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Understanding Adult English Language Learners' Experience with Self-Regulation in a
Blended English Language Course

Karen T. Arnesen

A thesis submitted to the faculty of
Brigham Young University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Science

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ABSTRACT

Understanding Adult English Language Learners' Experience with Self-Regulation in a Blended English Language Course

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Master of Science

Self-regulation is necessary for success in any learning context, but for adult immigrants to the United States who are trying to learn English, it is critical. This qualitative research investigated 46 such learners enrolled in a blended English language course. Using Zimmerman's 6 dimensions of self-regulation as a framework and data from observations, interviews, and reflexive journals, we attempted to understand and describe how these learners experienced self-regulation. We found that although these learners had strong desires to learn English, they lacked the self-regulation abilities that could bring their desires to fruition. They had difficulty transferring their desires to learn English into persistent motivation, effective goals, and management of time and physical environment so they could prepare for class and complete the online modules. They were more proficient in proactively using language learning strategies and creating a social network to which they could turn for help. However, in both of those areas, they did not evaluate their activities to see where they could improve. The results suggest that embedding self-regulation instruction into a language course could increase learner retention and academic success. When designing such instruction for these adult learners, designers should adapt their instruction to the type of access the students have, their culture and values, and the context of their lives.

Keywords: self-regulation, English language learners, online, blended, adult learners

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I could not have completed this work without the help of several wonderful people. I'm grateful, first, to the participants in this study, who shared their lives, thoughts, and learning processes with me over the period of four months. They have touched my life in good ways. My chair, Charles Graham, asked the right questions, pushed when he should, and listened when I needed it. I appreciate his mentorship and friendship. Heather Leary and Stephen Yanchar, my committee members, were equally helpful. Heather believed I could do it, and her qualitative class helped me know how to proceed. Stephen added a different, careful perspective that helped me see ideas in new ways. His questions were insightful and enlightening.

My seven children encouraged me, and my four grandchildren gave me much needed breaks. My husband, Brian, kept the house clean, ran errands, fed himself, and cheered me on through months of very late nights. His support was invaluable.

To all the students and faculty in the Instructional Psychology and Technology program, I give my sincere thanks. It has been a wonderful journey.

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DESCRIPTION OF THESIS STRUCTURE

This thesis, *Understanding Adult English Language Learners' Experiences with Self-Regulation in a Blended English Language Course*, is in a journal article format, which includes as the core, a journal ready article with an extended annotated bibliography in the appendix. Appropriate journals for this article include *Language Teaching Research*, *The Modern Language Journal*, and *Computer Assisted Language Learning*.

The thesis also includes five appendices, containing the following items:

- Appendix A contains an annotated bibliography with research articles dealing with findings and themes relative to the thesis.
- Appendix B contains the recruitment script I used when introducing the research to the participants.
- Appendix C is comprised of the questions from the interview protocol.
- Appendix D includes a series of strategy suggestions for teaching self-regulation to adult English language learners in a blended setting.
- Appendix E contains the Institutional Review Board approval email and the consent document

Introduction

Online, distance, and blended learning courses are becoming a vital part of worldwide educational systems. In many subjects and in all educational levels, distance learning is becoming mainstream (Seaman, Allen, & Seaman, 2018; You, 2016). Increasingly these online offerings include courses in foreign languages, a development that could affect immigrants who want to learn the language of their new country (Andrade, 2014; Camarota & Zeigler, 2014).

Online English courses offer immigrants the flexibility they often need. However, these learners sometimes lack the necessary tools to succeed in these contexts. One such tool is self-regulation. Research supports the idea that self-regulated learners experience higher academic outcomes (Chih-Hsuan, Shannon, & Ross, 2013; Gafoor & Kurukkan, 2016;) and are more engaged in their coursework than learners who are not self-regulated (Sun & Rueda, 2012).

Because of the importance of self-regulation in the learning process, a large body of literature has examined the models and methods of self-regulated learning, as well as ways to scaffold learners as they learn to become self-regulated. However, very little literature examines self-regulation as it is experienced by adult English language learners. These nontraditional students may need a unique way of developing and using self-regulation attitudes and strategies. This study attempts to understand and describe how adult immigrant English language learners experience self-regulation in a blended English language course.

Literature Review

Online and distance education courses have increased significantly over the last decade. By the fall of 2016, the number of United States students enrolled in distance education classes had grown to 6.4 million, representing 31.6% of all students and a 5.6% increase from the year

before. These numbers indicate an increase not only in the number of students but also in the percent of increase as well (Seaman et al., 2018; You, 2016).

Foreign Language Online Classes

These online classes include a large number of foreign language classes. In Europe, foreign language classes have flourished. In 2006, the European Union's Lifelong Learning Program began an initiative to create a workforce that was culturally aware and had the language skills to compete in a global market. It called on educational institutions to create language courses to help meet this goal. But, because traditional classrooms could not accommodate the increased demand for such instruction, offerings of distance learning courses grew (Andrade, 2014).

While some language learners learn a second language to compete in a global market, immigrants and refugees often seek another language in order to survive and grow in a new culture. In the United States the number of immigrants is increasing. Between 2010 and 2013, the number of non-English speaking immigrants increased by 2.2 million. Since 2000, almost 15 million foreign-language speakers have immigrated to the United States (Camarota & Zeigler, 2014). This trend increases the need for English language instruction. Almost five million, or one in ten students in U.S. public schools, is an English Language Learner (ELL) (Sanchez, 2017). As the fastest growing population of students (McKeon, 2005), ELL students are expected to grow to one in four by 2025 (Counseling@NYU Staff, 2018).

Adult English Language Learners

While younger students may be served in the public schools, their parents do not have similar resources. Approximately five percent (more than eight million) of working-age adults in the United States either don't speak English at all or don't speak it well enough to work in any

but the lowest paying jobs. An additional 7.2 million adults have some verbal skills but are still categorized as having “limited English proficiency” (Wrigley, Richer, Martinson, Kubo, & Strawn, 2003, p. 10).

For these people, learning English is critical to becoming independent, finding jobs that will allow them to rise above poverty levels, and being able to participate in higher education. Non-English-speaking adults earn less than half of what their English only or bilingual peers earn (Greenberg, Reynaldo, Rhodes, & Chan, 2001). Using the 1990 census, Chiswick and Miller (2002) conducted a comprehensive analysis of immigrants’ earnings. They concluded that English fluency had a larger impact on earnings than the length of time the person had been in the United States or the additional education they might have received after arrival. Similarly, using the 2000 Census, Day and Shin (2005, p. 4) found that the ability to speak English “very well” boosted the percentage of non-native speakers who were employed as well as their median incomes.

Of special significance for the purposes of this study were the differences in median income between Portuguese and Spanish speakers who spoke English very well and those who spoke no English at all. Portuguese speakers who spoke no English had a median annual income of \$24,000, while those who spoke English very well had a median annual income of \$35,531, a difference of more than \$11,000 a year. The difference in Spanish speakers’ income was even more pronounced. Spanish speakers who spoke no English had a median annual income of \$16,105, while those who spoke English very well had a median annual income of \$30,270, a difference of more than \$14,000 and almost double the income of Spanish speakers who spoke no English (Day & Shin, 2005).

The economic impact alone is reason enough for creating opportunities and courses for adult English language learners to become fluent in English. Other considerations, such as increasing adult ELLs' access to higher education, their ability to participate more fully in their children's schools and their communities, and the opportunity to become more self-reliant, can heighten the impact of such instruction. Both fully online and blended contexts may offer an effective, efficient way to improve ELL's ability to speak English.

Online and Blended Instruction for English Language Learners

Online and blended instruction have distinct advantages for English language learners. These contexts provide students with flexibility in pace, place, time, and often path that ELLs need as they juggle personal, familial, and occupational demands.

However, not all indicators in online and blended learning are positive. Online classes suffer persistent problems with retention rates. Studies have indicated that dropout rates ranged from 10% to 50% higher than those experienced in traditional classes. Still others found that online corporate universities experienced 70% to 80% dropout rates (Dembo, Junge, & Lynch, 2006). McLaren (2004) studied persistence rates in 11 university traditional and online business statistics classes over five semesters. The dropout rate in the traditional classes was 8.6%, but in the online classes it was 46.7%. Despite the high dropout rate, there was no significant difference in performance between those who completed coursework in traditional and online classes. However, students who dropped out of online classes did not have the benefit of learning the course content.

Self-Regulation

How can ELL students overcome these retention difficulties and successfully complete online and blended English classes? One possibility is to help these students increase their

abilities in self-regulation. Although self-regulation is a relative newcomer in distance learning literature (Barnard, Lan, To, Paton, & Lai, 2009; Dembo et al., 2006), research has indicated that self-regulation may play a significant role in helping students succeed in online settings.

Learners who engaged in the motivational, behavioral, cognitive, and metacognitive processes of self-regulated learning (SRL) tended to have higher academic outcomes (Chih-Hsuan et al., 2013; Gafoor & Kurukkan, 2016), were more engaged in their learning (Sun & Rueda, 2012), and maintained motivation (Pintrich, 2004) and effort (Koçdar, Karadeniz, Bozkurt, & Buyuk, 2018) even when faced with difficulties or setbacks. Especially relevant for this study was the correlation between self-regulation and achievement in English language attainment (Seker, 2016) and in self-directed, self-paced online courses (Koçdar et al., 2018). Thus, self-regulation abilities that allow students to control and direct their learning are critical for successful academic performance in today's online and blended contexts.

Zimmerman (1990) and Dembo et al. (2006) saw self-regulated learning as taking place in four processes. First, students use metacognitive abilities to set goals, plan strategies to accomplish their goals, evaluate progress and outcomes, and adjust plans as necessary. They self-observe, evaluate, and modify. They know when they have mastered a subject and what to do if they have not. Second, self-regulated students are also self-motivated. They have high self-efficacy and feel confident that they can succeed. They accept responsibility for their learning and know how to remain diligent even in the face of setbacks. They are resilient and persevering. Third, these students use specific behaviors to govern their time, place, and methods. They are able to follow the plan they create. They know where to go for help and are not afraid to ask for it. Finally, self-regulated learners know how to learn; that is, they know how to use their

cognitive abilities to obtain and retain knowledge. They know and use strategies for identifying and remembering concepts and information.

To facilitate the relationships among the four elements of self-regulation and to foster the use of them in learning environments, Zimmerman and Risemberg (1997) developed six criteria or dimensions of self-regulated learning. These six dimensions included motive (why students enrolled in classes and continued in them), method (how students managed the tasks and strategies related to the requirements of the course), time (when and how long to study), physical environment (how students created a space conducive to learning), social environment (who students studied with and the social networks they turned to for help), and performance (behaviors and adaptations students used to achieve learning goals). (For a complete discussion of the six dimensions, see Andrade & Bunker, 2009; Dembo et al., 2006; Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997.)

Self-Regulation in Online Courses

Online learning requires significant self-regulatory abilities. Because online learning creates an autonomous environment (giving the learner freedom in when, where, and how to study), self-regulation becomes an essential ingredient for using that freedom wisely and succeeding in the online space (Barnard et al., 2009; Dembo et al., 2006). Without self-regulation, online students find it difficult to preserve their initial motivation and to work diligently throughout the duration of the course (You, 2016), thus contributing to the low retention rates that plague many online contexts. Self-regulation factors that are necessary in online contexts include planning; initiating learning activities (rather than waiting for teachers to assign them); regularly accessing the LMS for due dates, announcements, and content; completing assignments without procrastinating them; knowing how to get help; and self-

evaluating progress (You, 2016). Online learners thus need higher self-regulation attitudes and abilities than learners who participate in person (Alario-Hoyos, Estévez-Ayres, Pérez-Sanagustín, Kloos, & Fernández-Panadero, 2017; Koçdar et al., 2018).

Self-Regulation in English Language Courses

Self-regulation also plays a significant role in learning a second language. For example, all first- and second-year university students in China are required to study English. Gan, Humphreys, and Hamp-Lyons (2004) studied the differences between Chinese students who were successful in improving their English during this instruction and those who were not. They found that successful students had high self-regulation skills. Successful students sought out places to practice English, developed and adjusted study approaches to vocabulary acquisition, found the motivation to continue to study during long periods when study seemed to yield no results, and understood that their success in English depended on circumstances that they could and did control.

English language learners who participate in online courses need even higher self-regulation abilities. Xiao (2012) pointed out that fluctuations in motivation, beliefs about learning and students' responsibility for it, and anxiety often profoundly affected online language learners. Xiao explained that ELLs who felt comfortable in other academic settings were suddenly uncertain when they felt unable to express themselves as fully as they could in their native language. In addition, the isolation many felt in online classes conflicted with the social nature—the spoken interactions—of learning a foreign language.

Researching Immigrant English Language Learners

Research in self-regulated learning as a means of increasing success in second, English, or foreign language learners is not new. There have been suitable and sometimes extensive

studies into how self-regulation attitudes and strategies can increase English language abilities in people who are not native English speakers. Much research in the last two decades has focused on methods that can help ELLs develop self-regulation and has investigated the outcomes of SRL instruction in various contexts. Researchers have studied the factors that contribute to self-regulation in learning a second language (Köksal & Dündar, 2017), the development and use of self-regulated learning strategies for ELLs (Andrade, 2012; Andrade & Bunker, 2009; Seker, 2016; Suwanarak, 2015; Wang, Spencer, & Xing, 2009), the purposes of self-assessment using metacognitive activities (Punhagui & De Souza, 2013), and the development and use of SRL instruments (Cho & Cho, 2017; Hadwin, Winne, Stockley, Nesbit, & Woszczyna, 2001; Nuttall, 2016; Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1986), to name a few.

In spite of this robust body of literature, very little research has investigated online English language learning or the specific needs of adult immigrants who need and want to learn English. There is very little research that has investigated the lived experiences of immigrants in the United States who attempt to learn English in online contexts as they also try to work and raise their children. It is unclear how immigrants experience and demonstrate self-regulation in their unique context. Understanding how this group of ELLs approaches online language learning and how they do or do not exhibit self-regulation attitudes and abilities can help online administrators, course designers, and teachers create learning environments in which immigrant ELLs can learn about and use self-regulation to improve their opportunities through learning English.

