STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF MOTIVATION AND USE OF METACOGNITIVE SELF-REGULATED LEARNING STRATEGIES IN REMOTE ASYNCHRONOUS ELEMENTARY SPANISH CLASSES

by

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ABSTRACT

ROSALBA ESPARRAGOZA. Students' Perceptions of Motivation and Use of Metacognitive Self-Regulated Learning Strategies in Remote Asynchronous Elementary Spanish Classes. (Under the direction of DR. CLAUDIA FLOWERS and DR. CATHY D. HOWELL)

The purpose of the study was to investigate whether intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, task value, metacognitive self-regulation, self-efficacy for learning, and cumulative GPA predicts academic success among college students enrolled in remote, asynchronous Elementary Spanish I and II courses. The study was conducted during the Summer 2020 term at a large urban research university in the Southeastern United States. One hundred and sixty-eight of 301 undergraduates responded to the survey resulting in a 56% response rate. The results of the multiple regression indicated that 41% of the variance in Spanish course grades was accounted for by the predictor variables. Three of the predictor variables were statistically significant, self-efficacy, metacognitive self-regulation, and cumulative GPA. Self-efficacy and cumulative GPA showed a positive relationship to course grade after controlling for all predictor variables. Metacognitive self-regulation, which was positively correlated to course grade, had a negative relationship to course grade when predictor variables were included in the model. Intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and task value were not significant predictors of the course grade. Implications and applications for teaching remote asynchronous elementary Spanish classes are discussed.

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my late father and first teacher, Próspero R. Esparragoza, a man of immeasurable wisdom. His constant reminder of the importance of education stuck with me. As I reach the highest of my academic dreams, I want to honor his life with this achievement. This dissertation rightfully belongs to him.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this quantitative study was to explore the role of motivation and metacognitive self-regulation in college Elementary Spanish I and II remote asynchronous courses. Initially, this project was designed to compare and contrast the role of motivation and the use of metacognitive self-regulation learning strategies in Elementary Spanish I and II face-to-face (FTF) and blended courses. However, due to COVID-19, the population of the study changed to remote asynchronous learners. The literature review of research on motivational constructs, engagement, and self-regulation and their growing presence in blended and FTF classrooms suggested the need for more quantitative research, especially when there is a limited number of studies about this topic conducted under the current circumstances. Such studies can help practitioners understand how the mode of delivery affects how students perceive the efficacy of learning a second or foreign language at the tertiary level. The impact of the COVID-19 pandemic in higher learning created an unprecedented context for the execution of this project. Public health concerns forced emergency remote teaching (ERT) as a temporary shift of instructional delivery to an alternate, and in this case remote, due to the pandemic's presence. This remote mode of teaching and learning filled the void left by FTF and blended courses temporarily and provided a new arena for the scope of this study. Instead of comparing FTF and blended classes, the available courses for the study were entirely delivered remotely and asynchronously.

The presence of COVID-19 in the world and its arrival to the United States marked an immediate detour from what traditionally had been thought of as ways to impart knowledge at any level (Crawford et al., 2020). ERT, not to be mislabeled or

confused with high-quality online education, arrived on campuses in the United States in the third week of March 2020. For decades, students' choices were to enroll in FTF, blended, or entirely online classes.

The sudden implementation of ERT in the middle of an academic semester demanded that instructors and students attempt to become proficient users of virtual tools, such as Canvas and Zoom, and that students would, overnight, adapt to learning remotely. The challenges brought about by the presence of a pandemic have had repercussions in students' academic and personal lives, and the teaching imparted under these severe circumstances merits rigorous academic research. Before the pandemic, students usually self-selected to enroll in an online, blended, or FTF class.

According to data from the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE), which measures the level of student participation at universities and colleges in the United States and Canada, traditional and non-traditional first-year and senior students who selected to enroll in distance learning represent a small percentage of those students who took the survey: From the 281,136 first-year and senior students surveyed, 33,736 (12%) were distance learners (NSSE Report, 2019. The uncertainty for all stakeholders, such as students, instructors, and administrators, remains as ERT will continue to be implemented for the foreseeable future.

Therefore, the implementation of remote learning (synchronous, asynchronous, and bichronous) and the ongoing challenge of maintaining ERT while the pandemic remains active instigated the examination of the students' perceptions of motivation and use of metacognitive SRL strategies under the current circumstances. The original design for this study focused on the roles of motivation and use of metacognitive self-regulation

learning (SRL) strategies, hypothesizing that students enrolled in blended learning classes were more adept at using metacognitive SRL strategies given that they had to adjust to the independence required by 50% online learning. The changed circumstances in higher education due to the presence of

COVID-19 provided an opportunity to examine how learning in an asynchronous remote environment imposed by the presence of the virus impacted academic success. The aim of the study and the core of the research remained intact, as the study examined how motivation and metacognitive self-regulation are predictors of academic performance as determined by self-reported final class grades. However, as stated previously, the focus of this study shifted to a fully online asynchronous learning environment under the influence of COVID-19 with ERT in place. The beginning of the summer term allowed me to gather data from the first cohort of students enrolled in remote asynchronous classes for the entire course duration. Unlike students who enrolled in the previous semester for a class offered either FTF or blended, all learners registered in the course knew that the class would be taught remotely and asynchronously. The data collected provided insight into the students' perceptions of motivational constructs, such as intrinsic and extrinsic goal orientation, the importance of the subject matter, the students' self-efficacy or belief in their ability to succeed, and the role of their metacognitive self-regulation strategies as measured by the students' self-reported final grades in the class.

According to Bandura (1986), triadic reciprocal causation, personal factors (cognitive, affective, and biological events), environment, and behavior influence each other. For college students, many of whom live independently, the sudden disruption of in-person classes, the closure of university campuses for an indefinite time, and the loss

of social interactions affected them at a personal, educational, and emotional level (Tasso et al., 2021).

Traditionally, postsecondary institutions delivered course materials FTF to provide learners with the ability to ask questions, clarify misunderstandings, and interact with their instructors and peers in the classroom. However, during the last three decades, institutions have been challenged to meet the incoming students' connectivity demands while simultaneously providing high-quality learning experiences (Garrison & Kanuka, 2004). With the evolution of telecommunication and the increasing potential to use the internet as an accessible pedagogical tool, institutions continue to develop educational programs to coincide with this trend (Acevedo, 2018). The development of distance education courses (e.g., online and blended) has provided solutions to meet the demand for more flexibility in course offerings at the entry-level (e.g., math, writing, humanities, and foreign languages). While technological advances continued to create ample possibilities for students to learn in a variety of ways and settings, students enrolled in blended courses require motivation, self-regulation, and a sense of belonging to stay engaged in course content and maintain positive student outcomes (Anderton, 2006; Barnard et al., 2009; Broadbent & Poon, 2015; Hartley & Bendixen, 2001; Lynch & Dembo, 2004; Won et al., 2018).

Over the past 150 years, distance education evolved from print media to radio, television, and audio cassettes and from videos to synchronous and asynchronous digital tools that aid interactive education (Miller et al., 2017; Simonson et al., 2019). In its early stages, distance education was defined as learning in which there is physical separation from student and teacher (Huang, 2002). However, with the evolution of technology,

distance education has morphed into various subset delivery modalities, including online and blended courses. Online courses present all instructions through the internet and web-based or electronic technologies (Allen & Seaman, 2011; Casey, 2008; Huang, 2002; Kauffman, 2015; Lee et al., 2017), whereas blended courses further expand educational horizons by providing learners with the advantages of FTF instruction and internet-based learning (Dziuban et al., 2018; Huang, 2002; López-Pérez et al., 2011).

The use of blended learning (BL) environments has become increasingly prevalent in foreign language instruction, including Elementary Spanish. While this study initially sought to understand how motivation and metacognitive SRL strategies contribute to the academic success of second language learners enrolled in Elementary Spanish I and II FTF as opposed to blended courses, the COVID-19 pandemic provided the opportunity to understand how motivation and SRL strategies function in a fully online, albeit remote, language class. This study's research framework can be expanded to encompass FTF and BL once such teaching modes are available in post-pandemic higher education in the United States.

Self-Regulated Learning Strategies

The effectiveness of remote learning may vary depending on the course. Therefore, to speak of success or failure broadly discounts the complexities of how an individual may approach the learning of one or more subjects in a remote learning environment while exhibiting differences in motivation and the use of SRL strategies. This study addresses how students approach their learning and attain goals through planning, execution, and evaluation using cognitive, metacognitive, and motivational strategies (Schunk et al., 2014; Zimmerman, 2002). Zimmerman (2008)

argued that SRL refers to the learners' processes to use mental abilities to acquire skills or improve academic achievement. According to Panadero and Alonso-Tapia (2014), self-regulation involves the control that learners have over their cognition, behavior, emotions, and motivation through the interplay of personal strategies to achieve goals set by them. Furthermore, Kauffman (2015) indicated that successful students employ a range of SRL strategies in cognitive, motivational, social, behavioral, and affective dimensions. Through trial and error, students use particular strategies (e.g., planning, organizing materials, monitoring mistakes, evaluating success or failure, and adjusting) to achieve the desired results.

Collectively, scholars conclude that for students to experience success, they need to establish goals, find what learning methods are appropriate for them, participate actively in their learning processes, and take responsibility to be self-regulated learners, especially in a remote learning environment. Therefore, remote learners who are motivated and successfully implement SRL strategies are more likely to achieve success as measured by academic performance (Bandura, 1989; Vanslambrouck et al., 2019). Conversely, students who display low motivation and reduced use of SRL strategies see adverse academic results (Van Laer & Elen, 2017).

Motivation and SRL

Motivation is an essential dimension of SRL in any realm where learning takes place. A vast amount of research has shown that successful learners must take the initiative, set goals, deploy strategies, monitor the effectiveness of such strategies, look for help, and adjust their behaviors to improve academic achievement. Motivation is an

essential dimension of SRL in any situation in which learning occurs (Broadbent, 2017; Schunk & Zimmerman, 2008).

To provide a historical context, Dörnyei (1998) conducted one of the pioneer studies on motivation as an active process propagated by the instigation of force. This action stays constant until another force comes into play or until the goal is achieved. Dörnyei argued that motivation is a crucial factor influencing a second language learner's success rates and that motivational factors can even override language aptitude over time. Hence, there is an ongoing progression towards learning holistically, encompassing the learner's personality features, mindsets, and mental capabilities. The assertion that motivation and SRL can replace language aptitude makes these concepts especially important to consider when facilitating and guiding second language learners' progress. Researchers and educators' difficulty lie within the multifaceted nature of terms, such as motivation and self-regulation, because various components of each principle may be challenging to quantify (Mercer et al., 2012).

Student learning models have evolved to include factors that affect student achievement other than the learner themselves. Some of the earlier student learning models focused on cognitive aspects. They suggested that "the ultimate goal of the educational system is to shift to the individual the burden of pursuing his education" (Gardner, 1963, as cited in Zimmerman, 1995 p. 202). Subsequent models indicated that SRL is a more inclusive approach to student learning that shifts the focus to the learners' processes and responses to improve their learning environment and encompasses motivational, affective, and social contextual factors (Pintrich & de Groot, 1990; Zimmerman, 1990). Therefore, self-regulated learners are proactive in using SRL

strategies to control their learning in a systematic and self-evaluative way while seeking out information and mastering content.

Blended Learning

BL is defined as learning with an FTF and an online component of the course. It allows for greater flexibility (Tseng & Walsh, 2016; Vaughnan, 2007), reduced costs (Graham et al., 2013), and increased access to a more significant number of students (Okaz, 2015). By shifting the paradigm from the traditional FTF environment to the blended realm, the emphasis is on learning and the learner's added responsibility to maintain academic performance because they have to master the online component independently. It can serve as a motivational catalyst for students. In a blended environment, students become more active participants in the learning process (Buran & Evseeva, 2015) and have greater autonomy to decide how to study (Khodabandelou et al., 2016).

Conversely, according to Romano et al. (2005), students enrolled in blended classes tend to procrastinate more. Other disadvantages to BL include reduced motivation and reduced interaction with instructors and peers due to the online asynchronous portion of the course. Research has pointed to other negative aspects of BL, for some students, in that reduced interaction with the instructor and other students negatively affects motivation and persistence (Kintu et al., 2017; Laurillard, 2002; Lim & Kim, 2003). Despite these disadvantages, evidence suggests that BL courses predicate change for instructional delivery and demand different student expectations than traditional learning environments. According to Enkin and Mejías-Bikandi (2017), successful BL is closely related to learner self-regulatory processes and self-discipline. For this study, it is

essential to note that the online component requires this student's self-regulation and self-discipline.

Emergency Remote Learning

Emergency remote teaching, not a term interchangeable with online learning, is a temporary shift of instructional delivery to an alternate delivery mode due to a crisis, such as the COVID-19 pandemic. Instruction that would otherwise be provided FTF or blended shifts to the online environment until the crisis is resolved (Hodges et al., 2020). Remote learning encompasses three modalities of instruction: asynchronous, synchronous, and bichronous. The first two terms are abundantly found in research. At the same time, the latest one, bichronous learning, has only recently been defined by Martin et al. (2020) as the blending of synchronous and asynchronous online learning. Online or remote bichronous learning would provide students with the flexibility of time and space while, at the same time, the immediacy and community that comes with its synchronous component. This study examined asynchronous remote learning that entails similar advantages and disadvantages as the online portion of BL (Buran and Evseeva, 2015; Khodabandelou et al., 2016; Romano et al., 2005).

