- Sadeghi, A. R. (2005). ESP methodology: A transition from the present state. In G. R. Kiany, & M. Khayyamdar, (Eds.). Proceedings of the First National ESP/EAP Conference, (2). Paper presented at the First National ESP/EAP Conference, Iran (21-33). Tehran: SAMT.
- Sadighi, F., & Maghsudi, N. (2000). The relationship between motivation and English proficiency among Iranian EFL learners. *Indian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 26, 39-52.
- Sadighi, F., Alavi, S., & Samani, S. (2004). Developing a foreign language learning self-efficacy scale for Iranian students. *Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities of Shiraz University*, 21(1), 94-101.
- Saito, Y., Horwitz, E. K., & Garza, T. J. (1999). Foreign language reading anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, 83, 202-218.
- Saleh, H. K. (2008). Computer self-efficacy of university faculty in Lebanon. *Educational Technology, Research and Development*, 56(2), 229-240.
- Sani, A. M. & Zain, Z. (2011). Relating adolescents' second language reading attitudes, self efficacy for reading, and reading ability in a non-supportive ESL setting. *The Reading Matrix*, 11(3), 243-254.
- Sayadian, S. and Lashkarian, A. (2010). Investigating attitude and motivation of Iranian university learners toward English as a foreign language. *Contemporary Issues in Education Research*, 3(1), 137-147.
- Scarcella, R. C., & Oxford, R. L. (1992). *The tapestry of language learning: The individual in the communicative classroom*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.
- Schmidt, R., Boraie, D., & Kassabgy, O. (1996). Foreign language motivation: Internal structure and external connections. In R. Oxford (Ed.) *Language learning motivation: Pathways to the new century* (pp. 9-70). Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii, Second Language and Teaching Curriculum Center.

- Schmidt, R., & Watanabe, Y. (2001). Motivation, strategy use, and pedagogical preferences in foreign language learning. In Z. Dornyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition* (pp.313-359). Honolulu: University of Hawaii.
- Schumacker, R. E., & Lomax, R. G. (2004). *A beginner's guide to structural equation modeling*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Schunk, D. H. (1989). Self-efficacy and cognitive skill learning. In C. Ames & R. Ames (Eds.), *Research on motivation in education*. Vol 3, *Goals and cognitions* (pp. 12-44). San Diego: Academic Press.
- Schunk, D. H. (1991). Self-efficacy and academic motivation. *Educational Psychologist*, 26(3&4), 207-231.
- Schunk, D. H. (1994). Self-regulation of self-efficacy and attributions in academic settings. In D. H. Schunk & B. J. Zimmerman (Eds.), *Self-regulation of learning and performance: Issues and Applications* (pp. 75-99). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Schunk, D. H. (1995). *Learning goals and self-evaluation: Effects on children's cognitive skill acquisition*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association. (Eric Document Reproduction Service, No. ED 3893855)
- Schunk, D. H. (2003). Self-efficacy for reading and writing: Influence of modeling, goal setting, and self-evaluation. *Reading and Writing Quarterly*, 19, 159-172.
- Schunk, D. H. (2004). *Learning theories: An educational perspective* (4th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Schunk, D. H. & Gunn, T. P, (1986). Modeled importance of task strategies and achievement beliefs: Effect on self-efficacy and skill development. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 5, 247-258.
- Schunk, D. H. & Pajares, M. F. (2001). The development of academic self-efficacy. In A. Wigfield & J. Eccles (Eds.), *Development of achievement motivation*. San Diego: Academic Press.

- Schunk, D. H., & Pajares, F. (2004). Self-efficacy in Education revisited. *Big theories revisited*, 4, 115.
- Schunk, D. H., & Rice, J. M. (1993). Strategy fading and progress feedback: Effects on self-efficacy and comprehension among students receiving remedial reading services. *Journal of Special Education*, 27, 257-276.
- Schunk, D. H., & Swartz, C. W. (1993). Goals and progress feedback: effects on self-efficacy and writing achievement. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 18, 337-354.
- Seo, D. (2001). Expanding a goal mediational model: the Korean elementary school math class. *Academic Exchange Quarterly*. 1-8. Retrieved February 12, 2009, from http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_hb3325/is_3_5/ai_n28877306/pg_8/?tag=content;coll
- Shell, D. F., Murphy, C. C., & Bruning, R. H. (1989). Self-efficacy and outcome expectancy mechanisms in reading and writing achievement. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 81, 91-100.
- Shmais, W. (2003). Language learning strategy use in Palestine. *TESL-EJ*, 7(2), 1-13.
- Siew, L., & Wong, M. (2005). Language Learning Strategies and Language Self-Efficacy: Investigating the Relationship in Malaysia. *Eric Journal*, 3693), 245- 269.
- Simmering M., J., Posey, C., & Piccoli, G. (2009). Computer self-efficacy and motivation to learn in a self-directed online course. *Decision Sciences Journal of Innovative Education*, 7(1), 99-121.
- Skaalvik, E. M. (1997). Issues in research on self-concept. In M. Maehr & P. R. Pintrich (Eds.), *Advances in motivation and achievement* (Vol. 10, pp. 51-97). Greenwich, CT: J AI Press.
- Skehan, P. (1989). *Individual differences in second-language learning*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Skinner, B., & Madden, M. C. (2009). Help seeking in English language learning. *ELT Journal*, 64(1), 21-31.

