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Self-regulation in the IEP Classroom: Developing Lifelong English Language Proficiency

Jeannie Slayton
University of Connecticut - Storrs, jeannie.slayton@uconn.edu

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Jeannie Slayton, Ph.D.

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Although students in Intensive English Programs (IEPs) acknowledge the importance of acquiring academic English skills, their primary concern is obtaining an acceptable Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) score. In order to continue improving their English skills beyond the last English class, learners need to have the capability of self-regulating their own learning. The problem for IEP teachers is fostering self-regulation in students who tend to be exam-oriented learners.

The conceptual framework for this qualitative study was constructed by examining and synthesizing research from the fields of adult education and educational psychology. This framework informed the interview protocol, observation, and document review guides to answer the research question: How do teachers in an IEP promote the development of self-regulation in university English language learners?

Data from six participants teaching at an IEP were inductively analyzed to reveal three main themes: (a) teachers encouraged learners to interact with others in English both inside and outside the classroom; (b) teachers elicited and incorporated learners' interests and goals when designing course activities or selecting content; and (c) teachers moved from a teacher-centered to a learner-centered classroom by affording learners more control over tasks and content and by providing autonomous support structures. Recommendations addressed course design, the use of support structures to help learners

plan, monitor, and evaluate their learning, and the adjustment of teacher involvement in

the creation of support structures to encourage feelings of autonomy in learners.

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Developing Lifelong English Language Proficiency

Jeannie Slayton

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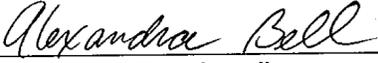The University of Connecticut

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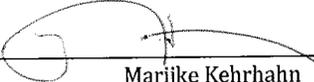
APPROVAL PAGE

Doctor of Philosophy

Self-Regulation in the IEP Classroom: Developing Lifelong English Language
Proficiency

Presented by

Jeannie Slayton, B.A., M.S.

Major Advisor _____
Robin Grenier

Associate Advisor _____
Alexandra Bell

Associate Advisor _____
Marijke Kehrhahn

University of Connecticut

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In 2014, the combined enrollment of international undergraduate and graduate students in U.S. colleges and universities reached 886,052 (Open Doors, 2014). As the number of international students has risen, so too has the number of college students who are non-native speakers of English. China, South Korea, Taiwan, and Saudi Arabia account for 47.2% of the total population of international students in the U.S. (Open Doors, 2014). Since English is the most widely used language in U.S. college classrooms, international students may struggle if they do not have sufficient English language proficiency to communicate effectively with professors and peers, comprehend written materials, and satisfactorily complete all course and program requirements.

In 1962 the National Council on Testing of English as a Foreign Language convened for the first time as a response to the growing number of international applicants to US colleges and universities (Educational Testing Service, 2009). The council, composed of public and private post-secondary educators, supported the emergence of the first Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) (Educational Testing Service, 2009). The TOEFL test has undergone many modifications since it was first administered in 1963, and has become one of the most widely accepted measures of English language proficiency at US colleges and universities (Ayers & Quattlebaum, 1992). Based on The Educational Testing Service (ETS) (2009) recommendations, many institutions of higher education set a minimum TOEFL score requirement for an international applicant to be considered for acceptance into an undergraduate or graduate program (Educational Testing Service, 2009). For international students whose native

language is not English, future educational opportunities hinge on obtaining a minimum and often competitive score on the TOEFL exam.

Although ETS has well documented the reliability of the TOEFL test as a measure of English proficiency at the time the test is taken in terms of listening, speaking, reading and writing capabilities, colleges and universities seldom use other indictors of international students' continued language development. Despite obtaining a passing English language proficiency test score, English language learners typically have difficulty coping with large amounts of specialized vocabulary, extracting main ideas and drawing inferences from readings (Bifuh-Ambe, 2009), understanding assignments (Yen & Kuzma, 2009) and lectures (Feast, 2002), and producing writing that meets university standards (Bifuh-Ambe, 2009; Feast, 2002; Yen & Kuzma, 2009). In addition, English language learners also have difficulty participating in class discussions where the speech isn't modified for non-native speakers of English (Bifuh-Ambe, 2009). The language difficulties facing international students have prompted many universities to develop programs in English as a second language (Storch & Tapper, 2009).

Although non-native English speaking students have the option of preparing for the TOEFL test in their home countries, many opt to come to the United States to prepare for the English language proficiency requirements at Intensive English Programs (IEPs) located within institutions of higher education (Chang, 2011). Universities, such as the University of Michigan, home of one of the first IEPs, offer non-native English speaking students courses on college campuses focused on developing English language proficiency (Matsuda, 2006). IEP programs, following the model established by the University of Michigan, offer non-credit courses that focus on developing English language proficiency (2006). Students may enroll in these courses either before enrolling

in credit courses at a college or university or while they are enrolled in credit bearing university courses (2006).

Despite additional language training, continued miscommunication between international students and professors persists (Jenkins, 2000). Evidence suggests that formal classroom learning of English as a second language alone is not adequate for the level of communicative competence needed to function in the academic community (Sun & Chen, as cited in Myles & Cheng, 2003). Students who have met the minimum TOEFL requirement and often those who have completed academic preparation programs in English are rarely prepared to meet the language demands of note-taking, lecture comprehension, writing, and reading comprehension in an all-English environment, (Bifuh-Ambe, 2009; Mulligan & Kirkpatrick, 2000; Rosenthal, 1992) where instructors and students assume learners have sufficient language proficiency (Lee, 2009). Therefore, non-native speakers of English may benefit from having the capabilities that enable them to continue to increase language proficiency independently. With college enrollments of non-native speakers of English showing no signs of declining (Williams, Takaku, & Bauman, 2006), Intensive English Programs (IEPs) are under increasing pressure to effectively prepare English language learners for the academic demands of higher education.

Problem Statement

Students in IEPs acknowledge the importance of acquiring academic English skills. Their primary concern is obtaining an acceptable TOEFL score, thus influencing student views on the types of language activities and instruction that are most effective (Seroglu, 2001). Researchers (e.g., Chen, 2003; Jing 2006) have suggested that when students are accustomed to short term product-oriented outcomes such as passing a

language exam, they are more likely to show resistance to or struggle with teaching methods that encourage process-oriented learning aimed at increasing the capability of acquiring language proficiency. In addition, students who become exam-oriented learners adopt a more passive role in learning, are interested in learning shortcuts to language proficiency, and rely on more superficial learning strategies, such as memorization (Jing, 2006).

When students adjust their learning to what they will be assessed on and rely on others to determine what they need to learn, they become poor lifelong learners (White, 2007). Lifelong learning includes formal and informal learning that takes place in a variety of settings throughout life (Dehmel, 2006; Jarvis, 2004), is intentional, and involves specific goals (Knapper & Cropley, 2000). Similarly, lifelong language learners continue to develop language proficiency while they are enrolled in a class and beyond (Pearson, Fonseca-Greber & Foell, 2006). Successful lifelong learning requires the motivation and the capability to self-manage or self-regulate one's learning (Luftenegger, Schober, van de Schoot, Wagner, Finsterwald, & Spiel, 2012). Self-regulation (SR), a process by which learners monitor, regulate, and control their cognitive, metacognitive, and behavioral processes in order to achieve a goal (Zimmerman, 2008), is essential for lifelong learning because SR encourages learners to become more independent (White, 2007). Acquiring language proficiency is a lifelong process that can be accomplished in large part through the development of SR, however, exam-oriented, or product-oriented learners tend to have less effective self-regulation skills compared to process-oriented learners (Valle, Nunez, Cabanach, Gonzelz-Pienda, Rodriguez, Rosario, Cerezo & Munoz-Cadavid, 2008). The problem for IEP teachers is fostering independence in the language learning of students who tend to be exam-oriented or product-oriented learners.

As a first step in addressing this problem, I explored the teacher's role in promoting student self-regulation in language learning in IEP university classrooms.

Conceptual Framework

Self-regulation is a pro-active, self-directed process by which learners convert mental ability to academic achievement in order to attain learning goals (Zimmerman, 2002). Zimmerman (2002) describes SR as a 3-phase process involving forethought, which includes goal setting and strategy selection, performance, which includes the implementation of strategies, and a self-monitoring and reflection phase, in which learners evaluate and reflect upon their performance. Although the concept of SR has been widely researched within the field of educational psychology, there is a dearth of literature exploring SR in the field of language learning (Benson, 2006; Tseng, Dornyei & Schmitt, 2006) and a dearth of literature specifically addressing the adult ESL population (Mathews-Aydinli, 2008). Much of the research in second language acquisition has focused on the strategies learners use to promote autonomy, defined by Holec (1981) as the ability of take charge of one's own learning. Although some overlap of definitions exists between autonomy and self-regulation, an important distinction is that SR places more emphasis on how learners can take control over their learning through relying less on teacher control (Andrade & Evans, 2013). Because the problem I investigated involved methods used to encourage university language learners to become more independent learners, I utilized the literature on SR.

In order to create a framework to investigate how teachers promote SR in adult English language learners in an IEP university classroom, I examined SR research from adult education and educational psychology. A review of the literature revealed three themes regarding the adult classroom learning environment: (1) student-centered learning

environments that support autonomy and intrinsic motivation positively impact the development of self-regulation, (2) adaptive scaffolding activities that support the transfer of control from the teacher to the student encourage the development of SR, and (3) cross-cultural differences in SR highlight the need for adaptive scaffolding. **When teachers create a student-centered learning environment that supports autonomy and intrinsic motivation, students are more likely to be self-regulated in their learning.**

Autonomy support. Central to self-regulation is the availability of choice and control to the learner (Zimmerman, 1996). When learners experience choice and psychological freedom in learning activities, the learners become autonomous (Sierens, Vansteenkiste, Goossens, Soenens, & Dochy, 2009). In the educational psychology literature, autonomy is commonly defined as an internal control over one's behavior where actions and behaviors come from oneself and are not controlled by external factors (Deci & Ryan, 1987). University teachers can support adult learners' perceptions of autonomy by encouraging independence, taking into account learners' personal interests and values (Vansteekiste, Sierens, Goosens, Soenens, Dochy, Mouratidis, Aelterman, Haerens, & Beyers, 2012), increasing student involvement in learning through seeking student input, and explaining the value of an activity when there is limited choice involved (Reeve & Jang, 2006).

Reeve and Jang (2006) investigated the types of behaviors that could be classified as autonomy supportive. The study included 144 participants who were pre-service teachers in an undergraduate psychology course. The participants were paired together, with one member of the pair randomly assigned the role of a teacher and the other member a learner. The pair was given the goal of having the learner solve a complex

three-dimensional puzzle. The interactions between the learners and teachers were videotaped and all participants completed a survey upon the conclusion of the puzzle activity. The researchers utilized the videos to gauge learner engagement, learner performance, and teacher instructional behavior. The survey measured the learners' perceptions of autonomy and interest and enjoyment. Results indicated interest/enjoyment (ESr = .57), engagement (ESr = .56), and performance (ESr = .45) exhibited medium effects on perceived autonomy. Moreover, the teacher behaviors that were associated with learners' perceived autonomy support included time listening to learners, asking what the learner wanted, providing time for learners to work independently, giving learners the opportunity to talk, allowing learners to choose the seating arrangements, providing rationales, or explanations of why an requested action was beneficial, and using praise as informational feedback. Teacher behaviors that negatively correlated with perceived autonomy included time monopolizing the materials (ESr = -.32), giving solutions / providing the answers (ESr = -.39), using directives or commands (ESr = -.29), making should or got to statements (ESr = -.34), and asking controlling questions (ESr = -.48). As a whole, these results indicate that autonomy supportive behaviors include considering learner interests while encouraging learners to take more control over the learning process by affording learners more choice during learning activities.