Asynchronous remote learning allows for great flexibility and forces students to work independently and take responsibility for their learning. By engaging with instructional materials and the instructor and peers remotely, students must be active participants in the learning process. Similar to what researchers found for BL, students in asynchronous remote learning environments tend to procrastinate more (Santelli et al., 2020). Their lack of direct interaction with the instructor and peers negatively impacts their learning experience and the academic outcome.

Spanish Course Enrollment

The high postsecondary enrollment in Spanish courses and the studies conducted on motivation and SRL strategies in FTF and BL in teaching second and foreign languages informed this study. However, the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS) data does not include any monitoring of blended enrollments (J. Seaman, personal communication, July 8, 2019). While BL enrollment data are not monitored nationally, the students who take BL Spanish courses are included in the enrollees' growing list. Students in asynchronous remote Spanish classes after the arrival of the COVID-19 pandemic are also included in these numbers. Lacorte and Suárez-García (2016) reported that approximately eight million people studied Spanish as a Second Language in the United States. This number is substantial, considering the presence of learners of Spanish as a Foreign Language (SFL) worldwide (Vítores, 2020). The number of students taking part in Spanish classes at higher education institutions, 712,240 students enrolled in 2016, surpassed the number of students enrolled in all other second or foreign languages studied in the United States. Spanish accounts for 50.2% of the total number of second and foreign language enrollees (Looney & Lusin, 2019). The gap in empirical studies in the field of motivation in languages other than English (LOTEs) is, in part, a reflection of the number of learners involved. The 22 million people who study Spanish as a second or foreign language worldwide represent one percent (1%) of the two billion people who undertake the study of English as a second or foreign language (*Yearbook of Spanish in the world 2019 « Blog del Instituto Cervantes de Londres*, 2019). Ushioda (2017) and Ushioda and Dörnyei (2017) stated that over 70% of all empirical investigations conducted between 2005 and 2014 to examine motivation

were related to English, with the gap between English and LOTEs increasing. Even with Spanish as the most commonly studied second or foreign language at the postsecondary level in the United States (Looney & Lusin, 2019), a search of the literature revealed that the number of empirical studies on blended classes and the role of motivation and use of SRL strategies in the learning of Elementary Spanish is exiguous (Chenoweth et al., 2006; Cubillos, 2007; Scida & Saury, 2006; Scida & Jones, 2016; Young, 2008; Ushida, 2005).

Statement of the Problem

The importance of motivation and use of SRL strategies by students enrolled in blended Elementary Spanish classes at the postsecondary level in the United States has received limited study. Few studies exist regarding the ERT that has occurred since March 2020 in the United States. Although the lack of data on blended enrollment in postsecondary institutions in the country might discourage research, this does not negate the fact that blended courses in Elementary Spanish allow students to complete these courses when the FTF option is not desirable or available. As higher education institutions find and implement effective delivery models, while attempting to maintain the same quality of education, BL increases access to education and propagates student learning and engagement (George-Walker & Keeffe, 2010). Similarly, remote learning allowed access to Spanish learning to continue despite the public health obstacles posed by the COVID-19 pandemic.

According to Tseng and Walsh (2016), the online component of BL caters to individual learning styles in a personalized and flexible way, while FTF interaction's strengths provide social constructivist principles. BL also incorporates the beneficial

factors of online and traditional learning systems. Osguthorpe and Graham (2003) outlined the benefits of a BL design into six aims: pedagogical richness, access to knowledge, social interaction, personal agency, cost-effectiveness, and ease of revision. Garrison and Kanuka (2004) affirm that the combination of technological methods with FTF instruction can increase communication within the learning environment and create meaningful learning outcomes.

Due to the BL's learner-centered approach, the blend between online and FTF instruction is the learner's choice (George-Walker & Keeffe, 2010). While research supports the positive effect of blended instruction for learning, there is insufficient research regarding specific instructional variables that can affect BL courses' student outcomes (Lim & Morris, 2009; Tseng & Welsh, 2016). According to Clayton et al. (2010), motivation is still an essential factor in learning despite innovative ways to deliver instruction.

The level of control maintained by students regarding academic success in BL environments is likely regulated by multiple factors that have yet to be identified and explored by current research. However, there is scant research on students' level of learning motivation, and, more specifically, on how students can be motivated in BL environments (Rovai & Downey, 2010). Considering the growing number of students turning to alternative classroom settings, such as blended courses, the role of motivation and SRL strategies in technologically mediated classrooms must be addressed to assess learning experiences (Cho & Shen, 2013). Similarly, the role of motivation and SRL strategies in fully asynchronous remote classrooms, facilitated by ERT, must be considered.

Purpose Statement

The initial purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the perceived role of motivation and the use of metacognitive SRL strategies by Elementary Spanish I students for both FTF and blended learners at a large public research university in the Southeastern United States. In particular, the study sought to understand students' perceptions of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, the value given to learning Spanish, and their confidence in performance ability. Furthermore, it sought to determine if the students' perceptions of setting goals, planning, monitoring actions, and evaluating progress coincides with their active engagement in learning through self-regulation and results in academic success as defined by the grade in the class (Pintrich, 1990; Schunk, 2005; Zimmerman et al., 1992). As dictated by the presence of the COVID-19 pandemic, the focus of the study changed from being a comparison of perceptions of motivation and self-regulation constructs between FTF and blended learners to the perceptions of the same factors by remote asynchronous learners enrolled in Elementary Spanish I and II classes during the summer term of 2020.

The findings of the study provide insight into the importance of promoting self-efficacy within the development of online course content, especially in a remote classroom setting. Students who have conviction in their belief to succeed perform better academically than those with low self-efficacy levels select challenging tasks, are persistent and are more efficient in using learning strategies even when facing failure (Honicke & Broadbent, 2016). As instructors develop courses regardless of the modality, the promotion of academic self-efficacy is crucial. The awareness of how to promote

students' self-efficacy is increasingly important for positive student outcomes and can be beneficial to educators and students alike.

Significance of the Study

The study conducted is unique as its implementation occurred during the first academic period entirely taught under COVID-19 and adds to the scarce number of studies on motivation and self-regulation in Elementary level language classes in Languages other than English. While major causal inferences cannot be generalized, the study provides data for future studies on how self-efficacy (regardless of the teaching modality) is a significant predictor of academic success.

Building on Ushioda and Dörnyei's (2017) work, this study examines the role of motivation and the use of metacognitive SRL strategies as contributors to learners' academic achievement in remote asynchronous Elementary Spanish I and II courses. The study results will provide empirical evidence as to whether, and to what degree, there are significant predictors in motivation scales and use of metacognitive SRL strategies for a group of students who completed the remote asynchronous courses in an ERT environment. It is now well established from a variety of studies that self-efficacy, self-regulation, and motivation are good predictors of academic success in college-level courses regardless of whether the class is online, blended, or FTF (Bradley et al., 2017; Broadbent, 2016; Broadbent & Poon, 2015; Pintrich & De Groot, 1990; Zimmerman et al., 1992). However, the question remains as to what role self-efficacy, motivation, and self-regulation play in the learning abilities under the imposed ERT scenario. The repercussions of a massive global health crisis during which students lost their sense of agency in choosing how and when they were going to learn need to be examined. The

present study introduced one question to students asking whether they felt that the presence of COVID-19 had affected their academic performance.

While motivation and SRL strategies in FTF classes have been studied extensively by scholars, specifically Dörnyei, Mercer, Ushioda, Schunk, Pintrich, and Zimmerman, blended learning (BL) in languages other than English have received limited study (Boo et al., 2015). This study contributes to the growing body of research by offering an analysis of motivation and SRL strategies in a fully online asynchronous foreign language classroom with ERT caused by COVID-19.

Research Question

To explore the perceived role that motivation and metacognitive self-regulation strategies play in the academic performance of students in a remote asynchronous Elementary Spanish I or II class, the following question guides this study:

RQ1: Do the predictor variables of motivation (intrinsic and extrinsic goal orientation, task value, self-efficacy), use of metacognitive SRL strategies, and cumulative GPA account for a significant amount of variability in academic performance as determined by self-reported class grade?

Overview of the Methodology

This quantitative study used a non-experimental correlational design. Data were collected using the Motivated Strategies Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) (Pintrich et al., 1991). This instrument contained 81 items. However, for this study, 34 items were used to collect data on the following scales: intrinsic goal orientation (IG), extrinsic goal orientation (EG), task value (TV), self-efficacy (SE), and metacognitive self-regulation

(MSR). The instrument is modular, allowing researchers to use the scales together or individually, depending on their specific needs.

Assumptions

The primary assumption of the study was that the MSLQ would adequately measure the levels of motivation and metacognitive SRL strategies used by students enrolled in all remote asynchronous sections of Elementary Spanish I and II taught during the two summer terms of 2020. The survey should also be appropriate for assessing metacognitive, cognitive, behavioral, and motivational processes and strategies. Additional assumptions for the study included:

1. Participants could read and understand the survey questions.
2. Participants in the study would respond to the survey questions honestly.
3. Participants would respond to the survey based on their perceptions of motivation, self-regulation, and metacognition for Elementary Spanish I or II.

Limitations and Delimitations of the Study

I collected observational data, which limited the ability to make causal inferences among the variables in this study. Any findings related to significant predictors were not sufficient to claim causation. Participants were not randomly selected, thus generalizing findings to other students is limited. Only students in Elementary Spanish I and II courses could participate in this study, limiting the ability to make inferences about other language courses. Since data were collected from one university, generalizing results to other settings is limited.

The modified survey consisted of 34 items and took about 12 minutes to complete, including the demographic information section (more information about the

modified survey is in chapter three). By nature of being a self-reported survey, I lacked control over the response rate and accuracy of answers. The study results were limited, as expected, to motivation and use of metacognitive self-regulation strategies in a particular Elementary Spanish I or II class. Students may not generalize findings to other areas of study as data resulting from this survey only apply to the specific Elementary Spanish class in which the participant was enrolled.

Definition of terms

Bichronous Online Learning: The blending of asynchronous and synchronous online learning, where students can participate and have the flexibility to do so from anywhere at any time during the asynchronous parts of the course but then participate in real-time activities for the synchronous component of said course (Martin et al., 2020).

De-motivation: The specific external forces that reduce or diminish the motivational basis of a behavioral intention or an ongoing action (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 143).

Emergency Remote Teaching: The temporary shift of instructional delivery to an alternate delivery mode due to crisis circumstances (Hodges et al., 2020).

Extrinsic Motivation: The performing of an activity because it leads to a separable outcome. (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Intrinsic Motivation: The performing of an activity for its inherent satisfaction rather than for such consequences as external pressures or rewards (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Metacognitive self-regulation: The focus on the control and self-regulation of metacognition. Pintrich indicates that planning, monitoring, and regulating are the three general processes that make up metacognitive self-regulation (Pintrich, 1993).

Metacognitive strategies: The students' knowledge of strategies used to monitor, control, and regulate their cognition and learning (Pintrich, 2002).

Self-Efficacy: One's belief in one's ability to succeed in specific situations or accomplish a task. The higher the level of self-efficacy, the more active the efforts to succeed (Bandura, 1997).

Self-Regulation: The learners' beliefs about their capacity to engage actions, thoughts, and behaviors to pursue academic goals while self-monitoring and self-reflecting on their

progress toward goal-completion. Cyclical process in which a student plans for a task, monitors their performance, reflects on the outcome and adjusts when needed (Zimmerman, 2002).

Self-Regulated Learning (SRL): "An active, constructive process whereby learners set goals for their learning and then attempt to monitor, regulate, and control their cognition, motivation, and behavior, guided and constrained by their goals and the contextual features in the environment" (Pintrich, 2000b, p. 453).

Task Value: The degree to which learners believe that the academic task is worth pursuing in terms of interest, importance, and usefulness (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002).

Summary

In the last forty years, SRL researchers have grown more interested in motivation and SRL strategies in relation to learning a foreign or second language. A learner may have intrinsic motivations driven by internal rewards, such as learning a language to further personal development, communicating with others in a language other than their own, and becoming mindful of different cultures by using the language spoken by such people. An intrinsically motivated learner considers that the value of learning is in the task itself and sees the process of learning as one worth the effort.

However, a learner may also be driven by extrinsic factors in which the motivation might be receiving a good grade or fulfilling a graduation requirement. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are not mutually exclusive, and, on the contrary, the use of both can further achievement. A learner who is self-efficacious and utilizes that confidence to strategize about how to learn will be more likely to achieve the goals set by them. The use of metacognitive SRL strategies and their interplay with the level of motivation displayed by learners, the belief in their ability to accomplish such goals, and the adjustment of those strategies as needed become determinants in success or failure.

The second chapter summarizes the history of blended learning in general and its presence in the second language blended classroom. The chapter also includes a focused section on Spanish enrollment in tertiary education and a justification for the need for more studies on motivation and self-regulation in this particular subject. This section of the study includes the two theoretical frameworks that anchor this research: Pintrich's Self-Regulated Learning Framework and Dörnyei's Three-Level Framework of L2 Motivation. A detailed literature review regarding each of these motivational constructs,

SRL strategies in general and metacognitive SRL in particular, and BL will also be discussed in Chapter 2.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

To understand remote asynchronous learning in an ERT environment, an analysis of the online component of BL is helpful and provides insight into remote asynchronous learning. This chapter is divided into four main sections. In the first section, I delved into BL, the relevance of BL in postsecondary education, and BL enrollment. The evolution of BL will be analyzed within the context of the second language (L2) learner. The second section focused on the importance of SRL strategies and motivational constructs that aid or hinder academic success in a blended college course. In the third section, I discussed the importance of motivation in the context of an L2 learner and students learning languages other than English (LOTEs). In the fourth section, I described the two models that form the basis for this study. These frameworks provide insights into the role of motivation and learning strategies relevant to learning in general and learning a second or foreign language, specifically.

