



The Relationship between Language Learning Strategies and Metacognitive and Motivational Self-regulated Learning: The Case of Persian as a Second Language (PSL) Learners

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Extended Abstract:

There is little doubt that learning a language is a challenging task. In the case of languages such as Persian, which do not enjoy the status of an international language and, consequently, the extensive investment of international agencies, the task of learning appears to be even thornier. To overcome this thorny task, language learners need to be quite motivated and self-regulated. The underlying assumption behind the present study was that some of the language learning strategies that language learners employ might be more strongly connected with their motivational and self-regulated learning. Therefore, the aim of the present study was to investigate language learning strategy use of Persian as Second Language (PSL) learners as predictors of their meta-cognitive and motivational self-regulated learning components.

To this end, a sample of 149 male and female B.A level non-Iranian learners of Persian at Imam Khomeini International University in Qazvin, Iran were selected through convenience sampling based on availability. The selected participants were then asked to fill in two questionnaires including the translated version of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) and the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ). The participants were required to answer the questionnaire by choosing the right alternative from among five choices on a Likert type scale. The collected data were summarized, processed and analyzed using four separate stepwise multiple regression analyses. To see how strong the relationship between the meta-cognitive self-regulated learning and each of the predictors is, the unstandardized as well as standardized coefficients of the three models, along with the observed t-values and significance levels were checked. The results showed that, from among the language learning strategies, cognitive, compensation, and meta-cognitive strategies could make significant contribution to predicting meta-cognitive

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self-regulated learning. Moreover, meta-cognitive, memory, and affective strategies turned out to be significant predictors of task value. Meanwhile, meta-cognitive strategies and task value shared about 18%, and meta-cognitive and memory strategies together shared over 25% of variance with task value. Meta-cognitive, memory, and affective strategies collectively accounted for about 27% of the total variance with task value. The findings also showed significant relationships between meta-cognitive strategies and control of learning beliefs. In fact, meta-cognitive strategies entered into the regression equation as the single predictor of control of learning beliefs and meta-cognitive strategies and control of learning beliefs shared over 8% of variance. It also turned out that for every one standard deviation of change in meta-cognitive strategies score, there was .30 of a standard deviation change in the control of learning beliefs score. In addition, to examine the relationship between types of language learning strategies and test anxiety as a component of motivational self-regulated learning, another stepwise multiple regression procedure was used. Based on the results, the single negative predictor of test anxiety was compensation strategies. The result further indicated that for every one standard deviation change in one's compensation strategies, there will be .23 of a standard deviation negative change in one's test anxiety.

These findings may have theoretical and pedagogical implications for language learners, teachers, and syllabus designers. If teachers and materials developers are cognizant of the nature of the relationships between meta-cognitive and motivational self-regulated learning components and language learning strategy use, they will be better prepared to make more informed decisions about introducing and encouraging the use of certain types of strategies (and probably discouraging the use of certain other less productive or counterproductive strategies) in the classroom, or about using useful instructional books and materials to encourage students to use those language learning strategies which have predictive power on meta-cognitive and motivational self-regulated learning components (task value, control of learning beliefs, and test anxiety). By designing the right kind of materials and adopting the right kinds of teaching activities (which require the students' use of certain strategies), materials developers and teachers may be able to contribute to improving learners' motivation and self-regulation, and by so doing, help improve learners' achievements. The knowledge of how language learning strategies are related to metacognitive and motivational self-regulated learning can also help learners become more self-regulated and motivated. If they know that certain learning strategies are closely connected with being motivated and self-regulated, they will be more open and receptive to those strategies and will avoid resisting to use those strategies. Alternatively, they may come to the realization that some strategies are not very useful in this regard, and that they should not be overused.

Keywords: Language learning strategies, Metacognitive self-regulated learning, Motivational self-regulated learning, Persian as a second language

1. Introduction

There is little denial of the fact that teaching people to catch fish is a more effective help in the long run than simply giving them fish. That is why helping learners to become self-regulated has been a long-standing concern of many teaching practitioners. The trouble is such things are more easily said than done. What makes language learners more self-regulated is not clearly known. One possible way to make learners become more self-regulated is by encouraging them to use the right type of language learning strategies (LLS) (Zarei&Gilanian, 2014a). This, in turn, requires a clear understanding of how LLS are connected to self-regulated learning (SRL). The knowledge of how these two variables are connected can help teachers to make more informed decisions about which strategies to encourage their students to use. Therefore, the main problem this study is concerned with is to find out which of the already identified LLS are more strongly related to SRL.

Although several studies have already been carried out separately on both language learning strategies (Green & Oxford, 1995; Oxford, 1990) and self-regulated learning (Schraw, Crippen & Hartley, 2006; Zarei&Hatami, 2012), there appears to be a shortage of research on how LLS can predict learners' performance the components of SRL including test anxiety, task value, MSRL, and control of learning beliefs. This paucity of research is more specifically noticed in the case of learners of Persian as a Second Language (PSL). The main goal of this study was to address this gap. It addressed the following questions:

1. Are there any meaningful differences among LLSs as predictors of PSL learners' MSRL?
2. Are there any meaningful differences among LLSs as predictors of PSL learners' task value?
3. Are there any meaningful differences among LLSs as predictors of PSL learners' learning beliefs?
4. Are there any meaningful differences among LLSs as predictors of PSL learners' test anxiety?

2. Literature Review

2.1. Theoretical Background

Self-regulated learning (SRL) has been defined as the learners' ability to understand the surrounding environment during the learning process (Schraw, et al., 2006). According to Zimmerman (2000), motivation, meta-cognition, and cognition are among the three necessary self-regulation components. Pintrich, et al. (1993) point out that LRL includes learning strategies as well as motivational

self-regulation. Motivational self-regulation (MSR) is divided into both extrinsic and intrinsic goal orientation, learning beliefs, task value, test anxiety, and learning self-efficacy. Learning strategies are also divided into meta-cognitive and cognitive strategies, and resource management. Moreover, resource management is further divided into peer learning, environmental management, help seeking, and effort management. Finally, cognitive self-regulation is said to include organization, critical thinking, elaboration and rehearsal.