Although allowing for greater learner choice is an important autonomy supportive behavior, there are times when learners do not have choices. Sierens, Vansteenkiste, Goossens, Soenens, and Dochy (2009) suggest that in instances when a choice does not exist, teachers can still provide autonomy supportive behaviors by offering clear rationales and explanations for those instances. To test this premise, Sierens et al. (2009)

administered a questionnaire to 526 high school juniors and seniors from Belgium and Belgian college freshman students. The questionnaire contained items from the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ), a survey tool developed by Pintrich and De Groot (1990) proven to be a reliable and valid measure of cognitive strategies and self-regulation, and questions pertaining to teaching style, context, and autonomy support. Results revealed perceived teacher structure had a strong effect (ESr = .67) on perceived autonomy support. Teacher structure referred to instances where teachers offered rationales using non-controlling behavior and clearly communicated expectations versus the use of controlling language laden with punishments, which put additional pressure on students. The results indicate that providing a balance of moderate to high degrees of autonomy and teacher structure free of controlling language positively impacts the development of SR in learners.

Jang, Reeve, and Deci (2010) suggested a curvilinear relationship between autonomy support and teacher structure; postulating that too little teacher structure could result in a chaotic learning environment, while too much structure could interfere with autonomy support. In a research study that sought to test this curvilinear relationship, 133 teachers and 2,523 mid-western high school students participated in classroom observations and surveys. During classroom observations, five raters recorded teachers' autonomy support on a scale of 1 to 7 on the following areas: extrinsic motivation, controlling language, attempts to change students' negative attitudes, nurtures inner motivational resources, informational language, acknowledges and accepts students' negative views by listening, being open, and displaying the view that complaints are okay. Structure was noted as the teacher giving explicit directions, guidance during the lesson, and constructive feedback. Lack of structure was noted during instances where the

instructions were unclear, there was either no feedback or ambiguous feedback, and weak guidance was provided during the learning activity. Raters also measured student engagement. Items on the student questionnaire related to behavioral, cognitive, and emotional aspects of engagement, to which students responded on a seven-point likert scale. The analysis revealed that structure has a large (ESr = .60) effect on autonomy support.

Although Jang et al.'s (2010) results did not support the hypothesized curvilinear relationship between autonomy support and structure, the results did indicate that highly structured instructions style exhibited a strong effect (ESr = .76) on student engagement. This highly structured instructional style consisted of clear expectations, detailed directions at key points in the learning activity, and how to achieve learning outcomes without the use of controlling language, such as directives or punishments. Highly structured instructional style should not detract from the learner's opportunities to make decisions related to the learning process. In fact, Jang et al. (2010) argue for classroom conditions where the teacher is providing a high level of autonomy support to enhance learner feelings of competence and personal control because those conditions are positively associated with student engagement. Although Jang et. al's (2010) study participants were high school students, the results lend further support to Sierens et al.'s (2009) conclusion that autonomy supportive behavior should include a degree of structure.

When learners perceive that they have autonomy and teachers offer support, SR is positively impacted. Sierens et al.'s (2009) aforementioned study of Belgian high school students and college freshman investigated the relationships between autonomy support and structure and how autonomy was related to SR. Preliminary analysis revealed

autonomy had a small effect on SR (ESr = .25) and a medium effect (ESr = .35) on perceived teacher structure. However, a hierarchical regression analysis indicated that only moderate to high levels of autonomy paired with structure yielded a positive effect on SR. Low autonomy support and structure did not yield a positive effect on SR. These results highlight the importance of the learners involvement in the decision making process. The results suggest that only classroom environments where learners participate in the decision making process and where instructors offer support in terms of guidelines, feedback, and rationales or explanations for activities and instances when choices are limited, support the development of SR.

Autonomy, motivation, and goal orientation. Increasing a learner's perception of autonomy is one way to enhance motivation (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2008). Autonomy support was associated with intrinsic motivation in a study conducted by Garcia and Pintrich (1996). Participants in the study included 365 college students from the fields of English, biology, and social science. The participants completed the MSLQ twice during the semester: once in the beginning and again at the end. The researchers used MSLQ items that asked the participants why he or she participated in task, with reasons that included challenge, curiosity, or mastery, which were attributed to intrinsic motivation and grades. The researchers defined task value in this study as a learners evaluation of how interesting, important, or useful a task was and perceived autonomy as the degree to which the learner was able to participate in the decision making during the course. Specifically, perceived autonomy included having a say in the course requirements, having a choice over reading assignments and paper topics, and deciding deadlines.

Initially, Garcia and Pintrich (1996) found a small effect size (ESsm = .20) between perceived autonomy and intrinsic motivation and an even smaller effect size (ESsm = .09) between autonomy and task value based on the results of the MSLQ administered to participants at the start of the semester. Researchers also reported a large effect size (ESsm = .79) between intrinsic motivation and task value at the beginning of the semester. By the end of the semester, after the participants completed the MSLQ once again, results indicated that autonomy had a medium relationship (ESsm = .43) on intrinsic motivation and a small relationship (ESsm = .20) between task value and autonomy. Moreover, the end of the semester MSLQ results revealed a very large effect size (ESsm = 1.13) between task value and intrinsic motivation. The results suggest that not only did autonomy support positively impact feelings of intrinsic motivation, it also positively impacted task value, which in turn impacted intrinsic motivation. The overall findings indicate that when learners' autonomy is supported through involving the learners in the decision-making processes, the learners will experience greater intrinsic motivation.

Intrinsically motivated learners show higher levels of mastery goal orientation (Tanaka & Yamauchi, 2000). Mastery goal orientation focuses on the development of competence and understanding (Zusho & Edwards, 2011). Learners that exhibit mastery goal orientation tend to compare past and present performances to self and not to others Performance goal orientation, which focuses on the demonstration of competence, focuses more on grades as learners use grades to demonstrate competence and tend to compare their own performance with the performance of others. According to Zusho and Edwards (2011), instructors can encourage mastery orientation through the classroom environment. One way instructors can do this is by explaining the role of errors and

modeling ways to correct them, thus reinforcing the notion that making mistakes is part of the learning process and provides opportunities for growth. Zusho and Edwards also recommend that instructors provide opportunities for learners to fix mistakes by revising answers and reflecting on the corrections, perhaps by identifying strategies that were useful in correctly solving a problem. In addition, encouraging learners to seek help more often and providing clear goals and objectives for learning activities or projects will promote mastery goal orientation.

Mastery goal orientation is important to consider because when teachers use instructional methods that encourage mastery goals, they will promote the development of SR in learners (Zusho & Edwards, 2011). Instructional methods that enhance learners' feelings of competence and personal control through autonomy support and structure such as providing clear goals, objectives, expectations, and guidance during the learning activity not only encourage mastery goal orientation, but also support intrinsic motivation (Tanaka & Yamauchi, 2000).

Learner motivation plays an important role in the development of SR and the use of self-regulated learning strategies (Lichtinger & Kaplan, 2011). Henning and Shulruf (2011) investigated the relationship between learner motivational beliefs and SR. The researchers administered two questionnaires to 147 university students in New Zealand. The questionnaires were administered twice during the semester: once at the beginning and once at the conclusion of the semester. Results from the beginning of the semester indicated that motivational beliefs had a very large effect ($ESsm = 2.34$) on SR. At the end of the semester, motivational beliefs had a large effect ($ESsm = 1.29$) on SR. Although motivation had a large effect on SR at both times during the semester, the difference between the beginning and end results could be due in part to the fact that all

of the departments in the participating university used letter grades in the courses. The final letter grade was determined by the exams given during the semester and a final exam. This focus on grades could be the reason for the difference in effect, suggesting that to increase the impact motivation has on SR, instructors and institutions would have to focus less on high stakes tests to determine final grades and more on the learning process, which harkens back to the relationship between mastery goal orientation, autonomy support, and motivation. Learners are more likely to be intrinsically motivated when teachers offer autonomy supportive behaviors (Garcia & Pintrich, 1996).

Similar to the findings of Henning and Shulruf (2011), Rotgans and Schmidt (2008) found that intrinsic motivation impacted the use of self-regulatory learning strategies. The researchers enrolled 582 upcoming college freshmen from a polytechnic institute in Singapore as participants. Before the freshmen began their course of study, they completed an MSLQ. The results indicated that intrinsic motivation had a large effect ($ESsm = 2.67$) on learner use of self-regulatory learning strategies.

Rotgans and Schmidt (2008) and Henning and Shulruf (2011) found that motivation influences the development of SR and Garcia and Pintrich (1996) concluded that autonomy support positively impacts intrinsic motivation. A study by Young (2005) supports the results of the three aforementioned researchers. Young's (2005) results indicate that learning environment impacted students' development of SR through the mediating factors of autonomy and motivation. Two hundred and fifty seven undergraduates enrolled in a marketing course in a mid-western university completed a survey that measured the effects of learning environment on perceived autonomy, perceived autonomy on motivation, and motivation on SR. Young classified learning environment as instructor climate, learning climate, and performance climate. Results

indicated that learning climate, which referred to either a traditional lecture or experiential class, had a small relationship (ESsm = . 29) with perceived autonomy. Performance climate, which referred to how goals, objectives, and grades were determined, had a medium relationship (ESsm = .41) on perceived autonomy, which in turn had a medium relationship (ESsm = .56) on intrinsic motivation and no effect on extrinsic motivation. Furthermore, intrinsic motivation exhibited a large relationship with the deep cognitive and metacognitive strategies associated with SR of planning (ESsm = .74), monitoring (ESsm = .83), regulating (ESsm = .80), critical thinking (ESsm = .74), elaboration (ESsm = .83) and organization (ESsm = .74).

Student-centered learning approaches and SR. Overall, the aforementioned findings of Garcia and Pintrich (1996), Henning and Shulruf (2011), Jang et al. (2010), Reeve and Jang (2006), Rotgans and Schmidt (2008), Sierens et al. (2009), and Young (2005) indicate that in classroom environments where learner autonomy is encouraged, students have higher levels of intrinsic motivation, which in turn is related to their use of strategies associated with SR. One type of learning environment where students are given more control is student-centered learning. Student-centered learning is defined by Yen, Bakar, Sulan, and Rahman (2005) as an environment where students exert varying amounts of control over pace, tasks, and content. A student-centered or learner-centered classroom takes learners' interest into account, involves learners in assessment, emphasizes the co-construction of knowledge, and encourages critical thinking skills (McCombs & Whisler, 1997). Learners are active in the planning stages of the learning activity and identify resources that are then used to accomplish clearly defined goals or objectives (Birzer, 2004; Knowlton, Knowlton, & Davis, 2000). Instructors offer guidance to learners as they take active roles in learning (Knowlton, 2000).

Learners from a student-centered classroom environment displayed higher SR compared to learners from a traditional teaching environment in a qualitative study by White (2007). White's (2007) study explored the transitions experienced by learners first to institutions that were identified as either having a student-centered classroom environment or a traditional teaching environment. The researcher then explored the learners' transitions from their institutions to a clinical setting. Participants in the study included 18 medical students from an institution utilizing a method identified as a student-centered learning approach, a problem-based learning method, and 18 medical students from an institution taking a traditional approach to education. Data was derived from semi-structured interviews. Results indicated that the 18 participants from the institution with a student–centered learning environment initially expressed frustration with the fact that they were not receiving grades in their medical program but then described increased motivation to learn for learning sake. The participants also described studying harder that they would have to comprehend and solve problems than they would have for a test. These results lend further support to the notion that increased autonomy positively impacts motivation. The results also lend support to the idea that an environment that supports mastery goal orientation also supports perceptions of learner autonomy.