Blended Learning

BL has become a popular term within the context of alternative education and continues to evolve in complexity following technological advances. Due to the multifaceted nature of this term, some differences exist regarding the definition of BL. Osguthorpe and Graham (2003) define BL as a combination of FTF with technology-based delivery systems. The mixing of these environments maximizes the benefits of each and changes according to the unique needs of the learners. Similarly, Driscoll (2002) refers to the term blended as the mixing of web-based technology to accomplish an educational goal and combining any form of instructional technology with FTF instructor-led training. In furthering the definition, Garrison and Kanuka (2004)

characterize a blended environment as one that integrates classroom teaching with the online delivery of instruction. De George-Walker and Keeffe (2010) address the addition of information and communication technologies to traditional learning methods but warn that the purposeless mixing and matching of delivery modes is detrimental, as successful BL requires the combination of pedagogically sound modalities that focus on the learner. Tseng and Walsh (2016) contribute to BL's definition by stating that the mix of various instructional technologies should generate opportunities for personalized and creative learning. Their definition is reiterated by Alexander et al. (2019), as the author alludes to the integration of digital solutions that are implemented to achieve learning outcomes of a specific course.

The multitude of BL definitions may indicate where future research is needed; however, it also implies that BL has warranted the interest of researchers and institutions of higher education for a reason. According to Okaz (2015), the combination of FTF interaction merged with asynchronous technology in an easily accessible manner has a positive correlation to improved instruction. Not only can BL uphold a sense of community that is provided by a traditional classroom, but it can extend learning beyond the classroom and permeate boundaries associated with learning styles, linguistic proficiency, socioeconomic status, cultural background, and gender (Kasraie & Alahmad, 2015).

The definition of distance education is broad, and such categories as BL, e-learning, Internet-based training, and computer-aided instruction fall under the scope of the term. The challenge in finding data specific to the implementation of BL comes from the loose definition of the concept and the lack of a consensus in the percentage of FTF

vs. online time (20% to 80%) that would define a class as blended (Allen et al., 2007; Siemens et al., 2015; Watson et al., 2011).

The online portion of BL, like remote learning, increases the potential for creating a more individualistic educational experience for students. Chung and Davies (1995) asserted that blended instruction, and I posit remote learning, provide learners with heightened control over the pace of learning, instructional flow, selection of resources, and time management. While the implementation of BL and remote learning presents challenges due to seemingly endless design possibilities and contexts, this can also be seen as an advantage as a professor may simultaneously cater to different learning styles (Garrison & Kanuka, 2004). As instances of BL and remote asynchronous learning increase, along with the sophistication of platforms and multimedia options, students have access to technologies that can foster creative thinking and independent study (Adams Becker et al., 2017).

Blended Learning in Second Languages

With regards to BL and L2, there has been research designed to self-assess the impact of technology in written skills (Farabaugh, 2007; Liu, 2013; Pinto-Llorente et al., 2014), to gauge the effectiveness of BL in listening skills (Lee & Lee, 2012), to assess the role of online workbooks in L2 classes (Young, 2008), and to compare the effectiveness of blended courses when compared to those which are FTF (Cubillos, 2007). In the latter study, Cubillos (2007) addressed two essential points. First, college learners were in favor of the blended format due to its autonomy and flexibility. Second, successful implementation of BL requires a combination of the strengths of technology (e.g., self-directed pace and immediate feedback) and the positive traits of personal

interaction, follow-up, and reinforcement during FTF instruction time. Those students who rated themselves as self-motivated and self-regulated opted to take the Spanish class cited in the current study as a blended course rather than the FTF equivalent. Scida and Saury (2006) reported that the use of the digital platform *Mallard* in their blended Elementary Spanish courses positively impacted students' learning and confidence in using new vocabulary. The rapid evolution of digital media gave way to a follow-up study by Scida and Jones (2016), in which they redesigned the beginning-level blended Spanish courses. Their study provided findings that suggested improved listening and grammar comprehension in addition to significantly better performance as determined by course grade compared to those enrolled in the previous blended version of the course.

The offering of blended language classes allowed individuals to study a foreign language through both online materials and FTF meetings with the instructor. As Boelens et al. (2017) noted, FTF meetings often serve the purpose of providing students with organizational information and clarifying expectations held for the class. The blended setting offers students the opportunity to interact with peers and instructors and receive feedback. The student's role critically impacts their success or failure in a blended L2 class mediated by the resources that the instructors provide. Arispe and Blake's (2012) study on 64 students enrolled in a blended Elementary Spanish course sought to determine which individual factors were pivotal in academic success as defined by final grades. The researchers indicated that self-motivated students and those who are conscientious about their learning found blended courses more than adequate for learning.

Ushioda (2012) outlined the importance of motivation in linguistic development, stating that research has focused on learning outcomes and has relegated the role of motivation in acquiring a second language. “Being motivated or not can make all the difference to how willingly and successfully people learn other languages later in life” (Ushioda, 2010, p. 5). To provide a historical context, Gardner and Lambert (1972), pioneers of L2 motivation, posited that psychological and social dimensions characterized the difference in motivation needed to learn a second language. As early as 1963, Gardner stated that it should be the individual’s responsibility, not the educational system, to carry the burden of pursuing their education. Zimmerman (1990) echoed the importance of self-responsibility and control over the students’ acquisition of knowledge and skill. Ushioda (2012) added that during the last five decades, the scope of motivation and its role in learning a second language had shifted its attention to setting and to the added responsibility of the successful learner in advancing academic goals while not in the classroom. This shift toward student-centered learning favors BL environments and requires that faculty members act as guides and facilitators (Brooks, 2010).

Self-Regulation

Bandura (1986) defined self-regulation as an active process that involves self-observation of behaviors, self-judgment, and self-reaction within a particular social context. The triadic reciprocity between the individual’s experiences, the environment or social context, and behavior exert influence on the attainment of goals. Bandura added that individuals possess beliefs about themselves that guide how they think, believe, and act. Under self-reflection, individuals evaluate their experiences and reflect on their thoughts, which will affect future behaviors. A person’s sense of self-efficacy may

determine the planning and execution of a task. The higher the self-efficacy, the better equipped a person is to engage in a difficult task with the goal of mastery instead of the avoidance of such for fear of failing.

Pajares (2002) noted that individuals are self-organizing, proactive, and self-regulating and intuitively adapt their strategies to changes in their learning environment. The nature of the learning experience and their beliefs about their academic capabilities will determine what classes they might take, how much effort is needed, and how to face or avoid obstacles. Students who have a high sense of self-efficacy will be more resilient, persistent, and put forward more effort. Pajares (2002) added that the process of creating and using self-beliefs comes as a result of engaging in behaviors, examining outcomes, interpreting the results, and acting in concert with what they have accomplished based on their success or failure in their ability.

Self-Regulated Learning

Boekaerts and Corno (2005) posited that successful self-regulated learners are better at setting learning goals, implementing effective strategies to achieve those goals, and increasing academic achievement. These learners plan, set goals, monitor, assess, adjust, reassess, are more attentive to the learning process, expend effort and persist better (Bandura, 1989; Zimmerman, 2008; Schunk & Zimmerman, 2008). Zimmerman (2002) added that each individual might use specific strategies for a particular learning task. For novices—in this case, those starting the study of a foreign language—using high-quality self-regulated processes can significantly increase motivation (McPherson & Zimmerman, 2011). Beyond the scope of the impact of SRL strategies on academic achievement, researchers have found that better users of SRL strategies are more

successful in life beyond the classroom (Barkley, 2010; Boekaerts, 1997; Zimmerman, 2002).

SRL is rooted in social cognitive theory and is defined as “the process whereby learners personally activate and sustain cognitions, affects, and behaviors that are systematically oriented toward the attainment of personal goals” (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2011 p. 1). Similarly, Pintrich (2000) defined the term as “an active, constructive process whereby learners set goals for their learning and then attempt to monitor, regulate, and control their cognition, motivation, and behavior, guided and constrained by their goals and the contextual features of the environment” (p. 453). Pintrich (2000) also added that the SRL perspective encompassed motivational, affective, cognitive, and contextual strategies. Students who are self-regulated construct knowledge using cognitive and metacognitive strategies, persevere and evaluate performance to achieve academic success (Radovan & Kristyl, 2017).

Self-Regulated Learning Strategies

By extension, SRL strategies are the motivational, behavioral, and metacognitive strategies that learners actively use to participate in their learning. Within the metacognitive realm of SRL strategies, the learner sets goals, plans, self-evaluates, and monitors progress (Broadbent & Poon, 2015). Metacognition, a term coined by Flavell in 1976, is defined as "one's knowledge concerning one's own cognitive processes, or anything related to them, e.g., the learning-relevant properties of information or data. For example, I am engaging in metacognition if I notice that I am having more trouble learning A than B; if it strikes me that I should double-check C before accepting it as fact." (Flavell, 1976, p. 232). Elaborating on the importance of metacognition, Pintrich

(2002) emphasizes the need to explicitly teach students metacognitive strategies to help them understand how they are thinking in the context of a class. Individuals with poor metacognitive skills are outperformed by their peers, while those with good metacognition demonstrate good academic performance (Coutinho, 2007; Dunning et al., 2003; Tanner, 2012).

The active role of learners in using SRL strategies to plan, execute, evaluate, and redirect their learning impacts their success. According to self-regulation theorists, learning involves personal, behavioral, and contextual components (Zimmerman, 1990). Bandura's self-efficacy theory (1989) and Pintrich's conceptual framework of self-regulation concur with Zimmerman's perspective regarding the cyclical nature of self-regulation and the assumption that students can regulate their cognition, motivation, and behavior to achieve goals and improve performance (Zimmerman, 1989).

In terms of motivation, a highly self-regulated learner will exhibit increased attention, choice of task, effort, and persistence (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2011). Regarding behavior, the learner proactively seeks information to maximize their study's effectiveness, manages their environment, looks for help, and adjusts based on the results obtained (Zimmerman, 2002). Guterman and Newman (2021) asserted that control of self-regulation of one's effort to learn contribute to academic success even in the presence of disturbances. Those students who are self-regulated overcome challenges effectively. Blanco et al. (2020) added that students tended to adjust and cope during the COVID-19 pandemic, and those who report a high level of self-efficacy fared better than those with lower levels.

Much of the literature focuses on the description of sound practices to attain academic goals through self-regulation. However, the failure to self-regulate efficiently, especially in a blended or online environment, may explain why coping mechanisms (e.g., procrastination), which, in turn, increases dissatisfaction, contributes to a rise in SRL strategies and is paramount in online and blended environments, given that students have more autonomy in their learning process. In Broadbent's (2017) study on the efficacy of SRL strategies in blended and online environments, the researcher observed that online students used more SRL strategies than BL students, except for peer learning and help-seeking. Broadbent echoed the need for more studies comparing the use of SRL strategies on the blended and online environments to identify what resources are more efficient for students and to characterize further if there are differences in the type of learner who chooses to undertake online or blended courses.

Motivation

Dörnyei (2001) stated that motivation is related to why people decide to do something, how long they persist in performing that activity, and how hard they pursue it. Motivation is also defined as energy to pursue a goal, curiosity or desire to achieve, and sustained investment of time, interest, and energy (Ryan & Deci, 2000; William & Burden, 1997). Furthermore, motivation is understood as "the process whereby goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained" (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2008, p. 4). Over the years, the challenge remains in defining motivation as a trait, a state, or a process. A student may have a full commitment to learning; therefore, motivation would be a trait. However, as Wolters and Pintrich (2001) and Dörnyei (2020) stated, the commitment that a student feels for academic subjects may differ from one course to another. In the latter

example, motivation would be seen more as a state than as a trait. Therefore, motivation shall be seen as an ever-changing process that depends on many factors rather than attributes (Dörnyei, 2020).

Although this study briefly mentions the role that personality may have in the learning of second languages, the focus of this research does not include data on linguistic skills, such as writing at an advanced level, to objectively evaluate if L2 production is the result of a state (situation or task-specific) or a trait (part of the student's personality), which extends to other areas of learning as well. Motivation in second or foreign languages has been studied as a trait. As such, studies have sought to determine if students' motivation is integrative, instrumental, or if the motivation is present at all. Expectations dictate that motivational orientation (instrumental, integrative, or cognitive) interacts with state motivation in a specific learning situation (Julkunen, 2001). As the MSLQ is an instrument designed to examine the role of motivation in a college-course as a unit, the scope of this study does not include the intricacies of motivation in receptive and productive language skills. Studies by Cubillos (2007) and Ushida (2005) represent the few studies conducted on motivation in Spanish as a second or foreign language.

To speak of a self-regulated language learner, there must be a context in which the student possesses a willingness to learn over a period of time. Learners who use cognitive procedures, such as organizing or monitoring their learning, adapting their behavior to succeed in different environments, and displaying self-regulative patterns exhibit higher motivation levels (Schunk and Zimmerman, 1998). Students are tasked with a higher level of independence derived from the instructor's physical absence in the online, blended, or remote setting. Hence, students' ability to self-regulate is based on

their self-observations and may not be as accurate. In the absence of a supportive learning system and social relations established with peers, the physical and social environment changes affect each learner. McGoarthy (2001) argues that to be relevant to second language instruction, motivation must focus on the individual learners to understand how learners in different environments approach, carry out, and evaluate tasks.

Motivation in L2

Motivation in L2 is one of the variables that has been most observed and studied for the last six decades, from Gardner's pioneer study of 1959 to the holistic person-centered view presently at work (Allan, 2007; Dörnyei, 1994; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009). The surge in interest in motivation in L2 has been documented by Boo et al. (2015). The authors reported a four-fold increase in the number of published papers on the L2 motivation research from 2004-2014.