Using data collected from observations, interviews, course outcomes, and learning journals, this research tries to qualitatively understand the self-regulation experiences of foreign language immigrants who are learning English in a blended, self-paced English language course.

This research study was guided by the following research question: How and in what ways do adult immigrant ELLs experience and demonstrate self-regulation in a blended English language course?

Methods

The purpose of this research was to explore the experience of adult immigrants who were trying to learn English in the United States. We explored these learners' needs, perceptions, desires, and insights as they pertained to self-regulation. To fulfill this purpose we employed an interpretive, qualitative methodology (Merriam, 1992). Because we were interested in the participants' understanding of and experiences with self-regulation, we used self-regulation theories, especially the four processes and six dimensions of Zimmerman's model as a theoretical framework for the research.

Program Description

The setting of the research was two sections of a pilot, blended English language course. The class had no tuition and was run by a local faith-based community. It consisted of three separate contexts: an in-person weekly class, called a *gathering*; a flipped blend, where study materials for each gathering were emailed to the students a week in advance; and a set of independent online English practice modules. The course ran for twelve weeks from mid-September to mid-December 2018.

Participants

Participants in this study were adult English language learners enrolled in the two sections of the English language course. All students enrolled in the course agreed to participate in the research, with a smaller sample consenting to be interviewed. All consent forms were written in the students' native languages: either Spanish or Portuguese. The two classes (n=46)

consisted of adults from the ages of 27 to 76, almost three-fourths of them women, who had immigrated to the United States from seven South or Central American countries and Mexico and who spoke either Spanish or Portuguese (see Table 1).

Table 1

Course Demographics

Course	# Enrolled	# attending 50% or more	Male	Female	Ages	# of countries
Wed.	23	9	6	17	27–62	5
Thurs.	23	7	5	18	29–76	7

The course was designed for students who scored on a placement test at an intermediate low or higher level. Not all the students took the test, but of those who did, 33% of the consistent students were at an intermediate low or mid level. The rest of the students placed at a novice mid or high level. Because of the pilot nature of the class, students at lower levels who wanted to participate were also accepted. Of those who reported the education they received in their native country (n=15), two had graduated from high school or received a technical certificate, eight had attended some college, three had college degrees, and two had graduate degrees. Only 16 of the original 46 attended 50% or more of the time and just over half (n=26) attended two or fewer times. Although the sample was chosen because the classes were close enough to the researchers to allow weekly observations, the participants also met our criteria to answer the research question: they were adult immigrants to the United States who were participating in a blended course with an online component. The variety among the participants in culture, country of origin, age, gender, and time in the United States suggested that qualitative data could yield rich and varied insights.

Data Collection

Because the purpose of this research was to explore deeply, seeking to understand the self-regulation experiences of adults trying to learn English, the researchers collected data from several different sources.

Demographic data. Demographic data were provided by course administrators. This data included names (which have all been changed in this study), gender, age, native language, country of origin, and amount of time in the United States.

Observation. A primary means of data collection was in-field observations. The lead researcher attended nine of twelve in-person sessions of the Wednesday course and ten of the Thursday course, creating detailed descriptions of interactions, questions, attitudes, activities, feelings, etc. The researcher took notes on her laptop during class. This type of recording was less intrusive than video recording and allowed the researcher to move freely around the room, establishing relationships with the participants that later led to their willingness to be open and comfortable during interviews. She recorded many of the conversations and interactions verbatim.

Although the researcher's main responsibility was to observe and take field notes, she also interacted with students before and after class, joined discussion groups, answered questions the students had about pronunciation and meanings of words, helped explain assignments, and helped with technical difficulties.

One concern with observational data collection is the effect being observed may have on the participants. To mitigate the influence of observation on the participants, the lead author employed both prolonged engagement and persistent observation to help participants feel comfortable with her.

Learning journals. Each week students were assigned to write in a learning journal. They were given a journal prompt that asked them to think about some aspect of self-regulated learning as it related to their progress during the past week. The journal prompts invited students to think metacognitively about their reasons, goals, and processes for learning English (Andrade & Bunker, 2009). As such, the journal entries involved the students in one of the critical self-regulation processes—the ability to think about and evaluate their learning in order to improve it. However, because few students used the online prompts, during the last four weeks the prompts were distributed to the students, who wrote in class.

The class administrators made these journal entries available to the researchers. Students could write in English or their native languages. Entries written in the native languages were translated by native Spanish and Portuguese speakers into English.

Interviews. Using insights gained from the demographic data, observations, and learning journals, the researchers asked 16 students, nine in the Wednesday course and seven in the Thursday course, to participate in interviews. Students who were invited to be interviewed attended the gathering class at least 50% of the time and represented a cross-section of ages, gender, and English ability. Eight in the Wednesday group and four in the Thursday group agreed to be interviewed and signed consent forms. These students each participated in one 45–60-minute interview during the two weeks immediately following the last week of class. The lead researcher conducted and recorded interviews in English in the interviewees' homes then transcribed them. Although the interviews were conducted in English, because the interviewer knew the students well, she was able to explore experiences and perceptions with the participants in a way that yielded rich and insightful interview data.

Data Analysis

In qualitative research the “primary instrument” (Merriam, 1992, p. 20) is the researcher. As the primary instrument, the researcher influences both data collection and data analysis. Therefore, an understanding of the researcher’s biases and paradigms is a necessary part of making sense of both the data itself and of the analysis of that data. One consideration in this regard should be noted. The lead researcher liked the people she worked with in the two language courses. She enjoyed interacting with them and getting to know them. Her relationship with the participants could have influenced her to view personalities and progress in a more positive light than someone who enjoyed the participants less. However, this warmth toward the participants may also have aided her in establishing rapport with them and in having the empathy necessary for good data collection to take place (Guba & Lincoln, 1981).

To lessen the impact of these biases, the first author met regularly with the second author (who did not meet with the participants) to discuss impressions, data, and emerging ideas. The second author acted as a check on bias during these discussions. The varied data sources also tended to mitigate the effects of bias by giving the students a voice through their own words.

Thematic analysis. Journal entries, observation notes, and interview transcripts were analyzed using Attride-Sterling’s (2001) process of thematic network analysis. Thematic network analysis organizes data at three distinct levels: basic, the smallest unit of data from which a premise can be drawn; organizing, groups of basic themes that can be combined to create a principle; and, finally, global themes, unifying themes that represent the entirety of the data in a way that guides interpretation as well as understanding (Attride-Sterling, 2001). Because this research focused on the lived experiences of study participants, using a method that was thus grounded in the text helped researchers focus on these experiences.

As Merriam and Tisdell (2016) recommended, researchers analyzed field data as it became available each week. They reviewed the purpose and research question each week and read and reread each week's notes to get an overall impression of the text and of the kinds of themes the text suggested.

In this study we did not create a thematic structure at the beginning of the analysis. Rather, using NVivo software, we coded all the text into thematic text blocks, creating themes as we analyzed each text and adding ideas and themes as the text suggested them. Each week we continued to use codes we had already created and added new codes as needed. To triangulate the data, we initially coded observations, journals, and interviews into separate coding structures. We met often during this process to discuss ideas and questions, looking critically at the themes and thematic structures. After all documents were coded, we clustered similar basic themes into organizing themes then pulled all the organizing themes from the three coding structures, integrating and consolidating them into one overall structure. In the final stage of creating global themes, we organized the data into Zimmerman's six dimensions of self-regulation and an additional theme of self-efficacy. This allowed us to analyze and discuss the data in terms of Zimmerman's theoretical orientation. As a final check, the lead researcher reviewed all the texts, looking for negative cases that did not support the thematic structure. We submitted the final themes and analysis to an administrator of the English program, who had attended all the classes in both settings, but who had not been involved in either the data collection or analysis. She felt the process and final structure accurately represented her perception of the class.

Trustworthiness. To establish trustworthiness, we used strategies suggested by Cresswell and Poth (2018). These strategies included clarification of researchers' bias (see

section above), triangulation of data sources, negative case analysis, prolonged engagement, persistent observation, peer debriefing, and, as much as possible, the participants' own words.

Data were obtained through three different sources: field notes, interviews, and journal entries. The journal entries were from the perspective of the participants; field notes, from the lead researcher's perspective; and the interviews were collaborative activities between the lead researcher and individual participants. This approach allowed the participants to reveal their experiences in their own voices, while at the same allowing the researcher to observe the participants actual behavior and to ask probing questions.

Once all the data were gathered and analyzed, the lead researcher read through all the data sources again, looking specifically for data, ideas, experiences, or themes that contradicted either the basic themes, the creation of the themes, or the organization of the themes, making minor adjustments as needed.

The lead researcher spent over 50 hours with the participants either in the in-person class or in conducting interviews. This prolonged engagement helped create trust between the researcher and the participants. It also allowed her to see and converse with the participants in a variety of learning contexts and gave the participants time to ask questions about what they were learning as well as the research being conducted. The participants enjoyed sharing stories, situations, and experiences with the lead researcher both before and after class. The prolonged engagement facilitated persistent observation. Seeing the participants in class each week aided the discovery of patterns of behavior as well as anomalies to typical behavior.

All the themes were reviewed by the second researcher, who did not know any of the participants and was, therefore, able to concentrate just on the data collected, and by a course

administrator who attended all the in-person meetings and was familiar with the aims and outcomes of the course.

Finally, the researchers used as much as possible the participants' own voices in reporting the analysis. Because the research question focused on the participants' experiences, using their own voices added assurance that the report actually did reflect their experiences.

Findings

This exploratory research will present the experiences of the participants in Zimmerman's six dimensions of self-regulated learning. We begin by describing the learners' experiences in the course context.

Course Context

This English language course ran for 12 weeks and included in-person, flipped blend, and online components.

The in-person gathering. The gathering was held weekly. One class met on Wednesday evenings, and one, on Thursday evenings. Classes lasted one and a half hours and were led by two volunteer, English-speaking facilitators, who prepared the classroom, gathered needed equipment, and sent emails to students about the lesson for the week. The class was conducted entirely in English. There was no teacher for the course. Instead, each class was supposed to be taught by one or two of the students, who were called "lead" students. The leads prepared the weekly lesson (which all the students received in an email the week before) and presented it. When students did not volunteer, one of the facilitators or an administrator taught the class.

Attendance at the class was sporadic. Of the 23 students enrolled in the Wednesday class, only nine attended 50% or more of the in-person classes. Of the 23 in the Thursday class, only six attended that often. Near the end of the semester attendance was even more sparse.

Participants cited work parties, children's school programs, and fear of driving in the bad weather or in the dark as reasons for not attending. Many of the more regular attendees later revealed in their interviews that they didn't like having to miss class.

The flipped classroom. Each week the facilitators emailed the students a link to that week's lesson and vocabulary with the intent that they would prepare outside of class so that they could practice for and apply the lesson in the gathering session. This flipped approach allowed students to read through the lesson and study the vocabulary in preparation for the class. Five students regularly took advantage of this resource. Neyra, the most diligent in preparing for class, said, "I read the class, the book of vocabulary. I tried to write the answers of the questions . . . so if somebody ask me [in class] I know the answer to it." Alejandra tried "to study for the lessons, even in busy weeks," and Gabriella printed out and studied "the gathering stuff that we have to study before the gathering." Manuela's and Carlota's efforts were more sporadic. They tried to study weekly but sometimes "forgot."

Online modules. Additional instruction and practice came through a web-app with competency-based, proficiency-driven practice activities that focused on four language functions (ask/answer, describe, narrate, and negotiate) in four areas of language (writing, reading, speaking, and listening). Students were challenged to complete four exercises in one function in one language area each day, a total of 260 exercises during the semester. Unfortunately, problems with the online content (which was under development) kept students from consistently completing the daily exercises. And when the exercises were available, some of the students struggled knowing how to access them. Very few (n=16) accessed even one of the online modules (see Table 2). Those sixteen people cumulatively made 178 attempts on 42 of the 91 days of the semester.

Table 2

The Number of Times Students Accessed Online Exercises

# of attempts	# of people
1	4
5	2
10	3
11	1
13	1
18	2
22	1
25	1
27	1

The students' reactions to the online activities were mixed. They were initially excited when they were introduced to them in the gathering class, but the reality of using them was sometimes frustrating. Lucia, who attempted the most modules at 27, loved them: "For me is good, for information it is so good. Yes. I love this because is complete. It's reading, writing, listening, comprehension. . . . I like this." Neyra, who had 22 attempts, on the other hand, didn't like the online modules. Online "homework was too hard," she said. "Yes. And it take me hours. A long time. . . . I lost a little interest in all that." Other students struggled with using the computer. Selina, who had 18 attempts, said, "It is difficult to me sometime for use the computer . . . and sometime I . . . can't know what to do. . . . I'm try to use the computer every day. Sometimes works."

Although students generally felt the online modules were helpful, they did not use them consistently enough to develop their skills in English. This was true of all aspects of the course:

the students liked the class and tried to do some of the work, but they were neither consistent nor persistent in doing so. Self-regulation skills have potential to solve both these problems.

Dimensions of Self-Regulation

Self-regulation has been defined as “the self-directive process by which learners transform their mental abilities into academic skills” (Zimmerman, 2002, p. 65) as they employ metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral strategies to direct and manage their learning (Zimmerman, 1990). These “self-directive process[es]” include initiating learning, using appropriate learning strategies, evaluating the effectiveness of those strategies and modifying them if necessary, controlling and sustaining motivation, setting goals, and using self-reflection, to name a few (Dresel et al., 2015; Schunk & Ertmer, 2000; Zimmerman, 1990; Zimmerman, 2002; Zimmerman, Bandura, & Martinez-Pons, 1992). Self-regulation is important in any educational setting, but it is even more important in blended and online contexts (Van Laer & Elen, 2017).

In this study we discuss the participants’ self-regulated learning abilities according to their activities in the six dimensions of self-regulated learning as discussed by Zimmerman and Risemberg (1997):

- motive (including goal setting)
- time management
- physical environment
- social environment
- method or strategies
- performance.

In addition, we examine the role of self-efficacy, as an influence on all six areas. In each dimension, except social environment, the participants demonstrated only minimal understanding and use of self-regulation. Although they had strong reasons for wanting to learn English, their deficiencies in directing and regulating their learning kept them from taking advantage of important elements of the course and achieving the success they sought.