While the learners from the student-centered learning environment in White's study displayed increased SR as evidenced by their ability to plan, monitor, and evaluate their own learning and to use feedback effectively to make adjustments to their learning, learners from the traditional teaching environment who were accustomed to earning grades and relying on faculty to determine learning, expressed frustration in the authentic learning environment, where conditions required SR. The more traditional learners had a

relatively easy transition into the medical school program that utilized traditional teaching methods due to prior familiarity; however, the same participants expressed increased frustration about not having the ability to determine what they needed to learn and encountering what they perceived as unclear expectations as they transitioned into the clinical setting. Furthermore, these participants worried about how they would be judged by those who gave grades. These participants from a traditional setting tended to place the blame on their school for their struggles and experienced difficulties managing and taking responsibility for their own learning during their clinical experience. These results indicate that traditional teaching methods may not promote SR, which is required for learning outside the formal classroom and lifelong learning. A student-centered learning environment that supports autonomy and intrinsic motivation will be more likely to promote self-regulation in learners.

Findings from Cheang (2009) support the notion that learner-centered or student-centered techniques promote self-regulation. Cheang's study explored the changes in learning beliefs, motivation, and learning strategies by administering the MSLQ to participants (N = 110) enrolled in their last college level pharmacotherapy course. During the semester, instructors used teaching methods that were consistent with a learner-centered approach in place of the more traditional lecture based approach. These approaches included case-based instruction, collaborative learning opportunities, peer feedback, teacher as a guide rather than as a lecturer, and learner involvement in the decision-making process. The participants completed the MSLQ in the beginning and at the end of the semester. The research compared survey responses and found significant, positive differences between the means of MSLQ items pertaining to learner motivation, mastery goal orientation, and metacognitive self-regulation. Cheang's results imply that

the teaching methods that align with learner-centered approach positively impact self-regulation.

A study conducted by Travers, Sheckley, and Bell (2003) sheds further light on what types of effective instructional techniques encourage learners to utilize perceptions of choice or autonomy to become more self-regulated and less other (or teacher) regulated. Travers et al. compared a traditional lecture based classroom learning environment, where learner autonomy was not encouraged, with a classroom environment in which instructors promoted reflective practices in learners, provided feedback on clearly communicated performance standards, connected abstract concepts to learning tasks, and helped learners to connect new experiences with prior learning. The researchers collected data from community college students ($N = 78$) enrolled in multiple sections of the same math course. A comparison group (n = 54) and a treatment group (n = 24) completed an Approaches to Learning Questionnaire (ALQ) at the beginning and end of the semester. The ALQ, an instrument designed by the researchers, measured learner self-regulation. The comparison group consisted of participants enrolled in math courses taught using a traditional lecture style approach. The treatment group consisted of participants enrolled in math courses where the instructors utilized the aforementioned qualities the researchers had predicted would encourage the development of self-regulation.

A path analysis revealed differences between the two groups in the SRL process. Specifically, only one path, internal calibration, which referred to the learner's self-adjustments of strategies, led to effective learning behavior for the treatment group; whereas in the comparison group, teacher-student alliance (agreement between teacher and student on what to learn), internal calibration and feedback seeking (looking for help)

led to effective learning behaviors. This indicates that the instructor was still seen as playing a key role in effective learning behaviors for the participants from the lecture-based learning environment while the treatment group had shifted to become more self-regulated by seeking feedback to revise their learning strategies. This in turn led to effective learning behaviors. Additionally, a path between perceiving choice and internal calibration existed in only the path model of the treatment group, as did a path between perceiving choice and feedback seeking. These results indicate that the instructional methods used in the treatment group encouraged those participants to make decisions about when and where to seek help and to revise their strategy use, instead of depending on directions from the teacher to guide their learning behaviors. Therefore, teachers will promote learners' perceptions of choice leading to more self-regulated behavior when teachers utilize instructional methods that promote reflective practices in learners, provide feedback on clearly communicated performance standards, connect abstract concepts to learning tasks, and guide learners to connect new experiences with prior learning. These instructional methods are consistent with learner-centered practices because they address individual differences and metacognitive and cognitive factors, both key features of learner-centered practices (McCombs, 1997).

When teachers provide adaptive scaffolding activities that gradually transfer control from the teacher to the student, students are more likely to be self-regulated in their learning.

Simply because a learner has more autonomy does not mean that learning is positively impacted (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002). In fact, even with opportunities to exercise autonomy, a learner could still be using ineffective strategies (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002) or self-regulating in an ineffective manner (Winne, 2005). Although the instruction

in the use of self-regulated learning strategies has been shown to positively affect students' use of the skills (Perels, Gurtler, & Schmitz, 2005; Schmitz & Wiese, 2006), due to the contextualized, individualized nature of self-regulated learning, self-regulated learning strategies can change over time and contexts (Ertmer, Newby & MacDougall, 1996; Winne, 2005). Whip and Chiarelli (2004) suggest that unique features of the learning environment influence learners' use of SR.

Learning to become self-regulated involves a transition from external to internal guidance (ten Cate, Snell, Mann, & Vermunt, 2004). Because learners differ in their readiness to transition from external to internal guidance, a balance needs to be struck between what the learners need and the guidance the teachers give (2004). This guidance needs to be adjusted according to observations of individual students (2004). Scaffolding, a process that emphasizes guidance in, rather than instruction of SR, is a method that accommodates differences in contexts and individuals (Hadwin, Wozney & Pontin, 2005). LaJoie (2005) likened scaffolding of SR to a "cognitive apprenticeship" where students acquire cognitive skills gradually through the modeling and support of an expert. Key characteristics of scaffolding include the fading of support from the teacher and the gradual transfer of responsibility for learning from the teacher to the learner as the learner becomes more proficient (van de Pol, Volman, & Beishuizen, 2012). The student-centered classroom may require scaffolding if the learner is not accustomed to SR (Pierce & Kalkman, 2003).

One example of a student-centered approach with scaffolding is case-based instruction. Case-based instruction involves authentic, complex problems that learners work on individually or in groups to analyze solutions, make judgments and decisions, make recommendations, and predict outcomes (Ertmer, Newby, & MacDougall, 1996).

Speicher, Kehrhahn, Bell, and Casa (2014) investigated the role cuing played on the transfer of structure with undergraduate (*N* = 192) students who were familiar with the case-based approach. The written cues that the experimental group (n = 98) received can be likened to scaffolds because the cues provided guidance and support from the instructor to the participants. The control group (n = 94) did not receive any cues to look for structural similarities between the cases. The results revealed that the written cues had a small effect (d = .39) on the transfer of structure. This means that with the cues, or scaffolds, the participants were able to identify structural similarities among the cases. Recognizing the structural similarities increases problem solving capabilities for future scenarios. These findings suggest that scaffolds benefit even learners accustomed to a student-centered approach, such as case-based instruction because the scaffolds further increase the learners' ability to transfer learning in the classroom to solve problems learners encounter beyond the classroom.

The participants in Speicher et al.'s (2009) study received fixed, written cues, or scaffolds. In recent years, particularly in the literature involving computer-assisted learning environments, a distinction between the types of scaffolds has resulted in the use of the term adaptive scaffolding. Adaptive scaffolding refers to a support that is constantly being adjusted according to the ever-changing skill development of the individual (Azevedo, Cromley, Winters, Moos & Greene, 2005; Molenaar & Roda, 2008). Not all studies make the distinction between adaptive scaffolding and scaffolding; therefore for the purposes of this study, the term scaffolding will be used to describe fixed scaffolded supports and adaptive scaffolding will be used to describe instances where teachers or classroom learning environments fade and adapt support based on observed individual needs.

Adaptive scaffolding. Adaptive scaffolding supports SR. A study by Azevedo, Cromley, and Seibert (2004) explored the impact of adaptive scaffolding versus (a) fixed scaffolding (a process where all forms of guidance were predetermined) and (b) no scaffolding. Fifty-one undergraduates were assigned to one of three groups to assess the impact of adaptive scaffolding on student SR. In addition to content based pre-tests and post-tests, the researchers transcribed and coded raw data from the talk aloud protocol used during the execution of a hypermedia program on human circulation. Results indicated that the participants in the adaptive scaffolding group activated prior knowledge (planning), made judgments of learning (monitoring), summarized (strategy use), found their location in the hypermedia environment (strategy use), and sought help more frequently than participants in either the fixed scaffolding group or the no scaffolding group. Furthermore, post-test scores indicated a significant difference in the declarative knowledge, with the adaptive scaffolding group outperforming the other groups.

One way adaptive scaffolding supports SR is by encouraging learners to become more active participants in the learning process. Veermans, de Jong and van Joolingen (2000) investigated the impact adaptive scaffolding had on student involvement in learning activities. An experimental and a control group consisting of 46 Dutch high school students studying physics were asked to complete computer simulation learning tasks designed to explore the concepts of physics. The simulation-based learning environment contained four levels of complexity with a total of 41 assignments. The simulation required participants to chose one hypothesis that explained the phenomenon of the collision of balls. Participants from both groups were advised to experiment with the simulation and to use the experiment to analyze the hypothesis they chose. Participants could investigate any of the hypotheses in each assignment and could

perform unique experiments in which they could change the variables. The experimental group received feedback that analyzed the process the participant used to reject or confirm a hypothesis whereas the control group received fixed, direct feedback that provided a true or false response along with a predefined explanation. Analysis revealed that the control group performed more assignments; however, the experimental group spent more time on each assignment and performed more unique experiments. Because the experimental group received adaptive feedback that focused on the learning process, participants had to consider the design of the experiment and how the design was connected to the hypothesis. This forced the experimental group to understand the connection between the experiment and the hypothesis and resulted in the group spending more time analyzing rather than providing an answer. The increased time and number of unique experiments indicates that adaptive scaffolding encourages learners to take a more active role in monitoring their learning process.

Transfer of control. Adaptive scaffolding activities that involve the gradual transfer of control from the teacher to the student foster the development of SR. This relationship was explored by Hadwin, Wozney, and Pontin (2005) in a study that also investigated whether the transfer of control was oriented towards SR and not just exclusively towards subject matter knowledge. The ten study participants were graduate students enrolled in a year-long research methods course who were required to complete a research portfolio. Individual conferences between the teacher and the participant were recorded at the beginning and the end of the course. The researchers coded the data into the categories of teacher-directed regulation, teacher-indirect regulation, student-indirect regulation, and student-direct regulation. The amount of teacher utterances during the conferences decreased over time while student utterances increased. Moreover, the data

demonstrated that during the year, cognitive and metacognitive discourse shifted from teacher regulated, to co-regulated, to student regulated. The findings indicate that when instructors adapted their teaching methods to focus on individual students, the students relied more heavily upon SR of their learning than on external (teacher) regulation.

One way a teacher can design a learning environment to encourage the shift of control over learning from the teacher to the students is to involve peers in adaptive scaffolding. Pifarre and Cobos (2010) investigated the use of peers as adaptive scaffolds in a study that included 18 university students enrolled in Instructional Psychology and Learning Strategies courses. The two 12-week blended learning courses were offered one after another for a combined total of 24 weeks at a university in Spain. The course meeting times consisted of 25% face to face and 75% virtual environments. The face to face time was used to go over specific content and to guide students on how to use the computer software to achieve the learning objectives of the course. Participants used the computer software program to post individual reports on a topic and provide feedback on the postings of classmates. The instructors and the students of the course decided at the start of the course what to scaffold and created guidelines that established a peer review process. Once students posted their reports and read through the feedback, the students could then rewrite and resubmit their report.

Pifarre and Cobos (2010) coded and analyzed a total of 195 documents that the participants submitted as peer feedback. The documents were taken from the middle of the first course and from the middle of the second course. Codes related to advice aimed at increasing the use of SR strategies of planning, monitoring, and improving the clarity of the learning process through regulating. The analysis revealed that frequency of the codes associated with SR strategies and co-regulation increased over time. The benefit of

having students offer adaptive scaffolds to classmates was twofold: the student receiving the feedback benefited from the advice given and the act of having to give advice encouraged the students to reflect on their own learning process. The increased awareness of the students' own learning process explains why both SR and co-regulation increased. The increase in co-regulation and SR is also an indication that the methods used to encourage SR in this context; namely involving students in the decision making and learning process, offering guidance at key times, encouraging collaboration, emphasizing goal orientation, and providing mechanisms for adaptive scaffolding encouraged co-regulation and SR in learners.