2.1.1 Metacognitive self-regulated learning (MSRL)

According to Babbs and Moe (1983), metacognitive strategies can be described as 'thinking about thinking'. They are strategies which show the way every person analyzes his/her personal habits of thinking. Schraw and Moshman (1995) opine that metacognition includes cognition regulation and knowledge of cognition. Diener and Dweck (1978), Nolen (1988), and Wenden (1987) consider monitoring, planning, revising, evaluating and regulating as the different components of MSRL. In their view, monitoring activities consist of those that are used to regulating one's own learning (Pintrich et al., 1991; Pressley & Ghatala, 1990). They also believe that planning consists of such activities as setting a goal, activating one's background knowledge, and analyzing the task (McKeachie et al., 1986). Evaluation and regulation strategies are used to regulate the learning process of a person and to help them adjust their mental activities in order to achieve the desired learning objectives (Pintrich, 1999)

2.1.2 Motivational self-regulation (MSR)

One of the components of SRL is motivation. It is actually how strongly students believe in their own ability to succeed in their academic career (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007; Nicholls, 1984). Motivation has two components including epistemological beliefs and self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). Epistemological beliefs are somehow the essence of one's knowledge (Schommer, 1994), and self-efficacy enables students to achieve challenging objectives (Pajares, 1996). According to Pintrich (1989), motivation can have three components consisting of value, expectancy, and affect. The component of value refers to the type of motivation that leads learners to engage themselves in learning activities. The expectancy component focuses enables students to accomplish a task by focusing on their beliefs (Duncan & McKeachie, 2005). The affect component has to do with how the learners respond to test anxiety. According to Pintrich, et al. (1993), the subcomponents of motivational scales include 'test anxiety', learning beliefs control', and 'task value'.

Test anxiety refers to a psychological state that a person experiences while taking a test (Zeidner, 1998). According to the previous literature (Bandalos, et al., 2003; Everson et al., 1991; McKeachie et al., 2004; Pajares &

Miller, 1994; VanZile-Tamsen & Livingston, 1999), students who experience anxiety during tests may not be able to use their self-regulated strategies properly under pressure. As a consequence, their performance may be negatively affected. Several studies have investigated different aspects of test anxiety (Cassady & Johnson, 2002; Morris, et al., 1981; Sarason, 1984; Unruh & Lowe, 2010). Test anxiety has an emotional dimension; this has to do with the psychological reaction of learners to a test (Spielberger & Vagg, 1995). According to Deffenbacher (1980), there may also be a physical reaction which could appear in various ways including increased heartbeat, a feeling of panic, dizziness, etc. Another aspect of test anxiety is 'Worry', which associated with the cognitive aspect of anxiety (Hong, 1998; Lufi et al., 2004; Sharma & Sud, 1990). According to Hembree (1988), this means that students who are cognitively anxious have a natural tendency to compare themselves with others. As a result, they are usually worried about failure and feel that they are not prepared for tests.

Learning beliefs control has to do with learners' personal beliefs in their own learning process. It is generally believed that an individual's control over their learning beliefs has the potential to play a big role in shaping the person's achievement (McKeachie et al., 1986).

Several researchers including Eccles et al. (1984), Schunk (1991), Wigfield (1994), Wigfield and Eccles (2000), and Eccles and Wigfield (2002) have pointed out that task value is related to how significant and useful and cost-effective learners believe a task is. Moreover, it has been claimed that those learners who regard a task as highly significant and useful normally use a wider range of strategies (both metacognitive and cognitive) than those who do not attach a great value to the task (McWhaw & Abrami, 2001; Pokay & Blumenfeld, 1990). The four constructs that are believed to underly task value include intrinsic, attainment, and utility value, as well as the perceived cost (Battle & Wigfield, 2003). Intrinsic and attainment values have to do with the level of interest an individual has in doing an assigned task and the perceived importance of successfully accomplishing that task, respectively. Utility value is associated with how conducive a task is to fulfilling future objectives. And finally, perceived cost is defined as the learner's attempt (both affective and cognitive) to successfully perform a task.

2.1.3 Language Learning Strategies

Weinstein and Mayer (1986) define learning strategies (LS) as the learners' behaviour that help them to accomplish the learning task. Several studies (e.g. Bremner, 1999; Oxford, 1989) have already confirmed the effective role of LLS in successful language learning. It needs to be noted, of course that there are different types of strategies. Scholars like Rubin (1981) and Oxford (1990) divide LLS into two main types of indirect and direct strategies. Indirect strategies consist of three subclasses including social, affective, and

metacognitive strategies, whereas direct strategies consist of cognitive, compensation and memory strategies.

2.2. Empirical Background

The different components of SRL have been the subject of empirical studies. Neuville et al. (2007) studied how MSR components were linked with students' achievement. They used a self-report questionnaire to collect data. They reported that learners' motivation significantly influenced their SRLS, which in turn, influenced the learners' achievement performance. However, they observed that motivational factors were not differentially effective on the learners' performance. In another study, Zarei (2014) investigated the potential effect of motivation and reading anxiety on the reading strategies choice of EFL learners. He found that both variables significantly affected the learners' use of reading strategies. Meanwhile, Zarei and Gilanian (2014a) found that, of all the LLS, memory strategies had the strongest predictive power over rehearsal SRL, whereas elaboration SRL was best predicted through meta-cognitive, memory and affective strategies.

LLS have also attracted attention in the literature. In one study, the LLS use of EFL students was studied (Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006). The results suggested that higher proficiency level learners used LLS more frequently. Moreover, the findings showed that females used social and affective strategies more frequently than males.

Confirming the result of the above study, Yilmaz's (2010) study also showed that higher level learners made more frequent use affective strategies, which also made them less anxious. In addition, gender was highly influential on strategy use and females employed affective strategies more commonly than males. Zarei and Shahidi Pour (2013a) studied how LLS were related to idioms comprehension. The finding indicated that only affective and cognitive strategies could predict the learners' comprehension of idioms.

Finally, the study of the relationship between LLS and goal-orientation (Zarei&Gilianian, 2014b) showed that cognitive, metacognitive and compensation strategies were all positively related to goal orientation. In the meantime, affective strategies were also significantly and positively associated with extrinsic goal orientation.