Although present in research during the decade in question, the more static aptitude trait did not gather as much interest. Researchers suggest that motivation is one of the most influential factors that affect students' attitudes regarding language learning. However, Dörnyei and Kubanyiova (2014) argued that, in addition to motivation and language aptitude, the role of each learner's active and creative participation through the use of their specific learning techniques is fundamental. Ushida (2005) referred to learners' attitudes and motivation in studying a second language within the online context. The researcher suggested that motivated students are keener on studying and perfecting their language skills. Ushida (2005) also noted that the instructor's role in technology-enhanced classes is critical as the course's implementation affects the class culture. Echoing this point, Bañados (2013) added that teachers are seen as collaborators

who guide, support, and provide feedback to students in the blended environment. Therefore, transitioning from FTF to a blended model can present challenges for faculty who lack training in the effective design of blended classes. The importance of designing and redesigning blended courses that address the multiplicity of learning styles and provide training and support for instructors and students new to the hybrid environment should not be understated (Poon, 2013).

To determine what variables affect the learning of L2 learners offers a challenge. According to Lim and Morris (2009), one of the limiting factors in determining learning variables is that the studies on blended learning are scarce. Most empirical studies are conducted in settings with one delivery method, such as online or F2F instruction. However, in the same study, the authors indicated that access to blended instruction enhances the learning experience by increasing student satisfaction and promoting learning. This shift toward student-centered learning favors blended learning environments and requires that faculty act as guides and facilitators (Brooks, 2010).

L2 Motivation in Languages Other Than English (LOTE)

Although there is extensive theoretical and empirical research placing motivation and the use of learning strategies as the leading research topic in the psychology of the second language learner, the comprehensive article by Boo et al. (2015), in which the authors examined 416 journal articles and book chapters on L2 motivation research, corroborated that 73% of empirical investigations in the field between 2005 and 2014 have English as the foreign language studied. The prevalence of people learning English as a second or foreign language increased more than that of all other languages. Emphasizing the English language dominance worldwide, Ushioda and Dörnyei (2017, p.

452) termed English as “the established lingua franca of the global village.” The authors also cautioned about the lack of balance in terms of geographical context (East Asia represented 25% of published work and the United States accounted for 9% of such papers; all other studies came from 50 additional countries) and the rise of English as the second language studied (Boo et al., 2015).

While these studies on English as a second or foreign language provide valuable insight, there is a lack of information on other foreign languages within the scope of research on L2 motivation. To date, the most substantiated framework on the area of L2 motivation is the L2 Motivational Self-System (L2MSS) created by Dörnyei in 2005; however, this instrument is most relevant in English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts. A meta-analysis conducted by Mendoza and Phung (2019) included 30 studies on L2MSS research on LOTEs completed between 2005 and 2011. Six of the research papers included Spanish as one of the target languages of the investigation. Three were conducted with university students from the United States: Anya (2011) centered her study around motivational profiles of Black college students who were successful L2 learners; Huensch and Thompson (2017) studied the connection between the L2MSS and attitudes toward improving pronunciation, and Nagle (2018) reported on the relationship between motivation and pronunciation for Intermediate L2 learners.

According to Thompson (2017), the motivational aspects involved in English learning are not necessarily applicable to languages other than English (LOTE). In the United States, Spanish, on the one side, is the language of the conquered, the colonized, and immigrants. On the other, it is a language gaining economic value (García & Mason,

2008). Studying the role that motivation may play in Spanish learning in the United States cannot be devoid of its context. Thompson added that Spanish in the United States emulates English in other contexts as a useful tool for career advancement. Such motivation has been described as the driving force that sustains the long process of learning a second or foreign language (Dörnyei, 2005).

Motivation, even in the face of lack of aptitude, plays a vital role in the learner's level of engagement, and the lack of such might deter those with language aptitude from being successful learners. Dörnyei's model differs from previous theoretical frameworks from the last three decades. It recognizes the heightened place of English as a global language and the importance of the learner's self-concept specific to language learning. Dörnyei's (2005) L2MSS framework consists of three components: Ideal L2 Self, Ought-to L2 self, and L2 Learning Experience.

The Ideal L2 Self implies that the learner has a desired future self-image sufficiently different from the current self. The task of embarking on L2 learning is seen as plausible and comes from the internal desire to learn and have a vision created by the right conditions that justify the effort exerted in learning. The learners visualize themselves as proficient in the second language and also considers failure as a possibility, which activates the desire to follow an action plan. The Ideal L2 Self is the learner's mental representation of who the learners will become once they achieve their L2 goal. Under this section of the L2MSS questionnaire, the nine items inquire about the learner's wishes to live in an English-speaking country, embark on a future career in which English is essential, or speak English with international friends or colleagues.

A study that supports the importance of the Ideal L2 Self and motivation in LOTE was conducted by Busse and Walter (2013) in the United Kingdom. The researchers found that the group of university students majoring in German experienced a decrease in their effort to engage with the German language, which lessens their motivation and self-efficacy beliefs despite their wish to become proficient in their chosen field of study. The decline in motivation was attributed to such factors as having three hours of language classes per week, partly taught in English; receiving all other content instruction in English; and completing language exercises that lacked relevance to their degree.

The second component, Ought-to L2 Self, "concerns the attributes that one believes one ought to possess to meet expectations and to avoid possible negative outcomes" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009). The eight items under this section include extrinsic components, such as the learner's perceptions of the consequences that may arise if they fail in learning English. Some items include fear of letting other people down, pressure of learning to meet expectations set by family members, peers, or society, need to be considered an educated person, or garner respect and reputation.

The last section of the L2MSS questionnaire, L2 Learning Experience, refers to "situated, executive motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009, p. 29). The items included in this section inquire about the learner's perceptions of the class environment, such as level of interest in learning English, desire to attend lessons, and quality of materials and instruction.

A significant number of individuals choose English to advance career development or as a curricular obligation; however, this type of external motivation is not as prevalent when examining languages other than English (Thompson, 2017). According

to Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie (2017), the English–LOTE imbalance raises various language acquisition problems worldwide. In a study conducted by Busse (2017) exploring adolescent students' attitudes towards learning English and other European languages in Bulgaria, Germany, the Netherlands, and Spain, the researcher observed that while there were differences in language learning at each location, students in all four countries were highly aware of the global status of English. While this awareness positively influenced students' attitudes toward English, Busse (2017) asserted that it could also negatively affect students' attitudes towards learning LOTE. Ushioda (2013) also discussed how the English language's globalization could negatively impact motivation to learn LOTEs, specifically through a macro-sociological lens. Ushioda argued that current frameworks that study L2 motivation promote a narrow instrumentalist view and should be thought of as tools to address the overarching issue of motivation in language attainment. However, the author cautions that these frameworks should not be used to assume validity in all language learning contexts.

According to the 2019 Census Bureau, new data on language shows that Spanish is the largest non-English language spoken in the US at home by 41.7 million people (Census Bureau, 2019). On the topic of Spanish as a Second Language in the United States context, Ushida (2005) authored one of the few studies on L2 achievement within Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) environments. Chenoweth et al. (2006) conducted an empirical study to investigate the effectiveness of a BL course on students' learning outcomes (speaking, writing, listening, and reading) at the elementary and intermediate levels of Spanish classes from 2000 to 2002. The researcher found similar progress in blended Spanish and French elementary courses as their equivalent in the FTF

setting. Considering that this research did not address the role of motivation, Ushida (2005) conducted a follow-up study to assess the role of motivation and attitudes in the blended context. The author measured motivation, levels of anxiety, instrumental and integrative motivation, and computer anxiety. The findings indicated that motivation remained positive during the course duration. Young (2008) addressed students' linguistic performance in a blended Spanish class but did not address motivation in the research.

Theoretical Frameworks

For this study, I focused on two frameworks: Pintrich's Self-Regulated Learning Framework and Dörnyei's three-level framework of L2 motivation. The former encompasses self-regulation in the context of postsecondary education. The latter homes in on the role of motivation from a classroom perspective concerning three levels: the learner, the language, and the learning situation. Extensive information exists on the L2MSS and its role as the most prominent second language motivation questionnaire and the learners' score as a predictor of learning effort (Papi, 2010; Taguchi et al., 2009); however, studies by other scholars have noted that although the learners' L2MSS could predict their learning intention, the results did not indicate that the scores were a strong predictor of academic performance (Subekti, 2018).

Pintrich's Self-Regulated Learning Framework

Pintrich (2004) outlines a conceptual framework for SRL, specifically for the college classroom, to further encapsulate and refine existing SRL frameworks. The author prefaces this framework by outlining the four assumptions fundamental to the SRL perspective:

1. Learners maintain an active role in their learning process and construct their personal goals and strategies from external and internal factors.
2. Learners have a certain level of control (in the appropriate contexts and circumstances) over their cognition, motivation, and behavior and can monitor these aspects independently.
3. Learners should always have a goal or a set standard to compare themselves to others throughout the learning process.
4. Self-regulatory activities can act as intermediaries between academic performance and personal or contextual factors.

The Pintrich's Self-Regulated Learning Framework (Table 1) is categorized into four phases: (1) forethought, planning, and activation; (2) monitoring; (3) control; and (4) reaction and reflection. Students prepare to learn by planning, setting goals, and becoming acquainted with the task at hand during the initial phase. In the second phase, students develop an awareness of the self, the task, and the context in which learning occurs. During phase three, students strategize and adjust to accomplish the task. The fourth phase allows for reflection on the process. Each of the four phases extends into four different regulation areas: cognition, motivation/affect, behavior, and context. Pintrich's framework elaborates on the principle that the learner can self-regulate motivational and cognitive elements within a specific learning context.

The MSLQ developed by Pintrich, Smith, García, and McKeachie in 1991 addresses the intersection between the four phases of SRL and each of the four areas for self-regulated learning.

Table 1

Phases and Areas for Self-Regulated Learning

	Cognition	Motivation/Affect	Behavior	Context
Phase 1 Forethought, planning, and activation	Target goal setting	Goal orientation adoption	Time and effort planning	Perception of task
	Prior content knowledge activation	Efficacy judgments	Planning for self observations of behavior	Perceptions of context
	Metacognitive knowledge activation	Perceptions of task difficulty	Task value activation	Interest activation
Phase 2 Monitoring	Metacognitive awareness and monitoring of cognition	Awareness and monitoring of motivation and affect	Awareness and monitoring of effort, time use, need for help Self-observation of behavior	Monitoring changing task and context conditions
Phase 3 Control	Selection and adaptation of cognitive strategies for learning, thinking	Selection and adaptation of strategies for managing, motivation, and affect	Increase/decrease effort Persist, give up Help-Seeking behavior	Change or renegotiate task Change of leave context
Phase 4 Reaction and reflection	Cognitive judgments Attributions	Affective reactions Attributions	Choice behavior	Evaluation of task Evaluation of context
Relevant MSLQ Scales	Rehearsal Elaboration Organization Critical Thinking Metacognition	Extrinsic Goals Task Value Control Beliefs Self-Efficacy Test Anxiety	Effort Regulation Help-Seeking Time/Study Environment	Peer Learning Time/Study Environment

(Pintrich, 2004, p. 390)

By developing SRL profiles based on the data provided by quantitative studies, such as the one by Wormington et al. (2012), in which the researchers tested the correlation between motivation and self-regulation among 1066 high school students, there was empirical evidence that the more SRL strategies a learner used, the better the outcome. Those learners who exhibited a high degree of intrinsic motivation and high quality of self-regulation fared better than those whose profiles indicated lower intrinsic motivation combined with lower use of SRL strategies. At the college level, the study by Valle et al. (2008), in which 489 college students were classified as low, mid, and high self-regulated learners, the results obtained as indicated by academic achievement suggest that there is a significant positive correlation between the use of SRL strategies and academic achievement. Students who deployed SRL strategies at a higher rate exhibited higher academic achievement, while those in the low SRL level range were paired with lower achievement.

Dörnyei's Three-Level Framework of L2 motivation

Stemming from Gardner's social-cognitive approach, Dörnyei's three-level framework entails instrumental and integrative motivation (Table 2). The three levels—language, learner, and learner situation—refer to the reasons for learning the language, the learner's characteristics, and the specific situation related to the course and the social environment. In Dörnyei's words, "the exact nature of the social and pragmatic dimensions of L2 motivation is always dependent on *who* learns, *what* languages *where*" (Dörnyei, 1994, p. 275). In the blended or remote L2 environment, where the nature of the class demands students to be more independent and responsible for their learning, L2 motivation and learning strategies become factors of great importance. Researchers in L2

conducted studies on undergraduate students to determine the factors that are important in their learning and found that students who had academic failures took little responsibility for their learning, showed little or no interest in the subject matter, and blamed their lack of success on faculty and the course material (Nilson, 2013).