   Fixed and adaptive scaffolds, features of support, and the connection to SR. Scaffolding methods used to increase SR include the same characteristics instructor use to create a student-centered learning environment. Providing timely feedback on student performance, providing hints instead of presenting the solution, modeling, asking students open ended questions, and providing instruction on the what, how, and why of the learning activity at key times are all actions that should be faded out gradually over time, transferring responsibility from the teacher to the student (van de Pol, Volan, & Beishuizen, 2010). Dabbagh and Kitsantas (2005) found that web-based pedagogical tools served as scaffolds to promote the development of SR. Although the findings focused on the use of web-based tools, the design of the courses the participants were enrolled in offers a good example of how to use a mixture of fixed and adaptive scaffolds to promote SR. The 65 participants in the mixed methods study were enrolled in one of three instructional technology classes at a mid-Atlantic university. The study design included measures of SR using the MSLQ, web-supported SR, and the usefulness of web-based tools in completing course assignments. Similar to the results of the

aforementioned Pifarre and Cobos (2010) study, analysis of Dabbagh and Kitsantas' study (2005) revealed that the web-based tools provided adaptive scaffolding that promoted SR. Participants identified discussion, resources and readings, sample projects, assignments and rubrics, post your work, and course information as the most useful web based tools. The discussion and post your work web tools were found to provide adaptive scaffolding in the aforementioned study by Pifarre and Cobos (2010).

Additional fixed scaffolds, which were not included in Dabbagh and Kitasantas' (2005) analysis, also promote the development of SR through the gradual fading of support from the teacher and peers of the course. The course included four assignments, the first of which required students to work collaboratively to evaluate an educational software program. The students accomplished this first assignment in class. For the second assignment, the instructor facilitated four asynchronous discussions in which the participants were required to participate. This assignment took place outside of class and although the physical support of peers and the teacher were removed, the peer and teacher presence was still included in an online environment that continued to encourage collaboration. The transition from the second to the third assignment faded the teacher support. The third assignment continued to promote collaboration among students, just as the previous assignments had using the discussion tool and adding the post tool. The fourth and final assignment faded the support of peers as it required participants to work individually to complete an instructional design final project. The web-based tools that participants found the most helpful during the final project included the resources (for outline of the project proposal, rubric, and sample projects) and email (for feedback on proposals). Thus, careful course design coupled with adaptive scaffolds can successfully transfer control of learning from teacher to student to encourage the development of SR.

Although Dabbagh and Kitasantas (2005) and Pifarre and Cobos (2010) research designs included courses in education, online course management tools may also provide effective adaptive scaffolding activities to encourage SR in English language learning courses. Sanprasert (2010) investigated the use of an online course management system with English language learners enrolled in a large public university in Thailand. The 55 participants of the mixed methods study were divided among two English classes taught at the same language proficiency level. The course requirements of both classes included writing in a journal in which the participants documented the learning process. The journal included questions, opinions, comments, complaints, and reflections. One English class became the control group and the other became the experimental group. The participants in both classes completed an initial questionnaire measuring their perceptions of themselves as independent learners. Statistical analysis of the results revealed no significant difference between the two groups in terms of learner perceptions toward independence.

Although course requirements of the control group and the experimental group included journal entries, only the experimental group used the online course management system to post their entries. Participants and the teacher could use the online system to read and provide feedback on journal posts: however in the control group, only the teacher could read and provide feedback to the participants' journal entries. At the conclusion of the 15-week English course, the participants took the same questionnaire that was administered at the start of the course. Statistical analysis revealed significant differences between the control and experimental group in learner perceptions of the role of feedback, learner independence, learner confidence, and experiences of language learning. Analysis of one category, learner perceptions of the role of the teacher, did not

reveal statistical difference between the groups. Qualitative data taken from the journal entries revealed that participants in the experimental group recognized the value of collaborative learning, increased their awareness of the importance of feedback, provided support to classmates, set their own language learning goals, and identified ways in which to achieve their goals. Furthermore, participants in the experimental class identified resources for language learning outside of class time and monitored and evaluated their learning process. These findings suggest that language learners will also benefit from the use of adaptive scaffolding techniques, including an online course management system. However, the fact that learners' perceptions of the role of the teacher did not change may suggest that adaptive scaffolding techniques must extend further into the daily classroom environment and not solely consist of additional online course management systems.

When teachers adapt scaffolding activities to accommodate cross-cultural differences in student self-regulation strategies, students are more likely to be self-regulated in their learning.

Although much of the focus of SR research and theory has been concerned with Western learning environments (Purdie, Hattie & Douglas, 1996; Rotgans & Schmidt, 2008), empirical evidence suggests that there is a cross-cultural validity in the instruments used to measure SR, making it possible to attribute differences in SR to cultural background (Rotgans & Schmidt, 2008). A quantitative study that compared learner SR of 95 participants enrolled in The Arab Open University in the Kuwait and Bahrain campuses with 95 participants enrolled in The World Campus of the University of Pennsylvania revealed significant differences in SR between the two groups (Al-Harthi, 2010). Participants in the study responded to an online questionnaire which

measured learner SR in terms of the variables: planning, monitoring, effort, self-efficacy, help-seeking, time management, and environment management. Results indicated that Americans had significantly higher SR in terms of planning, monitoring, effort, self-efficacy, and time and environment management, while Arab students reported significantly higher help-seeking behaviors.

Al-Harthi (2010) posits that help-seeking among Americans was significantly lower because they were more independent than Arab students. By "independent", what Al-Harthi may have meant was that because Americans displayed higher SR, they may have been less dependent upon a teacher or others to direct their learning. However, being independent does not mean Americans do not value collaborative work, in fact, despite the Arab culture being described as more collective than American culture, the American participants in this study displayed significantly higher group interdependence that the Arab participants. Al-Harthi had predicted that the American participants would be more competitive and place less value on collaborative group work because American society had been described as individualistic. Because collaboration is a part of SR, and the American participants displayed higher SR overall, this suggests that using methods that encourage SR can overcome cultural constructs.

Another type of difference in SR that varies as a function of culture is students' use of the overall strategy. Purdie, Hattie and Douglas (1996) administered an open-ended student learning survey to high school students in five schools in both Australia and Japan. Results indicated that culture exhibited a large effect (ESsm = . 82) on students' overall use of self-regulatory strategies. Specifically, the effect of culture on rehearsing and memorizing (ESsm = .75) and keeping records (ESsm = .77) was medium while the effect on seeking teacher assistance was large (ESsm = 1.38). These findings

indicated that Australian students were more likely to seek out teacher assistance and take class notes as a SR strategy while Japanese students relied more heavily upon memorization as a SR strategy. Although Australian students and Japanese students may never be in the same IEP classroom together, just as the Arab and American participants from Al-Harthi's (2010) study are likely to never be in the same IEP class together, the results on the use of overall strategy and individual strategy illustrate that students from different cultural backgrounds will approach SR in different ways.

Cultural background influences the types of learning strategies that students use. Helmke and Tuyet (1999) examined the learning strategies of university students through their second year of study at universities in Germany and Vietnam. The study included 908 German students and 457 Vietnamese students, all of whom completed a questionnaire at the beginning of the first university term, at the end of the first year of study, and at the end of the second year of study. The items on the questionnaire pertained to time spent studying, learning strategies, and motivational and volitional student characteristics to assess the intrinsic value of studying and action control. Statistical analysis revealed that Vietnamese students used more repetitive learning strategies compared to German university students. Helmke and Tuyet reported a high frequency of exams in the Vietnamese university settings and posited that the exam structure influenced the types of strategies that the Vietnamese participants used more frequently. This is in line with literature (e.g. Jing, 2006) that claims that an exam-oriented environment will encourage more superficial learning strategies such as rote memorization.

Perhaps more interesting in terms of the relationship between culture and SR are the results that revealed a strong correlation between deep learning strategies and

memorization of Vietnamese students (r = .62) compared to German university students (r = .12). The strong correlation indicates that for Vietnamese students, memorizing and understanding are connected and intertwined. As such, adaptive scaffolding activities aimed at the development of SR will have to address the different conceptions of learning across cultures. Whereas German students may not rely on rote memorization and perhaps not be as resistant to teaching methods that encourage the use of deeper learning strategies, Vietnamese student may require additional scaffolding in order to adapt to teaching methods that do not involve rote memorization.

Prior educational experiences and cultural practices influence SR. Ajisuksmo and Vermunt (1999) found that in contrast to first year Dutch university students, first year Indonesian university students used fewer deep processing strategies. Ajisuksmo and Vermunt (1999) postulate that cultural differences lead to different usages and views of strategies. Though connected through the history of colonialism, Dutch and Indonesian cultures view teachers differently. In Indonesia, teachers, also called Gurus, are seen as all knowing individuals who are not to be questioned. Teachers are revered and the information that they relay in the classrooms is to be memorized by students, who are traditionally viewed as inferior in the classroom (Ajisuksmo & Vermunt, 1999). Memorization pervades the learning culture as teachers traditionally turn to a lecture style delivery of information and exams measure the extent to which students can replicate the information relayed by the teacher (Ajisuksmo & Vermunt, 1999). Similarly, Korean school culture includes long school hours where students listen to teachers lecture and rely on the school system to organize their studying (Turingan & Yang, 2009). Much emphasis is placed on passing entrance exams for universities, but once at the university, Korean students have few expectations placed on them to complete projects or homework

outside of class (Turingan & Yang, 2009). Korean student culture contrasts with Filipino student culture, which requires students to complete projects and independent work outside of class. Research suggests (ex. Sanprasert, 2010) that cultural differences embedded in prior educational experiences, influence the development of SR.

Another way culture impacts SR is through learner goal setting behavior. In a study of 100 first year college students in Singapore and a 100 first year college students in Israel, Kurman (2001) found culture to have a medium effect among males (ESsm = .42) and a large effect among females (ESsm = .82) on the level of difficulty in goal selection. Although Purdie et al. (1996) and Kurman (2001) found differences in strategy use among cultures, a study conducted by Rotgans and Schmidt (2008) using Chinese, Malay, and Indian participants in Singapore, found no differences in the use of self-regulatory strategies. The ambiguous results could be a result of which types of cultures researchers choose to contrast. Studies contrasting two Eastern cultures may produce different results than those that contrast Eastern and Western cultures (Olaussen & Braten, 1999).

The ambiguous results of Rotgans and Schmidt (2008) may also be attributed to the fact that their study examined cultures within one university setting, whereas other studies (ex. Al-Harthi, 2010; Helme & Vo, 1999) compared students from different cultures in different university settings. For many students, the IEP setting is their first experience studying outside of their country. Learners' cultural and educational background beliefs are important factors to consider in the design of a learning environment that encourages SR through adaptive scaffolding methods. The effectiveness of interventions aimed at the development of SR will be impacted by cultural beliefs, values, and attitudes (Boekarts, 1998).

Cross-cultural differences in SR further highlight the need for individual scaffolding activities. Students from cultures that consider teachers to be authorities who use predetermined materials and teacher-centered methods tend to resist alternative methods encouraging students to become more independent learners (Wang & Farmer, 2008). In contrast, students from cultures where it is more acceptable to question authority may require greater assistance in other aspects of SR, such as goal setting.

Chapter Conclusion and Research Question

Intensive English Program teachers encounter learner resistance and reticence from language learners who tend to be exam–oriented or product-oriented when the teachers use methods that encourage self-regulation. Teaching methods that promote student autonomy through adapting the gradual transfer of control over learning from teacher to student on an individual basis will encourage student SR through the mediating effect of motivation. Since teachers can give valuable insight into the teaching methods they use in the IEP classroom, an investigation into promoting student self-regulation in language learners should begin with teachers. The following research question guided this study:

How do teachers in an Intensive English Program promote the development of self-regulation in university English language learners?