3. Method

3.1. Setting and Participants

3.1.1. Setting

Golestan is among the northern provinces of Iran. It was a part of Mazandaran province, which became an independent province in 1997. According to the last census, conducted by Statistical Centre of Iran in 2016, 1,777,014 people live in Golestan province with different ethnicities, including Turkman, Persian, Baluch, Kazak, Turk, and Kurd. A large part of the Golestan population is made up of Turkmans (34.2 %) who live mainly in the eastern, central and northern parts of the province. Taking the large number of Turkmans into consideration, they were selected as the participants of the study.

3.1.2. Participants

Maximum variation sampling was used to gather data from 503 Turkman students (N= 503) from different regions of Golestan province (Appendix A). This purposeful sampling strategy aims to sample for heterogeneity. It begins by identifying diverse characteristics, including age, experience, educational grade, gender, etc. This method is useful for examining range in large regional or national programs (Ary et al., 2018).

The participants were L1 Turkmen speakers who study Persian as the second language in schools. They were all students with different educational grades (i.e., 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12) ranging in age from 12 to 18. The sample included 221 males (43.9%) and 282 females (56.1%). Participants were informed of the study's aim and data collection procedure. Their consent was gathered via consent forms sent to them. The participants were also reassured that their information would remain confidential and be utilized only in the present study.

3.2. Instrumentation

3.2.1. *Nonverbal Immediacy Scale (NIS)*

Persian language teachers' nonverbal immediacy was measured by Thomas, Richmond, and McCroskey's (1994) Nonverbal Immediacy Scale (NIS). Previous versions of this scale included up to 16 items. However, Thomas et al. (1994) deleted six items dealing with touching, standing, and seating since they did not lead to the reliability or validity of the instrument when employed in classrooms. This scale uses 10 items to which participants respond on a 5-point Likert-type scale. The reliability of this scale has been reported as 0.83. Since the scale was in English, for this study, it was translated into Persian. Content validity of the scale was confirmed by five applied linguists. The reliability coefficient of the scale for the present study was estimated to be 0.71.

3.2.2. Source Credibility Scale (SCS)

To assess Turkman students' perceptions of their Persian language teachers' credibility, the Source Credibility Scale, developed by McCroskey and Teven (2013), was employed. The scale encompasses 18 items consisting of three components, namely competence, goodwill, and trustworthiness. The reliability of the components has been reported as 0.89, 0.93, and 0.83, respectively. The questionnaire was translated into Persian, and then the content validity of items was confirmed by five applied linguists. The reliability index of SCS for this study was estimated as 0.95.

3.2.3. Utrecht Work Engagement Scale for Students (UWES-S)

Turkman students' academic engagement was measured via Utrecht Work Engagement Scale for Students (UWES-S), developed by Schaufeli et al. (2002). The scale comprises 17 items, which consist of three subscales, including "absorption", "dedication", and "vigor". To prevent responding bias, engagement and burnout items were put randomly. For the convenience of the participants, UWES-S was translated into Persian, and subsequently, five applied linguists confirmed the content validity of the questionnaire. The reliability of the UWES-S for this study was 0.89, which assures a good reliability estimate.

3.3. Data Collection Procedure

At the very beginning of the data collection process, students were asked to fill the consent forms sent to them. Then, to obtain the required data, the electronic form of the three above-mentioned scales, namely NIS, SCS, and UWES-S were sent via WhatsApp to 550 Turkman students of Golestan Province. Out of the 550 questionnaires which were sent to Turkman students, 503 of them were completed and sent back to the researcher, equating to a response rate of 0.91.

3.3. Data Analysis

To determine whether our data were distributed normally or not, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was employed (Pallant, 2016). Further, to estimate the reliability coefficient of the scales, Cronbach's alpha was performed. Then, in order to examine the associations among Persian language teachers' nonverbal immediacy, credibility, Turkman students' academic engagement, and their underlying constructs, the Pearson correlation procedure was run through SPSS software version 20. Finally, to investigate the power of Persian language teachers' nonverbal immediacy and credibility in predicting Turkman students' academic engagement, SEM was performed.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 Results 4.1. Research Question One

This question examined the relationship between LLS and MSRL. A stepwise multiple regression was used to address this question. The analysis showed that cognitive, meta-cognitive, and compensation strategies were the predictors of MSRL.

Table 1

Model Summary on MSRL

Model	R	Adjusted R Square	Change Statistics		
			R Square Change	F Change	Sig. F Change
1	.470	.216	.221	41.690	.000
2	.518	.258	.047	9.383	.003
3	.555	.294	.040	8.481	.004

Table 1 indicates that MSRL and cognitive strategies have more than 21% of their variance in common. The combination of compensation and cognitive strategies account for about 25% of the total variability in MSRL. The mentioned strategies coupled with metacognitive strategies together explain around 29% of the variance with MSRL.

In Table 2, the F values and the significance levels indicate that all three models are statistically significant.

Table 2

Results of ANOVA on MSRL

Model		SS	MS	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1175.998	1175.99	41.690	.000
	Residual	4146.551	28.208		
2	Regression	1426.396	713.198	26.726	.000
	Residual	3896.154	26.686		
3	Regression	1641.686	547.229	21.557	.000
	Residual	3680.863	25.385		

Table 3 shows how strongly each of predictors is related to MSRL in each model. The coefficients along with the t-values as well as the error probability of each model are given in the table.

Table 3*Coefficients on MSRL*

		Standardized Beta	Unstandardized		t	Sig.
			B	Std. Error		
1	Cognitive	.47	.47	.073	6.45	.000
2	Cognitive	.35	.35	.081	4.40	.000
	compensation	.24	.22	.073	3.06	.003
3	Cognitive	.25	.25	.086	2.97	.003
	Compensation	.23	.20	.071	2.93	.004
	Meta-cognitive	.22	.18	.063	2.91	.004

As Table 3 shows, in the initial model, every standard deviation (SD) of change in cognitive strategies goes with .47 SD change in MSRL. Model two indicates that for each SD of change cognitive and compensation strategies, we can expect .35 and .22 SD change in the positive direction in the score of MSRL, respectively. Model 3 also informs us that .25, .20, and .18 SD of change are expected in MSRL score per every unit of SD change in the cognitive, compensation and metacognitive strategies, respectively.