Motivation and goal setting. Conventional wisdom defines motivation as an interest in something that drives an individual to action and varies by context, subject matter, levels of self-efficacy, (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002), learners' perception of agency (Xiao, 2014) and attribution (Barnard-Brak, Paton, & Lan, 2010). Motivation plays a primary role in the types of goals learners set, the strategies they choose, and the effort and persistence they are willing to extend to attain their goals (Mahmoodi, Kalantari, & Ghaslani, 2014; Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 2014).

The participants in this study had compelling personal reasons to learn English, but these reasons rarely translated into goals that led to action. During her week as lead student, Neyra shared this experience about her family.

When my daughter was 10 or 11 she tell me she want to die. I wonder why a little girl would want to dies. I am going to talk with a psychologie. The psychologie talks to me, then he talks to my daughter. He tells me, "You are Latin and you educate your daughter like a Latin person, but she is an American because she is around Americans every day. She doesn't understand what you want because when you talk to her in Spanish, she say yes to you because she doesn't want to have you be mad at her, but she doesn't understand." My kids they love to talk in English. They argue in English. I want to know what happen. They don't want to hurt my

feelings, so they don't tell me. When they make a joke, I have to wait to learn the joke. . . . We have to learn English so we can help them [our children] when they need it. For this reason—to participate in the family—we have to press forward.

Of the 16 students who identified why they wanted to learn English, Neyra and four others wanted to better understand the lives of their children, 10 wanted a better job, and 10 wanted to participate in higher education, some so they could continue in jobs they had in their native countries such as psychologist, teacher, dental assistant, and business. They saw speaking English as vital to these pursuits. Four learners hoped to be able to serve in their communities. Andrea, for example, worked in the state prison as an addiction recovery counselor helping Spanish-speaking inmates. She wanted to learn English so she could help English speakers as well. Three participants wanted to be a part of their new country, and five hoped to participate in wider social networks.

But in spite of these significant reasons for wanting to learn English, the participants' motivations did not often lead to effective goals. Research suggests that self-regulated learners set their own goals (as opposed to those that are set for them) (Boekaerts, 1997) that are proximal, specific, and challenging (Bandura, 1991; Schunk, 1991; Zimmerman, 1989). Proximal goals help learners divide larger, long-term goals into manageable pieces that make progress more transparent than do long-term goals, while specific goals create a standard by which learners can evaluate themselves and assess their success in achieving the goal. In addition, goals that are sufficiently challenging have more motivating power than easier goals. Attaining these goals increases motivation, thus keeping the learner engaged in the learning process, even when progress seems slow (Bandura, 1991; Schunk, 1991).

The participants' goals did not often follow this pattern. They were not specific: "I will practice to speak with other person," "read other books," or "I just need to practice more." Some had long-term goals—"At the end of this semester I will speak more and understand to American people." But they did not create sub-goals leading to the long-term goals. Additionally, many of their goals were easy, such as "I watch TV in English with English subtitles" or "listen to the TED talks." Only one participant recorded her goals.

However, most of the students tried to do something every day to practice English. They read scriptural texts, talked to neighbors, practiced vocabulary, and listened to English music. And, although their progress was slow, they saw themselves as improving. Alejandra, for example, said at the end of the semester, "My language is a little better. I listen a little better. I write a little better." She committed to attend the class again, hoping to improve enough that she could begin taking classes leading to acceptance by an online university.

Environment: Time and place. The management of time and physical environments are two of the six dimensions of Zimmerman's self-regulation model (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997). Andrade (2012) and Şen and Yilmaz (2016) described time management as learners' ability to analyze their use of time, understand the times of day they study most effectively, prioritize learning tasks, make and follow a schedule, and use time effectively. They also identified environment control as the ability to create a place conducive to learning: one that is comfortable and as free as possible from distractions. Şen and Yilmaz (2016) showed a significant correlation between time and physical environment and effort control.

Three participants in this study showed good self-regulation skills in these areas. Una, a 68-year-old from Mexico who had been in the United States 28 years, liked to study at "all times. Sometimes in the morning, sometimes in the night, or in the noon. . . . When I have

time.” But she typically studied in the morning. She had a desk in her bedroom with a computer and reference materials. Every day she studied scriptural texts, then, if she had more time, she studied for her English class.

Venya, a 31-year-old from Peru who had been in the United States for four years, also managed her time and physical environment. She worked full time and studied at night after she got home from work, putting in one to two hours a night studying online tutorials so she could pass the TOEFL test and enter a university. Because she was tired when she got home from work, she learned that she could not study in her bedroom. She told herself, “‘NO! NO! I need to fight this thing [sleepiness].’ And I say, ‘Oh my gosh, okay,’ and I take my computer, and I sit in the living room—no in my room cause I sleep.” She felt she would soon be ready to take the test.

Neyra owned her own auto emissions testing business. She was a 61-year-old from Venezuela who had lived in the United States for 21 years. Things were often slow at work (she was the only employee), so she usually studied at work. She found that “when you are at home, you are tired.” She spent most of her time studying for the next week’s lesson and preparing answers to the questions so she would be able to participate in class.

Other participants had a beginning understanding of the importance of time and place but wrestled with other demands for their time. Manuela, a 29-year-old from Chile, was divorced with two young children. She said, “I am taking time early in the morning and late in the evening . . . [but] life is in the way. My kids take a nap, so I can study then. I’ve tried doing a schedule, but every day is different.” Alejandra, a 53-year-old from Argentina, noted, “I’m busy all day.” She had an adult daughter, who had cerebral palsy and needed constant care. Because she could no longer work outside her home (she used to clean houses), she watched a small

child during the day and took in sewing at night. Her time was limited. “I have a short time in the afternoon, sometimes evening is best for me. So, when [my daughter] sleep, I study.” She knew that she needed to get rid of distractions: “When I’m study English no watch TV, no radio. . . . I need try stay in my living room for study English.” In spite of her difficulties, she loved the course, advancing from a lead student who was so frightened she could barely speak to a much more confident speaker who was eager to use English to share her experiences. Gabriella, a 44-year-old from Brazil, studied at night, mostly on Monday, when her two children were also studying. “I went work,” she explained, “eight in the morning and then I come home around . . . 3:30, 4:00? . . . Then I have to do the dinner for the girls, and then I have to do all the stuff in home and have to work in home and laundry and . . . sometime we have to groceries stores . . . and then when I come and then I try to [study], in the night before I go to sleep. . . . So, I don’t have too many times.” In spite of her sporadic schedule, Gabriella passed the test to be admitted into a pathway program, which will prepare her for higher education.

Environment: Social or help-seeking. Self-regulated learners are able to create a social climate that is conducive to their learning. They know how to seek help from human (peers, instructors, lab assistants, TAs) and nonhuman sources (texts, online modules, reference books, or web sites). They understand the value of collaborating with others in the learning process. In addition, they understand who can help and who can distract or hinder them (Andrade, 2012).

Of the six dimensions of self-regulation outlined by Zimmerman and Risemberg (1997), these learners had the greatest facility in establishing social connections with a wide range of people who could help them. They appreciated feedback on their use of English and actively sought feedback and correction.

Although the weekly gathering classes focused on specific instructional objectives, the students often also used that time to ask questions and get feedback. They enjoyed asking their classmates questions pertaining to word usage. For example, Danna and Mia asked the first author about “neither” and “either.” They want to know if it was proper to say “me neither,” “me either,” or “me too.” They practiced using the phrases, asking after each one if they had said them correctly. Other times students brought questions to class based on situations they had encountered during the week. Danna was confused with pronunciation and meaning of beer, bear, and bird. Class members helped her say the words and understand the differences in pronunciation and meaning. Gabriella struggled with how to pronounce the *th* sound in *thin*. She explained how she couldn’t say it clearly enough that the butcher could understand how she wanted her meat sliced. With lots of fun and laughter the other students gave her advice until she could say the word correctly.

Receiving encouragement was another important part of the gathering class. Gabriella expressed her gratitude for this encouragement: “Coming here, we can practice English together. You guys and the girls help me a lot with ‘I can do.’ Sometimes we feel like we don’t know if we can [do], and we get stuck there. We have to press forward. Thank you, guys, for everything.” Lucia encouraged her class members with “this is hard, but you can do it.” This encouragement bolstered the students and helped them stay committed to learning English.

Outside sources of help were also important to the participants. Families with older children were an especially potent source of help. The older children helped their parents with pronunciation and vocabulary, encouraging them to speak. Two participants told of sons who sent text messages for them but who eventually encouraged them to send them on their own. They were willing to help but also knew their parents would have to learn to take care of such

things on their own. Others had spouses who encouraged them. One encouraged his wife to give up one of her jobs so she could concentrate on learning English. Church congregations also helped. All but one of the participants attended English-speaking congregations. The people there talked with them, giving them much needed practice in conversational English. Many learners became translators at work when their managers noticed they were becoming more proficient in English. Translating was “hard work,” but it gave them confidence and helped them become competent with work-related English. The participants also cultivated friendships with people who were willing to practice with them.

A final source of help was reference and teaching materials. All the participants regularly used Google Translate, three used DuoLingo, and most also used a Spanish- or Portuguese-English dictionary. They watched television, frequently stopping the program to write down unfamiliar words, made flashcards of new vocabulary, and read easy children’s books. One participant had a young child in a second-grade classroom. The teacher, when she found out that the mother was trying to learn English, sent books home with the child for the mother to read.

For all the participants these social environments formed a robust network that became a significant source of learning, encouragement, and help.

Strategies and methods. Strategies define how students manage their learning processes to ensure that learning is actually occurring. Self-regulated learners use these processes purposefully, having specific results in mind. These strategies could include both context specific strategies, like methods for learning vocabulary and participating in conversations, and general learning methods, such as rehearsal, elaboration, and organization of knowledge (Dembo et al., 2006). Although these learners rarely approached their course activities in a purposeful, self-

regulated way, they were proactive in finding activities on their own that they felt would help them learn English.

One of the most common activities was reading scriptural texts in English. All 16 of the regular attenders and two others who came only sporadically spoke of the high priority they gave to reading scriptural texts in English. This kind of reading was difficult. It used language that was unfamiliar, but because the students valued the scriptures, they persisted. Selina explained, “When I begin to read . . . I only read 5 verses, but I try to read, read, read. I try to understand the words in my mind. Then again beginning read again and again.” She used these texts to review and rehearse information, finding as she did so, that she could read longer portions of text and understand it. Mariana had a similar experience:

I read the chapter out loud. When I don't remember the sound of the words, I copy the words and listen to how to say it [in an audio version]. I put the words in my notebook. The other day I am feeling joy because I listen to people speak. I understand more.

Not all the learners were as deliberate about their reading, but the 18 who read scriptures did so consistently. It was the one activity that most of them did every day.

Another commonly used learning activity was watching English television with English subtitles. Lucia enjoyed watching English television. “When I watch movies in English. I watch with the—subtitles. . . . I like this.” The students felt that watching TV helped them understand and listen better. It also helped them increase their vocabulary, since they could pause the program, write down unfamiliar words, and look them up. Seeing the written words in the subtitles helped them see how the spelling and pronunciation of the words went together. Other activities included making flashcards for vocabulary, preparing for class, and learning

with Duolingo and YouTube videos. YouTube was a source of videos, tutorials, grammar explanations, and pronunciation guides. Carlota, who had been in the United States only three months, used YouTube often. She explained, “Last week I was not understanding the difference between [the use of] ‘going to’ and ‘will.’ So, I watched some videos in YouTube of teachers explaining it. In my house I think the YouTube videos are good because I feel that I need a course with grammar and rules of the language.” Like Google Translate, the students used YouTube for just in time information. It was easily accessible, and they could find answers to specific usage, grammar, and pronunciation questions as they arose.

Although the students participated in a variety of activities, they rarely used strategies to make these activities effective. They did not review new vocabulary words or make up sentences with them, and they did not evaluate how well the activity was working or if there was a way it could be made more effective. However, the fact that these learners had enough motivation and initiative to seek out learning activities suggests that self-regulation abilities could add significantly to their progress in learning English.

Performance. Most self-regulated learning theories assume that self-regulation is a cyclical process that relies on a number of attitudes and skills that help students evaluate their performance (Jarvenoja, Jarvela, & Malmberg, 2015). These skills include self-instruction, self-monitoring, self-evaluation, and judgment of performance by personal standards (usually created through goals) (Andrade, 2012; Andrade, 2014; Fatemi, Alishahi, Khorasani, & Seifi, 2014; Pintrich, 2004; Van Laer & Elen, 2017; Yang, 2011; Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994). Seker (2016) further defined these skills as the ability to concentrate, persist, change, understand the requirements of the learning task, and decide what to study.

These qualities were lacking in the participants of this study. They understood, as Andrea said, that “we need self-evaluation for our progress and learn. If we don’t have self-evaluation, we can’t see what we need to do better,” but they did not really understand how to do it. Their attempts to self-evaluate were accurate, but they were not specific enough to lead to insight or change. For example, near the end of the semester two students wrote in their journals how much they had improved over the twelve weeks. Alejandra wrote: “My English, I think, is much better. I have neighbors in English. My mind is more open. My tongue is more—I speak more. . . . When I need to complete questions I write in Spanish, but today I write in English.” Her evaluation was accurate; she had improved. But her evaluation included only broad judgments. She did not evaluate specific strategies or approaches to her learning in ways that could help her improve not only her English ability but also her ability to learn English.

Similarly, the students were able to see some of their weaknesses in learning English. Adam noted that it was so easy to just avoid speaking English. “For example,” he said, “if you call in these automatic phones. And when they say, ‘for English press 1, for Spanish press 2,’ [we] press 2 immediately, because we are looking for the easy way for everything. And this is not good if you want to learn, yes?” But, like Alejandra, he had no plans for making changes that would help him overcome this weakness.

These students could evaluate some aspects of their learning, but the evaluation was simple. They showed no evidence of self-instruction, self-monitoring, or self-judgment using a specific set of standards to determine the effectiveness of their learning. Some could concentrate and persist, but none exhibited an understanding of what a learning task required, of ways to approach that learning task, or of how to evaluate the usefulness of the strategies they employed to accomplish that task. They also lacked the ability to set purposeful goals (as part of

motivation) that could become a standard against which they could compare their progress. Without such a standard they couldn't engage in meaningful self-analysis.