- Smith, P. L., & Fouad, N. A. (1999). Subject-matter specificity of self-efficacy, outcome expectancies, interests, and goals: Implications for the social cognitive model. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 46, 461-471.
- Spolsky, B. (1969). Attitudinal aspects of second language learning. *Language learning*, 19(3 - 4), 271-275.
- Spolsky, B. (1989). *Conditions for second language learning*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Stajkovic, A.D., & Luthans, F. (1998). Self-efficacy and work-related performances: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 124, 240-261.
- Stern, H. H. (1975). What can we learn from the good language learner? *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 31 (4), 304-318.
- Stern, H. H. (1978). Second Language Teaching/Learning Strategies. *Alberta Modern Language Journal*, 17(1), 38-50.
- Su, M. H., & Duo, P. C. (2012). EFL learners' language learning strategy use and perceived self- Efficacy. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 27(3), 335-345.
- Sung, H., & Padilla, A. M. (1998). Student motivation, parental attitudes, and involvement in the learning of Asian languages in elementary and secondary schools. *The Modern Language Journal*, 82(2), 205-216.
- Swalander, L., & Taube, K. (2007). Influences of family-based prerequisites, reading attitude and self-regulation on reading ability. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 32, 206-230.
- Takallou, F. (2011). The effect of metacognitive strategy instruction on EFL learners' reading comprehension performance and metacognitive awareness. *Asian EFL Journal*, 13(1), 272-300.
- Tam, K. C. H. (2013). A study on language learning strategies (LLSs) of university students in Hong Kong. *Taiwan Journal of Linguistics*, 11(2), 1-42.

- Tate, R. (1998). *An introduction to modeling outcomes in the behavioral and social Sciences*.
Edina, Minnesota: Burgess International Group, Inc.
- Teh, K. S. M., Embi, M. A., Yusoff, N. M. R. N., & Mahamod, Z. (2009). Language learning strategies and motivation among religious secondary school students. *The International Journal of Language Society and Culture*, 29, 71-79. URL: www.educ.utas.edu.au/users/tle/JOURNAL/
- Templin, S. A. (1999). The relationship between self-efficacy and language learner's grades. *JALT Journal*, 20, 1.
- Tercanlioglu, L. (2004). Exploring gender effect on adult foreign language learning strategies. *Issues in Educational Research*, 14(2), 181-193. [Electronic version]. Retrieved 15 December, 2009, from <http://www.iier.org.au/iier14/tercanlioglu.html>
- Thang, S. M., Ting, S. L., & Jaafar, N. M. (2011). Attitudes and motivation of Malaysian secondary students towards learning English as a second Language: A case study. *3L: Language, Linguistics and Literature, The Southeast Asian Journal of English Language Studies*, 17(1), 40-54.
- Tilfarlioglu, F. Y., & Ciftci, F. S. (2011). Supporting self-efficacy and learner autonomy in relation to academic success in EFL classrooms (A Case Study). *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 1(10), 1284-1294.
- Tilfarlioglu, F. T., & Cinkara, E. (2009). Self-efficacy in EFL: Differences among proficiency groups and relationship with success. *Novitas-ROYAL*, 3(2), 129-142.
- Tran, T. V. (1988). Sex differences in English language acculturation and learning strategies among Vietnamese adults aged 40 and over in the United States. *Sex Roles*, 19, 747-758.
- Tremblay, P. F., & Gardner, R. C. (1995). Expanding the motivation construct in language learning. *The Modern Language Journal*, 79(40), 505-520.

- Tremblay, P. F., Goldberg, M. P., & Gardner, R. C. (1995). *Trait and state motivation and the acquisition of Hebrew vocabulary*. The University of Western Ontario. Retrieved from <http://www.cpa.ca/cjbs/tremblay.html#abstract>.
- Tuckman, B. W. (1993). *Motivational components of college students' performance and productivity*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Atlanta, GA.
- Tuckman, B. W. (2003). The relative effectiveness of incentive motivation and prescribed learning strategy in improving college students' course performance. *Journal of Experimental Education*, 64(3), 197-210.
- Tuckman, B. W. & Abry, D. (1998). *Developing a motivational model of college achievement*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Psychological Association, San Francisco, CA.
- Ushioda, E. (1996a). Developing a dynamic concept of L2 motivation. In J. Hickey & J. Williams (Eds.) *Language, education, and society in a changing world* (239-245). Dublin, Ireland: IRAAL/Multilingual Matters LTD.
- Ushioda, E. (1996b). Language learning at university: Exploring the role of motivational thinking. In Z. Dornyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and Second Language Acquisition*, 93-126. Honolulu: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.
- Ushida, E. (2005). The role of students' attitudes and motivation in second language learning in online language courses. *CALICO Journal*, 23(1), 49-78.
- Vaezi, Z. (2008). Language learning motivation among Iranian undergraduate students. *World Applied Sciences Journal*, 5(1), 54-61.
- Valentine, J. C., DuBois, D. L., & Cooper, H. (2004). The relation between self-beliefs and academic achievement: A meta-analytic review. *Educational Psychologist*, 39, 111-133.