4.2. Research Question Two

The purpose of this question was to check how LLS were related to the task value component of MSRL. To answer this question, another multiple regression analysis was used. The analysis suggested that affective, metacognitive and memory strategies had a significant relationship with task value and could predict it. Table 4 makes it clear that task value has around 18% of common variance with metacognitive strategies. In the second model, memory

and metacognitive strategies collectively account for almost 25% of the variance that is observed in task value. In the third and final model, when memory strategies are added to the previous two types, the three types of strategies together have slightly less than 27% variance in common with task value.

Table 4

Task Value Model Summary

Model	R	Adjusted R Square	Change Statistics		
			R Square Change	F Change	Sig. of F Change
1	.437 ^a	.185	.191	34.62	.000
2	.511 ^b	.251	.070	13.88	.035
3	.532 ^c	.269	.021	4.52	

In Table 5, the F-values and the probability levels suggest in all the three models that the models have reached statistical significance.

Table 5

Task Value ANOVA Results

Model		SS	MS	F	Sig.
1	Regression	561.212	561.212	34.625	.000
	Residual	2382.627	16.208		
2	Regression	768.118	384.059	25.772	.000
	Residual	2175.721	14.902		
3	Regression	834.203	278.068	19.112	.000
	Residual	2109.635	14.549		

In Table 6, the coefficients and the level of significance are given for each model. As it can be seen in the table, for every SD change in metacognitive strategies, .43 of a SD change is expected in the dependent variable. In the second model, every SD change in memory and metacognitive strategies would go with around .28 and .32 of a SD change in task value, respectively. In the third model, with all the three strategy types taken together, for each SD unit change in one's affective, memory and metacognitive strategies score, one would expect to see .16, .25, and .27 of a SD unit change in the score of task value, respectively. In

addition, the probability levels indicate the statistical significance of the all coefficients.

Table 6*Task Value Coefficients*

Model		Unstandardized		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	Meta-cognitive	.261	.044	.437	5.884	.000
2	Meta-cognitive	.195	.046	.326	4.235	.000
	Memory	.215	.058	.287	3.726	.000
3	Meta-cognitive	.164	.048	.274	3.418	.001
	Memory	.192	.058	.257	3.327	.001
	Affective	.101	.047	.165	2.131	.035

4.3. Research Question Three

The aim of this question was to find out which LLS types predict control of learning beliefs better. To do so, another multiple regression analysis was conducted, the summary of which suggested that the only significant predictor was metacognitive strategies. According to Table 7, metacognitive strategies have more than 8% of common variance with the predicted variable.

Table 7*Learning Beliefs Model Summary*

Model	R	Adjusted		Sig
		R Square	F	
1	.272 ^a	.081	13.23	.002

a. Predictor: metacognitive

The ANOVA result on the model suggests that the model has reached statistical significance.

Table 8*Results of ANOVA on Learning Beliefs*

Model		SS	MS	F	Sig.
1	Regression	101.220	101.220	14.574	.000
	Residual	1020.968	6.945		

The coefficients were checked to see how strongly the predictor and predicted variables were related. The results are summarized in Table 9.

Table 9

Learning Beliefs Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	Meta-cognitive	.101	.027	.290	3.801	.001

The result of the model summary indicates that for one SD of change in the scores of the predictor variable, .29 of a SD change is expected in the predicted variable. Furthermore, this amount of relationship between the two variables is significant.

4.4. Research Question Four

This final question was intended to examine how types of LLS were related to test anxiety. Like the previous questions, a multiple regression analysis was made use of to address this question. It turned out that the only type of LLS that could predict test anxiety was compensation strategies. According to Table 10, the model summary is indicative of the fact that compensation strategies have only more than 4% of variance in common with test anxiety.

Table 10

Model Summary on Test Anxiety

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	F	Sig.
1	.232 ^a	.054	.047	8.19	.006

The ANOVA results in Table 11 suggest that this regression model is also significant.

Table 11*Results of ANOVA on Test Anxiety*

Model		SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
1	Regression	101.079	1	101.079	8.210	.005
	Residual	1809.875	147	12.312		

As it can be seen in Table 12, compensation strategies and test anxiety are significantly but negatively related. This means that for every SD positive change in the former, .21 of a SD negative change is expected in the latter.

Table 12*Test Anxiety Coefficients*

Model		Unstandardized		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	compensation	-.19	.06	-.210	-2.67	.007

4.2. Discussion

There are areas of similarity as well as disparity between the results obtained in this study and those reported in other studies. One study the finding of which is partially in agreement with our study is that of Zarei and Shahidi Pour (2013a), who observed in their study that cognitive strategies are strongly connected with idioms learning. However, they also reported a negative relationship between the use of affective strategies and the comprehension of idioms. This part of their finding contradicts our finding. In this study, affective strategies were not meaningfully related even to test anxiety, which appears to be an affective trait.

Similar to the finding of our study, suggesting a positive relationship between cognitive strategies and MSRL as well as between the use of affective strategies and performance on the task value component of MSRL, cognitive and affective strategies have been reported to be meaningfully associated with learners' idiom production (Zarei & Shahidi Pour, 2013b). This finding also seems to confirm the assertion that metacognitive strategies can actually assist language learners to analyze and improve their thinking process and engage themselves more meaningfully and deeply in the learning process (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990).

From another perspective, the findings of this study are compatible with that of Neuville, et al., (2007), who reported that self-regulated learning strategies

use can be influenced by motivational attributes. In addition, similar to the results obtained here, they also discovered that task value was meaningfully connected to LLS. At the same time, their findings also deviate from our findings in the sense that in their study motivational variables, although related to LLS, were not meaningfully associated with the learners' achievement performance. Furthermore, the findings of this study also contradict those of Zarei (2014), who found no meaningful relationship between motivation and reading anxiety, on the one hand, and reading anxiety and reading strategies, on the other.

Additional support for the findings of this study comes from studies that have shown LLS to be meaningfully related to cognitive self-regulated learning (Zarei&Gilanian, 2014b). They also found that LLS were related to goal orientation, which is a component of MSR. Moreover, the present findings are in line with those of Pintrich (1989), who also reported a significant relationship between LLS and goal orientation.