Table 2

Components of Foreign Language Learning Motivation

LANGUAGE LEVEL	Integrative Motivational Subsystem Instrumental Motivational Subsystem
LEARNER LEVEL	Need for Achievement Self-Confidence · Language Use Anxiety · Perceived L2 Competence · Causal Attributions · Self-Efficacy
LEARNING SITUATION LEVEL	
Course-Specific Motivational Components	Interest Relevance Expectancy Satisfaction
Teacher-Specific Motivational Components	Affiliative Drive Authority Type Direct Socialization of Motivation · Modelling · Task Presentation · Feedback
Group-Specific Motivational Components	Goal-orientedness Norm & Reward System Group Cohesion Classroom Goal Structure

(Dörnyei, 1994, p. 280). *The Modern Language Journal, (78).*

I have outlined the two frameworks relevant to the motivational and self-regulation constructs included in my study. The primary reason for the inclusion of Pintrich's framework is its alignment with the MSLQ. Pintrich's research on SRL and motivation in college students focuses on the learners as active participants who, to some extent, can monitor, control, and regulate certain aspects of their cognition, motivation, and behavior within a specific course (Pintrich, 2004). The addition of Dörnyei's framework to this study responds to the need to contextualize motivation as it applies to learning a second or foreign language. Dörnyei's framework comes as a response to the status-quo prevalent in foreign and second languages teaching until the 1990s. The motivational component of Gardner's model was grounded on a person's social environment rather than the language classroom. According to Dörnyei's assessment, this model did not include details on the cognitive aspects present in learning a language. To bring the field of L2 motivation forward, Dörnyei's three-level framework, composed of the L2, the L2 learner, and the L2 learning environment, provided me with the opportunity to encase this research thinking of how the learner studies a language within a specific personal and situational context. At the learner level, this framework encapsulated the need for achievement and self-confidence, taking into account factors such as language anxiety, perceived competence, past experiences, and self-efficacy. This framework details specific, actionable items at the language and learner level that promote student success. Dörnyei emphasizes the importance of emphasizing commonalities between the students' native and L2 language, fostering interactions with L2 speakers, and bringing realia to the classroom. At the learner's level, the researcher

adds, it is primordial to help students experience success, build confidence, set attainable goals, and link effort and outcome.

Summary

This chapter highlights BL, and by extension, remote learning, as a field with much pedagogical potential in modern society. While there are many definitions of BL regarding the ratio of asynchronous technology to FTF learning, BL competes with traditional classrooms by allowing instructors to increase flexibility in course design and cater to a broader array of students. Learners use metacognitive SRL strategies to maintain control over their learning by constructing personal goals and strategies tied to learners' motivation. As noted in this chapter, motivation and SRL strategies are crucial factors within the blended learning context, especially concerning L2 learners. The chapter concluded with Pintrich's SRL Framework, which entailed the four phases of SRL and regulation and catalyst for the MSLQ instrument used in this study. Dörnyei's three-level framework was discussed to provide a historical context, emphasizing the importance of L2 motivation and learning strategies. The following chapter provided an overview of the methodology for the study.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

This chapter described the research methodology used to investigate whether motivational orientation scales (IG, EG, TV, and SE), metacognitive self-regulation (MSR), and cumulative GPA can be identified as predictors of academic performance as measured by self-reported Spanish class grade among students registered in remote asynchronous Elementary Spanish I and II classes at a large public research university in the Southeastern United States. The classes were taught asynchronously due to COVID-19. There were 301 students registered in Elementary Spanish classes, of which 168 agreed to participate in this study. The chapter also included the research design, description of participants, setting for the study, variables, and instrumentation. In addition, the chapter included a description of the data collection procedures of this quantitative study by examining the following research question:

Do the predictor variables of motivation, use of metacognitive SRL strategies, and cumulative GPA account for a significant amount of variability in academic performance as determined by self-reported class grade?

Research Design

This quantitative research study used correlational research procedures to examine the research question. The cross-sectional descriptive design sought to examine relationships between the predictor variables: (a) intrinsic motivation; (b) extrinsic motivation; (c) task value; (d) self-efficacy; (e) use of metacognitive SRL strategies; (f) self-reported cumulative GPA; and the outcome variable of self-reported grade in the course. Employing a correlational design, I used one or more predictor variables to project performance on one or more other variables. Although correlational research

looks at the strength and direction of relationships among the predictor variables, causal inferences between predictor and outcome variables should be avoided (Mertens, 2014), and causal inferences are limited. A simultaneous multiple regression was conducted to understand whether class grades can be predicted based on the predictor variables outlined above.

In terms of epistemological approaches, this quantitative study was post-positivist.

According to this paradigm, although reality exists and the truth can be revealed utilizing experiments or statistics in a quantitative study, the possibility of biases has to be recognized, especially when conducting research in the social sciences (Robson, 2002). Creswell and Creswell (2018) added that "we cannot be absolutely positive about our claims of knowledge when studying the behavior and actions of humans" (p.6).

Role of the Researcher

I uploaded into Qualtrics a 34-item Likert-scale survey from the 81-item MSLQ developed by Pintrich, Smith, García, and McKeachie (1991). I gathered demographic information on gender, race, work and study hours, reasons for taking the course, self-reported class grades, and GPA. There was also a question related to the students' perception of the effect that COVID-19 exerted on their class performance. The survey, offered to volunteers taking the remote Elementary Spanish I or Spanish II classes, was submitted anonymously. The researcher collected all data, used SPSS to conduct the statistical analyses, and examined what role, if any, motivation and SRL strategies exerted in the learning of Spanish as determined by the student's self-reported grade.

Positionality of the Researcher

I have worked as an instructor of lower-division Spanish courses at public and private higher education institutions in different states. I am a native speaker of the Spanish language who earned an undergraduate BA in Philology and Languages and an MA in the Teaching of Languages: Spanish and TESOL. As an instructor and former coordinator of lower-division Spanish courses, I have taught first- and second-year courses to thousands of students. As an instructor who is actively working on questioning how instruction delivery is most useful for students, I have observed students' successes and failures while learning Spanish as a second language in college. I assumed that a significant percentage of the students in large public institutions who take Spanish in a blended or remote format may have lower motivation levels and may be less efficient using metacognitive SRL strategies within the specific context of Elementary Spanish classes when compared to FTF learners. I also assumed that students reporting high motivation as measured by task value data and goal orientation would exhibit higher use of metacognitive SRL strategies.

The change to ERT that stemmed from the COVID-19 pandemic did not change my assumptions regarding motivation and self-regulation in this environment from what I would have assumed for the blended mode of delivery. I assumed that intrinsic and extrinsic goal orientation, self-efficacy, and metacognitive self-regulation would be significant predictors of success or failure in the remote modality. The data collected during the first complete academic term consisting of two summer sessions of ERT due to the pandemic provided information on the perception of motivational orientation and the use of MSR strategies under an imposed learning environment.

Protection of Human Subjects

To abide by federal regulations and University policy, the completion of this study complied with safeguards against the potential physical, psychological, social, economic, or legal harm of participants. The study received University's Institutional Review Board approval. All participants were at least 18 years old and signed informed consent forms agreeing to the terms of the study before they provided data. This research involving human subjects was exempt under Category 2: Surveys, Tests, and Observations. Information obtained through the survey was recorded so that the human subjects cannot be identified directly or through identifiers linked to them. The survey was completed online with the participation of all volunteers, and responses were coded without personal identifiers.

I collected and analyzed data on motivational traits and SRL strategies used by students enrolled in remote asynchronous Elementary Spanish I and Elementary Spanish II classes; the results provided insight into what factors were statistically significant predictors of students' academic performance measured by their self-reported class grade. Before conducting the experiment, I assumed that extrinsic motivation factors, such as fulfilling a requirement, obtaining a good grade, improving or maintaining a good GPA, would receive a higher score than those factors affecting intrinsic motivation, such as learning Spanish with the intent of becoming fluent, being challenged by the class content, or visiting a Spanish-speaking country. I decided to include the task value scale to have data on the students' perceived importance, usefulness, and interest in the course materials and learning content. Although this investigation aimed not to observe language

skills, the relevance of the class's overall perception of motivational constructs and self-regulation added value to this study.

After analyzing the data, I determined what motivational and self-regulation constructs have a significant role in receiving a positive outcome measured by self-reported grades in this Spanish class. Questions remain as to the role of task value and its correlation with the increased use of SRL strategies and the role of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in self-regulation.

Context

Setting and Sample

The study was conducted at a large urban research university in the Southeastern United States. Total enrollment surpasses 30,000 students, of which over 24,000 are undergraduate enrollees and 37% of students self-identify as a racial or ethnic minority. The researcher requested and obtained permission from the Department of Languages and Culture Studies to deploy the Qualtrics self-report survey to all students taking all sections of remote asynchronous Elementary Spanish I and Elementary Spanish II classes offered during the summer term of 2020. All findings and recommendations that stemmed from the study were made available to the Chair of the Department of Languages and Culture Studies and, at their discretion, to other faculty in the department. At my request, all surveys were deployed during the last week of the course during summer terms.

All students, provided that they were of legal age, received an email with an invitation to participate in the study. I sent an email to the Coordinator for Elementary Spanish, who forwarded it to all faculty teaching sections of Elementary Spanish I and Elementary Spanish II during the summer session of 2020. This study was conducted

using convenience sampling, a type of nonprobability sampling, because members of the target population met the criteria and were willing to participate in the study. The researcher had access to the population of interest.

All participants enrolled in all remote asynchronous sections of Elementary Spanish I and II received a Qualtrics link with a self-report survey. The second section of the survey included demographic information. The survey consisted of 34 Likert-scale items and was intended to gauge motivation and the use of SRL strategies in a remote asynchronous Elementary Spanish I or II class.

The Elementary Spanish I and II classes were multi-section intensive courses taught over five weeks. The courses were taught remotely and asynchronously. During the last ten days of the five-week term, the course instructor distributed the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ). Participation in the study was anonymous and voluntary. Students received the incentive of replacing their lowest quiz grade for a perfect score of 100%. The total percentage for the quiz section (3 quizzes) was 10% of the class grade.

Variables

According to Creswell and Creswell (2018), independent or predictor variables influence or relate to the outcome in studies. However, in nonexperimental research, such as the present study, there is no manipulation of the independent variable. The researcher measures variables in the manner in which survey data presents them. The predictor variables in this study were intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, task value, self-efficacy, use of metacognitive self-regulation strategies, and self-reported GPA. The self-reported grade was the dependent variable used in the multiple linear regression analysis.

Instrumentation and Measures

The survey used in this study consisted of two sections. In the first section, participants were administered the MSLQ. In the second section of the survey, participants responded to a series of demographic questions.

Instrument

The MSLQ was developed to measure the types of learning strategies and academic motivation used by college students in any specific course (Pintrich et al., 1991). The MSLQ consists of 15 modular scales that measure motivation and use of self-regulated learning strategies and uses a 7-point Likert-scale. The MSLQ consists of 81 items on 15 subscales; the instrument is modular and allows the researchers to use the scales to fit their particular study. Pintrich and colleagues developed the MSLQ to measure students' motivational orientations and their use of learning strategies for a specific college course. As such, the results that a student may obtain when measuring motivation for a particular class may differ from the results obtained by the same students when measuring motivation in a different course. The researcher administered all items in four subscales from the motivation section of the MSLQ (intrinsic goal orientation, extrinsic goal orientation, task value, and self-efficacy) and all 12 items listed in the metacognition learning strategies section. There was concern about student fatigue as there are 34 items in the survey added to the demographic information data page. However, the researcher found that the shorter survey has been used extensively in dissertations and peer-reviewed papers (e.g., Acevedo, 2018; Artiño, 2005; Ortega et al., 2019).

Motivation Scales

The MSLQ included two subscales intended to measure motivation: intrinsic goal orientation (IG) and extrinsic goal (EG) orientation. The former (IG) refers to studying for learning, achieving mastery, or obtaining internal approval. An example IG question is, "In a class like this, I prefer course material that really challenges me so I can learn new things." Coefficient alpha for IG is 0.74. The latter (EG) referred to studying for obtaining a good grade or seeking external approval; example question, "If I can, I want to get better grades in this class than most of the other students." Coefficient alpha for EG is 0.62. The task value scale (TV) refers to the students' judgment of how interesting, important, and useful the course content is to them, in this case, Elementary Spanish I and II; example question, "I think I will be able to use what I learn in this course in other courses." Coefficient alpha for TV is 0.90. The last subscale included in this study that measures the expectancy component of motivational orientation is self-efficacy (SE). Self-efficacy, a term coined by Bandura in 1977, is defined as an individual's belief in his or her capacity to execute behaviors that are necessary to produce specific results; example question, "Considering the difficulty of this course, the teacher, and my skills, I think I will do well in this class." Coefficient alpha for SE is 0.93.

Learning Strategies Scales

The Learning Strategies section of the MSLQ includes nine subscales that examine cognitive and metacognitive strategies and resource management strategies. For this study, the researcher has included the Metacognitive Self-Regulation (MSR) Learning Strategies. This scale consists of 12 items and focuses on the control and self-regulation aspect, not the knowledge aspect (i.e., the student's knowledge of the

strategies, not their actual use). The metacognitive self-regulatory processes are planning, monitoring, and regulating; an example question is, “When I become confused about something I am reading for this class, I go back and try to figure it out.” Coefficient alpha for MSR is 0.79.

The MSLQ survey administered to the participants included 34 items (Appendix B). Students were instructed to respond to the items on a 7-point Likert-scale (1 = not at all true of me to 7 = very true of me) in terms of their behavior in the specific remote Elementary Spanish I or Elementary Spanish II asynchronous class. The scores were calculated using the mean of the items that comprise that scale. Two items from the MSR scale were reverse-coded when computing the scores. For example, a person who chose 1 for a reversed item received a score of 7 for that item, a 2 becomes a 6, and a 3 becomes a 5. All analyses were performed using SPSS Version 26 (Armonk, NY: IBM Corp.), and statistical significance was assumed at an alpha value of 0.05.