- Vandergrift, L. (1997). The comprehension strategies of second language (French) listeners: A descriptive study. *Foreign Language Annals*, 30, 388-409.
- Vansteenkiste, M., Lens, W., & Deci, E. L. (2006). Intrinsic versus extrinsic goal contents in self determination theory: Another look at the quality of academic motivation. *Educational Psychologist*, 41(1), 19-31.
- Velayutham, S., & Aldridge, J. M. (2013). Influence of psychosocial classroom environment on students' motivation and self-regulation in science learning: A structural equation modeling approach. *Research in Science Education*, 43, 507-527.
- Walker, B. 1. (2003). The cultivation of student self-efficacy in reading and writing. *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, 19, 173-187.
- 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.
- Wang, F. X. (2008). Motivation and English achievement: An exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis of a new measure for Chinese students of English learning. *North American Journal of Psychology*, 10(3), 633-646.
- Wang, C., & Pape, S. J. (2002). Self-efficacy and self-regulation in learning English as a second language. In S. Horner (Chair), *The value of developing self-regulatory practices across academic domains and educational levels*. Symposium conducted at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, LA.
- Wang, C., & Pape, S. J. (2007). A probe into three Chinese boys' self-Efficacy beliefs learning English as a second language. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education*, 21(4), 364-377.
- Wang, J., Spenser, K., & Xing, M. (2009). Metacognitive beliefs and strategies in learning Chinese as a foreign language. *System*, 37, 46-56.

- Webb, D. & Pitt, L. (2003). An analysis of service provider versus customer perceptions of market orientation and the impact on satisfaction. *European Journal of Marketing*, 37, 197-218.
- Weger, H. D. (2013). Examining English language learning motivation of adult international learners studying abroad in the US. *RELC Journal*, 44(1), 87-101.
- Wei, M. (2007). The interrelatedness of affective factors in EFL learning: An examination of motivational patterns in relation to anxiety in China. *TESL-EJ*, 11(1), 1-23.
- Weiner, B. (1979). A theory of motivation for some classroom experiences. *Journal of educational psychology*, 71(1), 3.
- Weiner, B. (1984). Principles for a theory of student motivation and their application within an attributional framework. In R. Ames & C. Ames (Eds.), *Research on Motivation in Education* (Vol.1, pp. 15-38). New York: Academic Press, Inc.
- Weiner, B. (2000). Interpersonal and intrapersonal theories of motivation from an attributional perspective. *Educational Psychology Review*, 12, 1–14.
- Weinstein, C. E., & Mayer, R. E. (1986). The teaching of learning strategies. In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (pp. 315-327). New York: Macmillan.
- Weinstein, C. E., & Underwood, U. L. (1985). Learning strategies: The how of learning. In J. W. Segal, S. F. Chipman, & P. Glaser (Eds.), *Thinking and learning skills: Relating instruction to research* (vol.1, pp. 241-258). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Wen, Q., & Johnson, R. K. (1997). L2 learner variables and English achievement: A study of tertiary-level English majors in China. *Applied Linguistics*, 18(1), 27-48.
- Wenden, A.L. (1986). Helping language learners think about learning. *English Language Teaching Journal*, 40, 3-12.
- Wenden, A. (1987). How to be a successful language learner: Insights and prescriptions from L2 learners. In A. Wenden & J. Rubin (Eds.), *Learner strategies in language learning*. (pp. 103-118). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice/Hall International.

- Wenden, A. L (1999). Developing Autonomous Learners: New Role for Second Language Teachers in the 21st Century. In M. A. Kassen (Ed). *Language Learners of Tomorrow: Process and Promise*. IL, National Textbook Co.
- Wenden, A., & Rubin, J. (1987). *Learning strategies in language learning*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Wesely, P. M. (2009). *The language learning motivation of early adolescent French and Spanish elementary immersion program graduates*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Minnesota.
- Wharton, G. (1997). Language learning strategy use in a multilingual setting: A study of university students of Japanese and French in Singapore. Unpublished doctoral dissertation . Austin. University of Texas.
- Wharton, G. (2000). Language learning strategy use of bilingual foreign language learners in Singapore. *Language Learning*, 50(2), 203-243.
- Wigfield, A., & Guthrie, J. T. (1997). Relations of children's motivation for reading to the amount and breadth of their reading. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 89(3), 420-432.
- Wigfield, A., Tonk, S., & Eccles, J. (2004). Expectancy-value theory in cross-cultural perspective. In D. McInerney & S. van Etten (Eds.), *Research on Sociocultural Influences on Motivation and Learning*, Vol 4: big theories revisited (165-98). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishers.
- Williams, M., & Burden, R. L. (1997). *Psychology for language teachers: A social constructivist approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Williams, M., Burden, R. L., & Al-Baharna, S. (2001). Making sense of success and failure: The role of the individual in motivation theory. In Z. Dörnyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition* (Vol. 23, pp. 171-184). Honolulu: University of Hawai'i, Second Language Teaching & Curriculum Center.