Another finding of this study was that compensation strategies were negatively related to test anxiety, and task value was strongly associated with memory, metacognitive and affective strategies. In support of this finding, Yilmaz (2010) also reported a negative relationship between anxiety and affective strategies. Because compensation strategies are normally employed by learners to make up for the gap in their knowledge while communicating with others (Oxford & Crookall, 1989) it could be assumed that frequent use of such strategies might lead to a reduction in the learners' anxiety level, which would, in turn, improve their learning performance. Given this assumption, our finding corroborates that of Yilmaz (2010), who observed that the use of affective strategies was conducive to reducing learners' anxiety and improving their motivation and ability to manage their emotions.

Although a part of our findings was supported by other findings in the literature, they were, nevertheless, contradicted by some others. There are a number of potential factors that might be used to explain the discrepancies between the results of this and other studies in the field. To name only a few, one can mention learners' age, gender, home culture, proficiency level, field of study, and the social context. For manageability reasons, these variables could not be studied here. However, studies such as Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) and Yilmaz (2010), among many others, have already provided evidence that the mentioned variables are related to ones covered in this study. What this implies is that such controversial findings call for further research in the hope of resolving these issues and shedding more light on the darker corners of this field of research.

6. Conclusion and Pedagogical Implications

The findings of this study contribute to a major theme, namely Turkman students' academic engagement is predicted positively and significantly by their Persian language teachers' nonverbal immediacy and credibility. To put it differently, Persian language teachers' nonverbal immediacy and credibility can remarkably enhance the academic engagement of their Turkman students.

These findings can be beneficial for Persian language teachers who teach Persian as the second language to speakers of other languages, notably Turkman students. If Persian language learners consider their teachers as credible, their motivation to engage with language learning activities improves. Hence, Persian language teachers are highly recommended to behave in a manner to be considered as a trustworthy and attentive instructor.

Additionally, in order to decrease the negative reactions of Turkman students against the use of teachers' corrective feedback, Persian language teachers are strongly advised to use some nonverbal actions such as smiling, moving around the classroom, and using gestures while communicating with their pupils. Employing these nonverbal actions, they can also enhance the psychological closeness between themselves and their students, which significantly lead to students' academic engagement. A higher degree of L2 learners' academic engagement can improve their ability to communicate in the target language, which is the main objective of second language learning (Amiryousefi & Mirkhani, 2019; Fallah, 2014; Khajavy et al., 2016). Additionally, the outputs of this research can be informative for Persian language teacher educators. They should put emphasis on the importance of teachers' interpersonal variables, notably nonverbal immediacy and credibility to help Persian language teachers increase the amount of their L2 learners' academic engagement.

Future studies on Persian language learners' academic engagement are expected to investigate the role of other interpersonal variables of Persian language teachers, including teacher stroke, teacher caring, and teacher resilience. Moreover, the present research can be replicated with speakers of other languages such as Baluchi, Turkish, Kurdish, and Kazakh to understand whether similar findings can be found. In addition, this research study was purely quantitative; hence, further studies are recommended to include some interviews to attain more comprehensive results.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Strategies Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (The English Version)

Introduction: Please answer to the following questions according to your true cases from 1 (Never or almost never true of me) to 5 (always or almost always true of me).

(1. Never true of me 2. Rarely true of me 3. Sometimes true of me 4. Often true of me 5. Always true of me)

		Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
	Part A	1	2	3	4	5
1	I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.					
2	I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.					
3	I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.					
4	I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.					
5	I use rhymes to remember new English words.					
6	I use flashcards to remember new English words.					
7	I physically act out new English words.					
8	I review English 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.					
	Part B					
10	I say or write new English words several times.					
11	I try to talk like native English speakers.					
12	I practice the sounds of English.					
13	I use the English words I know in different ways.					
14	I start conversations in English.					
15	I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.					

16	I read for pleasure in English.					
17	I write notes, messages, letters or reports in English.					
18	I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.					
19	I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.					
20	I try to find patterns in English.					
21	I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.					
22	I try not to translate word-for-word.					
23	I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.					
	Part C					
24	To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.					
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 do not 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.					
	Part D					
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 improving my English skills.					
38	I think about my progress in learning English.					
	Part E					
39	I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.					
40	I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.					
41	I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.					
42	I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.					
43	I write down my feelings in a language-learning diary.					
44	I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.					
	Part F					
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 practice English with other students.					
48	I ask for help from English speakers.					
49	I ask questions in English.					
50	I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.					

Appendix B: Strategies Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (The Persian Version)

پرسشنامه راهکارهای یادگیری زبان

دستورالعمل: لطفاً به سوالات زیر با توجه به مواردی که در مورد شما صدق می کند پاسخ دهید. موارد داده شده از گزینه ۱ (هرگز یا تقریباً هرگز در مورد من درست نیست) تا گزینه ۵ (همیشه یا تقریباً همیشه در مورد من صادق است) می باشد.

۱. هرگز در مورد من درست نیست. ۲. بندرت در مورد من صادق است. ۳. گاهی اوقات در مورد من درست است. ۴. اغلب در مورد من صدق می کند. ۵. همیشه در مورد من درست است.

بخش ۱

۱. در مورد رابطه بین آنچه که از قبل می دانستم و موارد جدیدی که در زبان فارسی یاد می گیرم، فکر می کنم.

۱. هرگز	۲. بندرت	۳. گاهی اوقات	۴. اغلب	۵. همیشه
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۲. با بکارگیری لغات جدید زبان فارسی در جمله می توانم آنها را به خاطر بسپارم.

۱. هرگز	۲. بندرت	۳. گاهی اوقات	۴. اغلب	۵. همیشه
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۳. برقراری رابطه بین صدای یک کلمه جدید فارسی با تصویر یا عکس آن به من کمک می کند تا آن کلمه را به خاطر بسپارم.

۱. هرگز	۲. بندرت	۳. گاهی اوقات	۴. اغلب	۵. همیشه
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۴. با ایجاد تصویر ذهنی در موقعیتی که کلمه ممکن است در آن استفاده شود، کلمه جدید زبان فارسی را به خاطر می سپارم.