<center>**Chapter Two**</center>

<center>**Methods**</center>

Methodology

      To understand how teachers promote the development of self-regulation in language learning in IEP classrooms, I used an interpretive qualitative study design because it seeks to understand an experience or event without employing the pre-established philosophical assumptions of other types of qualitative research (Merriam, 2002). Instead of focusing on theory building, like grounded theory research, or culture and interaction, like ethnography, this methodology uses approaches consistent with a theoretical framework appropriate to the research questions. In interpretative qualitative design, the researcher determines what questions to ask, the relevancy of artifacts, and what to observe through using a theoretical framework.

Setting

      The setting for this study was the University of Connecticut American English Language Institute (UCAELI). UCAELI offers a year round intensive English program to international students. The year is divided into fall and spring 15-week semesters, one 6-week summer session, and one 4-week summer session. The student population fluctuates between 40 and 80 beginner through advanced level students per session, with higher enrollment in the fall and spring semesters. Class size ranges from 6 to 16 learners. Instructor hiring depends mainly on the number of students and is divided into two categories: full-time and part-time. Full-time teachers have a yearly contract and teach four classes. The four classes always include the three morning core classes and one afternoon course. Part-time teachers are hired each semester and teach between one and four courses. Despite the tendency of English language teachers being mobile and

interested in traveling and exploring, UCAELI has retained a group of five teachers, some part time and some full time, who have taught at UCAELI for five years or more. Each session UCAELI employs 7 to 12 instructors. UCAELI benefits from a longstanding relationship with the School for International Training (SIT) in Brattleboro, Vermont. UCAELI is a host site every year for a teacher intern from the SIT's TESOL Masters program and from time to time utilizes the SIT alumni network to advertise teaching openings.

UCAELI provided an ideal setting to investigate how teachers in an IEP promote the development of SR because the problem of fostering independence in language learning in students who are focused largely on obtaining a passing score on the TOEFL test existed at this site. UCAELI's mission statement included transitioning students into the mainstream classroom and overriding curriculum objectives included encouraging students to become independent learners. One way that UCAELI policy encouraged students to become independent learners was focusing on a product-oriented approach to evaluating language proficiency. Student course evaluations provided a proficiency score for each skill area (listening, speaking, reading, writing) in place of a numerical or letter grade. Proficiency scores were averaged across courses and a total average proficiency score was calculated for each semester. Promotion from one level to the next was based on the proficiency scores and not a final exam. Once students demonstrate that they have reached advanced level English language proficiency, they become eligible for UCAELI's Proficiency Certificate, which is accepted in lieu of the TOEFL exam for conditionally admitted students from certain departments at the University of Connecticut and Eastern Connecticut State University. Despite the emphasis on proficiency-based learning, UCAELI offered at least one section of a TOEFL Preparation course each

semester. A large proportion of UCAELI's enrollment included students whose goals were to matriculate into a degree program, and many degree programs require a passing TOEFL score.

UCAELI offers English language courses on a daily basis year round. This includes afternoon electives such as Intercultural Communication and Pronunciation, and morning core courses. The core courses offered through UCAELI were the specific setting for this study. Core courses for both spring and summer semesters included: Listening and Speaking, Grammar Communication, and Reading and Writing. All full-time UCAELI students are required to take all three of these core courses, and are divided into the courses based on their level of English proficiency. Teachers select course objectives for the core courses from the UCAELI curriculum, which was available online and in the UCAELI Instructor Handbook. UCAELI instructors choose the afternoon elective courses based on their own expertise and interest, as well as the interests of the current UCAELI student population. Students at UCAELI may choose the afternoon class they would like to take, although in some cases, class enrollment is restricted to certain levels (ex. the TOEFL Preparation class enrollment is restricted to high intermediate and advanced language learners).

Sample

According to Patton (2002), no preset rules to establish sample size in qualitative studies exist. Instead, the researcher and the researcher's peers determine the sample size based on knowledge of the phenomenon, the setting, and considerations of credibility, available resources, and the research question (Patton, 2002). Because the site was purposefully chosen and because of my insider knowledge of teachers and their teaching methods through informal conversations and past professional collaborations in the

classroom setting, I had initially estimated that three participants would yield enough data to reach saturation. After conversations with researchers with more experience in qualitative methods, I revised the estimate to a range of 6 to 10 participants.

Approximately 15 full and part time instructors are employed by UCAELI during any given semester. These instructors have at least one year of experience teaching English as a second language prior to coming to UCAELI. In addition to prior classroom experience, a Masters degree in TESOL or a related field is required for instructors that teach more than two courses per semester. Instructor responsibilities include creating a course syllabus for each course taught, providing formal, written evaluations to students at the mid-term and conclusion of the semester, maintaining accurate records of student attendance and performance, and attending monthly teacher meetings. Instructors are also encouraged to engage in professional development activities throughout the year.

As a first step, I requested permission from the Director of UCAELI to contact instructors in order to recruit participants (see Appendix H) for a copy of the permission letter). After obtaining permission I submitted the research protocol to the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the University of Connecticut for their approval. After receiving IRB approval, I invited all current IEP teachers to participate in this study by sending an email invitation (Appendix B) over the teacher listserv. My plan was to screen participants based on the order of response of the volunteers. A day after my email call for participants, three teachers emailed me back stating that they would be interested in participating, and a fourth teacher visited my office to say that she wanted to participate. I immediately began arranging a meeting time to review the consent form and to answer any questions the first four volunteers had. After each participant signed the consent form, I scheduled a date for an initial screening.

A week after my initial email, a fifth participant volunteered after asking for more information about the time commitment necessary for participation. A month after my initial invitation, and well after I had begun collecting data with the first three participants, another teacher stated that she would also like to participate, bringing the total number of interested participants to six.

All participants first underwent an initial screening to determine whether or not they fostered the development of SR skills in the classroom. The initial screening consisted of individual class observations lasting approximately 90 minutes, which I immediately analyzed with criteria for participation to determine if the participant would be able to provide data that would answer the research question. In order to be eligible to participate in the study, the initial class observation had to include at least one of seven items pertaining to degree of learner control and/or learner involvement, evidence of peer collaboration, and existence of open-ended questions (See Appendix L for criteria for participation). I observed the three teachers who had volunteered first and once I had confirmed that they were eligible to participate in the study, I proceeded to schedule their interviews and additional observations. I screened the fourth and fifth participants after analyzing the data I had collected from the first three participants. The screening of the last participant took place after I had collected full data sets from all of the participants in order to confirm saturation. Initial observations yielded eligibility of all six teachers who had volunteered.

The six participants taught at least one core course and one afternoon course for UCAELI during the Spring 2011 or Summer 2011 sessions. The participants in this study taught a range of language proficiency levels and had taught for the UCAELI IEP for at least 10 months prior to the start of this study. Additionally, all participants were teaching

at least ten course hours per week for UCAELI's IEP program during the semester they were interviewed. All language proficiency levels of ESL instruction, from beginner to advanced, were represented in the participants' classes, as were all core courses. All participants had at least one year of ESL teaching experience prior to teaching at UCAELI.

Table 1

Participant Demographics

Name	Gender	Age	Education	ESL teaching experience
Maria	F	60-70	MA	15+ years
Kim	F	30-40	PhD	10+ years
Mark	M	30-40	MA	7+ years
Sara	F	40-50	MA	7+ years
Helen	F	50-60	MS	5+ years
Natalie	F	20-30	MA	2+ years

Maria. Maria was a white female between the ages of 60 and 70 from the United States. Maria had a Master's Degree in TESOL from the School for International Training and more than 15 years of ESL teaching experience. She taught for UCAELI for at least 12 years on a part time basis. Maria taught a variety of courses and proficiency levels at UCAELI, including the core courses of Listening and Speaking, Grammar Communication, and Reading and Writing. She generally taught beginner to high intermediate students. At the time of this study, Maria was teaching a high beginning level reading and writing course.

Kim. Kim was a white female from Brazil between the ages of 30 and 40. She held a PhD degree in Linguistics and had over 10 years of ESL teaching experience,

including teaching for an International Teaching Assistants Program (ITAP). She had taught a variety of proficiency levels at UCAELI, but preferred to teach the more advanced students. She has taught for UCAELI for approximately seven years. At the time of this study, Kim was teaching high beginner Listening and Speaking, Advanced Grammar Communication, high intermediate reading and Writing, and a mixed level Academic Writing elective.

Mark. Mark was a white male between the ages of 30 and 40 from the United States. He had a Masters degree in Philosophy and had at least seven years of ESL teaching experience, including teaching English overseas in China. He often referred to his experiences as a Chinese language learner when he lived in China, an experience he had prior to coming to work for UCAELI. He has taught all of the core courses at UCAELI and a variety of afternoon electives for UCAELI. He generally taught beginner through high intermediate level students. At the time of this study, Mark was teaching Intercultural Communications for intermediate through advanced level students and Music Appreciation for beginner through advanced level students.

Sara. Sara was a white female between the ages of 40 and 50 from the United States. She had a Masters degree in TESOL from the School for International Training and had worked as a teacher trainer and as an ESL instructor for more than seven years. She had taught all of the core courses at UCAELI and had designed and taught a variety of afternoon electives. In addition to her UCAELI experiences, she also had worked internationally as an ESL teacher in New Zealand and Hungary and in the International Teaching Assistant Program at the University of Connecticut. At the time of this study, Sara was teaching low-advanced Listening and Speaking, Advanced Grammar Communication, and Service Learning.

Helen. Helen was a white female between the ages of 40 and 50 from the United States. She held a Masters degree in TESOL and had taught at UCAELI on a part time basis for at least five years, teaching Reading and Writing, and one afternoon elective. Helen had taught a variety of afternoon electives, including a TOEFL test preparation course. At the time of this study, Helen was teaching beginner Reading and Writing and TOEFL Preparation.

Natalie. Natalie was a white female between the ages of 20 and 30 from the United States. She was originally from the mid-west and came to UCAELI with experience teaching ESL in China. She held a bachelor's degree and was pursuing a Master's degree in TESOL from Boston College. By the time she participated in this study, she had been working at UCAELI for almost a year. She had taught beginner through advanced ESL students. At the time of this study, Natalie was teaching Advanced Listening and Speaking and Service Learning.

Data Collection

To triangulate the data sources in an effort to increase validity (Creswell, 2009), data came from three sources: observations, interviews, and documents.

Interviews. Interviews provide information about an individual's perspective (Maxwell, 2005) and increase credibility when added to the other data sources (Lincoln & Guba, 1988). I developed a semi-structured interview protocol (Appendix E) that included items relating to a student-centered classroom, namely the decision making process, the methods teachers used to encourage autonomy, adaptive scaffolding, and the role of culture in learning to self-regulate. The advantage of using a semi-structured interview protocol is that it limits the topics to be explored in order to make the best use

of the interview time with several participants while enabling the researcher to reword or reorder questions to promote a more conversational style (Patton, 2002). Because I had identified key topics pertaining to the development of self-regulation in English language learners and had multiple participants, the semi-structured protocol was well suited for this interpretive qualitative study. The protocol contained 10 open-ended questions.

The interviews took place in a time and location that was convenient and comfortable for the participants. A majority of the participants chose to meet either during their lunch break or before they taught their first class of the day. In two cases, the participants needed to leave before the conclusion of the interview. When that happened, a time to meet again during the same day was arranged before the participant left the interview.

Each interview lasted from 35 minutes to 90 minutes. I recorded the interview, with the participants' permission, and sent the digital recording to a transcription service, after arranging for the service provider to sign a confidentiality agreement (Appendix M).