Validity and Reliability of MSLQ

The MSLQ, consisting of 81 items and developed in 1991, has been vetted as reliable and valid by the authors in the ten years after the survey’s development. Since then, researchers who have employed this instrument in different languages and countries while conducting motivation research in various subject matters have also found the MSLQ to be valid and reliable. Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, and McKeachie, authors of the MSLQ, ran two confirmatory analyses that demonstrated reasonable factor validity. Three hundred and eighty college students provided data, and the scale correlations with final grade were significant, moderate, and had predictive validity. Cronbach’s alphas ranged from 0.52 to 0.93. From 1993 to 2019, there have been many peer-reviewed

papers examining the validity and reliability of this instrument (Artiño, 2005; Cho & Summers, 2012; Jackson, 2018; Pintrich et al., 1993; Ramírez Echeverry et al., 2016).

Demographic Information

The second section of the survey collected demographic information including, but not limited to, gender, age, racial and ethnicity information, major, class year, number of classes in the students' schedule, number of hours spent studying for the Spanish class, and number of hours spent working per week. Given the presence of the COVID-19 pandemic, a question was added to inquire about the students' perceptions of the effect, if any, that the pandemic had on their academic performance in the class.

Procedure

Data Collection and Data Analysis

Data were collected after the researcher received IRB permission from the university's review board. After obtaining approval for the study, I contacted the Spanish Language Coordinator by email to describe the purpose of the research and to solicit permission to distribute the survey to all students registered in all remote asynchronous sessions of Elementary Spanish I and II during the summer session of 2020. The recruitment email (see Appendix A) was sent to students during the third week of the five-week class. The IRB approval letter was included in this communication, as well.

Participants in this study received the informed consent form, the purpose of the study, the estimated time to complete the survey, and the assurance of the confidential nature of the study. Participants had ten days to complete the survey. At the end of the survey, the researcher provided a link where the participants added their names and their instructor's name to receive credit for a quiz grade. The link was not connected to the survey to ensure anonymity. Once the participants' names were forwarded to their

instructors, the researcher deactivated the link and deleted all information related to participation in the study.

Statistical analysis was carried out using SPSS (Descriptive and Inferential Statistics). Inferential statistics aided the researcher in determining the relationship between the variables and whether any statistically significant positive or negative correlation existed. A standard multiple regression was used to find the linear combination of predictor variables that accounted for the most variance in the class grade outcome.

Summary

This chapter discussed the research methodology and quantitative design used to investigate the possible differences between motivational orientation, metacognitive self-regulation, and academic performance measured by self-reported class grades among students registered in remote Elementary Spanish I or Spanish II classes taught asynchronously. The instrument used was a 34-item Likert Survey based on the MSLQ created by Pintrich, Smith, García, and McKeachie in 1991. Students provided informed consent, their anonymity was protected, and I conducted the experiment per IRB approval. Instrumentation, measures, and variables were also highlighted.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

The purpose of the study was to investigate whether intrinsic and extrinsic goal orientation, task value, self-efficacy for learning, use of metacognitive SRL strategies, and GPA could be identified as predictors of student academic success among university students enrolled in remote Elementary Spanish I and II courses taught asynchronously. The study was conducted during the Summer 2020 session at a large urban research university in the Southeastern United States. Data for this study were collected from participating students enrolled in six sections of Elementary Spanish I and six sections of Elementary Spanish II. All courses were taught remotely and asynchronously. Of the 301 students enrolled in all sections, 168 participated in the study.

Sample Characteristics

The participants in this study were students enrolled in 12 sections of Elementary Spanish I or II courses taught asynchronously during the summer term of 2020 at a public university in the Southeastern United States. Participation was voluntary and anonymous. A total of 168 students out of 301 registered in the classes completed the survey, resulting in a 55.8% response rate. Of all of the participants, 91 were female (54.2%), and 75 were male (44.6%). Two participants (1.2%) did not indicate gender on the demographic survey. A total of 107 students (63.7%) were white, 37 (22%) were African American, and 24 students (14.3%) chose their race and ethnicity to be Hispanic, Asian, or one or more races. In terms of the academic year, three students (1.8%) were first-year students, 33 (19.6%) were sophomores, 68 (40.5%) were juniors, 61 (36.3%) were seniors. Three participants (1.8%) did not indicate the class year. The GPA range reported by students was as follows: A GPA between 3.5 and 4.0 was reported by 46 students (27.4%), one

between 2.5 and 3.4 by 104 (61.9%), and one between 1.5 and 2.4 by 18 (10.7%). All participants reported a class grade of C or higher. Seventy-eight students took the survey while taking Elementary Spanish I, and 90 students participated while taking Elementary Spanish II. Participants were evenly distributed between both summer terms. Of the 168 participants, 96 (57.1%) reported taking a second class while taking Spanish, while 72 (42.9%) marked that Spanish was the only class that they were taking. Twenty-eight participants (16.7%) reported that they spent between 1 to 3 hours per week studying for the Spanish course, 49 (29.2%) between 3 to 5 hours, 40 (23.8%) reported spending between 5 to 8 hours, and 49 (29.2%) indicated that they spent more than 8 hours per week studying for the course. Two students (1.2%) reported either not studying or dedicating less than one hour per week to outside class preparation.

One hundred and eighteen students (70.2%) stated that they were enrolled in the class because of a major, a minor, or a graduation requirement. Sixty-nine students (41.1%) indicated that taking Spanish would probably aid future career prospects. Lastly, students were asked if COVID-19 had affected their level of motivation for this particular Spanish class. Eighty-eight students (52.4%) stated that COVID-19 had affected them negatively, 59 students (35.1%) reported that COVID-19 did not interfere with their level of motivation, and 21 students (12.5%) reported being neutral about the effect of COVID-19 on their motivation for the class. It is important to restate that I added the COVID-19 question to address the reality of taking a class amid a pandemic. This study does not include research on the role of COVID-19 in terms as it may relate to metacognitive self-regulation strategies or motivation. The demographic characteristics of the sample are provided in Table 3.

Table 3

Numbers and Percentages of Demographic Variables among Participants (N=168)

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
Men	75	44.6%
Women	91	54.2%
Missing	2	1.2%
Race/Ethnicity		
White	107	63.7%
African American	37	22 %
Other races	24	14.3%
Years of Study		
First-year students	3	1.8%
Sophomores	33	19.6%
Juniors	68	40.5%
Seniors	61	36.3%
Other	3	1.8%
Enrollment		
Elementary Spanish I	78	46.4%
Elementary Spanish II	90	53.6%
Second class		
Only Elementary Spanish I or	72	42.9%
II	96	57.1%
Second class		
Self-reported GPA		
3.5 to 4.0	46	27.4%
2.5 to 3.4	104	61.9%
1.5 to 2.4	18	10.7%
Reason(s) for taking Spanish		
Required for graduation, minor, or major	118	70.2%
Favorable to future career prospects	69	41.4%
Personal interest	39	23.2%
Did COVID-19 affect your academic performance in this class?		
True	88	52.4%
False	59	35.1%
Neither true nor false	21	12.5%

Descriptive Statistics

Using the method developed by Pintrich et al. (1991), the MSLQ sub-scale scores for each participant were constructed by taking the mean of the items that make up that scale. For example, the self-efficacy scale has eight items. An individual's self-efficacy score was computed by summing the eight items in the subscale and dividing by the number of items. There are some negatively worded items, and the rating of those questions was reversed before a score was computed. The statistics reported represent the positive wording of all the items. In general, a higher score ranging from 4 to 7 for a sub-scale is better than a lower score ranging from 1 to 3, except for the anxiety scale in which a higher score corresponds to higher anxiety (Pintrich, 1990).

First, descriptive statistics were utilized to examine motivation and metacognitive self-regulation scales. Means and standard deviations of students' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, task value, self-efficacy, and use of metacognitive self-regulation were calculated and reported. A linear multiple regression analysis was conducted to test the hypothesis and determine which, if any, of the independent variables could predict the class grade. A multiple regression is used to understand whether class grades can be predicted based on the variables included in this study. Using multiple regression allows the researcher to gauge how much of the variation is due to each independent variable.

Descriptive statistics for all variables are reported in Figure 1 and Table 4. All MSLQ subscales had an average above 4 (on a 7-point scale), with EG having the largest mean (5.41) and IG having the smallest mean (4.63). As the bar chart indicated, the highest scores were given to extrinsic goal orientation (EG) and the lowest to intrinsic goal orientation (IG). Spanish, as the task value area, was given high marks. The average

cumulative GPA was 3.17, and the self-reported grade for the course had an average of 3.15.

Figure 1

Average per Scale

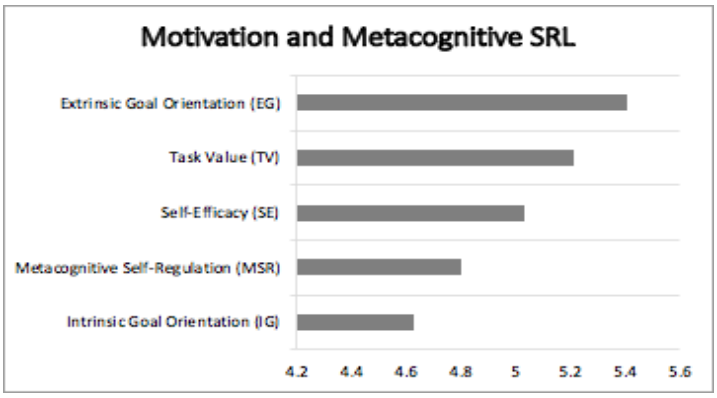

Table 4

Mean Scores and Standard Deviations on Course Grade and MSLQ Sub-scale Summaries

Variable	N	Min	Max	M	SD
Course Grade	168	0	4	3.15	.95
IG	168	1.00	7.00	4.63	1.16
EG	168	1.75	7.00	5.41	1.15
TV	168	1.00	7.00	5.21	1.40
SE	168	1.88	7.00	5.03	1.10
MSR	168	1.83	6.83	4.80	.91
GPA	168	2	4	3.17	.60

Note. Sub-scale mean scores can range from 1 to 7. (IG) intrinsic goal orientation; (EG) extrinsic goal orientation; (TV) task value; (SE) self-efficacy; (MSR) metacognitive self-regulation, (GPA) Grade Point Average

Multiple Regression Results

All analyses were performed using SPSS Version 26, and an alpha level of .05 was used to determine statistical significance. No missing data points were found in any of the variables included in the sample and no outliers were detected that overly influenced the statistical results. The assumption of homoscedasticity, as evaluated by visual inspections of studentized residuals versus unstandardized predicted values, appeared tenable with no obvious patterns noted. There was no evidence of multicollinearity, with tolerance values ranging between 0.34 and 0.97 and variance inflation factor (VIF) statistics ranged between 1.03 and 2.50.

Pearson's correlation coefficients were completed among all variables (see Table 5). There was a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between SE and class grade, r (161) = .51, $p < .001$. There was a statistically significant, low positive correlation between EG and class grade, r (161) = .26, $p < .001$, TV and class grade, r (161) = .21, $p < .001$, MSR and class grade, r (161) = .19, $p < .005$, and IG and class grade, r (161) = .17, $p < .005$.

Table 5

Bivariate Correlations between MSLQ Subscales and Class Grade

	Subscale	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	IG	—						
2	EG	.385**	—					
3	TV	.703**	.406**	—				
4	SE	.612**	.522**	.556**	—			
5	MSR	.723**	.376**	.652**	.665**	—		
6	Class Grade	.174*	.264**	.211**	.512**	**.187***	—	
7	GPA	.022	-.027	.029	.139	.065	.389**	—

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The multiple regression results indicated that the multiple *R* was statistically different from zero, and the predictors accounted for 41% of the variance in course grade, F (6, 161) = 18.65, p <.0005, R^2 = .41, adjusted R^2 = .39. The regression coefficients for the six predictor variables are shown in Table 6. Self-efficacy (SE), metacognitive self-regulation (MSR), and GPA were the three statistically significant predictor variables. Self-efficacy ($p < 0.0001$) and GPA ($p < 0.0001$) had a positive relationship to course grade and registered the largest standardized regression coefficients, .632 and .318, respectively. Although MSR had a negative relationship to course grade (-.238, $p < 0.05$), suggesting that participants with higher MSR scores tended to report lower grades after controlling for all other variables. While there was a positive bivariate correlation between MSR and class grade, MSR had a negative relationship when all the predictor variables were included in the model. This suggest that MSR served as a suppressor in the model.

Table 6

Multiple Regression Predicting Class Grade

	B	SE_B	β	Sig.
Constant	-.045	.461		.922
IG	-.095	.082	-.116	.246
EG	.039	.060	.048	.511
TV	.042	.061	.062	.491
SE	.545	.079	.632	<.001
MSR	-.238	.103	-.229	.022
GPA	.507	.099	.318	<.001

Note. (IG) Intrinsic Goal Orientation; (EG) Extrinsic Goal Orientation; (TV) Task Value; (SE) Self-Efficacy; (MSR) Metacognitive Self-Regulation, (GPA) Grade Point Average

Summary

The purpose of this exploratory research was to examine the perceptions that students had on motivational constructs (intrinsic and extrinsic goal orientation, task value, self-efficacy) and the use of metacognitive self-regulation strategies to determine which predictors, if any, would be statistically significant in determining the outcome of the course grade. The study included 168 students enrolled in all remote, asynchronous sections of Elementary Spanish I or II offered during the summer session of 2020 at a large suburban research university in the Southern United States.