Self-efficacy. Although not a specific dimension of self-regulation, self-efficacy influences all aspects of self-regulation. Self-efficacy is an individual's belief that he or she is capable of being successful in a specific learning activity (Schunk, 1989). As such, it is highly contextual (Bandura, 1977). For example, a student may have high self-efficacy in geometry or in-person classrooms but low self-efficacy in performing Shakespeare or learning online. Self-efficacy has a significant impact on achievement. Irvine's (2018) research suggested that self-efficacy has a positive influence on effort and persistence. Similarly, Zimmerman (2000) found that students with high self-efficacy were more capable of working through difficult situations, worked harder and more persistently, and were more likely to participate than students with low self-efficacy.

Irvine (2018) described how self-efficacy influences self-regulation processes. It has an impact on motivation, goal setting, beginning and persisting in learning tasks, and the willingness to evaluate and change approaches and activities.

The participants in this study had varying levels of self-efficacy. Some of the older students worried that their minds did not work well enough to learn English. Ariana, the oldest learner, for example, feared that her mind was too slow and that she could not study diligently enough to make progress. Neydis felt similarly: "I look the words in the dictionaries, 10 minutes later, I don't know." As a young mother she had wanted to learn English, but her husband ridiculed and made fun of her efforts in front of others. She soon became too timid to try. She is now divorced but still struggles to believe she can learn English. In spite of being one of the better speakers in the class, she is hesitant to recognize or believe in her success.

Interestingly, one of the most significant self-efficacy supports the students named was their religion. They often mentioned a belief in the Biblical gift of tongues and prayed for it. Selina's experience was typical: "When I begin to read the [scriptures], before, I make a pray and ask God for the gift of tongues in me." Carlota also found courage to learn from her spiritual beliefs to learn. She said, "With the spirit I have more helpful because sometimes is very hard, very difficult, so the gospel brings me helpful and help me to increase my faith and help me press forward with the learning." Her faith helped her keep trying and not give up. Alejandra found similar strength: "I read the [scriptures] every night. . . . When I read in English, I say 'God, help me to understand.' Then it is more easy for me."

Much of these participants' self-efficacy stemmed from their belief that God would help them. They frequently attributed their success to Him. Manuela's comment reflected the feelings of the other participants: "I coming two years here, I understand much. It is all the thank you for God helping for me to understand." When the students were asked what they liked most about the course, they inevitably answered that the instruction tied to their religious beliefs.

The power of their beliefs to influence self-efficacy suggests that knowing students' belief systems, philosophies of life, and deeply held values can be a powerful source of information for designers and instructors as they prepare self-regulation supports. Tailoring instruction to fit with these values may help students increase in self-efficacy.

Discussion

For this research we examined the experiences of adult immigrant English language learners in a blended, self-paced English course and explored ways they experienced and demonstrated self-regulation in that context. The findings suggest that adult immigrants are unprepared for the self-regulation demands of a blended, self-paced English language course.

They have strong desires to learn English, ask for help, and engage in activities that could help them learn English, but they have few planning and goal setting skills, lack understanding in how to manage their time or environment, and do not know how to evaluate the effectiveness of their learning activities. Dembo et al. (2006) noted that courses which give students a high degree of autonomy very often have a high dropout rate and low student success. Their description fits the participants of this study. They were given a high degree of autonomy, but almost half dropped out and the others struggled to really improve in their English skills.

Importance of Self-Regulation for Adult English Language Learners

For the 16 students who participated regularly in the course, learning English was a priority. They were willing to work hard, but they lacked the self-regulation skills that would help them direct, maintain, and evaluate their efforts. In the area of social environment their efforts showed the beginning of self-regulatory behavior. But their motivation and their ability to set meaningful goals, to manage their time and physical environment for studying, to use effective learning strategies, and monitor performance were less well-developed. Training in self-regulation could be the difference these students need to succeed in learning English.

Self-regulated learning is consistently tied to high academic outcomes. Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1990), for example, found that high achieving fifth, eighth, and eleventh grade students used significantly more self-regulation strategies than their lower achieving classmates. Pintrich and De Groot (1990) obtained similar results in a study involving 173 seventh-grade students. In these students, self-regulation was the “best predictor of academic performance” (p. 38), more highly correlated with academic outcomes than either self-efficacy or cognitive abilities. In another study, successful Chinese university students studying English had high self-regulation skills. They sought out places to practice English, developed and adjusted study

approaches to vocabulary acquisition, found the motivation to continue to study during long periods when study seemed to yield no results, and understood that their success in English depended on circumstances that they could and did control (Gan et al., 2004). Across the 40 years of self-regulation research, results have consistently reported a significant correlation between self-regulated learning and academic outcomes.

Unfortunately, self-regulation abilities do not develop naturally as people mature. They are not merely a function of gaining normal life experiences. For students to be able to regulate their learning, they need an environment that supports its development (Zhao, 2016). The participants in this research did not have a background of self-regulation support. Even those who had higher education degrees from their native countries were unprepared for the kind of self-regulation needed to succeed in a blended course like the one in this study or in other courses that required similar self-regulation.

Embedded Self-Regulated Learning Instruction

Given the correlation of self-regulation with outcomes and the fact that these students had not had experience in developing or using self-regulation, their success could be improved by including self-regulation instruction in their courses. Andrade (2014) described a process for including such instruction. Using Zimmerman's six dimensions, course designers created a variety of different kinds of modules or assignments to address each dimension. At the beginning of a course, students took a self-regulation survey to see where their weaknesses were. Based on the results of the survey and in consultation with their teacher, the students chose self-regulation modules for each week of the course that would help them overcome a specific weakness. After completing a module, the students evaluated the value of the module (how it did or did not help them improve their learning) then summarized their experience in a weekly journal entry

submitted to the instructor (a process that supported self-reflection and self-evaluation). They could repeat modules as necessary.

Technology access and use. Three implications that emerged from understanding the self-reliance needs of the students in this study could aid in designing such embedded support. The first is access to technology. Most of the participants in this study had a desktop or laptop computer, but many did not feel comfortable using them. Andrade (2012) discussed the needs of learners who owned a computer but who were uncomfortable navigating around it. They needed guidance, sometimes repeated guidance, to feel comfortable with accessing the online part of a course. The need for such technology support should be a primary consideration in designing self-regulation instruction for a blended English course.

The importance of culture. A second implication is the effect of the participants' cultures. Self-regulation is not just a reflection of academic or cognitive abilities, but also of culture: the morals and values that influence decisions. These participants all came from countries south of the United States. They shared a common culture of languages, food, and focus on family (Yafai, 2015). In addition, they all shared the same religion, to which they were deeply committed. Culture is important because it impacts how a student perceives self-regulation. For example, Hinnant-Crawford, Faison, and Chang (2016) noted important differences in self-regulation needs between the interdependent African-American and Latino cultures and the independent white American culture. Andrade and Evans (2015) claimed that students' cultures influenced the ways in which they approached and conducted learning. They told of one student who did not have the word *procrastinate* in his native language, thus explaining his unconcern with due dates and timelines. Cultural differences can alienate teachers who don't understand why students don't do such seemingly simple tasks as turn in assignments

on time and can confuse students who don't understand why it is important to do so. Students may also have varying definitions of academic success and different understandings of the roles of teachers and students. This research highlights the idea that understanding and responding to these cultural differences when designing self-regulation instruction can significantly increase the successful adoption of self-regulation attitudes and skills.

Whole life context. Designing and teaching both self-regulation and English in the context of the learners' whole lives is a third implication. Much of the research on adult English language learners has been done in the context of undergraduate classes or English courses connected to a university (Alghamdi, 2016; Andrade, 2014; Gan et al., 2004; Magno, 2009; Seker, 2016; Xiao, 2012; Zhao, 2016). This is not typical of many adult English language learners. Many work, sometimes two jobs, or may be self-employed with all its demands. They are also raising children. Their time is limited and resources few. Yet the learners in this study found ways to practice English that fit into the daily structure of their lives—watching television, listening to music on the radio, taking their children shopping. Self-regulation modules that help students integrate their learning into the daily pattern of their lives may include teaching students strategies for finding instructional YouTube videos, creating self-regulation podcasts, or helping students learn to plan for and use small moments of time they have available during a day.

This research highlights the process of understanding the unique self-regulation needs of a particular group of students: adult English language learners. Their experience suggests that self-regulation instruction could be a significant help to these students as they learn English. One way to meet this need is to embed self-regulation modules into the course. Considering the students' facility with and access to technology, their culture, and the context of their lives in the

creation of these modules could produce instruction that is relevant and helpful for this group of learners.

Limitations

Literature about self-regulated learners suggests that self-regulation is an important attribute of many successful English language learners. This study used qualitative approaches to look closely at the self-regulation abilities of a group of immigrant English language learners in an attempt to better understand their experiences and needs. However, several factors limit this study. First, the data could have been richer and more fully developed if the researcher had spoken Spanish and Portuguese as well as English. Although both parties' limited language skills affected the amount and types of data that could be collected, the length of time the first researcher spent with the participants increased her ability to communicate with and understand them. Second, the online portion of the course was under development, so this research was unable to include significant insights into that part of the course. Thus, data on the learners' online experiences were limited. Finally, the sample included only students who were from North, Central, and South America. Learners from other areas—Asia or the Middle East, for example—may have had different results. Each of these factors could have affected the breadth of the data that were collected. However, the process of understanding the unique self-regulation needs of a particular group of students as outlined in this study is relevant for the study of other groups. In addition, considering any group's facility with and access to technology, their culture, and the context of their lives can inform designers, instructors, and researchers as they work with many different types of learners.

Conclusions

To increase the usefulness and relevance of this study, we suggest several avenues for further research. First, this research could be expanded to include learners from many different nationalities and cultures. Comparing and contrasting the experiences of more diverse learners could reveal commonalities that can ground SRL instruction and practice, as well as differences that need to be addressed. Another avenue of research is design-based research focused on investigating and developing creative ways of meeting diverse learners' self-regulation needs. Further research can also explore the self-regulation abilities and needs of other underserved adult populations.

The purpose of this study was to understand the way adult English language learners experienced and demonstrated self-regulation in a blended context. Our research concluded that although these students had strong desires to learn English, they were impeded in their learning because of their low self-regulation abilities. While this study revealed in detail the self-regulation needs of these students, further research is needed find ways to address these needs. Embedded self-regulation instruction is one possible method for helping students become better self-regulated learners.

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APPENDIX A

Annotated Bibliography

Introduction

Self-regulation is “the self- directive process by which learners transform their mental abilities into academic skills” (Zimmerman, 2002, p. 65). Learners use these skills to direct, sustain, and attain learning. This annotated bibliography of self-regulation begins with theories and concepts of self-regulation then focuses on self-regulation of adult English language learners in online and blended contexts.

The bibliography begins with an overview of the theories and models that have guided self-regulation research for the past 50 years and that are still relevant today. Self-regulation consists of a variety of subconstructs. Because two of these subconstructs—motivation and self-efficacy—influence all other areas of self-regulation, they have their own sections in the bibliography. To emphasize the importance of self-regulation in learning, I have also included a section on outcomes. Different contexts and domains call for different levels and applications of self-regulation; therefore, the bibliography includes sections on self-regulation in online contexts as well as methods that can be used to support self-regulation in such contexts. It also includes sections on self-regulation in learning English as a second language in general and in online contexts specifically. There is a brief section on adult (non-tertiary) self-regulation, with a concluding section on self-regulation measurement instruments.

Each area of this bibliography could have been made into its own full bibliography. To cover the range of constructs I needed for my thesis, I chose articles in each area that were written by scholars of note over the years of self-regulation research. Most of the articles are from peer-reviewed journals, but I occasionally included a report, dissertation, or book chapter if the author

was an important contributor to self-regulation research or if the subject was especially relevant to my research.

Search Methodology

To gather articles I searched the following databases in the EBSCO database: Academic Search Premier, Academic Search Ultimate, Education Full-text, ERIC, PsycARTICLES, and psycINFO. I also searched the SCOPUS database. I used the following terms both individually and in Boolean combinations: adult English language learners, adult education, adult learning, autonomy, blended, distant(ce), learning strategies, metacognition, motivation, online learning, self-efficacy, self-reflection, self-regulation, self-regulation instruments, self-regulated learning, self-regulation measures, self-regulation models, self-regulation theory, tertiary education, and web 2.0.

Once I had 10 to 20 articles in each section (except adult self-regulated learning, which had very few sources), I searched Publish or Perish using the terms self-regulated learning, online self-regulation, and English language learner self-regulation. In each case I found that I had the top authors in my bibliography except for a small number of scholars who, although part of self-regulation research, were primarily scholars of related constructs such as self-concept, self-directed learning, etc. or who researched primarily young children. From this corpus of articles, I narrowed each category to five to eight for each section. I selected seminal, highly cited articles (both theoretical and research oriented), as well as articles that spanned the decades of self-regulation research. Articles are ordered chronologically in each section to illustrate the growth and changes over time.

Models and Theories

Self-regulated learning research began in the 1970s with two scholars: Zimmerman and Bandura. Their early work still informs researchers today, who build on, modify, or occasionally challenge their theories and models. Self-regulation consists of many different constructs, which have all become areas of significant research. Some of these constructs include behavior, cognition, metacognition, motivation, strategies, self-efficacy, planning, time management, and self-reflection, to name just a few. In this section major theories and models are presented as well as a deeper look into motivation, self-efficacy, and the influence of self-regulation on academic and affective outcomes.

Models and theories of self-regulation. Early self-regulated learning research formed around theories conceptualized in operant, phenomenological, volitional (or agentic), Vygotskian (or linguistic), social constructivist, and social cognitive models (Zimmerman, 1989). More recently sociocultural and situative theories have influenced the way we perceive and understand self-regulation (Jarvenoja, Jarvela, & Malberg, 2015). Portions of these models, especially the social-cognitive model, are currently used as the basis of many self-regulation studies. In social cognitive theories, self-efficacy is central to the metacognitive processes of self-regulation (Bandura, 1991). Other aspects of self-regulation include a focus on three phases: forethought, performance, and self-reflection (Zimmerman, 2002) which include six dimensions (Zimmerman and Risemberg, 1997). Students can be taught self-regulation through focus on attitudes and activities that take place in these phases and dimensions (Zimmerman, 2002).