- Williams, M., Burden, R., & Lanvers, U. (2002). French is the language of love and stuff: Student perceptions of issues related to motivation in learning a foreign language. *British Educational Research Journal*, 28(4), 503-527.
- Wolters, C. A. (2003). Understanding procrastination from a self-regulated learning perspective. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 95(1), 179-87.
- Wolters, C. A., & Pintrich, P.R. (1998). Contextual differences in student motivation and self regulated learning in mathematics, English, and social studies classrooms. *Instructional Science*, 26, 27-47.
- Wolters, C. A., & Rosenthal, H. (2000). The relation between students' motivational beliefs and their use of motivational regulation strategies'. *International Journal of Educational Psychology*, 33, 801-820.
- Wong, M. S.-L. (2005). Language learning strategies and language self-Efficacy: Investigating the relationship in Malaysia. *Regional Language Centre Journal*, 36(3), 245-269.
- Wu, P. (2006). *The effects of goal orientation, self-efficacy, and cognitive/metacognitive self-regulatory strategy use on EFL college students' course achievement*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Southern California.
- Wu, X., Lowyck, J., Sercu, L., & Elen, J. (2012). Self-efficacy, task complexity and task performance: Exploring interactions in two versions of vocabulary learning tasks. *Learning Environ Res*, 15, 17-35.
- Yang, H.-C., & Plakans, L. (2012). Second language writers' strategy use and performance on an integrated reading-listening-writing task. *TESOL Quarterly*, 46(1), 80-103.
- Yang, M. N. (2007). Language Learning Strategies for Junior College Students in Taiwan: Investigating Ethnicity and Proficiency. *The Asian EFL Journal*, 9(2), 35-57. Retrieved December 11, 2009, from <http://www.asian-efl-journal.com>

- Yang, N. D. (1992). Second language learners' beliefs about language learning and their use of learning strategies: A study of college students of English in Taiwan. PhD. Diss., University of Texas, Austin.
- Yang, N. D. (1999). The relationship between EFL learners' beliefs and learning strategy use. *System*, 27(4), 515-535.
- Yeon, S., & Baik, Y. (2006). *Examining unsuccessful language learners: Motivation and learning strategy*. Paper presented at the American Council of Teachers of Foreign Languages Annual Conference.
- Yilmaz, C. (2010). The relationship between language learning strategies, gender, proficiency and self-efficacy beliefs: a study of ELT learners in Turkey. *Procedia Social and Behavioural*, 2, 682-687.
- Yin, C. (2008). *Language learning strategies in relation to attitudes, motivations and learner beliefs: Investigating learner variables in the context of English as a foreign language in China*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Maryland, College Park.
- Yin, C., & Oxford, R. L. (2004). *University EFL students' strategy use in the new millennium: A study in the Chinese context*. Paper presented at the 2nd Asia TEFL International Conference, Seoul, Korea.
- Young, D. J. & Oxford, R. (1997). A gender-related analysis of strategies used to process written input in the native language and a foreign language. *Applied Language Learning*, 8 (1), 43-73.
- Yu, L. (2003). Learning strategies and their relationship to listening comprehension- a report on non-English majors in a medical university in China. *Teaching English in Cina*, 26(4), 3-11.
- Yu, X. (2007). A survey on the relationship between learning beliefs and learning strategies. *US-China Education Review*, 4 (1), 58-61.

- Yuan, K.-H. (2005). Fit indices versus test statistics. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 40(1), 115-148.
- Yuanfang, Y. (2009). A study of foreign language learning motivation and achievement: From a perspective of sociocultural theory. *CELEA Journal*, 32(3), 87-97.
- Zairi, Z. A. (1996). *The attitudes of vocational school students regarding their learning of English and their achievement in English as measured by the national examination*. Unpublished MA Thesis, University of Houston.
- Zeldin, A. L., Britner, S. L., & Pajares, F. (2008). A comparative study of self-efficacy beliefs of successful men and women in mathematics, science, and technology careers. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 45(9), 1036-1058.
- Zhang, W. (1995). *A study on Chinese secondary school EFL students' strategy use and motivation for language learning*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Ohio University.
- Zimmerman, B. J. (1989). A social cognitive view of self-regulated academic learning. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 81, 329-339.
- Zimmerman, B. J. (2000). Self-efficacy: An essential motive to learn. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25(1), 82-91.
- Zimmerman, B. J., & Bandura, A. (1994). Impact of self-regulatory influences on writing course attainment. *American Educational Research Journal*, 31(4), 845-862.
- Zimmerman, B. J., Bandura, A., & Martinez-Pons, M. (1992). Self-motivation for academic attainment: The role of self-efficacy beliefs and personal goal setting. *American Educational Research Journal*, 29, 663-676.
- 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, 51-59.
- Zubairi, A. M., & Sarudin, I. (2009). Motivation to learn a foreign language in Malaysia. *GEMA Online Journal of Language Studies*, 9 (2), 73-87.