The demographic information revealed that students were almost equally represented by gender; most were third- or fourth-year students. The average grade for the participants was a B, and the average GPA was also in the B range. Data analysis consisted of a multiple linear regression that helped me determine the significance

between the predictor variables and the course grade. The variance reported in the regression model was approximately 40%, which accounts for a substantial amount of variance in the self-reported course grades. For the predictor variables, intrinsic goal orientation, extrinsic goal orientation, and task value are not significant predictors of class performance as determined by class grade. The variables that were statistically significant in predicting class grades were self-efficacy, metacognitive self-regulation, and GPA. The results suggest that students who have higher self-efficacy levels and a higher GPA are likely to receive higher marks than those who display low scores on such data. These findings are supported in the literature and will be discussed in Chapter 5. The construct of metacognitive self-regulation indicated that there is a statistically significant negative correlation with class grade. However, as will be explained in Chapter 5, although MSR had a low positive correlation with the grade, this variable has a high relationship with other predictor variables, which likely suppressed its significance. I ran the data using the revised MSR-R proposed by Tock and Moxley (2017). The original regression results had a slight adjustment, but the construct of MSR continued to be highly statistically significant.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The main goal of this study was to examine whether intrinsic or extrinsic motivation, task value, self-efficacy, metacognition, or cumulative GPA were significant predictors of the class grade for students enrolled in remote, asynchronous Elementary Spanish I or II classes during the summer term of 2020. Although I decided to observe and study the role of motivational constructs and learning strategies in the learning of elementary level Spanish courses, the study did not intend to delve into the role that motivation and self-regulation may or may not exert on specific language skills or grammar performance. Due to the presence of the COVID-19 pandemic, I gathered students' perceptions of the impact that the virus's presence may have had on the learners' academic performance. This chapter includes a discussion of major findings as related to the literature on academic self-efficacy, the use of MSR learning strategies, and what implications may be valuable for use by L2 language instructors teaching at institutions of higher education. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the limitation of the study, areas for future research, and a brief summary.

This chapter contains discussion and future research possibilities to help answer the following research question:

RQ1: Do the predictor variables of motivation (intrinsic and extrinsic goal orientation, task value, self-efficacy), use of metacognitive SRL strategies, and cumulative GPA account for a significant amount of variability in academic performance as determined by self-reported class grade?

Contextualization of Research Findings

A multiple regression analysis was conducted using SPSS Version 26, and an alpha level of .05 was used to determine statistical significance. The analysis revealed that self-efficacy, cumulative GPA, and use of metacognitive self-regulation learning strategies were significant predictors of academic success as determined by students' self-reported grades at the end of the course. Pearson's correlation coefficients showed the following results: there was a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between self-efficacy and class grade, a statistically significant, low positive correlation between extrinsic goal orientation, task value, metacognitive self-regulation, intrinsic goal orientation, and class grade. As previously observed, when the predictor variables were not included in the model, there was a positive bivariate correlation between metacognitive self-regulation and class grade. The significance of these findings is discussed within the context of previous studies on this topic.

My study aligns with previous scholars in that my research found a statistically significant and positive correlation between self-efficacy and class grade. Pajares (1996), for example, reported that the mathematics self-efficacy of undergraduate students was a better predictor of their choice to take math-related courses than prior achievement. Siew-Lian Wong (2005) found a significant positive relationship between learning strategies and language self-efficacy. As is the case in the current study, Siew-Lian Wong indicated that learning strategies were positively correlated with self-efficacy. Participants who exhibited higher levels of language self-efficacy reported higher use of learning strategies. Corroborating these findings, Bandura (1997) also suggested that self-efficacy

contributed a significant role in predicting learners' performance in educational contexts and that this construct alone can predict performance better than the actual abilities that the learner may have. The findings from Aurah (2013) indicated that self-efficacy is a strong predictor of achievement in science. Those learners who display higher self-efficacy levels engage in behaviors that promote learning, especially in challenging subjects such as the sciences.

Previous studies undertaken indicated that academic self-efficacy has been widely researched and proven to be one of the most significant academic performance determinants even in the presence of deterrents, such as a global pandemic (Blanco et al. 2020; Guterman & Neumann, 2021). Although the number of studies regarding self-efficacy in internet-based learning environments (blended, online, or remote) is limited, the findings indicated that self-efficacy is positively correlated with predicted academic achievement (Francescato et al., 2006; Kitsantas & Chow, 2007).

Pajares' (1996) and Aurah's (2013) work on self-efficacy corroborated this study's findings, which indicated that self-efficacy and class grade show a statistically significant positive correlation, which may in part be due to self-efficacy being task-specific and varying based on context. The relevance of self-efficacy in different areas of knowledge, which accounted for the highest variance in this study, was supported in the literature and is a significant SCT component. According to the SCT principles, learning occurs in a social context in which there are dynamic and reciprocal interactions of the person, environment, and behavior (Bandura, 1986).

Although my findings were primarily consistent with previous studies as indicated, there were differences. My study confirmed the use of metacognitive self-

regulation strategies, understood as the learner's perception about their process of planning, executing, and revising, plays a significant role in academic performance as measured by class grade. While there was a positive bivariate correlation between MSR and class grade, this study showed that MSR had a negative relationship when all the predictor variables were included in the model. Pintrich's theoretical framework supported the findings that the cyclical process of metacognitive self-regulation was a significant predictor of academic success. Pintrich's comprehensive framework entails nine scales related to learning strategies and six motivation scales. I must contextualize the results regarding the use of MSR learning strategies in the absence of the other scales: rehearsal, elaboration, organization, and critical thinking. I will elaborate on the specific limitations of the MSR scale later in this chapter. The motivation scales and the inclusion of four of them in the study positioned self-efficacy as the only statistically significant motivational factor affecting academic performance.

A meta-analytic review of the MSLQ conducted by Credé and Phillips (2011), based on 2,158 correlations from 67 independent samples and 19,900 college students, indicated that, although metacognitive and self-regulatory abilities are likely to remain constant, the level of motivation, cognition, and learning behaviors can vary across tasks and may vary depending on the class. Furthermore, Credé and Phillips added that the MSLQ remains a useful research tool based on the meta-analysis results. It measures motivational variables related to learning strategies related to academic performance.

A key caveat for this study that deals with a second or foreign language is that results have to be interpreted by considering individual differences that include personality traits, usage of learning strategies, type of motivation, aptitude for the subject,

learning styles, learning situation, and learner beliefs. Dörnyei's framework, which situated this study within the context of foreign and second language acquisition, is most relevant to the findings at the learner level: the need for achievement, perceived L2 self-confidence, and language use anxiety. Self-efficacy, the most significant predictor of academic performance in my study, indicates that L2 learning failure may come from a learner's inability in their ability to succeed. Self-efficacy is built from observing peers and receiving positive reinforcement. The higher the belief that the students can perform tasks or accomplish goals. Dörnyei added that teachers might enhance and foster a sense of self-efficacy by providing language tasks that are meaningful and achievable, especially when the learner is at a loss.

The MSLQ provides the researcher with an instrument that examines motivation, behavior, and self-regulated strategies for a specific subject. As a result, a student may have very different scores in a subject depending on the level of interest of the class. Each individual learning a second language is unique in how they develop language skills and the manners in which they use cognitive and metacognitive skills in the process (Dörnyei, 2005). Learning a second language involves self-regulated processes that require the learner to plan, set goals, devise a plan, monitor progress, and evaluate outcomes to make adjustments when needed. Al-Harthy et al. (2010) conducted a path analysis in which the researchers studied the relationship between self-efficacy, task value, intrinsic goal orientation, extrinsic goal orientation, metacognitive self-regulation, and learning strategies. As was made abundantly clear in the empirical studies conducted over the last 30 years, self-efficacy has been the most significant predictor of academic success in college-level courses (Köseoğlu, 2015; Nasir & Iqbal, 2019).

As stated in Chapter 4, the presence of SE and cumulative GPA as statistically significant predictor variables likely depressed the correlation coefficients and potentially affected the multiple correlational results that included the MSR variable. In terms of studies conducted on the role of MSR in learning, the common factor is the inclusion of other cognitive learning strategies and scales of self-regulation in the analysis, such as critical thinking, elaboration, and organization. Other variables alluded to in the studies are resource management strategies, such as time and study environment, peer learning, help-seeking, and effort regulation. The survey that I conducted included MSR as the only learning strategy scale limiting the opportunity to determine the relationship between MSR and other cognitive and metacognitive learning strategies. In this research, I found that intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, or task value are significant predictors of academic performance as determined by self-reported class grades. According to the data collected, participants reported higher extrinsic motivation levels (e.g., grade, need to complete a requirement) than intrinsic motivation levels. The value given to the task, in this case learning Spanish, ranked higher than the level of intrinsic motivation to learn. As gathered by descriptive statistics, high motivation levels do not necessarily equate to significance when predicting class grades. Cumulative GPA, self-efficacy, and metacognitive self-regulation were statistically significant predictors of academic performance.

Lastly, although 52% of participants reported that COVID-19 had been adverse to their academic performance, the statistical analysis did not find this item to be significant. In terms of gender, further research is needed to determine the extent to which females exhibit significantly higher self-efficacy. The data in this study indicated that females

outperform males in self-reported class grades. Still, even as women reported earning higher grades, the effect of self-efficacy could not be attributed to that specific construct in isolation.

Implications of Findings

It is necessary to return to the initial stages of this research and the questions that helped instigate this study to speak about its implications. The natural progression of technology; the increasing and robust presence of multiple modes of teaching, such as online, remote, and blended environments; and the importance of motivation and self-regulation provided me with the tools needed to examine the importance of motivation and the use of learning strategies in the specific context of learners of lower-level Spanish classes. The advantages of teaching FTF classes go without saying, but in the face of shrinking budgets, higher class fees, busy life schedules, the presence of blended, online, or mandated remote teaching is not an optional matter.

The study initially focused to examine whether BL or FTF classes would be perceived by the students more favorably and which mode would indicate better academic performance. As a result of the COVID-19 pandemic, this research examined how motivational constructs and metacognitive self-regulation could be significant predictors of academic performance in a remote asynchronous environment. Although this correlational study cannot determine the causal relationship between self-efficacy and the other predictor variables, data gathered during classes entirely taught during the pandemic made this study timely and more relevant.

As stated in the literature review chapter of this study, the research dedicated to motivation and self-regulation strategies in foreign languages is exiguous, hence the gap

in the field of study. Raoofi et al. (2012) conducted a study reviewing empirical research on second language learners' self-efficacy beliefs. Thirty-four papers included in that meta-analysis— English (27 studies), French (4 studies), Chinese (1 study), and Spanish (one study that included learners of German and French as well) —met the criteria for the literature review. The most significant findings indicated that learners' self-efficacy for foreign languages affects performance in different study areas, such as reading and listening. However, more research is needed to examine the role of self-efficacy in the productive skills of speaking and writing.

Consequently, the development and encouragement of self-efficacy in educational settings is a topic that merits further research in foreign languages at the tertiary level, especially on LOTE. The study conducted by Hsieh and Schallert (2008) addresses self-efficacy and attribution (judgments of causes of past performance) in a group of 500 undergraduate students enrolled in French, Spanish, or German. Self-efficacy, consistent with research in other areas, was a significant predictor of academic performance. In this research, it is noted that studying self-efficacy in a foreign language must be thought of within a context that differs from other subjects. The learning of a foreign language may come laden with the learners' perception of the language's culture and the perceived belief that the learner may have of their ability to succeed, the importance of the language matter, the learning strategies that may be needed to succeed, and the learning in a remote, asynchronous environment.

Implications for Practice

Since self-efficacy is one of the most significant predictors of academic success, it is imperative to consider the instructor's role in helping students develop self-efficacy. If

students are given tasks in which they can be successful, have classmates as role models, and receive positive feedback, their trust in their ability to succeed will foster positive beliefs and will increase the likelihood of future engagement. When the opposite is true, students with weak self-efficacy who doubt their abilities, have negative beliefs, attempt to complete a task superficially only to give up quickly, and see failure in advance of solving a problem will see their use of cognitive strategies hindered (Coutinho, 2008). This would suggest that it is imperative to foster self-efficacy, specifically for struggling learners. Margolis and McCabe (2006) speak of the need to strengthen students' beliefs in their academic abilities by promoting enactive mastery, vicarious experiences, and verbal persuasion. Enactive mastery refers to the learner's recognition of failure or success based on previous performance. By providing moderately challenging assignments to students who have difficulty, their chances of achieving success may increase. Vicarious experiences, such as observing classmates modeling a task successfully, may increase self-efficacy. Finally, verbal persuasion that includes positive words of encouragement that align with activities designed to foster success repeatedly may foster self-efficacy in learning.

Recommendations

Advocating for self-efficacy, Schunk and Pajares (2002) stated that providing students with short-term, specific goals that are challenging yet attainable promotes self-efficacy. Additionally, having students take an active role in their learning by planning how to engage in a task, monitor their progress, and strategize about completion aids success.

The forced intersection of remote learning and its effects on self-efficacy is of considerable importance to educators. Students with high self-efficacy will more likely engage in a task successfully, while those with low self-efficacy may need added support to succeed. Short tutoring sessions, explicit explanation of grammar rules, peer coaching, formative feedback—especially in online, F2F, or blended learning environments—will result in self-efficacy gains in second or foreign language contexts (Raoofi et al., 2012). The addition of visual representations like charts, flowcharts, and concept maps, along with low-stake testing, increases students' opportunities to feel self-efficacious.

Classes in foreign languages may bring added anxiety to students and more so when the learning mode asks for them to be independent learners. Understanding that teaching remotely requires more preparation from the teacher to reach students successfully, teaching materials such as e-texts foster the learning process and provide meaningful, clear, and non-punitive feedback. It may be useful to conduct a review of course materials and course design and examine if the tools provided foster student learning and self-efficacy, especially in a remote or online asynchronous setting.