Zimmerman, B. J. (1989). Models of self-regulated learning and academic achievement. In B. J. Zimmerman & D. H. Schunk (Eds.), *Self-regulated learning and academic achievement: Theory, research, and practice* (pp. 1–26). New York, NY: Springer Verlag.

Zimmerman was one of the early scholars in self-regulation research. This chapter was the first in the book and gave a brief history and background of self-regulated learning.

Zimmerman presented six different early models of self-regulated learning: an operant model, a phenomenological model, a social-cognitive model, a volitional (or agentic) model, a Vygotskian (linguistic) model, and a cognitive-constructivist model. He discussed similar constructs in each model in order to facilitate comparing the models. These models (especially Zimmerman's and Bandura's) provided a basis for models and ideas that are still used today.

Bandura, A. (1991). Social cognitive theory of self-regulation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50(2), 248–287. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978\(91\)90022-L](https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978(91)90022-L)

Bandura's social cognitive theory of self-regulation examined self-regulation as a construct that provided the mechanisms that prompted people to pursue personal change. These mechanisms included self-observation (which can provide helpful diagnostic information), self-judgment (based on a set of standards often influenced by people important to the student), and self-reaction (the path students chose to follow based on their observation and judgment). All these mechanisms were part of self-efficacy, the propensity individuals had

of seeing themselves as having power to change (things are within their control) or as powerless (things are without their control).

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

Zimmerman and Risemberg hypothesized that in order for students to develop self-regulation attributes, they must have had some opportunity and ability to choose or have control over at least part of their learning activities. Students could make choices and exercise control in six self-regulated learning dimensions: motive, method, time, performance, physical environment, and social environment. Students with high motivation set goals and saw themselves as capable to enact them. They used strategies that enhanced learning, managed their time, studied in places conducive to learning, monitored and judged their actions and attitudes, and knew how to get help when needed.

Jarvenoja, H., Jarvela, S., & Malmberg, J. (2015). Understanding regulated learning in situative and contextual frameworks. *Educational Psychologist*, *50*(3) 204–219.

The authors contrasted social cognitive theories of self-regulation with sociocultural and situative or contextual models. Social cognitive theories focused on an individual's self-regulatory activities, and sociocultural theories focused on a group's cooperating to create regulation, particularly as it related to meeting cultural expectations. Situative or contextual

models combined both the former methods and added the influence that context had on regulatory activities and attitudes of both individuals and groups. The authors presented research, showing how elements of the context influenced students' use of various self-regulation strategies and analyses.

Zimmerman, B. J. (2002). Becoming a self-regulated learner: An overview. *Theory into Practice*, 41(2), 64–70. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15430421tip4102_2

In this article, Zimmerman presented self-regulation as more than a set of skills. It encompassed a student's self-awareness, behaviors, and motivations that created a situation in which the skills could be used. These qualities took place in three phases: forethought (before learning begins), performance (during learning), and self-reflection (after learning). Students could be taught self-regulation by instruction, modeling, and practice in each of these three phases. Processes within the phases included goal-setting, planning, motivation maintenance, learning strategies, self-monitoring the use and results of strategies, and evaluation of outcomes and affect.

Theories of motivation. Motivation affects all parts of self-regulation. It influences the development and use of self-regulation strategies (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002) and is also closely aligned to similar constructs, such as self-efficacy, self-determination, choice, and flow (Irvine, 2018). The type of motivation is also important. For example, motivation that is “promotion based” (i.e. looks to future advantage or is intrinsically interested in culture) has a stronger impact than motivation that attempts to avoid negative consequences (like poor grades or

test scores) or motivation that responds to others' expectations (Zheng, Liang, Li, & Tsai, 2018.) Motivation that is set in a context of autonomy is more efficacious than motivation that is limited or controlled by teachers' structures of the learning environment (Duchatelet & Donche, 2019).

Linnenbrink, E. A., & Pintrich, P. R. (2002). Motivation as an enabler for academic success. *School Psychology Review, 31*(3), 313–327.

Motivation in this article was presented as a critical part and source of self-regulation abilities. These authors looked at motivation as a combination of attributions (who or what was responsible for success or failure), self-efficacy (belief that the person could enact behaviors that would lead to positive outcomes), intrinsic motivators, and types of goal orientation (learning or performance). Of these aspects of motivation, self-efficacy had the most far-reaching effects, enabling motivation to lead to effective behaviors, sustain hard work, and lead to higher academic outcomes. It also helped students choose and use appropriate self-regulative strategies and skills.

Irvine, J. (2018). A framework for comparing theories related to motivation in education.

Research in Higher Education Journal, 35.

In this article, Irvine reviewed theories of self-motivation: self-efficacy, choice, self-determination, flow, intelligence, achievement goals, Marzano's New Taxonomy, and math well-being and mapped them onto a grid framework consisting of value/expectancy views of motivation along the x-axis and intrinsic/extrinsic views of motivation along the y-axis.

Mapping these theories onto the same grid showed similarities and differences in each theory and where each lay in respect to motivation. For example, self-efficacy was in the intrinsic and expectancy quadrants.

Werner, K. M., & Milyavskaya, M. (2018). Motivation and self-regulation: The role of want-to motivation in the processes underlying self-regulation and self-control. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 13(1), 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.1111/spc3.12425>

Werner and Milyavskaya suggested that want-to (vs. have-to) motivation significantly impacted goals and the effort that created goal fulfillment. Although research had shown that want-to motivation and goals led to greater effort, new research suggested that instead of leading to greater effort, want-to goals changed our perception of effort so that effort actually seemed effortless. We were not mustering self-will or self-control to increase effort; rather we didn't see the work towards the goal as being hard. In addition, we were more likely to achieve want-to goals than have-to goals.

Zheng, C., Liang, J.-C., Li, M., & Tsai, C.-C. (2018). The relationship between English language learners' motivation and online self-regulation: A structural equation modelling approach. *System*, 76, 144–157. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.SYSTEM.2018.05.003>

The authors examined motivation using five different constructs and measured the impact of each on self-regulation use in sophomore online English language classes in China. The authors found that the “instrumentality of promotion” (motivation based on how learning

English will benefit them in the future) and the motivation of “cultural interest” (an intrinsic interest in English culture) predicted a higher use of self-regulation strategies than other forms of motivation. However, motivation based on the “instrumentality of prevention” (avoiding negative consequences of not learning English) had much less power in engaging students in self-regulated learning.

Duchatelet, D., & Donche, V. (2019). Fostering self-efficacy and self-regulation in higher education: A matter of autonomy support or academic motivation? *Higher Education Research & Development*, 1–15. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2019.1581143>

Duchatelet and Donche examined three different kinds of motivation (autonomous, controlled, and amotivation) as they related to perceptions of classroom practices and to self-efficacy and self-regulation. Autonomous motivation correlated significantly with both increased self-efficacy and self-regulation. There was no significant correlation between controlled motivation (where few or no options are offered in the class structure) and either self-efficacy or self-regulation. Finally, amotivation correlated negatively with the two constructs. The authors suggest that levels and types of motivation influence students’ perceptions of the instructional setting and should be considered in course design.

Theories of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is a person’s belief that he or she can produce the behavior required to reach desired outcomes (Bandura, 1997). It improves performance in many areas of self-regulation, and improved success in self-regulation heightens self-efficacy (Schunk, 1991). Self-efficacy is influenced by a person’s experiences and understanding of their abilities,

other's modeling, attributional feedback, rewards tied to performance (Schunk, 1991) as well as simply progressing effectively through the course (Lee, 2015). Because self-efficacy is specific (related to a both a specific task and a specific environment), it is very sensitive to the nuances of both and highly predictive of success in that task and environment (Zimmerman, 2000).

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

In this article Bandura rejected behavioristic explanations of self-efficacy and turned to cognitivism as providing a better explanation. He theorized that cognitive processes involved in four different sources of information would increase self-efficacy: past performances, vicarious experience, spoken encouragement, and personal affective responses to situations. Bandura proposed that accurate cognitive evaluations of these sources of knowledge leading to changed behavior when necessary could increase self-efficacy beliefs and help students generalize them to many different contexts.

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

This article presented an overview of self-efficacy as it related to educational contexts. Schunk compared and contrasted self-efficacy with such close but different constructs as perceived control, expectancy-value theories, attributions, and self-concept. He then explored the symbiotic relationships between self-efficacy and mental effort, goals, learning

strategies, and ability to process academic information. In each case, increased self-efficacy led to improvement in the matching construct, and improvement in the matching construct led to increased self-efficacy.

Zimmerman, B. J., Bandura, A., & Martinez-Pons, M. (1992). Self-Motivation for academic attainment: The role of self-efficacy beliefs and personal goal setting. *American Educational Research Journal*, 29(3), 663–676.

In this article, the authors investigated 9th and 10th grade social studies students in two high schools in a large city. They looked at the effects of self-efficacy in self-regulation strategy use, self-efficacy for academic achievement, past grades, student goals for grades, and parent goals for grades. The authors found that self-efficacy for both self-regulation and academic achievement correlated significantly to final course grades, as did student goals for grades. However, past grades did not correlate. Higher self-efficacy led both to the creation of more challenging goals and to the accomplishment of those goals.

Zimmerman, B. J. (2000). Self-efficacy: An essential motive to learn. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25(1), 82–91. <https://doi.org/10.1006/ceps.1999.1016>

Zimmerman discussed self-efficacy, a person's judgment about his ability to perform a given educational task, as a concept that was specific (related to a specific task) and close to specific educational environments. Because of these dimensions, self-efficacy was highly sensitive and (as shown in regression analysis) predictive of academic outcomes. It

influenced a student's willingness to engage in difficult activities that responded to motivation, the choice of learning activities, effort, emotional responses, persistence, pace of activities, etc. Self-efficacy significantly predicted these activities and was responsive to them. As self-efficacy increased, so did academic outcomes.

Lee, C.-Y. (2015). Changes in self-efficacy and task value in online learning. *Distance Education*, 36(1), 59–79.

Lee examined the possibility of change in content self-efficacy, online technology self-efficacy, and task value over the duration of an online course. He looked at the three constructs over the semester of four online undergraduate class in a southeastern United States university. He administered two self-efficacy measures and one task value measure three times during each course. The results showed that self-efficacy for content and online technology increased significantly over the course of the semester, but task value fluctuations were insignificant.

Outcomes of self-regulation. The idea that self-regulation is a factor in academic achievement has a strong theoretical base (Dembo, Junge, & Lynch, 2006) and has been consistently tied to higher academic outcomes in both quantitative (Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990; Hromalik & Koszalka, 2018) and qualitative research (Andrade & Evans, 2015). Some research has contradicted this conclusion (Mahmoodi, Kalantari, & Ghaslani, 2014), but authors of such research are quick to point out extenuating circumstances that may have influenced the outcome.

Pintrich, P. R., & DeGroot, E. V. (1990). Motivational and self-regulated learning components of classroom academic performance. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 82*(1), 33–40.

In this study Pintrich and DeGroot investigated the self-regulation abilities and outcomes of 173 7th grade students enrolled in an English or science class. Self-regulation was measured with 7-point Likert scale self-report instrument. Academic outcomes were measured by actual assignments and tests that the students completed as part of the class. The data was analyzed statistically. Results showed that students with higher grades reported using more self-regulation strategies. Higher levels of self-regulation and cognitive strategies correlated with higher outcomes on all kinds of assessments, except seatwork (such as worksheets). Of the constructs tested, self-regulation had the highest predictive value.

Dembo, M. H., Junge, L.G., & Lynch, R. (2006). Becoming a self-regulated learner: Implications for web-based education. In H. F. O’Neil & R. S. Perez (Eds.) *Web-based learning: Theory, research, and practice* (pp. 185–202). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Web-based learning is any learning that takes place online but not in a traditional classroom. Many believe that students will succeed in such courses because they allow students to direct their learning and include a high degree of autonomy. But, the authors suggested, self-direction and autonomy were not enough. Dropout rates in these courses were high and student success low. The authors suggested that teaching and mentoring self-regulation skills can increase success in such courses. People who were self-regulated could overcome

procrastination, maintain motivation, decrease anxiety, and adapt to situations and learning environments that are less than optimal.

Mahmoodi, M. H., Kalantari, B., & Ghaslani, R. (2014). Self-regulated learning (SRL), motivation and language achievement of Iranian EFL learners. *Procedia: Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98, 1062–1068. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.SBSPRO.2014.03.517>

These authors looked at 140 English as a foreign language learners in two language institutes in Iran. They found that these Iranian students generally used five self-regulation strategies in their learning. A Pearson correlation found a significant (.000) medium correlation (.495) between motivation and self-regulation activities. Motivation seemed to influence the types of goals and strategies students used, as well as their persistence with a task. However, no significant correlation was found between the use of self-regulation strategies and achievement in learning a second language, a finding that contradicts many other studies.

Andrade, M.S., & Evans, N.W. (2015). Developing self-regulated learners: Helping students meet challenges. In N. W. Evans, N. J. Anderson, & W. G. Eggington (Eds.), *ESL readers and writers in higher education* (pp. 113–129). Florence, NB: Routledge.

In this book chapter, Andrade and Evans discussed difficulties English language learners faced. They noted that students' cultures influenced the ways in which they approached and conducted learning. Cultural differences could alienate teachers and confuse students who

didn't understand the expectations. Students may have had different definitions of success and different understanding of the roles of teachers and students. The authors suggested that self-regulation instruction and support can help these learners overcome the difficulties they faced. The authors discussed how Zimmerman's six dimensions of self-regulation could be used as the basis for self-regulation instruction.

Hromalik, C. D., & Koszalka, T. A. (2018). Self-regulation of the use of digital resources in an online language learning course improves learning outcomes. *Distance Education, 39*(4), 528–547. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01587919.2018.1520044>

The authors investigated self-regulation supports in an asynchronous undergraduate Spanish course in a community college. They investigated the differences between six high and low achieving students in relation to Zimmerman's six dimensions of self-regulated learning. Higher achieving students accessed the LMS more often, used more learning strategies, managed their time better, had more intrinsic motivation, and evaluated and modified their learning strategies more than lower achieving students. Both groups of students modified their learning environment, but neither sought help from anyone. The authors concluded that self-regulation played a significant role in the outcomes for those students who used self-regulation strategies.