APPENDIX A

Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB)

Part 1: Name:

1. Gender: Male Female

2. Age:

3. What is the highest grade or year of school you completed?

Part 2: Following are a number of statements with which some people agree and others disagree. Please circle one alternative below each statement according to the amount of your agreement or disagreement with that item. The following sample item will serve to illustrate the basic procedure.

a. Spanish football players are much better than Brazilian football players.

Strongly	Moderately	Slightly	Slightly	Moderately	Strongly
Disagree	Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Agree	Agree

In answering this question, you should have circled one alternative. Some people would have circled "Strongly Disagree", others would have circled "Strongly Agree", while others would have circled any of the alternatives in between. Which one you choose would indicate your own feeling based on everything you know and have heard.

Note: there is no right or wrong answer.

1. I wish I could speak many foreign languages perfectly.

Strongly	Moderately	Slightly	Slightly	Moderately	Strongly
Disagree	Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Agree	Agree

2. I don't pay much attention to the feedback I receive in my English class.

Strongly	Moderately	Slightly	Slightly	Moderately	Strongly
Disagree	Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Agree	Agree

3. I look forward to going to class because my English teacher is so good.

Strongly	Moderately	Slightly	Slightly	Moderately	Strongly
Disagree	Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Agree	Agree

4. Learning English is really great.
 Strongly Disagree Moderately Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Moderately Agree Strongly Agree
5. If Japan had no contact with English-speaking countries, it would be a great loss.
 Strongly Disagree Moderately Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Moderately Agree Strongly Agree
6. Studying English is important because it will allow me to be more at ease with people who speak English.
 Strongly Disagree Moderately Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Moderately Agree Strongly Agree
7. I have a strong desire to know all aspects of English.
 Strongly Disagree Moderately Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Moderately Agree Strongly Agree
8. My English class is really a waste of time.
 Strongly Disagree Moderately Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Moderately Agree Strongly Agree
9. Studying foreign languages is not enjoyable.
 Strongly Disagree Moderately Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Moderately Agree Strongly Agree
10. I make a point of trying to understand all the English I see and hear.
 Strongly Disagree Moderately Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Moderately Agree Strongly Agree
11. I don't think my English teacher is very good.
 Strongly Disagree Moderately Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Moderately Agree Strongly Agree
12. Knowing English isn't really an important goal in my life.
 Strongly Disagree Moderately Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Moderately Agree Strongly Agree
13. I hate English.
 Strongly Disagree Moderately Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Moderately Agree Strongly Agree
14. I would rather spend more time in my English class and less in other classes.
 Strongly Disagree Moderately Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Moderately Agree Strongly Agree
15. I wish I could read newspapers and magazines in many foreign languages.
 Strongly Disagree Moderately Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Moderately Agree Strongly Agree
16. I don't bother checking my assignments when I get them back from my English teacher.
 Strongly Disagree Moderately Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Moderately Agree Strongly Agree

- | | | | | | | |
|--|----------|----------|----------|-------|-------|-------|
| | Disagree | Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Agree | Agree |
|--|----------|----------|----------|-------|-------|-------|
17. My English teacher is better than any of my other teachers.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|------------|----------|----------|------------|----------|
| Strongly | Moderately | Slightly | Slightly | Moderately | Strongly |
| Disagree | Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Agree | Agree |
18. I really enjoy learning English.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|------------|----------|----------|------------|----------|
| Strongly | Moderately | Slightly | Slightly | Moderately | Strongly |
| Disagree | Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Agree | Agree |
19. Most native English speakers are so friendly and easy to get along with, we are fortunate to have them as friends.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|------------|----------|----------|------------|----------|
| Strongly | Moderately | Slightly | Slightly | Moderately | Strongly |
| Disagree | Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Agree | Agree |
20. Studying English is important because it will allow me to meet and converse with more and varied people.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|------------|----------|----------|------------|----------|
| Strongly | Moderately | Slightly | Slightly | Moderately | Strongly |
| Disagree | Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Agree | Agree |
21. If it were up to me, I would spend all of my time learning English.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|------------|----------|----------|------------|----------|
| Strongly | Moderately | Slightly | Slightly | Moderately | Strongly |
| Disagree | Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Agree | Agree |
22. I think my English class is boring.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|------------|----------|----------|------------|----------|
| Strongly | Moderately | Slightly | Slightly | Moderately | Strongly |
| Disagree | Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Agree | Agree |
23. I really have no interest in foreign languages.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|------------|----------|----------|------------|----------|
| Strongly | Moderately | Slightly | Slightly | Moderately | Strongly |
| Disagree | Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Agree | Agree |
24. I keep up to date with English by working on it almost every day.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|------------|----------|----------|------------|----------|
| Strongly | Moderately | Slightly | Slightly | Moderately | Strongly |
| Disagree | Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Agree | Agree |
25. The less I see of my English teacher, the better.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|------------|----------|----------|------------|----------|
| Strongly | Moderately | Slightly | Slightly | Moderately | Strongly |
| Disagree | Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Agree | Agree |
26. I sometimes daydream about dropping English.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|------------|----------|----------|------------|----------|
| Strongly | Moderately | Slightly | Slightly | Moderately | Strongly |
| Disagree | Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Agree | Agree |
27. I would rather spend my time on subjects other than English.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|------------|----------|----------|------------|----------|
| Strongly | Moderately | Slightly | Slightly | Moderately | Strongly |
| Disagree | Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Agree | Agree |
28. I wish I could have many native English speaking friends.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|------------|----------|----------|------------|----------|
| Strongly | Moderately | Slightly | Slightly | Moderately | Strongly |
| Disagree | Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Agree | Agree |