As students navigate the imposed personal and academic disruptions brought by the COVID-19 pandemic, they need awareness and encouragement of their metacognitive strategies to enhance learning motivation (Tolman, 2020). Students need to become more metacognitive about how they learn away from the classroom, the importance of self-assessment, and the need to monitor progress and make adjustments beyond a particular class's scope. Tanner (2012) elaborated on the need to teach students metacognitive strategies explicitly. The researcher proposed providing students with self-questionnaires to promote students' metacognition (planning, monitoring, and evaluating) for a class, a

test, or a homework assignment. If the activity is a class session, Tanner proposed providing planning questions that set the students to be alert about what they will learn, what previous knowledge can be activated, and what questions may arise based on what is known about a topic. The monitoring stage would be prompted by having the students ask themselves about the relevance of the material, the difficulty of the content, and the ability to summarize important information. On the evaluating set of questions, students would answer questions related to their understanding of the material, a plan to get clarification when needed, and the extent to which they accomplished a task or learned a concept. To integrate metacognitive skills into a course, Tanner proposed promoting a culture in which students engage with others to discuss a topic, inquire about concepts that may be confusing, make a plan to prepare for an exam, reflect on progress, and engage with others. Adding to the relevance of metacognitive training, Coutinho (2008) stated that students who undergo metacognitive training were likely to improve academic performance. Using metacognitive skills helped students build self-confidence in the academic setting. Howlett et al. (2021) elaborated that employing in-person and online academic coaching may increase metacognitive awareness as students examine academic concerns and perceived barriers to success.

As a final recommendation, I would like to add the importance of human connection from instructor to student and peer to peer in this remote learning age. A conscientious effort must be in place to collaborate with IT departments to learn about ways to maximize student presence in a remote environment. The remote environment brought by COVID-19 accelerated online education. It highlighted the need not only to be a proficient instructor using virtual classroom or Learning Management Systems but

also to focus on bringing social interaction to the virtual classroom. To provide a healthy environment that promotes metacognition and aids self-efficacy, there must be a curriculum that maximizes opportunities to engage with others, such as breakout rooms, low-stake group assignments, projects in which students are encouraged to engage in tasks while having access to materials and activities that are created to reach goals. As the pandemic continues, it would be advisable that courses be designed to be consistent with building community in online environments, making online courses accessible and equitable while keeping students engaged and supported.

Limitations

This research has some limitations; the first related to self-reported data gathered in a survey. Although the respondents surpassed 56% of possible participants, these results' validity relies on their honesty. Students who are motivated are more likely to participate in the survey than those who are not. In that case, the results may be significantly different if students with lower grades and lower levels of motivation and self-regulation had participated. Another limitation of this study is that the grades were not numerical. With a 10-point difference between each letter grade, there is not enough precision to determine the constructors' real impact on academic performance. Also, the letter grade reported by students was the students' estimate of the mark obtained in the class.

Although the survey for this study was open to students of all academic years, three first-year students participated in the survey, 33 sophomore students, 68 juniors, and 61 seniors. Due to varying participation rates amongst academic years, the data were composed of 76.8% of upper-level students. There is likely variation in the use of MSR

strategies between underclassmen and upper-level students. The results may have differed if more of an equal number of students representing each academic year participated in the study. Additionally, 301 students were registered for Elementary Spanish I and II; however, 168 participated. It is unknown if those who did not participate were mostly upperclassmen.

Another limitation is the cross-sectional nature of a survey and the weaknesses of self-report questionnaires as research instruments. Although this quantitative study provides data that attest to the significance of self-efficacy as a predictor of academic performance, one of the most significant findings to emerge from this study is that MSR negatively correlates with the class grade as per the multiple linear regression results when in conjunction with the other significant variables of GPA and self-efficacy. This finding, contrary to most empirical studies that cite metacognitive self-regulation as having a positive relationship to academic performance or no significant relation, lays the groundwork for future research into the role that MSR may have in blended, remote, online, or FTF classes. However, it must be noticed that the presence of two reverse-coded items may have affected the results. DeVellis (2012) suggested that reverse-coded items may correlate less with other items due to a difficulty in interpreting the wording of the items, and (Zhang et al., 2016) indicated that "the factor structures of Likert scales are very susceptible to the presence of different item types."

Additionally, I chose to assess motivation and self-regulation using a limited number of the MSLQ scales. Under the self-regulation scales, constructs such as peer-mentoring, help-seeking, time management, or critical thinking were not considered possible predictors of class grade; therefore, it is unknown if the MSR construct would

have differed in the presence of other self-regulation scales. Understanding the role of metacognition in the absence of other self-regulation strategies scales is a weakness of this study.

Although the MSLQ has been in use for over three decades, it continues to be the most widely used instrument to measure motivation, metacognition, and behavior. The psychometric properties of the self-regulation scales have been of concern in some studies (Jackson, 2018).

Another possible explanation for the negative correlation between metacognitive self-regulation and class grade in this study is that students may have struggled to plan goals and implement their execution due to the challenge of COVID-19. Although COVID-19 was not found to be a significant predictor of the class grade, 52.4% (88 participants) cited the virus as something that had a negative effect on their academic performance. Anxiety, which was not included in this study, may have also contributed to lower metacognition (Erickson, 2015).

Suggestions for Future Research

The findings of this study have several important implications for future practice. First, the need remains to study the students' perceptions of motivation and self-regulation in online and remote learning environments in Elementary language classes. The present study was conducted with students enrolled in an Elementary Spanish class and completed the course in five weeks in the middle of the COVID-19 pandemic. The accelerated pace of an Elementary level class during the summer in an imposed remote learning mode may have affected the levels of metacognition needed or desired for the course. Feelings of isolation, need for self-discipline, lack of peers, technology issues,

and reduced interactions with the class instructor may hamper the advantages of learning in an asynchronous environment.

The natural progression of this study is to replicate it once the pandemic abates, ideally during a summer term where learning is accelerated. Metacognition is the area of this study that requires a follow-up as the correlation between this construct and self-efficacy is well documented. A future study may consider using a different instrument such as the Metacognitive Awareness Inventory (MAI; Schraw & Dennison, 1994) or, for the sciences, the Self-Efficacy and Metacognitive Learning Inventory-Science (SEMLI-S; Thomas et al., 2008).

Future studies should explore whether self-efficacy is a significant predictor of success within the context of an elementary language course when evaluating productive and receptive language skills. Given the scarcity of empirical evidence, examining the role that self-efficacy may play in intermediate and advanced language learners' academic performance would help contextualize ways to provide needed support to college students in general and language learners in particular.

Summary

The intent of this non-experimental research study was to examine the perceived role of motivation and metacognitive self-regulation strategies in the academic performance of students enrolled in Elementary Spanish I or II classes taught remotely and asynchronously during the first full summer term of 2020 during the COVID-19 pandemic. My study, while limited in scope to one institution and one subject, has some distinctive characteristics to offer a contribution to this field of knowledge. The results of this study provide evidence of similar results to those of existing research examining the

role of self-efficacy and self-regulation in FTF, blended, and online instruction. The primary findings indicated that self-efficacy is the strongest predictor of the class grade. According to Pajares (2002) students who are self-efficacious fare better in the face of obstacles and use self-regulation strategies to achieve goals. The other two significant predictors of academic performance were cumulative GPA and metacognitive self-regulation. This study provided initial data reiterating that Bandura's self-efficacy is a significant predictor of success regardless of the teaching modality. Given that the study was conducted in a summer term during the pandemic, it would be interesting to compare the results with those from other groups of students taking classes in the year 2021 while the pandemic is still forcing institutions of higher education to continue offering ERT.

This study provided initial data reiterating that self-efficacy is a critical component of academic achievement (Bandura 1986, 1997). Given that I conducted the research in a summer term during the pandemic, it would be interesting to compare the results with those from other groups of students taking classes in 2021 while the pandemic still forces some higher education institutions to continue offering remote or hybrid courses.

The study also offers implications for teaching practice. First, the results suggest that a holistic approach to teaching in which self-efficacy and metacognitive learning strategies are encouraged would benefit those who may not excel. The challenge is not for those whose self-efficacy is strong and adapt well to the challenges brought by academics, work, or a pandemic. Instructors may consider directing students to divisions within their schools that offer academic coaching (Howlett et al., 2021). Additionally, instructors should plan lessons beyond the educational content, being mindful that

students' successful experiences increase self-efficacy while negative results erode their perceived self-efficacy. Metacognition, a teachable skill, grows when students learn to express what they do not understand, review what they have learned, reflect on what is challenging, and are active participants in their learning. Many college academic coaching programs help students discuss academic strategies, create action plans, assess progress, and identify support and resources.

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Appendix A: MSLQ

Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire*

Please rate the following items based on your behavior in this class. Your rating should be on a 7- point scale where 1= not at all true to 7=definitely true

Intrinsic Goal Orientation

1. In a class like this, I prefer course material that really challenges me so I can learn new things.
2. In a class like this, I prefer course material that arouses my curiosity, even if it is difficult to learn.
3. The most satisfying thing for me in this course is trying to understand the content as thoroughly as possible.
4. When I have the opportunity in this class, I choose course assignments that I can learn from even if they don't guarantee a good grade.

Extrinsic Goal Orientation

5. Getting a good grade in this class is the most satisfying thing for me right now.
6. The most important thing for me right now is improving my overall grade point average, so my main concern in this class is getting a good grade.
7. If I can, I want to get better grades in this class than most of the other students.
8. I want to do well in this class because it is important to show my ability to my family, friends, employer, or others.

Task Value

9. I think I will be able to use what I learn in this course in other courses.
10. It is important for me to learn the course material in this class.
11. I am very interested in the content area of this course.
12. I think the course material in this class is useful for me to learn.
13. I like the subject matter of this course.
14. Understanding the subject matter of this course is very important to me.

Self-Efficacy

15. I believe I will receive an excellent grade in this class.
16. I'm certain I can understand the most difficult material presented in the readings.
17. I'm confident I can understand the basic concepts taught in this course.
18. I'm confident I can understand the most complex material presented by the instructor in this course.
19. I'm confident I can do an excellent job on the assignments and tests in this course.
20. I expect to do well in this class.
21. I'm certain I can master the skills being taught in this class.

22. Considering the difficulty of this course, the teacher, and my skills, I think I will do well in this class.

Metacognitive Self-Regulation

23. ** During class time I often miss important points because I am thinking of other things.
24. When reading for this course, I make up questions to help focus my reading.
25. When I become confused about something I'm reading for this class, I go back and try to figure it out.
26. If course materials are difficult to understand, I change the way I read the material.
27. Before I study new course material thoroughly, I often skim it to see how it is organized.
28. I ask myself questions to make sure I understand the material I have been studying in this class.
29. I try to change the way I study in order to fit the course requirements and the instructor's teaching style.
30. ** I often find that I have been reading for class but don't know what it was all about.
31. 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.
32. When studying for this course I try to determine which concepts I don't understand well.
33. When I study for this class, I set goals for myself in order to direct my activities in each study period.
34. If I get confused taking notes in class, I make sure I sort it out afterward.

*Pintrich, R. R., & DeGroot, E. V. (1990). Motivational and self-regulated learning components of classroom academic performance, Journal of Educational Psychology, 82, 33-40.

**Items were reversed-coded

Appendix B: Demographic Information

Please provide the following demographic information about yourself. This information will only be used to assist me in developing a profile of the study's participants.

1. Your class is taught online due to COVID-19. Has this negatively affected your level of motivation **for this particular class?**

- ⊂Definitely false
- ⊂Probably false
- ⊂Neither true nor false
- ⊂Probably true
- ⊂Definitely true

2. Which course are you currently enrolled in?

- ⊂SPA 1101 Elementary Spanish I
- ⊂SPA 1102 Elementary Spanish II

3. During **this summer term**, are you taking another class at school?

- ⊂Yes
- ⊂No

4. What is your gender?

- ⊂Male
- ⊂Female
- ⊂Prefer not to answer

5. What is your class year?

- ⊂First-year
- ⊂Sophomore
- ⊂Junior
- ⊂Senior
- ⊂Other

6. What is your race and ethnicity?

- ⊂American Indian
- ⊂Asian
- ⊂Black/African American
- ⊂Hispanic of any race(s)
- ⊂Multiracial
- ⊂White/Caucasian
- ⊂Other

7. How many hours per week do you work?

- ⊂0
- ⊂1-10
- ⊂11-20
- ⊂21-30
- ⊂31-40
- ⊂41+

8. How many hours per week do you spend studying for this course?

- ⊂0-1
- ⊂1-2
- ⊂3-4
- ⊂5-7
- ⊂8 or more

9. What was your reasoning for taking this course? Select all that apply.

- ⊂Fulfills distribution requirement
- ⊂Content seems interesting
- ⊂Required course for graduation
- ⊂Will be useful to me in other courses
- ⊂Felt as though I could succeed easily
- ⊂Would help improve my academic skills
- ⊂Required for major/minor
- ⊂Will improve career prospects
- ⊂Course fits into my schedule

10. What is your estimated current grade in this class?

- ⊂A
- ⊂B
- ⊂C
- ⊂D
- ⊂F

11. What is your estimated GPA?

- ⊂3.5 – 4.0
- ⊂2.5 – 3.4
- ⊂1.5 – 2.4
- ⊂0.5 – 1.4
- ⊂0.0 – 0.4

Appendix C: Itemized MSLQ Means by Variable

Percentages and means of student responses by variable average of five MSLQ scales

Variable	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	Mean
Intrinsic Goal Orientation	1	4	18	36	25	14	2	4.63
Extrinsic Goal Orientation	1	3	6	20	31	32	7	5.41
Task Value	3	4	8	20	30	27	7	5.21
Self-Efficacy	1	4	11	28	35	18	3	5.03
Metacognitive Self-Regulation	1	3	12	41	33	10	0	4.80

N = 168, 1= not at all true of me to 7=very true of me