Online Self-Regulation

Self-regulation in online contexts, as it does in in-person contexts, significantly impacts outcomes. However, the methods and approaches used in in-person contexts need to be modified

for online use, which makes higher self-regulation demands on students than do in-person contexts (Whipp & Chiarelli, 2004). Scholars have investigated the effects of external variables such as the ease of technology use (Zhao, 2016), types of self-regulation instruction (Dunn & Rakes, 2015; McGowan, 2017), and the effects on self-efficacy of a student's successful completion of one online course (Bradley, Browne, & Kelley, 2017). This research suggests the value of including self-regulation instruction and practice in blended and online contexts.

Whipp, J. L., & Chiarelli, S. (2004). Self-regulation in a web-based course: A case study.

Educational Technology Research and Development, 52(4), 5–22.

The purpose of this article was to examine the self-regulation abilities of six graduate students who already had self-regulation skills to determine if and how their self-regulation skills changed in an online context. The study showed that the students made specific changes to their strategies in each of Zimmerman's three phases, in order to succeed in the online environment. The authors suggested that these changes could be a significant part of the design of online classes.

Dunn, K. E., & Rakes, G. C. (2015). Exploring online graduate students' responses to online self-regulation training. *Journal of Interactive Online Learning*, 13(4).

The authors of this study created short online readings designed to teach graduate students enrolled in online courses self-regulation (SR) strategies. They targeted SR skills in four areas: self-efficacy, goal orientation, strategic learning, and attributional thinking. After

reading the papers, students wrote a reflection paper in which they defined the construct, explained their own strengths and weakness in that area, and set a goal to improve. The authors found that students who participated in the study changed in specific ways in each of the four areas.

Zhao, H. (2016). Factors influencing self-regulation in e-learning 2.0: Confirmatory factor model. *Canadian Journal of Learning and Technology*, 42(2), 1–21.

Zhao postulated that Web 2.0 learning approaches could take advantage of factors that promoted self-regulation, including the ease of use of the system, the usefulness of the information, instructor support, and the ease of communication. These factors had an important impact on student satisfaction with the course. Higher student satisfaction, in turn, led to higher self-regulation. Using statistical analysis, these four factors were paired with satisfaction and self-regulation. All four factors correlated positively and significantly with satisfaction, and all but communication similarly correlated with self-regulation. The author concluded that working to ensure high quality support can promote self-regulation.

Bradley, R. L., Browne, B. L., & Kelley, H. M. (2017). Examining the influence of self-efficacy and self-regulation in online learning. *College Student Journal*, 21(4), 518–530.

The authors had a diverse group of 266 undergraduate students enrolled in a psychology course take five different scales measuring self-efficacy and self-regulation. They analyzed the data, dividing the students into groups: those who had taken 0 or 1 online course and

those who had taken 2 or more online courses. Reliability was established through Cronbach's alpha, and independent t-tests showed significant differences between the groups in both self-efficacy and self-regulation. They suggested that since the completion of one online course seemed to lead to higher feelings of self-efficacy and self-regulation online teachers should nurture self-efficacy for their first-time students.

Mcgowan, I. S. (2017, October). *Characteristics of effective pedagogical strategies for self-regulated learning in technology-enhanced environments: Towards improving learning outcome*. Paper presented at the 14th International Conference on Cognition and Exploratory Learning in Digital Age, Portugal.

In this research, McGowan analyzed 10 peer-reviewed studies of self-regulation in technology-enhanced and online contexts. He analyzed what self-regulation constructs were most included in the research and if there was empirical evidence for the efficacy of their results. He found that the most commonly taught constructs were self-efficacy, intrinsic goal orientation, time management, and metacognitive skills. Instruments were generally used at the beginning, midway, and end of courses to check learning. Additionally, he found that in studies with experimental and control groups, experimental groups who received self-regulation instruction performed significantly higher in terms of mean scores on exams.

Supporting Self-Regulation in Online Courses

Because self-regulation is so important to success in online courses, including self-regulation instruction as part of the course can significantly increase students' satisfaction with

and outcomes in the course. Such supports include specific aspects of self-regulation, such as cognitive and performance strategies (Yang, 2011), teacher competencies that support self-regulation, and instruction based on Schunk's (Barnard-Brak, Paton, & Lan, 2010) and Zimmerman's models (Dabbagh & Kitsantas, 2004). A review of 95 articles revealed seven factors that influence the development and use of self-regulation in online contexts: interaction, authentic tasks, personalization, learner control, calibration, and reflection (Van Laer & Elen, 2017).

Dabbagh, N., & Kitsantas, A. (2004). Supporting self-regulation in student-centered web-based learning environments. *International Journal on E-Learning*, 3(1), 40–48.

In this article Dabbagh and Kitsantas discussed self-regulation in an online context. They discussed six self-regulation processes, then aligned each one with ideas of how teachers and web-based tools could support those processes in an online context. In addition, they described seven critical online teacher competencies and how they too can be used to foster self-regulation in students. Although the web-based tools are dated, the principles outlined in the article can help teachers foster self-regulation in their online classes.

Barnard-Brak, L., Paton, V. O., & Lan, W. Y. (2010). Self-regulation across time of first-generation online learners. *ALT-J, Research in Learning Technology* 18(1), 61–70.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/09687761003657572>

The authors examined self-regulation acquisition through the lens of Schunk's (2001) cyclical model. Schunk's model theorized that students develop self-regulation through the interaction of environmental, personal, and behavioral factors, with environmental factors having the most influence in the initial development phases. The authors administered the short form of the Online Self-Regulated Learning Questionnaire to 101 participants at the beginning and end of their first online class at a large, public southwestern university. They found that there was no significant difference between initial and ending scores. They suggested further research of Schunk's model.

Bol, L., & Garner, J. K. (2011). Challenges in supporting self-regulation in distance education environments. *Journal of Computing in Higher Education*, 23(2–3), 104–123.

<https://doi.org/10.1007/s12528-011-9046-7>

In this article, the authors applied Zimmerman's three-phase self-regulation theory to distance education contexts, particularly as they related to learner-content interactions in vulnerable populations: students who have weak or no self-regulation skills; poor calibration skills (the alignment of student's performance expectations with actual performance outcomes); and low executive functioning. The authors offer specific suggestions for course designers in creating elements that can be included in a course to scaffold students in developing self-regulation in the forethought, performance, and self-reflection phase.

Yang, Y.-C. (2011). Applying strategies of self-regulation and self-efficacy to the design and evaluation of online learning programs. *Educational Technology Systems* 40(3), 323–335.
<https://doi.org/10.2190/ET.40.3.g>

Yang explored the effect of embedding two different self-regulation strategies and one self-efficacy strategy into an online course of undergraduate students in Korea. The course included instruction in cognitive and performance strategies as well as peer feedback meant to increase self-efficacy. The cognitive and performance strategies significantly improved the use of self-regulated learning strategies, but the self-efficacy supports did not increase self-efficacy. The author also reviewed Hofstede's five dimensions of culture and discussed how they relate to education.

Van Laer, S., & Elen, J. (2017). In search of attributes that support self-regulation in blended learning environments. *Education and Information Technologies*, 22(4), 1395–1454.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-016-9505-x>

This article is a review of literature on self-regulation supports in blended contexts. The authors reviewed literature in 95 articles from 1985 to 2015 and found seven key attributes of effective self-regulation support: interaction (helped maintain motivation), authentic tasks and contexts (increased motivation and metacognition), scaffolding (support for tasks that might be difficult to do alone), personalization (did not seem to have an impact on outcomes), learner control (influenced all areas of self-regulation), calibration, and reflection.

Self-Regulation in English Language Learners

Learning a language is different from other academic disciplines. It requires different cognitive abilities and learning strategies and includes conversational interactions that appear to put the learner at a disadvantage. It is often accompanied with higher anxiety than a given learner would have in learning a different subject. Research on self-regulation in language learners reflects these realities. Research topics include the difference in strategies used by low and high self-regulated students (Gan, Humphreys, & Hamp-Lyons, 2004; Köksal & Dündar, 2017), self-regulation strategies that are unique to language learners (Seker, 2016; Cohen & Griffiths, 2015), the difference in strategy use between males and females (Adıgüzel & Orhan, 2017; Altay & Sarachalolu, 2017), effective language learning pedagogies (Punhagui & De Souza, 2013), and ties of self-regulation in language learning to other constructs such as self-directed learning (Hawkins, 2018).

Gan, Z., Humphreys, G., & Hamp-Lyons, L. (2004). Understanding successful and unsuccessful EFL students in Chinese universities. *The Modern Language Journal*, 88(2), 229–244.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0026-7902.2004.00227.x>

These authors investigated the attitudes, strategies, and motivation of 18 English language students in two Chinese universities. Nine of the students were successful and nine were unsuccessful. Successful students saw using English as learning English. Unsuccessful students felt they could not use English until they learned it. Consequently, they cut themselves off from important learning activities. In addition, successful students had high

self-efficacy, positive attitudes, and used specific strategies to prepare for class and study assignments. They were proactive in becoming involved in English activities and planned to become even more proficient in English through further study.

Punhagui, G. C., & De Souza, N. A. (2013). Self-regulation in the learning process: Actions through self-assessment activities with Brazilian students. *International Education Studies*, 6(10), 47–62. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ies.v6n10p47>

In this case study of 25 English language students in 8th grade in a public school in Brazil, students were gradually introduced to different aspects of self-regulation. Among other things, the students were taught to understand their responsibility in learning, to recognize strengths and weaknesses and to make specific plans to overcome weaknesses, and to self-observe, self-reflect, and make adjustments to what they were doing. Although the students initially struggled, 84% of them said that they changed and became better learners.

Cohen, A. D., & Griffiths, C. (2015). Revisiting LLS research 40 years later. *TESOL Quarterly*, 49(2), 414–429. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.225>

In this article Cohen and Griffiths presented the research ideas of 23 language learning scholars. Although the article did not directly discuss self-regulation in English language learners, it did present research that could be of interest to self-regulation and language scholars. Ideas included an investigation of power and how it influences strategy development; strategies for maintaining motivation; strategies to become part of a first

language group; patterns of motivation, flow, and resilience in second language learning; effects of nonverbal communication; etc. All the suggestions focused on primary, secondary, and tertiary second language courses.

Seker, M. (2016). The use of self-regulation strategies by foreign language learners and its role in language achievement. *Language Teaching Research*, 20(5), 600–618.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168815578550>

Seker looked at levels of students' self-regulation in an undergraduate English language course. Data included teacher interviews, a student self-regulated learner (SRL) survey, and language achievement scores. Although teachers identified successful students as ones who could learn and study independently, 92.1% had never considered supporting students in becoming this kind of learner. Survey results gave information on orientation (internal vs. external), performance, and evaluation processes. Students used evaluation more than the other two process, and evaluation correlated most highly with student outcomes. The authors recommended including instruction in SRL in these English language learning courses.

Adıgüzel, A., & Orhan, A. (2017). The relation between English learning students' levels of self-regulation and metacognitive skills and their English academic achievements. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 8(9), 115–125.

The purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which metacognitive and self-regulation skills affected academic outcomes of undergraduate students enrolled in an English language course in Turkey. Researchers performed statistical analyses to examine the differences between males and females and the type of education (daytime or nighttime), as well as the impact of the two constructs on midterm grades. They found that females scored significantly higher than males on the SRL scale, but there was no significant difference between education types. Metacognition had a negligible relationship with outcomes, while SRL had a positive, significant, but weak relationship with outcomes.

Altay, B., & Sarachaloglu, A. S. (2017). Investigation on the relationship among language learning strategies, critical thinking and self-regulation skills in learning English B. *Research on Youth and Language, 11*(1), 1–26.

Altay and Sarachaloglu used mixed methods research to examine the self-regulation, critical thinking, and language learning skills of 608 prep school students. From that group 10 students with lowest grades and 10 with highest grades were interviewed and two classes (one with the highest average grades and one with the lowest) were observed. Statistical analysis of the results of three surveys showed that females tended to use memory strategies, make plans, set goals, think critically, and use appropriate strategies, while males tended to use social and cognitive strategies. Students with high grade point averages tended to like English and to believe they could learn it well.

Köksal, D., & Dündar, S. (2017). Factors affecting the use of self-regulated L2 learning strategies in Turkish FLE context. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 13(2), 397–425.

In this study Köksal and Dündar examined 205 undergraduate second language learners to see if personality types, beliefs about learning a second language, and language proficiency influenced the types of self-regulated 2nd language learning strategies students used.

Findings revealed that these three variables did influence the types of strategies students chose. Students who used many strategies learned most frequently by studying individually and systematically. They used what they learned in real life contexts and sought support from teachers and friends. Learners who had low strategy use spent most of their time memorizing, revising information, and summarizing new knowledge.

Hawkins, M. W. (2018). Self-directed learning as related to learning strategies, self-regulation, and autonomy in an English language program: A local application with global implications. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 8(2), 445–469.

<https://doi.org/10.14746/ssllt.2018.8.2.12>

In this article Hawkins explored Grow's self-directed learning model as it applied to 2nd language learners. The author presented the teacher's roles in four stages of self-directed growth. In stage 1 the teacher was a dispenser of knowledge. In stage 2 the teacher attempted to create an exciting learning environment and to help students set and attain goals. In stage 3 the teacher and student worked as partners, and in stage 4, the teacher acted

as a consultant or mentor. Implicit in this process was teaching students effective 2nd language learning strategies.

Self-Regulation in Online English Language Courses

Teaching language in an online or blended context has unique self-regulation needs. Because language is inherently an interactive discipline, helping students nurture learner-learner and learner-instructor interactions (Andrade, 2014) is vital to their ability to learn the language. In addition, learners often need help with the autonomy of such courses (Andrade & Bunker, 2009; Andrade, 2012). Other research examines the difference between successful and unsuccessful students (Xiao, 2012) and the amount and appropriateness of strategy use (Suwanarak, 2015).