۱. هرگز	۲. بندرت	۳. گاهی اوقات	۴. اغلب	۵. همیشه
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۵. از شعر برای به خاطر سپردن کلمات جدید فارسی استفاده می کنم.

۱. هرگز	۲. بندرت	۳. گاهی اوقات	۴. اغلب	۵. همیشه
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۶. از فلش کارت برای به خاطر سپردن کلمات جدید فارسی استفاده می کنم.

۱. هرگز	۲. بندرت	۳. گاهی اوقات	۴. اغلب	۵. همیشه
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۷. ادای کلمات جدید فارسی را عیناً در می آورم.

۱. هرگز	۲. بندرت	۳. گاهی اوقات	۴. اغلب	۵. همیشه
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۸. اغلب دروس فارسی را مرور می کنم.

۱. هرگز	۲. بندرت	۳. گاهی اوقات	۴. اغلب	۵. همیشه
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۹. کلمات و عبارات جدید فارسی را با به خاطر سپردن جای آنها در صفحه، روی تابلو، یا علائم خیابانی یاد می گیرم.

۱. هرگز	۲. بندرت	۳. گاهی اوقات	۴. اغلب	۵. همیشه
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بخش ۲

۱۰. کلمات جدید فارسی را چندین بار می نویسم یا تکرار می کنم.

۱. هرگز	۲. بندرت	۳. گاهی اوقات	۴. اغلب	۵. همیشه
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۱۱. سعی می کنم شبیه فارسی زبانها صحبت کنم.

۱. هرگز	۲. بندرت	۳. گاهی اوقات	۴. اغلب	۵. همیشه
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۱۲. صداهای فارسی را تمرین می کنم.

۱. هرگز	۲. بندرت	۳. گاهی اوقات	۴. اغلب	۵. همیشه
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۱۳. کلمات فارسی را که یاد گرفته ام، به شیوه های مختلف استفاده می کنم.

۱. هرگز	۲. بندرت	۳. گاهی اوقات	۴. اغلب	۵. همیشه
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۱۴. مکالمات را به زبان فارسی شروع می کنم.

۱. هرگز	۲. بندرت	۳. گاهی اوقات	۴. اغلب	۵. همیشه
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۱۵. برنامه های تلویزیونی که به زبان فارسی هستند را تماشا می کنم یا به به سینماهایی که فیلم فارسی پخش می کنند می
روم.

۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه
۱۶. از خواندن فارسی لذت می برم.

۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه
۱۷. یاداشت، پیغام، نامه، یا گزارشها را به زبان فارسی می نویسم.

۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه
۱۸. متن فارسی را ابتدا بطور سطحی می خوانم (کل متن را با سرعت می خوانم) سپس برمی گردم و با دقت می خوانم.

۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه
۱۹. در زبان خود به جستجوی معادلهای مشابه برای کلمات جدید در زبان فارسی می پردازم.

۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه
۲۰. سعی می کنم الگوهایی را در زبان فارسی پیدا کنم.

۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه
۲۱. به معنی یک کلمه فارسی با تقسیم کردن آن به قسمتهایی که برایم قابل فهم است، پی می برم.

۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه
۲۲. سعی می کنم لفظ به لفظ ترجمه نکنم.

۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه
۲۳. اطلاعاتی را که شنیده یا خوانده ام را به فارسی خلاصه می کنم.

۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه
بخش ۳

۲۴. به منظور فهمیدن کلمات نا آشنا معنی آنها را حدس می زنم.
۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۲۵. زمانی که در خلال مکالمه نتوانم معادل فارسی کلمه ای را به یاد آورم، از ایما و اشاره استفاده می کنم.
۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۲۶. اگر معادل فارسی درست کلمات را ندانم، کلمات جدیدی را می سازم.
۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۲۷. بدون اینکه به جستجوی هر کلمه جدید در کتاب لغت بپردازم، فارسی می خوانم.
۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۲۸. سعی می کنم آنچه را که دیگران به زبان فارسی خواهند گفت را حدس بزنم.
۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۲۹. اگر نتوانم یک کلمه فارسی را به یاد بیاورم، از کلمه یا عبارتی که همان معنی را داشته باشد استفاده می کنم.
۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

بخش ۴

۳۰. سعی می کنم تا آنجا که می توانم روش های زیادی را برای استفاده از زبان فارسی پیدا کنم.
۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۳۱. متوجه اشتباهاتم در زبان فارسی هستم و بکاربردن این اطلاعات به من کمک می کند تا عملکرد بهتری داشته باشم.
۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۳۲. وقتی دیگران فارسی صحبت می کنند، به آنها توجه می کنم.
۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۳۳. به دنبال راهی هستم که زبان آموز بهتری بشوم.

۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهیاوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۳۴. از آنجا که برنامه زمانی برای خود طراحی می‌کنم، فرصت کافی برای مطالعه زبان فارسی خواهم داشت.

۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۳۵. به دنبال افرادی می‌گردم که بتوانم با آنها فارسی صحبت کنم.

۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۳۶. به دنبال فرصت هایی هستم که تا آنجایی که امکان دارد، فارسی بخوانم.

۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۳۷. اهداف آشکاری برای پیشرفت مهارت های زبان فارسی خود دارم.

۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۳۸. پیشرفت خود در یادگیری زبان فارسی را بررسی می‌کنم.

۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

بخش ۵

۳۹. سعی می‌کنم که هر وقت در استفاده از زبان فارسی دچار ترس شدم، آرامش خود را حفظ کنم.

۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۴۰. سعی می‌کنم حتی وقتی که از اشتباه کردن هراس دارم، خود را به فارسی صحبت کردن ترغیب کنم.

۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۴۱. هر گاه عملکردم در فارسی خوب باشد به خود پاداش یا جایزه می‌دهم.

۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۴۲. متوجه مواقعی که در هنگام مطالعه یا استفاده از زبان فارسی دچار استرس و هیجان می‌شوم، هستم.

۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۴۳. احساساتم را در خاطرات روزانه یادگیری زبان خود یادداشت می‌کنم.

۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۴۴. با دیگران در مورد اینکه به هنگام یادگیری زبان فارسی چه احساسی دارم، صحبت می‌کنم.

۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

بخش ۶

۴۵. اگر مطلبی را در زبان فارسی متوجه نشم از دیگران می‌خواهم تا آن را مجدداً و به آرامی بگویند.

۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۴۶. از افراد فارسی زبان تقاضای کمک می‌کنم تا به هنگام صحبت کردن اشتباهات من را تصحیح کنند.

۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۴۷. با سایر دانشجویان فارسی تمرین می‌کنم.

۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۴۸. از افراد فارسی زبان تقاضای کمک می‌کنم.

۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۴۹. به زبان فارسی سوالات خود را می‌پرسم.

۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۵۰. سعی می‌کنم در مورد فرهنگ فارسی زبانان مطلع شوم.

۱. هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

Appendix C: Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) (The English Version)

Instructions: Please answer to the following questions according to your true cases from 1 (Never or almost never true of me) to 5 (always or almost always true of me).

1. If I study in appropriate ways, then I will be able to learn the material in this course.
1) almost never 2) seldom 3) sometimes 4) often 5) almost always
2. When I take a test I think about how poorly I am doing compared with other students.
1) almost never 2) seldom 3) sometimes 4) often 5) almost always
3. I think I will be able to use what I learn in this course in other courses.
1) almost never 2) seldom 3) sometimes 4) often 5) almost always
4. When I take a test I think about items on other parts of the test I can't answer.
1) almost never 2) seldom 3) sometimes 4) often 5) almost always
5. It is my own fault if I don't learn the material in this course.
1) almost never 2) seldom 3) sometimes 4) often 5) almost always
6. It is important for me to learn the course material in this class.
1) almost never 2) seldom 3) sometimes 4) often 5) almost always
7. When I take tests, I think of the consequences of failing.
1) almost never 2) seldom 3) sometimes 4) often 5) almost always
8. I am very interested in the content area of this course.
1) almost never 2) seldom 3) sometimes 4) often 5) almost always
9. If I try hard enough, then I will understand the course material.
1) almost never 2) seldom 3) sometimes 4) often 5) almost always
10. I have an uneasy, upset feeling when I take an exam.
1) almost never 2) seldom 3) sometimes 4) often 5) almost always
11. I think the course material in this class is useful for me to learn.
1) almost never 2) seldom 3) sometimes 4) often 5) almost always
12. If I don't understand the course material, it is because I didn't try hard enough.
1) almost never 2) seldom 3) sometimes 4) often 5) almost always
13. I like the subject matter of this course.
1) almost never 2) seldom 3) sometimes 4) often 5) almost always
14. Understanding the subject matter of this course is very important to me.
1) almost never 2) seldom 3) sometimes 4) often 5) almost always
15. I feel my heart beating fast when I take an exam.
1) almost never 2) seldom 3) sometimes 4) often 5) almost always
16. During class time I often miss important points because I'm thinking of other things.
1) almost never 2) seldom 3) sometimes 4) often 5) almost always
17. When reading for this course, I make up questions to help focus my reading.
1) almost never 2) seldom 3) sometimes 4) often 5) almost always
18. When I become confused about something I'm reading for this class, I go back and try to figure it out.
1) almost never 2) seldom 3) sometimes 4) often 5) almost always
19. If course readings are difficult to understand, I change the way I read the material.
1) almost never 2) seldom 3) sometimes 4) often 5) almost always
20. Before I study new course material thoroughly, I often skim it to see how it is organized.
1) almost never 2) seldom 3) sometimes 4) often 5) almost always
21. I ask myself questions to make sure I understand the material I have been studying in this class.
1) almost never 2) seldom 3) sometimes 4) often 5) almost always

22. I try to change the way I study in order to fit the course requirements and the instructor's teaching style.
 1) almost never 2) seldom 3) sometimes 4) often 5) almost always
23. I often find that I have been reading for this class but don't know what it was all about.
 1) almost never 2) seldom 3) sometimes 4) often 5) almost always
24. I try to think through a topic and decide what I am supposed to learn from it rather than just reading it over when studying for this course.
 1) almost never 2) seldom 3) sometimes 4) often 5) almost always
25. When studying for this course I try to determine which concepts I don't understand well.
 1) almost never 2) seldom 3) sometimes 4) often 5) almost always
26. When I study for this class, I set goals for myself in order to direct my activities in each study period.
 1) almost never 2) seldom 3) sometimes 4) often 5) almost always
27. If I get confused taking notes in class, I make sure I sort it out afterwards.
 1) almost never 2) seldom 3) sometimes 4) often 5) almost always

Appendix D: Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) (The Persian Version)

پرسشنامه راهبردهای انگیزشی و خود تنظیمی فراشناختی (MSLQ)

دستورالعمل: لطفاً به سوالات زیر با توجه به مواردی که در مورد شما صدق می کند پاسخ دهید. موارد داده شده از گزینه ۱) هرگز یا تقریباً هرگز در مورد من درست نیست) تا گزینه ۵) (همیشه یا تقریباً همیشه در مورد من صادق است) می باشد.

۱. اگر به روشهای مناسبی مطالعه کنم، می توانم مطالب این درس را یاد بگیرم.
 ۱. تقریباً هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. تقریباً همیشه
۲. وقتی امتحان می دهم به این فکر می کنم که در مقایسه با سایر دانشجویان چه اندازه ضعیف تر عمل کرده ام.
 ۱. تقریباً هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. تقریباً همیشه
۳. فکر می کنم آنچه را که در این درس یاد گرفتم می توانم در دروس دیگر استفاده کنم.
 ۱. تقریباً هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. تقریباً همیشه
۴. وقتی امتحان می دهم به سوالات دیگری فکر می کنم که نتوانستم جواب دهم.
 ۱. تقریباً هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. تقریباً همیشه
۵. اگر مطلبی را در این درس یاد نگیرم، مقصر خود من هستم.
 ۱. تقریباً هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. تقریباً همیشه
۶. برایم مهم است که مطالب درسی را در این کلاس یاد بگیرم.
 ۱. تقریباً هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. تقریباً همیشه
۷. وقتی امتحان می دهم به این نتیجه که ممکن است در امتحان موفق نشوم، فکر می کنم.
 ۱. تقریباً هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. تقریباً همیشه
۸. به حوزه محتوایی این درس بسیار علاقه مند هستم.
 ۱. تقریباً هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. تقریباً همیشه
۹. اگر به اندازه کافی، سخت تلاش کنم، مطالب درسی را خواهم فهمید.
 ۱. تقریباً هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. تقریباً همیشه