Documents. At the conclusion of the interview, I spoke with the participants about documents he or she could provide that were related to how each encouraged learners in his or her classes to become more independent. Documents can provide a "rich source of information" (Patton, 2002, p. 293) and the documents commonly found in this IEP setting included teacher-made materials, such as course syllabi, tests, grading rubrics, and class handouts. An advantage of obtaining documents that the participant created is that they contain the actual wording of the participants (Creswell, 2009). These types of documents provided information about classroom policies, types of assessments and activities teachers were using in their class that impacted the development of student SR. In some cases, the participants handed me copies of documents during the interview.

In addition, three participants provided me with documents while I was observing his or her class. In instances where the participant did not include a syllabus as one of their documents, I asked permission to include the participants' course syllabus, which was located on a public IEP website, as a data source. I used a document review guide (Appendix G) to describe the origin of the document and included information on the intended audience of the document and the purpose.

Observations. Two observations per participant were used in this study. The first was the initial screening observation. Data from those observations were used as a screening mechanism and later added to the data set. Each initial observation lasted between 70 and 120 minutes, depending upon the length of the class. During each observation, I used a laptop to capture descriptions of the physical layout of the classroom, the activities, teacher-student and student-student interactions, and materials that were used during the class. To prepare the data for conducting an inductive data analysis, I first typed up expanded field notes and ensured that I replaced any identifiers.

After the conclusion of each participant interview, I scheduled a second observation. In deciding which class to observe, I gave preference to core courses, scheduling observations so that I could observe at least one Listening and Speaking, Grammar Communication, and Reading and Writing course. In addition, I felt it was important to observe the TOEFL preparation course in order to obtain data on how the teacher encouraged self-regulation in a high stakes test preparation course. Because UCAELI offered afternoon courses that instructors designed to reflect goals and interests of the current population, I chose to observe an afternoon course that Mark was teaching.

As a non-participant observer, which Cresswell (2008) describes as not engaging in activities while observing and recording from a good spot, I arrived to the class at the

prearranged observation time and chose a seat that enabled me to have a clear view of what was happening in the classroom without interfering in the flow of the class. I took notes on a laptop, using the observation guide (appendix F) as a reminder to include information on the physical layout of the class and the social environment, which included how communication was being organized, the seating arrangements of the students and teacher, and the compositions of any groups that existed in the classroom. The observation guide also prompted me to note collaboration among students and between students and the teacher, feedback, evidence of adaptive scaffolding with feedback, types of questions, and use of materials. Because I was using a laptop and typed fairly quickly, I was able to note many of the exact exchanges between teacher and student(s). I did not include any student names or identifying characteristics in my notes. I also included the content written on the whiteboard, SMARTboard, and poster papers in my notes. After each observation, I reviewed my field notes, expanded those with details, and saved each for subsequent analysis.

Because of time and scheduling constraints, I had only completed collecting and initially analyzing full sets of data from the first three participants before the end of the Spring semester. Although I had initially observed and interviewed a total of five volunteers before the end of Spring, I had yet to observe two participants for the second time and I had yet to collect any data from the sixth participant. The remaining three volunteers were scheduled to teach during the summer session, so it was possible to complete data collection during that time. The 6-week summer session is different only in length from the spring semester. Summer courses follow the same weekly schedule and the teacher and student population is similar to the longer 15-week semester. In fact, many of students from the spring semester continue to study at UCAELI for the 6-week

summer session. After coding the data that I had collected the spring semester, I made the decision that second observations for the remaining participants, whom I had already initially observed, interviewed and collected documents from, was not necessary. During the summer session, I screened, interviewed and collected documents from the sixth, and final participant in order to confirm that I had reached data saturation.

Data Analysis

In this study I used inductive analysis, which seeks to establish patterns and themes in data (Patton, 2002). In contrast to a deductive approach, where the researcher has an idea, theory or assumption and looks to see how the data conforms, an inductive approach allows the themes to emerge from the data (Patton, 2002). Inductive analysis requires me to bracket previous knowledge, assumptions, and experiences in order to disclose possible biases to readers and as a tool to aid me in looking at the data to find new themes (Grbich, 2007). I recognized that my prior experience could have an impact on data collection and analysis; in an effort to manage this threat, I bracketed my biases and experiences in a subjectivity statement (Appendix J) before I began any data collection.

The multi-step process of coding began with the cleaning data for analysis. Cleaning data may involve removing identifiers in interviews or observations, typing up expanded field notes, formatting, and printing the data (Thomas, 2006). The first data that I collected were from observations. I prepared the field notes for analysis by typing up expanded field notes and removing any identifiers. I then, as Thomas (2006) suggests, read through the first data set to get a general understanding of the data and then went back over the same observation to begin open coding.

Open coding refers to the stage where the researcher is identifying categories, patterns and themes (Patton, 2002). Coding is accomplished through analyzing data at the word, sentence, and segment level (Grbich, 2007). According to Charmaz (2006), analyzing data at the word, phrase or sentence level may be a useful strategy to avoid imposing personal beliefs or assumptions on the data.

Codes can be derived from keywords, terms, phrases, descriptions, or borrowed from the original text, called in vivo coding (Thomas, 2006). A researcher reviews the text multiple times in order to consider multiple meanings, which may result in portions of the text having multiple codes (Thomas, 2006). Codes are recorded in a codebook, which contains phrases or sentences defining the codes and may also contain memos in which the decision making process is documented (Grbich, 2007). As I reviewed the data from the first observation, I recorded my open codes, which at first described what I had observed and included codes such as "teacher asks student for meaning," "teacher asks a follow-up question,",and "students correct each other."

Coding is a recursive process that involves comparing multiple sets of data, defining, refining codes, and applying new codes to the entire data set (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Once a data set is open coded, a second data set is coded and additional codes are established and adjusted as more data is analyzed and compared to the previous data (Baker, Wuest, & Stern, 1992), in a process referred to as constant comparison. Constant comparison enables a researcher to check previously coded data to ensure that the code is a good fit and to make adjustments to definitions of codes as necessary (Harry, Sturges, & Klingner, 2005). After coding the intial observation from the first participant, I coded another observation from a different participant. The codes

that emerged from the data at this point were descriptive in nature and I continued to add the new codes and their meanings to my code book.

Once the transcription service returned my first and second interview transcripts, and after I reviewed and cleaned the transcripts, I began open coding. Reading and re-reading the same transcripts multiple times, gave me a sense of how to start coding. It had been a few weeks since I had completed the initial coding of the two observations and although I still remembered some of the codes I had previously used, I started off on a new page in my codebook. I found that the interviews were much easier to open code than the observations were because through answering the interview questions, the participants provided me with valuable insight into what I had observed in their classrooms. I created new codes and included the use of in vivo codes (Thomas, 2006), which I had not done for the observations. Once I had finished coding and compiling the list of new codes from the interview, I reviewed the observation from the same participant. As I read through the data from the observation, I recoded with the revised code list. After coding the observation, interview, and documents from the same participant, I cross referenced the three data sources and noted places where overlap existed. The instances of overlap provided evidence of consistency (Patton, 2002).

After I had collected complete sets of data from three participants, I paused further data collection and concentrated on analysis of the existing data. I reviewed my code book, which had become quite extensive, and realized that the types of codes I was using were more descriptive than analytical. Because of the codes' descriptive nature, I came to the conclusion that I had too many codes and the sheer number was slowing the coding process. At this point, I reviewed the codes along with the data points they were associated with and began sorting them and collapsing them into new codes. I revised the

new codes until all of the previous codes I had been using fit into them without overlapping. The new, more inclusive, analytical codes represented categories and made the coding process easier and faster. I recoded all of the data I had up to that point using the revised codes.

Table 2 includes an example from my field notes with the initial codes and the revised codes. Revised code one represents my first revision of codes, after I had coded the observations and the interviews and revision code 2 represents the move from descriptive to more analytical codes, as described in the preceding paragraph. This example also represents the move from examining smaller parts of data to considering larger chunks of data. In this excerpt, the participant, Sara, was responding to a student request for a parallel example followed by a student response and correction. The class was covering the meaning and use of the future perfect verb tense.

Table 2

Progression of Codes

Revised Code 2	Revised Code 1	Initial Code	Data from Field Notes
redirect	hint	Teacher responds to students with a question	Sara listens to both and speaks when it gets quiet. Sara asks another follow up question. Asks "okay you have will have been and then what after that?"
	NAT (no answer from teacher)	Teacher asks a series of follow up questions, which demonstrate the process of figuring out a grammar rule	Sara writes "will have been" and asks "what can go here?" and points to space after been. "What kind of verb is eaten? What does it describe?" Students answer: action, passive, Sara waits for more answers, looks

		at group of students, and says "okay lets see if we can figure this out".
Teacher encourages students to help	Teacher encourages students to help	Sara writes "I will have been alone" (stops and says:" if you can think of something, you can help")

When the process of analyzing data reveals no new codes or definitions of codes, data saturation has been reached (Grbich, 2007). Once I coded the fourth set of data, I no longer needed to add micro-codes and began coding using the categories that I had created with my second revision of codes. I continued to code and analyze a fifth and sixth data set, neither of which revealed new categories. After coding the sixth data set, I was confident that I had reached saturation and did not recruit addition participants during the following semester.

After the categories were established and confirmed, they were combined and reduced until 3-8 emerged that could be developed into a model or framework that illustrates the key themes found in the data (Thomas, 2006). Table 3 contains an example of how I collapsed codes into categories and combined the categories into one of the three themes.

Table 3

Example of Collapsed Codes into Categories and Theme

Sub-codes	Codes	Categories	Theme
Student generated Student identified	content	Power	Teachers moved from a teacher-centered to learner-

	Group make up Assessment Homework Resources Timing		centered classroom by affording learners more control over tasks and content and by providing autonomous support structures.
Teacher provides Models process Uses student as model	Model	Standards	
Rubric Objectives	Guidelines	Structure	
	Goals Deadlines Agenda		

Trustworthiness and Limitations

Ensuring the quality and trustworthiness of a qualitative research study requires the examination of transferability and credibility (Patton, 2002). First, collecting the data from one IEP poses a limitation for this study in terms of transferability. To combat this limitation, I have provided thick, rich descriptions of the setting, the participants, and the steps taken during the data collection and analysis phases. Thick, rich descriptions enable readers to better judge the extent to which the findings are relevant in a different setting (Merriam, 2002).

Teachers may have made statements during the interview process that might not have accurately reflected their actual practice, which could pose a threat to the credibility of the study. In order to minimize this threat, I asked follow-up questions probing teachers to give examples. Moreover, I triangulated sources and included a class observation and artifacts as additional data sources. Using three different data sources for each participant allowed me to compare data across sources to confirm that what participants described during the interviews and what I observed during classes were

representative of how each participant promoted the development of SR in IEP students. The triangulation of multiple data sources is a method that increases the credibility of a study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Member checking. Having the participants review the data I collected, a form of member checking, allows the participants the opportunity to clarify any misinterpretations (Merriam, 2002). Member checking can increase the credibility and may provide an opportunity for additional data collection (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Once I had received the transcribed interviews and checked them against the original recordings, I reviewed them again and began cleaning them. I removed all of the extraneous phrases and fillers such as "um," "like," and "so you know" that did not affect the participants' meaning. I attempted to provide each participant with their transcript. One participant was not reachable, having left UCAELI to pursue another employment opportunity, but the rest reviewed the materials to make sure I had captured his or her perspective accurately. All those receiving the transcripts reported that the interview had captured their perspective. One participant wrote that she noticed that she had not mentioned the use of projects in her interview. I included her response in the data that I had obtained from her. Although she did not specifically mention the use of projects in her interview, projects were prevalent in her course syllabus, which she had previously provided.