Andrade, M. S., & Bunker, E. L. (2009). A model for self-regulated distance language learning. *Distance Education, 30*(1), 47–61. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01587910902845956>

In this article, the authors provided the rationale for and a model of a distance language learning theory that encompassed the structure, dialogue, and autonomy of Moore's transactional distance theory and Zimmerman's self-regulated learning components (cognition, metacognition, behavior, and motivation) as conceptualized in six dimensions: motive, method, time, physical environment, social environment, and performance. They discussed ways to incorporate structure and dialogue into online language courses to support the development of self-regulation and the use of autonomy in a tertiary institution.

Andrade, M. S. (2012). Self-regulated learning activities: Supporting success in online courses. In J. L. Moore & A. Benson (Eds.) *International Perspectives of Distance Learning in Higher Education* (pp. 112–131). London, England. IntechOpen Limited.
<https://doi.org/10.5772/33745>

In this chapter Andrade examined the potential problems of independence (or autonomy) and lack of discipline (self-regulation) English language learners faced in online and distance courses. Andrade described autonomy as having a choice of learning pathways and objectives and self-regulation as the ability or capacity to choose wisely. She discussed the essential elements of autonomy in light of Moore's transactional distance model, then explored self-regulation using Zimmerman's six dimensions. Using a distance English language course developed at BYU-Hawaii, she described each of the six dimensions and how the course embedded supports that helped learners develop capacity in each dimension.

Xiao, J. (2012). Successful and unsuccessful distance language learners: An 'affective' perspective. *Open Learning: The Journal of Open, Distance and e-Learning*, 27(2), 121–136. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02680513.2012.678611>

Xiao examined 26 undergraduate Chinese students taking English classes. He interviewed the top 15% and the lowest 15% of students. He found that successful students increased their motivation when it began to lapse, had specific reasons for learning English, set goals which they worked to complete, minimized the disadvantages of online learning, and developed strategies to deal with the anxiety. Unsuccessful students did not maintain

motivation, blaming waning motivation on the demands of their lives; had no specific reasons for studying English; let outside demands and anxieties overwhelm them; rarely set goals; and never reached them.

Andrade, M. S. (2014). Course-embedded student support for online English language learners. *Open Praxis*, 6(1), 65–73. <https://doi.org/10.5944/openpraxis.6.1.90>

In this article, Andrade discussed the interaction between language learning strategies, transactional distance, autonomy, and self-regulation. She emphasized the importance of person-to-person interaction in English language learning, especially for learners who do not live in an English-speaking country. She presented three practices that can be embedded into a course to increase learner-instructor and learner-learner interaction as well as self-regulation: exercises in Zimmerman's six dimensions of self-regulation, peer tutoring, and peer-to-peer discussion boards.

Suwanarak, K. (2015). Learning English as Thai adult learners: An insight into experience in using learning strategies. *English Language Teaching*, 8(12), 144–157. <https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v8n12p144>

In this study, Suwanarak followed 40 Thai upper governmental officials in a professional development English course to examine the strategies they used to learn English. She found that the quantity and appropriateness of strategies used correlated with how well the language was learned. Common strategies among all learners included writing words down

and practicing them, writing notes and messages in English, skimming then reading carefully, trying not to translate word for word, watching English TV and movies, using a dictionary, listening to the same thing repeatedly, and receiving help from children and co-workers.

Adult Learners' Self-Regulation

Little research has been done on the self-regulated learning abilities of adults who are not enrolled in a university. Such research as there is suggests that adult learners are more likely to employ strategies that help them understand the material rather than prepare for tests, are more intrinsically motivated, and are less confident in their ability to learn (Justice & Dornan, 2001). When they learn online, they have a tendency to transfer the material to offline contexts (Vanslambrouck, Zhu, Pynoo, Thomas, Lombaerts, & Tondeur, 2018).

Justice, E. M., & Dornan, T. M. (2001). Metacognitive differences between traditional-age and nontraditional-age college students. *Adult Education Quarterly*, 51(3), 236–249.

The purpose of this study was to explore the differences between traditional-age and nontraditional-age college students. The authors obtained data through three self-report instruments. The results showed that younger students focused more on studying to be ready for tests; while older students used strategies designed to help them understand the material. Older females had higher intrinsic interest than older males and traditional-age students. Although there was no difference between the groups in final grades, the nontraditional-age

students were less confident. The authors suggested that college professors consider embedding scaffolding for both older and younger students in their course designs.

Vanslambrouck, S., Zhu, C., Pynoo, B., Thomas, V., Lombaerts, K., & Tondeur, J. (2018). An in-depth analysis of adult students in blended environments: Do they regulate their learning in an “old school” way? *Computers & Education, 128*, 75–87.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2018.09.008>

In this qualitative research the authors explored adults’ experience with self-regulation in blended courses in Belgium. Using data collected from semi-structured interviews with 16 students, the authors looked at self-regulation as it appeared in activation (anticipating the time and effort needed for the task), monitoring (judging the quality of learning), regulation (using knowledge gained from monitoring to make necessary changes), and reflection (evaluating past learning experiences to inform new ones). Students indicated that they would also like classes that had a greater sense of community and that provided quicker feedback on assignments and answers to questions.

Measuring Self-Regulation in Online or English Language Learning Contexts

As learning is increasingly taking place in blended and online contexts, self-regulation scholars have recognized the need for measurements that apply to the unique needs of that context. While there are numerous instruments, nine are most frequently used (Roth, Ogrin, & Schmitz, 2016), only one of which is specifically designed for online learners. One measurement uses qualitative methods in a structured interview to measure the types of strategies students use

(Zimmerman and Pons, 1986). Others were developed and validated for online and blended contexts (Barnard et al., 2009, Cho & Cho, 2017), English language learners (Nuttall, 2016), and self-paced, fully online, independent studies contexts (Koçdar, Karadeniz, Bozkurt, & Buyuk, 2018).

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

In this study, Zimmerman and Pons developed a self-regulation interview instrument called Self-Regulated Learning Interview Schedule (SRLIS). They chose 14 types of self-regulation based on prior research and theory then interviewed 40 sophomores with high academic records and 40 with low academic records about each of the types. The authors found that the instrument could predict with 91% accuracy the group (high or low) to which the students belonged. The types of self-regulation that most differentiated the two groups were seeking information, keeping records and monitoring, and organizing and transforming.

Barnard, L., Lan, W. Y., To, Y. M., Paton, V. O., & Lai, S.-L. (2009). Measuring self-regulation in online and blended learning environments. *The Internet and Higher Education*, 12(1), 1–6. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.iheduc.2008.10.005>

The purpose of this study was to test the reliability and validity of the Online Self-Regulated Learning Questionnaire (OSLQ), an instrument created to measure the self-regulation of students in online or blended contexts. The authors found that when instruments designed for in-person contexts were administered to students in online and blended environments the results were uncertain. To address this inconsistency, they created the OSLQ. Studies of the instrument found that it met the statistical requirements for goodness of fit and internal consistency.

Nuttall, C. (2016). *A Self-regulated learning inventory based on a six-dimensional model of SRL* (master's thesis). Retrieved from BYU ScholarsArchive.
<https://scholarsarchive.byu.edu/etd/6581/>

In his thesis, Nuttall chronicled the development of a self-regulation instrument for university-level English language learners. The instrument was based on the six dimensions of Zimmerman's self-regulation model. Reliability and trustworthiness testing consisted of Cronbach's alpha, exploratory factor analysis, student interviews, and teacher observations. The testing showed some inconsistencies in the instrument that needed to be addressed, but it was a good beginning on an instrument designed for English language learners.

Roth, A., Ogrin, S., & Schmitz, B. (2016). Assessing self-regulated learning in higher education: A systematic literature review of self-report instruments. *Educational Assessment, Evaluation and Accountability*, 28(3), 225–250. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11092-015-9229-2>

In this literature review, Roth, Ogrin, and Schmitz looked at SRL measurements used in tertiary education. The authors evaluated instruments by the following criteria: type of instrument, characteristics of the instruments, specificity, frequency of use, and reliability and validity. Using specified collection methods, they found 225 articles. From those articles they chose instruments that were the focus of four or more articles, finally evaluating nine instruments. A majority of the articles were course specific and used both offline and quantitative methods.

Cho, M.-H., & Cho, Y. (2017). Self-regulation in three types of online interaction: A scale development. *Distance Education, 38*(1), 70–83.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/01587919.2017.1299563>

The purpose of this study was to develop and validate a scale for measuring self-regulation in online contexts in the areas of learner-learner, learner-content, and learner-instructor interaction. Because these three interactions were seen as essential to success in online learning, self-regulation in these interactions was also essential. The authors developed the scale called OSRQ (Online Self-Regulation Questionnaire) using an established five-step procedure. They used exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis to validate the instrument.

Koçdar, S., Karadeniz, A., Bozkurt, A., & Buyuk, K. (2018). Measuring self-regulation in self-paced open and distance learning environments. *International Review of Research in Open and Distributed Learning, 19*(1), 25–42.

Because self-regulation plays such an important role in learning, several scales have been developed to measure it. However, context is important in the development and use of self-regulation skills. Most self-regulation measures were made for use in face-to-face settings. One scale—the Online Self-Regulated Learning Questionnaire (OSLQ)—measures self-regulation in online settings but not in self-paced, fully online, independent studies courses. To fill this gap, the authors of this study created and validated a self-regulation instrument specifically for this type of student.

APPENDIX B

Recruitment Script

I will deliver this message at the first gathering meeting in September at the beginning of the . . . semester. (I am keeping the language as simple as possible so that the students can understand.)

They will receive the study sheet in English and their native language, either Spanish or Portuguese.

Speak slowly.

Hi, my name is Karen Arnesen. I am a student at BYU. I am doing some research. I want to understand what you think of this class. I'm excited to be able to get to know you. I want to learn more about you. I want to know how you learn English.

I am going to give you a piece of paper. It will tell you what I will do in my research. This study will help . . . make this a better class for people who take this class after you.

Thank you.

APPENDIX C

Interview Protocol

At the end of the semester, I interviewed 12 participants in their homes.

- These semi-structured interviews lasted approximately 30–45 minutes and focused on any of the following questions.
- Before I began the interview, I reminded the participant that I was recording the interviews and that they could skip any questions I asked or end the interview at any time.
- The class used the term “agentive learning” when discussing self-regulation. I used that term when I interviewed the students.

Motive

Why did you decide to enroll in this EnglishConnect class?

Why do you want to learn English?

What is your vision for learning English?

How do you see yourself using English in the future?

Now that you have finished this course, what is the next step for you?

Gathering Meeting

What was the most helpful thing you learned this semester?

What was the least helpful thing you learned this semester?

As you think back over this semester, what stands out to you?

How do you feel about what you’ve done this semester?

How could this class have been better for you?

What advice would you give to someone who is just starting to learn English?

Did the self-regulation (agentive learning) lessons make a difference in how you did your English lessons? How?

What difficulties did you face this semester in learning English? How did you overcome them?

What did you do when a lesson was hard? How well did it work?

Effort

What do you think about how hard you worked this semester?

How diligent do you think you are in learning English? What influences how diligent you are?

If you were going to give advice to yourself on how to do better, what advice would you give?

Method/Strategies

What do you need to do in order to complete your English lessons?

What kinds of activities help you learn English?

What kinds of learning activities do you enjoy doing?

What are some things you do to learn English? How do you study English?

Do you do anything besides the online activities and level tests to help yourself learn English?

Why or why not?

Did you do anything this week to help you learn English that wasn't part of this course?

Do you do any English learning activities outside of class?

Do you practice speaking English with anyone? Who? How often? Does it help?

Time Management

What is your week like? How do you find time to do your English lessons?

Do you have a set time that you study, or does it change from day to day?

When do you study? Why?

How do you decide when to study?

Do you follow your study plan? How?

Physical Environment

What kinds of things distract you when you are doing your English lessons? How do you avoid those distractions?

Do you have a specific place you study?

Where do you study? Why did you choose that place?

Social Environment (Help Seeking; Asking)

What impact does the gathering group have on your desire to learn English? How else does the gathering group influence you?

Do you ever ask someone to help you in your lessons? Who? Why do you choose this person?

How do you get help when you don't understand something?

Who do you turn to when you need support?

Performance

What goals did you set for this week? Were you able to accomplish them? Why or why not?

Do you ever procrastinate (put off) doing your lessons? Why? What gets in your way?

Do you do your English lessons each week? Why or why not? What influences whether or not you do them?

How do you feel about how you did in this class?

Metacognition

What strengths do you think you have as a learner of English? What weaknesses? How do you use your strengths? Overcome your weaknesses?

What is the most difficult part for you about learning English? What is the easiest?

What do you think of your progress so far?

APPENDIX D

Strategy Ideas

The following are ideas for helping adult English language learners develop self-regulation and succeed in an online or blended English course.

Increase Accountability

- Have due dates for assignments.
- Use an LMS and encourage students to log in daily.
- Charge tuition (to increase commitment); include expectation that they attend every week.

(In the courses discussed in this thesis, four students attended 50% of the time; five attended 58%, three attended 67%, and three attended 83% of the time.)

Teach Self-regulation Strategies

- Give students a self-regulation measure before the first day of class; have students use the results to determine which of the six self-regulated learning (SRL) dimensions to focus on. (See Andrade, 2012.)
 - Create modules that can be completed at home with several activities for each of the six dimensions.
 - Create specific instruction. The students need both self-regulation principles and specific ways to enact that principle. They are not ready to apply principles on their own. (Stories from students' lives could be effective. None of the students interviewed could remember what "agentive" learning meant. With some reminders, some expressed the general idea, but none could give specifics.)
 - Create a goal worksheet with weekly and daily goals that are specific, challenging, and proximal. Have them keep records. Data is telling.

- Follow up on goals during the in-person class, having the students use self-reflection to explain why they did or did not complete their goals.
- Consider having an online or physical chart to track progress on goals and learning activities.
- Use the in-person class for self-regulation instruction, organizing speaking scenarios around each of the six dimensions and situations they might actually encounter during the week. (Cut out other speaking scenarios.)
- Use media. Consider making short videos in English with English subtitles to teach self-regulation principles and practices. The students enjoy TV and movies with English subtitles.
- Use the online exercises to review self-regulation strategies. Combine work in reading, writing, listening, and speaking with SRL instruction.