۱۰. وقتی امتحان دارم احساس ناراحتی و اضطراب می کنم.
۱. تقریباً هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. تقریباً همیشه
۱۱. فکر می کنم مطالب درسی در این کلاس برای یادگیری من مفید هستند.
۱. تقریباً هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. تقریباً همیشه
۱۲. اگر مطالب درسی را متوجه نشوم به این علت است که سخت تلاش نکرده ام.
۱. تقریباً هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. تقریباً همیشه
۱۳. مطالب و موضوعات این درس را دوست دارم.
۱. تقریباً هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. تقریباً همیشه
۱۴. فهمیدن موضوع و مطالب این درس برایم بسیار مهم است.
۱. تقریباً هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. تقریباً همیشه
۱۵. وقتی امتحان دارم احساس می کنم ضربان قلبم تند می شود.
۱. تقریباً هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. تقریباً همیشه
۱۶. در طی زمان کلاس اغلب نکات مهم را از دست می دهم زیرا به چیزهای دیگری فکر می کنم.
۱. تقریباً هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. تقریباً همیشه
۱۷. وقتی این درس را می خوانم، سولاتی مطرح می کنم که به من کمک می کنند تا روی خواندنم تمرکز کنم.
۱. تقریباً هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. تقریباً همیشه
۱۸. هر وقت در فهم چیزهایی که برای این کلاس می خوانم دچار اشتباه می شوم. به عقب برمی گردم و سعی می کنم که آنها را بفهمم.
۱. تقریباً هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. تقریباً همیشه
۱۹. اگر فهمیدن آنچه که در این درس می خوانم، مشکل شود، روشم را در خواندن مطالب تغییر می دهم.
۱. تقریباً هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. تقریباً همیشه
۲۰. قبل از اینکه مطالب درسی را به طور کامل بخوانم، اغلب آن را به طور سطحی می خوانم تا بفهمم که به چه شکل سازماندهی شده است.
۱. تقریباً هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. تقریباً همیشه
۲۱. از خود سولاتی می پرسم تا مطمئن شوم مطالبی را که در کلاس مطالعه کرده ام، فهمیده ام.
۱. تقریباً هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. تقریباً همیشه
۲۲. سعی می کنم روشی مطالعه خود را تغییر دهم تا مناسب نیازهای درسی و شیوه آموزشی مدرس گردد.
۱. تقریباً هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. تقریباً همیشه
۲۳. اغلب متوجه این موضوع می شوم که آنچه را که برای این کلاس خوانده ام بطور کامل درک نکرده ام.
۱. تقریباً هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. تقریباً همیشه
۲۴. سعی می کنم به جای اینکه فقط در طول مطالعه این درس سرفصل را بخوانم، به آن فکر کنم و در مورد اینکه قرار است چه چیزی را بیاموزم، تصمیم بگیرم.
۱. تقریباً هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. تقریباً همیشه
۲۵. وقتی این درس را مطالعه می کنم، سعی می کنم تا مفاهیمی را که متوجه نمی شوم، مشخص کنم.
۱. تقریباً هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. تقریباً همیشه
۲۶. زمانی که برای این کلاس مطالعه می کنم، اهدافی را برای خود تعیین می کنم تا بتوانم برفعالیت های خود در هر دوره مطالعاتی نظارت داشته باشم.
۱. تقریباً هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. تقریباً همیشه
۲۷. اگر برای یادداشت برداری در کلاس دچار اشتباه شوم، مطمئن هستم که بعداً می توانم آن را رفع کنم.

۱. تقریباً هرگز ۲. بندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. تقریباً همیشه

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Pre-print version



رابطه بین راهبردهای زبان آموزی و یادگیری خودتنظیمی انگیزشی و فراشناختی: ویژه زبان آموزان فارسی بعنوان زبان دوم

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چکیده

این پژوهش با هدف بررسی رابطه بین راهبردهای زبان آموزی و یادگیری خودتنظیمی انگیزشی و فراشناختی زبان آموزان فارسی بعنوان زبان دوم انجام شد. به این منظور، تعداد ۱۴۹ فارسی آموز غیر ایرانی (دختر و پسر) در مقطع کارشناسی در دانشگاه بین‌المللی امام خمینی بر اساس قابلیت دسترسی انتخاب شدند. از این افراد خواسته شد به دو پرسشنامه راهبردهای زبان آموزی (SILL) و راهبردهای انگیزشی برای یادگیری (MSLQ) پاسخ دهند. داده‌های به دست آمده با بکارگیری فرایند رگرسیون چندگانه مرحله‌ای مورد پردازش قرار گرفت. نتایج نشان داد که از میان راهبردهای فراگیری زبان، راهبردهای شناختی، جبرانی و فراشناختی به گونه‌ای معنا دار در پیش‌بینی یادگیری خودتنظیمی فراشناختی نقش داشتند. همچنین مشخص شد راهبردهای فراشناختی، حافظه‌ای و عاطفی در پیش‌بینی ارزش عملکرد نقش معنا داری دارند. یافته‌ها همچنین حاکی از آن بود که بین راهبردهای فراشناختی و اعتقاد به کنترل یادگیری رابطه‌ای معنا دار وجود دارد. علاوه بر این، مشخص شد که تنها عاملی که به گونه‌ای معنا دار اضطراب در آزمون را پیش‌بینی می‌کند و با آن رابطه منفی دارد، راهبرد های جبرانی است. این یافته‌ها می‌تواند برای فراگیران، معلمان و تهیه‌کنندگان مطالب درسی کاربردی داشته باشد.

کلیدواژه‌ها: راهبردهای زبان آموزی، یادگیری خودتنظیمی فراشناختی، یادگیری خودتنظیمی انگیزشی، فارسی بعنوان زبان دوم