29. I enjoy the activities of our English class much more than those of my other classes.
 Strongly Disagree Moderately Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Moderately Agree Strongly Agree
30. I would really like to learn many foreign languages.
 Strongly Disagree Moderately Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Moderately Agree Strongly Agree
31. I put off my English homework as much as possible.
 Strongly Disagree Moderately Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Moderately Agree Strongly Agree
32. My English teacher has a dynamic and interesting teaching style.
 Strongly Disagree Moderately Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Moderately Agree Strongly Agree
33. English is a very important part of the school programme.
 Strongly Disagree Moderately Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Moderately Agree Strongly Agree
34. Native English speakers are very sociable and kind.
 Strongly Disagree Moderately Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Moderately Agree Strongly Agree
35. Studying English is important because it will enable me to better understand and appreciate the English way of life.
 Strongly Disagree Moderately Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Moderately Agree Strongly Agree
36. I want to learn English so well that it will become natural to me.
 Strongly Disagree Moderately Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Moderately Agree Strongly Agree
37. To be honest, I really have little interest in my English class.
 Strongly Disagree Moderately Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Moderately Agree Strongly Agree
38. Native English speakers have much to be proud about because they have given the world much of value.
 Strongly Disagree Moderately Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Moderately Agree Strongly Agree
39. It is not important for us to learn foreign languages.
 Strongly Disagree Moderately Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Moderately Agree Strongly Agree
40. When I have a problem understanding something in my English class, I always ask my teacher for help.
 Strongly Disagree Moderately Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Moderately Agree Strongly Agree
41. My English teacher is one of the least pleasant people I know.

- | | | | | | | |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
| | Strongly
Disagree | Moderately
Disagree | Slightly
Disagree | Slightly
Agree | Moderately
Agree | Strongly
Agree |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
42. I'm losing any desire I ever had to know English.
- | | | | | | | |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
| | Strongly
Disagree | Moderately
Disagree | Slightly
Disagree | Slightly
Agree | Moderately
Agree | Strongly
Agree |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
43. Learning English is a waste of time.
- | | | | | | | |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
| | Strongly
Disagree | Moderately
Disagree | Slightly
Disagree | Slightly
Agree | Moderately
Agree | Strongly
Agree |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
44. I like my English class so much, I look forward to studying more English in the future.
- | | | | | | | |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
| | Strongly
Disagree | Moderately
Disagree | Slightly
Disagree | Slightly
Agree | Moderately
Agree | Strongly
Agree |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
45. If I planned to stay in another country, I would try to learn their language.
- | | | | | | | |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
| | Strongly
Disagree | Moderately
Disagree | Slightly
Disagree | Slightly
Agree | Moderately
Agree | Strongly
Agree |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
46. I tend to give up and not pay attention when I don't understand my English teacher's explanation of something.
- | | | | | | | |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
| | Strongly
Disagree | Moderately
Disagree | Slightly
Disagree | Slightly
Agree | Moderately
Agree | Strongly
Agree |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
47. My English teacher is a great source of inspiration to me.
- | | | | | | | |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
| | Strongly
Disagree | Moderately
Disagree | Slightly
Disagree | Slightly
Agree | Moderately
Agree | Strongly
Agree |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
48. I plan to learn as much English as possible.
- | | | | | | | |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
| | Strongly
Disagree | Moderately
Disagree | Slightly
Disagree | Slightly
Agree | Moderately
Agree | Strongly
Agree |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
49. I would like to know more native English speakers.
- | | | | | | | |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
| | Strongly
Disagree | Moderately
Disagree | Slightly
Disagree | Slightly
Agree | Moderately
Agree | Strongly
Agree |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
50. Studying English is important because I will be able to interact more easily with speakers of English.
- | | | | | | | |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
| | Strongly
Disagree | Moderately
Disagree | Slightly
Disagree | Slightly
Agree | Moderately
Agree | Strongly
Agree |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
51. I would like to learn as much English as possible.
- | | | | | | | |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
| | Strongly
Disagree | Moderately
Disagree | Slightly
Disagree | Slightly
Agree | Moderately
Agree | Strongly
Agree |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
52. To be honest, I don't like my English class.
- | | | | | | | |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
| | Strongly
Disagree | Moderately
Disagree | Slightly
Disagree | Slightly
Agree | Moderately
Agree | Strongly
Agree |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
53. Most foreign languages sound crude and harsh.
- | | | | | | | |
|--|----------|------------|----------|----------|------------|----------|
| | Strongly | Moderately | Slightly | Slightly | Moderately | Strongly |
|--|----------|------------|----------|----------|------------|----------|