Learning Activities

- Have students listen to podcasts created for the course then write a summary. (Many students mentioned wanting to write better.)
- Use online discussion boards. These could be started in class if they have access to computers. Or they could use their phones.
- Give students a reading assignment to do during the week then meet in groups in class or in an online discussion board to discuss the assignment.
- Consider paper copies for exercises. (See Vanslambrouck et al., 2018.)
- Train student leader/teachers, especially in how to ask questions and have several people answer.
- Have simple books that can be checked out for recreational reading.

- Create activities that fit into the context of their lives.
 - Create short learning activities then teach them how to take advantage of short amounts of time—10 to 15 minutes. (This will build self-efficacy and minimize frustration.)
 - Create short self-regulation lessons to teach principles and to address issues specific to their culture.
- Foster a sense of community. (Students mentioned that they wished people would come more often.)
 - Facilitators make contact with those who don't come (phone or text).
 - Daily phone calls from volunteer speaking partners (high school students; older people, Andrade 2012, p. 128).

APPENDIX E

Institutional Review Board Documents

Approval Email

E18372 PI: Karen Arnesen IRB Determination: APPROVAL [Thesis x](#)Human Subjects Committee <irb@byu.edu>
to me

Fri, Aug 17, 2018, 4:18 PM ☆ ↶ ⋮

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
FOR HUMAN SUBJECTS**Memorandum**

To: Karen Arnesen
 Department: IP&T
 College: EDUC
 From: Sandee Aina, MPA, IRB Administrator
 Bob Ridge, PhD, IRB Chair
 Date: August 17, 2018
 IRB#: E18372

Title: *"The Experience of English Language Learners in a Blended, Self-paced Course with Self-regulation Support"*

Brigham Young University's IRB has approved the research study referenced in the subject heading as exempt level, categories 1-2. The approval period is from **August 17, 2018 to August 16, 2019**. Please reference your assigned IRB identification number in any correspondence with the IRB. Continued approval is conditional upon your compliance with the following requirements:

1. A copy of the informed consent statement is attached. No other consent statement should be used. Each research subject must be provided with a copy or a way to access the consent statement.
2. Any modifications to the approved protocol must be submitted, reviewed, and approved by the IRB before modifications are incorporated in the study.
3. All recruiting tools must be submitted and approved by the IRB prior to use.
4. In addition, serious adverse events must be reported to the IRB immediately, with a written report by the PI within 24 hours of the PI's becoming aware of the event. Serious adverse events are (1) death of a research participant; or (2) serious injury to a research participant.
5. All other non-serious unanticipated problems should be reported to the IRB within 2 weeks of the first awareness of the problem by the PI. Prompt reporting is important, as unanticipated problems often require some modification of study procedures, protocols, and/or informed consent processes. Such modifications require the review and approval of the IRB.
6. A few months before the expiration date, you will receive a continuing review form. There will be two reminders. Please complete the form in a timely manner to ensure that there is no lapse in the study approval.

IRB Secretary
 A 285 ASB
 Brigham Young University
 (801)422-3606

7 Attachments

Consent Documents: English

Research Study Sheet

Introduction

This research study is being conducted by Karen Arnesen and Charles Graham at Brigham Young University to explore the experiences English Language learners have as they learn English and self-regulation principles (agentive learning) in an EnglishConnect3 course.

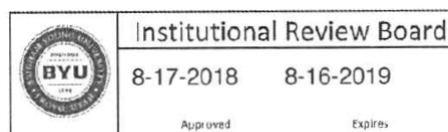
Research Activities

This is what I will be doing in your class:

I will visit your class each week and take notes on what I see.

- I will be able to read your learning journals.
- I will see your scores on your practice exercises and level tests.
- I will see what you write on your Progress Tracker.
- I will see your scores on your agentive learning surveys.
- I will have access to information from computer analytics about how much time you spend in online practice exercises and tests.

Thank you for letting me be part of your class. I am excited to get to know you .



Consent to be a Research Subject

Introduction

This research study is being conducted by Karen Arnesen and Charles Graham at Brigham Young University to explore the experiences English Language learners have as they learn English and selfregulation principles (agentive learning) in an EnglishConnect3 course.

Procedures

If you agree to participate in this research study, the following will occur:

- You will be asked to participate in an interview at the conclusion of your semester that will last about 30 minutes.
- The researcher may invite you to answer a few questions throughout the semester lasting about 5 minutes at the end of the gathering to better understand your learning activities during the week.
- The researcher will record your conversations with your action partner at the beginning and end of class and in your interviews.
- Total time commitment beyond the regular course activities will be about forty-five (45) minutes over the whole semester,

Risks/Discomforts

You may feel self-conscious in some of the activities because you are still learning English. The researcher will attempt to put you at ease by giving you time to answer questions and expressing gratitude for your participation.

Benefits

There will be no direct benefits to you. It is hoped, however, that through your participation researchers may learn more about how students understand and react to self-regulation (agentive learning) instruction in an online English class. This will help BYU Pathway Worldwide to make their courses better.

Confidentiality

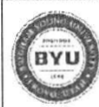
The research data will be kept on a password protected computer. Only the researchers will have access to the data. In reports of the data, you will each be given a pretend name so that no one will be able to identify you. At the end of the study, all information that might identify you will be removed and the data will be stored on the computer for three (3) years. Then it will be deleted.

Participation

Participation in this research is voluntary. You have the right to withdraw at any time or refuse to participate entirely without hurting your status in this class or the Pathway program.

Questions about the Research

If you have questions regarding this study, you may contact Karen Arnesen at (801) 372-5308 for further information.

	Institutional Review Board	
	8-17-2018	8-16-2019
	Approved	Expires

Questions about Your Rights as a Research Participants

If you have questions regarding your rights as a research participant, contact IRB Administrator at (801) 422-1461; A-285 ASB, Brigham Young University, Provo, UT 84602; irb@byu.edu


Statement of Consent

I have read, understood, and received a copy of the above consent and desire of my own free will to participate in this study.

Name (Printed): _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

	Institutional Review Board	
	8-17-2018	8-16-2019
	Approved	Expires

Consent Documents: Spanish

Documento del Estudio

Introducción

Karen Arnesen y Charles Graham de Brigham Young University están llevando un estudio para investigar las experiencias de estudiantes que aprenden inglés y los principios de autorregulación (agentive learning) en el curso EnglishConnect3.

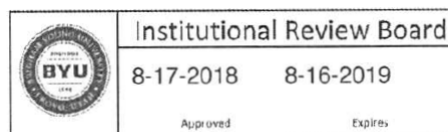
Actividades del Estudio

Lo siguiente es lo que yo haré en tu clase:

Visitaré tu clase cada semana y apuntaré lo que observo.

- Podré leer tus diarios de aprendizaje.
- Veré los resultados de tus ejercicios y exámenes de nivel.
- Veré lo que escribas en tu rastreador del progreso (Progress Tracker).
- Veré tus resultados de tus encuestas de aprendizaje agente.
- Tendré acceso a la información que viene de los análisis de la computadora acerca de cuánto tiempo tú empleas con los ejercicios y exámenes por internet.

Gracias por dejarme ser una parte de tu clase. Estoy animada a conocerles.



Consentimiento para participar en un estudio

Introducción

Karen Arnesen y Charles Graham de Brigham Young University están llevando un estudio para investigar las experiencias de estudiantes que aprenden inglés y los principios de autorregulación (agentive learning) en el curso EnglishConnect3.

Metodología

Si usted da su consentimiento para participar en este estudio, ocurrirá lo siguiente:

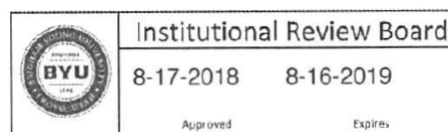
- Se le pedirá que participe en una entrevista de aproximadamente 30 minutos al final del curso.
- A lo largo del curso, el investigador podrá invitarle a contestar algunas preguntas por más o menos 5 minutos después de la reunión semanal a fin de entender mejor las actividades de aprendizaje que usted desarrolla durante la semana.
- El investigador grabará las conversaciones entre usted y su compañero de acción al principio y al final de la sesión de clase y en sus entrevistas.
- Estas actividades adicionales durarán más o menos un total de 45 minutos durante el curso entero.

Riesgos/Incomodidades

Este estudio es una actividad de bajo riesgo, pero es posible que usted se sienta un poco incómodo en algunas de las actividades por no dominar todavía el inglés. El investigador tratará de aliviar cualquier incomodidad, dándole tiempo para contestar preguntas y expresando gratitud por su participación.

Beneficios

No habrá beneficios directos para usted. No obstante, se espera que, gracias a su participación, los investigadores puedan aprender más sobre la manera en que los estudiantes entienden y responden a la instrucción de autorregulación (agentive learning) en un curso de inglés por internet. Esto ayudará a BYU Pathway Worldwide a mejorar los cursos.



Confidencialidad

Los datos del estudio se guardarán en una computadora protegida por contraseña. Solamente los investigadores tendrán acceso a los datos. En los informes de los datos, se le dará a cada participante un nombre ficticio para que ninguno se pueda identificar. Terminado el estudio, se borrará toda información referente a la identificación de los participantes, y los datos restantes se conservarán en la computadora por tres años. Entonces se borrarán.

Participación

Su participación en este estudio es voluntaria. Usted tiene derecho a retirarse del estudio en cualquier momento o decidirse a no participar en absoluto sin incurrir perjuicio alguno en el curso o en el programa Pathway.

Preguntas sobre el estudio

Si tiene preguntas sobre el estudio, sírvase comunicarse con Karen Arnesen en el (801) 3725308 para más información.

Preguntas sobre sus derechos como participante del estudio

Si tiene preguntas sobre sus derechos como participante del estudio, sírvase contactar con el IRB Administrator: (801) 422-1461 ; A-285 ASB, Brigham Young University, Provo, UT 84602; irb@byu.edu

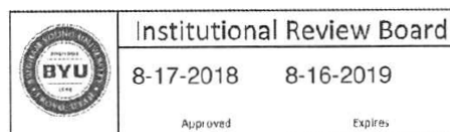
Declaración de consentimiento

Declaro que he leído y entendido el contenido de este formulario de consentimiento, y he recibido una copia de él. Declaro mi deseo de participar en este estudio de propia voluntad.

Nombre: (letra de molde) _____

Firma: _____

Fecha: _____



Consent Documents: Portuguese

Folha de Estudo de Pesquisa

Introdução

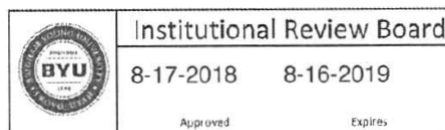
Este projeto de pesquisa está sendo conduzido por Karen Arnesen e Charles Graham na Universidade de Brigham Young para explorar as experiências que os aprendizes da Língua Inglesa têm ao aprenderem inglês e os princípios de auto-regulação (aprendizagem reativa) em um curso da EnglishConnect3.

Atividades de pesquisa

Isto é que farei na aula:

- Eu vou visitar su aula toda semana e tomar notas sobre o que eu vejo.
- Eu poderei ler seus diários de aprendizado.
- Eu vou ver sua pontuação em seus exercícios e testes de nivel.
- Eu vou ver o que você escreve no seu rastreador de progresso.
- Eu vou sua pontuação em suas pesquisas de aprendizado agentivo.
- Eu terei acesso a informações da análise do computador sobre quanto tempo você gasta em exercícios e testes online.

Obrigado por me deixar frazer parte da sua turma. Estou animado em conhecer vocês.



Consentimento para ser objeto de pesquisa

Introdução

Este projeto de pesquisa está sendo conduzido por Karen Arnesen e Charles Graham na Universidade de Brigham Young para explorar as experiências que os aprendizes da Língua Inglesa têm ao aprenderem inglês e os princípios de auto-regulação (aprendizagem reativa) em um curso da EnglishConnect3.

Procedimentos

Se você concordar em participar deste projeto de pesquisa, ocorrerá o seguinte:

- Você será solicitado a participar de uma entrevista no final do semestre que durará cerca de 30 minutos.
- O pesquisador pode convidá-lo a responder a algumas perguntas durante o semestre, com duração de aproximadamente 5 minutos, no final do encontro, para entender melhor as atividades de aprendizado durante a semana.
- O pesquisador gravará suas conversas com seu parceiro de ação no início e no final da aula e em suas entrevistas.
- O tempo total de comprometimento além das atividades do curso regular será cerca de quarenta e cinco (45) minutos durante todo o semestre.

Riscos/Desconfortos

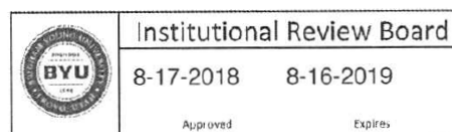
Você pode se sentir inseguro em algumas das atividades porque ainda está aprendendo inglês. O pesquisador tentará deixá-lo à vontade, dando-lhe tempo para responder perguntas e expressar gratidão pela sua participação.

Benefícios

Não haverá benefícios diretos para você. Espera-se, no entanto, que através da sua participação os pesquisadores possam aprender mais sobre como os alunos entendem e reagem à instrução de autoregulação (aprendizagem reativa) em uma aula de inglês online. Isso ajudará a BYU Pathway Worldwide a aprimorar seus cursos.

Confidencialidade

Os dados da pesquisa serão mantidos em um computador protegido por senha. Apenas os pesquisadores terão acesso aos dados. Nos relatórios dos dados, cada um receberá um nome falso para que ninguém seja capaz de identificá-lo. No final do estudo, todas as informações que possam identificá-lo serão removidas e os dados serão armazenados no computador por três (3) anos. Depois disso serão deletados.



Participação

A participação nesta pesquisa é voluntária. Você tem o direito de desistir a qualquer momento ou se recusar a participar inteiramente sem prejudicar seu status nesta classe ou no programa Pathway.

Perguntas sobre seus direitos como participantes de pesquisa

Se você tiver dúvidas sobre seus direitos como participante de pesquisa, contate o IRB Administrator (801) 422-1461; A-285 ASB, Universidade de Brigham Young, Provo, UT 84602; irb@byu.edu


Declaração de consentimento

Eu li, compreendi e recebi uma cópia do consentimento acima e desejo de minha própria e livre vontade participar deste estudo/

Nome (Impresso):

Assinatura: _____

Data: _____

	Institutional Review Board	
	8-17-2018	8-16-2019
	Approved	Expires