An additional value of member checking is that it provides the researcher with an early opportunity to summarize the findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Once I coded all of the data and had obtained my initial findings, I provided a summary to each participant via email. I explained to each participant that the synopsis I was sending was a summary of findings that considered all participants' views and practices. During the interview, I

used the term independent in place of self-regulated because as a UCAELI insider, I knew that self-regulated was a term that most of the participants would not have been familiar with. I explained in the body of the email that although I had used the term "independent learner" during the interview, the term "self-regulation" was used in the summary findings. I also explained that I was using the term self-regulation to capture the ways learners plan, monitor, and evaluate their learning. Four of the participants replied to the emailed summaries and two participants verbally replied to the summary, including the participant that had been in the process of relocating when I sent out the transcripts of the interview. Each participant indicated they felt the summary had accurately represented how they encouraged self-regulation in learners and two participants further commented on professional development activities they were currently engaged in that connected to encouraging learners to engage in self-assessment.

Using an audit trail allows others to follow the process the researcher took in an effort to increase the reliability and confirmability of the findings (Merriam, 2002). Because of the nature of the individual participants, the setting, and individual bias of the researcher, it would be difficult to replicate this study. In order to increase the likelihood that the findings are consistent with the data and that others would arrive at the same conclusions, I maintained a journal for recording reflections, accounts of what occurred during data collection, and my decision making processes.

In addition, I recognized that my prior experiences in the IEP setting could have an impact on data collection and analysis. In an effort to manage this threat, I bracketed my biases and experiences in a subjectivity statement (Appendix J), and employed peer debriefers for independent parallel coding. This involved three people who separately coded the same data set, and I compared their codes to see where overlaps existed

(Thomas, 2006). Early in the coding process, I selected a section of an interview and provided it to two peers to code. They knew what my research question was and had a background in education. Having the independent coders in the beginning stages of the coding process helped me to maintain focus on coding in terms of answering my research question. I was also concerned that my background and experience with UCAELI would influence my decision-making and coding, despite bracketing my experiences in my subjectivity statement. Although our codes were not identical, they were close enough to confirm that I was effectively keeping my background in check.

Peer debriefers were also used in the next stage of coding involving the combination of codes into broader categories. The categories should be composed of data that fits together, should include all of the data, shouldn't contain overlap, and should be reproducible by other people reading the data (Patton, 2002). To test the codes and categories I had established, I asked a fellow graduate student who was familiar with qualitative analysis to code a segment of interview data using the categories I had established. I provided this peer reviewer with the list of categories, micro-codes, definitions, and a segment of data from an interview. Because the peer reviewer coded the data the same way I had, I was more confident that the codes I had developed were accurate.

I recognize that potential threats to the trustworthiness, including transferability, credibility, reliability, and confirmability exist in this study. To the extent that these threats cannot be minimized, I accept them as limitations. The table below summarizes the ways in which I have addressed issues of trustworthiness.

Table 4

Methods Used to Ensure Trustworthiness

To establish trustworthiness	Increases trustworthiness though	This study
Credibility	Triangulation of sources (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) Member checking (Merriam, 2002; Patton, 2002)	Data sources included interviews, observation, and artifacts Member checking: interview transcript, preliminary summary of findings, peer debriefers
Transferability	Thick, rich descriptions (Merriam, 2002)	Thick descriptions of setting, participants, data collection, data analysis
Dependability	Audit trail (Lincoln & Guba, 1985)	Reflective journal
Confirmability	Audit trail (Merriam, 2002)	Subjectivity Statement Reflective journal, peer debriefers

Chapter Three

Findings

The purpose of my study was to investigate how teachers promoted self-regulation in language learning classrooms. As described in Chapter One, I reviewed self-regulation literature from adult education and educational psychology to create a conceptual framework, which guided my study. I collected data using a semi-structured interview protocol, classroom observations, and artifacts provided by the participants. In Chapter Three, I present the three themes that emerged from my data analysis which addressed the research question: How do teachers in an Intensive English Program promote the development of self-regulation in university English language learners?

Theme 1: Teachers encouraged learners to interact with others in English both inside and outside the classroom.

Interviews, as well as class observations, and documents were consistent with teachers promoting self-regulatory behavior by encouraging learners to interact in English with their peers inside the classroom and with others outside the classroom. Furthermore, participants described the role of culture on their teaching and how it was used to encourage collaboration and the use of English inside the classroom. Overall, the data from indicated that the methods teachers used to promote collaboration inside the classroom and outside the classroom encouraged learners to move from teacher-regulated, to co- or other-regulated, to self-regulated.

Teachers encouraged learners to interact in English inside the classroom

Teachers promoted self-regulation in learners by encouraging them to interact in English with their classmates inside the classroom. In doing so, the teachers became more

of a guide by offering assistance at key times, and less of a teacher with complete authority over learning.

Interacting in English was an important step for encouraging learners to become self-regulated because doing so enabled the learners to use the grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary in a safe environment where they had access to feedback. In fact, Mark reiterated the importance of using English throughout his interview, stating, "The doing of English is what's important" (line 1152). To get students "doing", Mark and the other participants in the study used pair or group activities in the classroom including long or short-term projects and tasks, such as correcting homework or completing an activity together.

In talking about how she encouraged self-regulation in English language learners, Helen described a project that she assigned in her beginner level reading and writing course. She stated, "I had them do projects where they worked on a team, like the invention project they did in pairs" (lines 4174-4175). Group work was also evident during my observation of Helen when she divided the learners in her TOEFL Preparation class into three groups to work on a task in their TOEFL review textbooks. While the learners were focused on working collaboratively to complete the assigned task, Helen was available to help when needed. I had noted that during the time the learners were working together, occasionally learners would ask Helen a question. When this happened, Helen would walk over to the group, sit at their table, and provide assistance.

Mark too described instances where he encouraged learners to interact inside the classroom to complete an activity. During his interview, Mark stated, "I put them in small groups or may give them a partner and they have to watch the video, and then they record

a conversation" (lines 1269-1270). Another method Mark frequently used to encourage group work was arguments. Mark explained, "So in class I choose controversial topics that cause arguments. I divide them into groups and I pit the two groups against each other in a manipulative sort of way" (lines 1207-1209). Interacting in English was an important step for encouraging learners to become self-regulated because, like Helen, Mark was able to take a less active role in the learning process. Mark faded from directing a learning task to sitting along the side of the classroom during his Intercultural Communications class. After giving learners time to work alone to write down the answers of three open ended questions he had asked, Mark encouraged learners to use resources, including classmates to check their answers. Mark stated, "You can use your dictionary and your textbook now. You can also talk to each other, that's okay. Ask your neighbor, ask your friend," (lines 2065-2067). In this example, Mark took the focus off of himself as the teacher as the person who provides and checks answers in the classroom. In fact, as learners in his class begin working together, I noted that Mark further encouraged learners to find the answers to their questions by redirecting their questions instead of directly answering the questions himself. For instance, when a student asked him a question about pronunciation, he replied by asking another student, "How do *you* pronounce it, the first word?" (line 2076). Redirecting learner attention in this manner was a method in which Mark gradually encouraged learners to go from being teacher-regulated to co-regulated, as they began to rely on their fellow learners and themselves for feedback and help.

 I observed how Maria guided learners during a class where the students were working in pairs to write questions about a story they had written. As the activity started,

Maria moved from pair to pair, answering questions. After students became involved and everyone was participating, Maria stood back and watched. Occasionally pairs would call her over to ask her questions relating to something their partner had written, but instead of providing feedback, Maria shrugged, smiled, and gestured back to the partner. Gesturing back to the partner was the method Maria used to encourage the pairs to interact inside the classroom. Maria further detailed the methods she used to redirect:

> When someone asks a question, I might ask another person to answer the question in class or I might say in general, does anybody know the answer to this or I might just ask the student who asked the question a follow-up to get him to think about it (lines 2315-2318)

> Like Mark and Helen, Maria also believed that collaborating in small groups or

pairs was an important aspect of encouraging learners to become self-regulated. In fact, when asked how she encouraged students to become more independent learners, Maria responded, "Well, I try not to lecture so much. I try to have them work not only independently during class, but also in pairs and small groups to solve a problem or to do an assessment of the writing," (lines 2300-2302). Maria continued to explain how working with a partner helped learners to become more self-regulated by providing an example from her Reading and Writing class where students were working with a partner to provide feedback used to rewrite their paper. Maria stated, "I think it's good that we can use each other, they can use their classmates as resources, as well as the teacher, and not always get the answer from the teacher. So, I try and redirect as much as possible" (lines 2309-2311). What Maria was alluding to was the opportunity to use the teacher when necessary, because, Maria, like the other teachers, slipped into the role of guide

when students worked in pairs or small groups. During a class where the students were working in pairs to write questions about a story they had written, I had observed Maria walking among the groups, answering questions. Maria felt that these methods of redirecting and collaboration were effective in encouraging the learners in her class to become less dependent on her as a teacher. This was an example of how she encouraged learners to move from teacher-regulated to co or self-regulated. Maria explained:

> At this point they do seem to feel more comfortable with looking at some
> examples, say paragraphs with mistakes, and trying to figure out what's wrong.
> They do more presentations over the course of the semester to where they will
> teach a certain point. (lines 2604-2607)

> Similar to Maria, Sara described teaching methods that encouraged the move from

teacher-regulated to co- or self-regulated. Sara explained that her classroom contained a lot of learner-to-learner interaction, picking up on the value of learning from each other. Sara stated:

> We do, I do, a lot of pair work/small group because I feel like then the students
> have the opportunity to practice more and they share their knowledge and ideas
> with each other, which is really important to honor. (lines 3127-3129)

For Sara, encouraging students to work together was a way that essentially took the focus off her, the teacher, as the person responsible for information and feedback. Sara explained the connection between having learners share knowledge and becoming more independent this way:

Having students explain to each other some of the skills we are working on, I feel

like then students are taking more ownership as well of the learning and that they

know they can do that also outside of class. (lines 3389-3392)

Sara's thoughts about the connection between sharing knowledge and encouraging

learners to interact inside the classroom along with teachers' methods of encouraging

such interaction highlight the move from being teacher-regulated to co-regulated and then

to self-regulated, as students come to understand how to learn without the teacher and

then without the classroom.

Encouraging learners to interact and collaborate to accomplish a task or project

inside the classroom was an important way teachers promoted the development of self-

regulation in English language learners. However, encouraging such interactions was not

always an easy task due to the influence of learners' culture. Cultural diversity was one

factor that influenced the methods teachers used to create groups. Mark stated that he

divided learners into groups to create greater diversity within each group. Mark explained

the importance of diversity, stating, "I divide them up into groups. The goal is to get them

to meet someone new. Ideally, a diverse group is better because it forces them to

communicate in English" (lines 1437-1439). Like Mark, Sara also ensured diverse

groups. She did this by not permitting learners who spoke the same native language to sit

next to each other in class. During her Grammar Communication class, I had noted that

she asked two students to change seats at the start of class. The change resulted in

students sitting next to others that did not share the same native language or culture.

Another aspect of culture that impacted the methods teachers used was cultural

views of group participation. Helen explained that culture impacted learners' views on

collaboration. During her interview, Helen reported, "Cultural things entered into the independent learning because a lot of times in the class I would say, for the Arabic students, work in groups, and they were reluctant to work in groups" (lines 4449-4451). Helen then identified the reluctance to work in groups as rooted in cultural views of gender. She explained, " It wasn't that they were reluctant to work in groups, they definitely did not want to work with mixed-gender groups" (lines 4452-4453). Helen included a broader range in cultures having difficulties collaborating by stating:

> I think there's a concern with embarrassment in a lot of cultures. So, they don't want to look embarrassed. So maybe they will be more conservative or just more fearful, or not willing to work so much in groups. That's definitely a factor. (lines 4453-4456)

After explaining that learners did not like to work in mixed gender groups or in a group in general during her interview, Helen stated, "Sometimes I just put them together in groups. I just kind of forced it" (line 4475). Similar to Mark, Helen stated that greater diversity resulted in increased use of English during an activity, "when they are paired up with someone from a different language, they had to talk about it [the task they were given]" (lines 4185-4186).