- | | | | | | | |
|--|----------|----------|----------|-------|-------|-------|
| | Disagree | Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Agree | Agree |
|--|----------|----------|----------|-------|-------|-------|
54. I really work hard to learn English.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|------------|----------|----------|------------|----------|
| Strongly | Moderately | Slightly | Slightly | Moderately | Strongly |
| Disagree | Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Agree | Agree |
55. I would prefer to have a different English teacher.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|------------|----------|----------|------------|----------|
| Strongly | Moderately | Slightly | Slightly | Moderately | Strongly |
| Disagree | Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Agree | Agree |
56. To be honest, I really have no desire to learn English.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|------------|----------|----------|------------|----------|
| Strongly | Moderately | Slightly | Slightly | Moderately | Strongly |
| Disagree | Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Agree | Agree |
57. I think that learning English is dull.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|------------|----------|----------|------------|----------|
| Strongly | Moderately | Slightly | Slightly | Moderately | Strongly |
| Disagree | Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Agree | Agree |
58. I look forward to the time I spend in English class.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|------------|----------|----------|------------|----------|
| Strongly | Moderately | Slightly | Slightly | Moderately | Strongly |
| Disagree | Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Agree | Agree |
59. I enjoy meeting people who speak foreign languages.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|------------|----------|----------|------------|----------|
| Strongly | Moderately | Slightly | Slightly | Moderately | Strongly |
| Disagree | Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Agree | Agree |
60. I can't be bothered trying to understand the more complex aspects of English.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|------------|----------|----------|------------|----------|
| Strongly | Moderately | Slightly | Slightly | Moderately | Strongly |
| Disagree | Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Agree | Agree |
61. I really like my English teacher.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|------------|----------|----------|------------|----------|
| Strongly | Moderately | Slightly | Slightly | Moderately | Strongly |
| Disagree | Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Agree | Agree |
62. I love learning English.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|------------|----------|----------|------------|----------|
| Strongly | Moderately | Slightly | Slightly | Moderately | Strongly |
| Disagree | Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Agree | Agree |
63. The more I get to know native English speakers, the more I like them.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|------------|----------|----------|------------|----------|
| Strongly | Moderately | Slightly | Slightly | Moderately | Strongly |
| Disagree | Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Agree | Agree |
64. I wish I were fluent in English.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|------------|----------|----------|------------|----------|
| Strongly | Moderately | Slightly | Slightly | Moderately | Strongly |
| Disagree | Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Agree | Agree |
65. I have a hard time thinking of anything positive about my English class.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|------------|----------|----------|------------|----------|
| Strongly | Moderately | Slightly | Slightly | Moderately | Strongly |
| Disagree | Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Agree | Agree |
66. I would rather see a TV program dubbed into our language than in its own language with subtitles.

- | | | | | | | |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
| | Strongly
Disagree | Moderately
Disagree | Slightly
Disagree | Slightly
Agree | Moderately
Agree | Strongly
Agree |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
67. When I am studying English, I ignore distractions and pay attention to my task.
- | | | | | | | |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
| | Strongly
Disagree | Moderately
Disagree | Slightly
Disagree | Slightly
Agree | Moderately
Agree | Strongly
Agree |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
68. My English teacher doesn't present materials in an interesting way.
- | | | | | | | |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
| | Strongly
Disagree | Moderately
Disagree | Slightly
Disagree | Slightly
Agree | Moderately
Agree | Strongly
Agree |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
69. I haven't any great wish to learn more than the basics of English.
- | | | | | | | |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
| | Strongly
Disagree | Moderately
Disagree | Slightly
Disagree | Slightly
Agree | Moderately
Agree | Strongly
Agree |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
70. When I leave school, I will give up the study of English because I am not interested in it.
- | | | | | | | |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
| | Strongly
Disagree | Moderately
Disagree | Slightly
Disagree | Slightly
Agree | Moderately
Agree | Strongly
Agree |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
71. English is one of my favorite courses.
- | | | | | | | |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
| | Strongly
Disagree | Moderately
Disagree | Slightly
Disagree | Slightly
Agree | Moderately
Agree | Strongly
Agree |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
72. You can always trust native English speakers.
- | | | | | | | |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
| | Strongly
Disagree | Moderately
Disagree | Slightly
Disagree | Slightly
Agree | Moderately
Agree | Strongly
Agree |
|--|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|

APPENDIX B

The Self-efficacy Questionnaire (SEQ)

Name:

Male female

Age:

Directions: On a scale from 0 (no chance) to 100 (completely certain), how confident are you that you can perform each of the following skills?

You may use any number between 0 and 100.

no chance					fair chance					Completely Certain
0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100

1. I can correctly spell all words when writing a one-page passage with medium difficulty.
2. I am able to correctly punctuate a one-page passage with medium difficulty.
3. I can correctly use parts of speech (i.e., nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc.) when I'm writing.
4. I can write a simple sentence with proper punctuation and grammatical structure.
5. I can correctly use plurals, verb tenses, prefixes, and suffixes in my writing.
6. I can write compound and complex sentences with proper punctuation and grammatical structure.
7. I am able to organize sentences into a paragraph so as to clearly express a theme.

8. I can write a complete term paper with good overall organization (e.g., ideas in order, effective transitions, etc.).
9. When reading a passage aloud, I can correctly pronounce all words.
10. I am able to read aloud a dialog with correct intonation.
11. When I'm speaking, I can correctly use nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc.
12. I am able to say a simple sentence with correct pronunciation, intonation and grammar.
13. I can correctly use plurals, verb tenses, prefixes, and suffixes in my speech.
14. I can produce compound and complex sentences with proper pronunciation, intonation and grammatical structure when I'm speaking.
15. I can speak for a few minutes in such a way to clearly express my idea.
16. I can give a lecture with a good ordering of ideas, and use of transitional signals.
17. I can correctly differentiate British pronunciation from American pronunciation.
18. I can correctly identify good pronunciation from poor pronunciation.
19. I can completely understand a simple and short radio program on a non-specialized topic.
20. When I listen to people talk, I can identify their correct or incorrect use of nouns, verbs, and adjectives.
21. I can realize if the person who is talking has correct pronunciation and intonation, and whether that person is using proper grammar in his/her speech.
22. When I listen to English, I can correctly understand plurals, verb tenses, prefixes, and suffixes.

23. I can follow and understand long and complex sentences with proper pronunciation, intonation, and grammatical structure.
24. I am able to relate sentences of a lecture or radio program together to understand the main idea.
25. I can identify whether someone's speech has good overall organization (e.g., ideas in order, effective transitions, etc.)
26. When I'm reading, I can correctly recognize correct or misspelled words in a one-page passage.
27. I can accurately tell correct punctuation from incorrect pronunciation in a one-page passage.
28. When I read a sentence, I can identify the parts of speech (i.e., nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc.) correctly.
29. I am able to read and comprehend a short sentence when the punctuation and grammatical structure are correct.
30. When I'm reading, I am able to identify whether the writer has used plurals, verb tenses, prefixes, and suffixes correctly.
31. I can read long and difficult sentences and understand if their punctuation and grammar is correct.
32. I can understand if a writer has organized sentences into a paragraph clearly enough to express a theme.
33. I am able to tell a well organized reading passage from a poorly organized one.
34. I can use good sentences to start or end an essay.
35. I can write different kinds of essays (narrative, descriptive, explanatory, etc.).
36. I can start a new conversation on a topic I like.

37. I can use idioms in their correct places in my speech or writing.
38. I can understand the meaning of idioms when I hear or read them.
39. I am able to continue a conversation somebody else has started.
40. When I don't want to continue a conversation, I can end it successfully.

University of Malaya

APPENDIX C

The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

Name: Age: Male Female

Please grade each statement according to this scale:

- 1= Never or almost never true of me
- 2= Usually not true of me
- 3= Somewhat true of me
- 4= Usually true of me
- 5= Always or almost always true of me

1. I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.
2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.
3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.
4. I remember a new English word by making a mental image of the situation in which the word might be used.
5. I use rhymes to remember new English words.
6. I use flash cards to remember new English words.
7. I physically act out new English words.

8. I review English lessons often.
9. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board or on a street sign.
10. I say or write new English words several times.
11. I try to talk like native speakers.
12. I practice the sounds of English.
13. I use the English words I know in different ways.
14. I start conversation in English.
15. I watch English language TV shows (spoken in English) or go to English movies (spoken in English).
16. I read for pleasure in English.
17. I first skim an English passage--read over the passage quickly--then go back and read carefully.
18. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.
19. I write notes, messages or reports in English.
20. I try to find patterns in English.
21. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.
22. I try not to translate word for word.
23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.
24. I make guesses to understand familiar English words.
25. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.
26. I make up new words if I don't know the right ones in English.

27. I read English without looking up every new word.
28. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.
29. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.
30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.
31. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.
32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.
33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.
34. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.
35. I look for people I can talk to in English.
36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.
37. I have clear goals for learning English.
38. I think about my progress in English.
39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.
40. I encourage myself to speak English even when I'm afraid of making a mistake.
41. I give myself a reward when I do well in English.
42. I notice if I am tense and nervous when I'm studying or using English.
43. I write a learning diary to record my progress in English.
44. I talk about my feelings related to my learning English.
45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.
46. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.

47. I ask for help from English speakers.

48. I ask questions in English.

49. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.

50. I practice my English with others.

University of Malaya