Natalie also reported that she created mixed language groups despite learner reluctance to work with the opposite gender. Natalie stated, "I tried to integrate the class and the students didn't have a choice. I set up partners for them and I had several come to me and complain about who they were with for various reasons" (lines 5276-5278). Natalie reported that once learners discovered that she was not going to back down on having them work in their assigned groups, they successfully finished the group project

and presented the project to the class. Kim, too, recognized the value of creating mixed

groups, but also stated her discomfort:

> I don't know, I'm not very comfortable going to that [creating mixed gender
>
> groups with learners from a culture that traditionally does not mix gender inside
>
> the classroom] with them but in that case it would be nice to. I think we discussed
>
> that in meetings and things you know, explain to them that they're in this country
>
> and in this country things are done in a certain way and they kind of have to
>
> adapt, and I know that I'm not very comfortable doing that. I wish I were because
>
> I think that [creating mixed cultural groups] is so helpful. (lines 504-509)

Although Kim valued group work and recognized the benefit of creating mixed groups,

her reluctance to create mixed gender groups with learners who exhibited a preference for

same gender groupings kept her from also creating mixed language groups, something all

of the teachers, including herself, valued.

Creating mixed language groups at the expense of mixing genders among learners

not comfortable with that did not always result in students communicating more in

English. Maria explained:

> I think that I'm sensitive as a teacher to how students are feeling and how the
>
> affect influences their learning. And, certainly with the group of students from
>
> the Middle East the men not wanting to work with the women and vice versa. Or
>
> also when women are in a group with some of the men as happens sometimes
>
> how they're just very quiet and they don't speak out. (lines 2584-2588)

What Maria means is that creating mixed gender and mixed language groups can

sometimes result in learners not providing feedback to their peers. Peer feedback was an

important step for learners to become less teacher-regulated. Maria went on to explain how she overcame the problem of peers not providing feedback, stating, "I try not to put students in an extremely uncomfortable situation with regard to matching or pairing some students or women with some of the men that I think are most forceful about that" (lines 2590-2592).

Teachers encouraged learners to interact with others in English outside the classroom.

Teachers encouraged learners to interact with speakers using English outside the classroom to promote the development of self-regulatory behaviors. To accomplish this, teachers scaffolded the amount of structure and support in the methods they used, including: accompanying learners on prearranged trips, providing guidance and contact information of outside organizations for students arranged meetings, and verbally encouraging learners to seek out conversation with English speakers besides classmates. When I asked Sara how she encouraged learners to become independent, one method she reported using was: "to make sure students are aware of resources that they can use outside the classroom, encouraging them to get involved and, like here in the UCONN community" (lines 3341-3344). Sara went on to explain the importance of interacting in the outside community and skill development this way:

> Well, for language, that's where they'll get authentic practice or more authentic practice. I think it's also important to be a part of a community where you live. Then students are more comfortable and they will more likely take risks to build their skills. (lines 3348-3350)

Sara clarified the connection between risk taking and mistakes when she stated:

I mean in having conversation with somebody outside of class, to go ahead and try to use that grammar point that they kind of know but aren't too confident with. But if they, if they use it in front of somebody they don't know very well, they might get ridiculed so they don't, but rather to go beyond the edge of just, you know, to take that step -- that kind of risk." (lines 3354-3357)

Mark also explained how he encouraged learners to interact with English outside of class as a way of promoting self-regulatory behavior in students. Mark stated, "The third thing I do is encourage them outside of class to discuss things that they're passionate about" (lines 1203-1204). Mark continued, "If you are invested in a conversation, you're far more likely to be talkative" (lines 1206-1207). Engaging in discussions outside of class required learners to use English, the importance of which Mark explained when he described why he encouraged interaction inside the classroom, "The doing of English is what's important" [for the learning process] (line 1152). By encouraging learners to use English outside the classroom, the teachers were facilitating the move from co-regulated, where learners collaborated with peers inside the classroom, to self-regulated, where learners take the risk to use their English and obtain feedback completely on their own.

When I asked Natalie how she helped encourage learners to become independent, she replied that she offered verbal encouragement during class, advising students, "Find a language partner. Speak. Go out. Do not sit at home. If you are discouraged or lonely, you still have to motivate…you still have to push yourself out" (lines 5247-5248). Natalie connected this advice with her own language learning experiences in China, stating that during her first semester, she was homesick, reclusive and didn't learn well. Natalie

believed that if someone had advised her and encouraged her to go out and speak more, it would have helped her become more independent and she would have learned more. Natalie's experience and her subsequent advice to her own students illustrates why the transition from other-regulated to self-regulated is important for language learning and one method that Natalie used to promote self-regulation among the learners in her class.

Like Natalie, all of the teachers in this study recognized the importance of encouraging students to become more independent. They promoted self-regulation in English language learners by encouraging the learners to interact with others in English inside and outside the classroom, using methods that were at times influenced by student culture and that encouraged the transition from being teacher-regulated to co-regulated to self-regulated.

Theme 2: Teachers elicited and incorporated learners' interests and goals when designing course activities or selecting content

In an effort to increase learner motivation, teachers elicited and incorporated learners' interests and goals when designing course activities or selecting content. Teachers used information they elicited from students, allowing room for learners to personalize content, linking students' goals with tasks. Connecting to learner interests and goals to enhance motivation contributed to the development of self-regulation. As Kim explained, "I'm just thinking about that as interesting to you know, help them see that with motivation to do the stuff, they can do it themselves without a teacher" (lines 451-452).

Ideally, students would not only identify their goals and interests, but also choose their own learning materials. However, as Kim observed, many learners were initially not

comfortable choosing the materials or content, in fact, learners were not even ready to identify their own interests and goals without teacher supports, or scaffolds. Teachers reported that when they asked students about their interests and goals, in a more general open-ended way, students did not respond. For example, Kim recounted what happened when she tried to replicate a method that she had used in a linguistics class with an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) class she was teaching at UCAELI. Kim reported that in the beginning of the semester she had asked the EAP students to communicate their interests with her just as she had asked students in her linguistics class to do. Kim explained:

> I was trying to do it kind of like that again in the other EAP course, but then the course didn't go through and I don't know if partly its because they felt kind of lost. Last semester they definitely felt a little lost, I'm sure because I would try to get something from them and I would not get anything. So I was like, oh you can pick the topic, what you're gonna do or whatever and then nobody did it. (lines 298-303)

The students in the EAP class Kim referred to asked to change into a different section of the course, resulting in the cancellation of Kim's section. Kim attributed the change requests to students feeling lost and not feeling comfortable or ready to identify their own learning interests, thus highlighting the necessity to scaffold methods to elicit learner interests. Kim also reflected on another method she had used in the past to understand more about student interests. Kim explained:

I used to, in the beginning of a course, always do a kind of warm-up exercise that

was mainly in groups. They made two columns: things I like and things I don't

like in a class and talked about that. (lines 265-267)

Although she intended to elicit student interests with this activity, what Kim found was

that students listed items that were too general, such as "I don't like a boring class" (line

268). Because of her experiences, Kim concluded that students were not always ready to

tell teachers what they liked, and she began figuring out student interests based on

answers to daily feedback on how the class went that day as well as her personal

observations of student engagement. Kim added that she was "always trying to think,

how can I make this more interesting" (line 195) and explained that she utilized materials

outside of the course textbook when she felt that the content in the textbook would not be

interesting enough. Additionally, Kim tried to narrow down student interest in certain

areas. Kim stated: "I try to find out if they like videos, usually they do, but what kinds of

things they like" (Lines 262-263). Narrowing student interest down and then asking

students about their specific interests was one way Kim successfully scaffolded the

methods she used to elicit student interests.

Maria, too, noted the challenges that existed when teachers asked students to

provide opinions on the content using prompts that were too general. She described how

students typically responded to a feedback form given to all UCAELI students. The form

asked students to respond to open-ended questions about the content and materials of the

course, such as "Is there anything you would like more of? Less of?" and asked the

students to provide suggestions relating to the content of the course. Maria explained that

students at the high beginning level write very few comments or suggestions on the

forms. These students usually just check off that everything (the homework, the materials, the pace) is fine. Consequently, Maria decided to make a change. She explained: "So, I sat down with them, and we discussed how the class was going and I got a lot more feedback from the class discussion. And they gave me some suggestions" (lines 2342-2344).

Similar to Kim, Maria found that students did not provide suggestions when she first asked them. In fact, Maria experienced that although students at first provided no information other than "everything is fine", the same students did in fact have ideas and suggestions. The challenge then became how best to scaffold the methods used to elicit student ideas, suggestions, and interests. Maria found that one successful scaffold was an informal class discussion with the students. In an informal discussion, Maria was able to ask follow-up questions, which led to students communicating their interests and goals more clearly.

Although Kim and Maria reported that requiring students to fill out general forms or create their own lists did not yield the most helpful information, forms that provided students with more specific prompts aimed at eliciting information about interests and goals did yield useful information. Sara explained that she encouraged learners to identify their interests early in the semester by using an interest survey and included the survey on the syllabus agenda for the first week of class. In contrast to the general survey questions that Kim and Maria found that did not elicit sufficient information, Sara reported asking questions that focused more on learners' skills. Sara explained, "So, in listening/speaking, I might have a list, What are your strengths in listening? What are your strengths in speaking? And then maybe list some examples of using the language"

(lines 3162-3164). Sara also explained that she asked learners to think about the following, "Where do you find it difficult to use your listening and speaking skills? Is it around town? Is it in a more formal setting and interests, as well?" (lines 3166-3167). Sara went on to explain why she felt this information was important to know, "I try to get an inventory of skills and interests because I feel like if they're not interested in what we're doing, then they're probably not going to learn" (lines 3167-3169). Sara not only spoke about why knowing student interests was important, but also explained the connection between interests and motivation. Sara summarized her views on motivation this way:

> I want all my students to be intrinsically motivated to learn. I mean, I think a lot of them are. But still, I think they need reminders and if the classes are fun and engaging, I feel like it might be easier for students to continue to feel motivated. (lines 3299-3301)

Similar to Sara, Maria, too believed that when the content was interesting, learner motivation was positively impacted. When asked how she encouraged motivation, Maria explained, "I'm thinking to make the activities as interesting and enjoyable as possible," (lines 2499-2500). Likewise, Helen replied "I want them to enjoy and be self-motivated because of a couple of things, because they like the topic or they see a value in it" (Lines 4504-4505).

Mark too, recognized the importance of learner interest and enjoyment to motivation. Mark explained the connection between motivation and interest, making the connection between motivation and self-regulation more explicit when he stated:

It is productive to enjoy a learning process by picking content you're interested in. I realize that's a lot to say something rather simple. Just enjoy yourself. But that's the point that I make. And that really does help them be independent. (lines 1223-1226)

Although Mark emphasized that the importance of learners choosing content of interest, he recognized that he found himself in the role of choosing the topics for the students because that was a student expectation. When this happened, Mark explained he made his choices based on what he knew to be true of the students. Mark stated, "If I feel that my lesson plan isn't going to interest them, or if I feel that my lesson plan is redundant, or in some way ineffective; I will choose to change even the content" (lines 1343-1345). Mark further explained he found learners were always interested in at least some aspects of politics, religion, and music. Mark explained the connection between these topics and motivation this way:

I give them examples throughout the semester, doing that with funny videos, news articles that are interesting, talking about religion and politics. Which they say you should never do that, but in fact everybody's interested in these things. And so that's why I get more engagement I feel. (lines 1939-1943)

The general nature of the topics Mark chose for his courses allowed the students to add a certain amount of personalization. This is evident in Mark's observation that "everyone has something to say about political argument, religion, or music" (line 1944). Leaving room for students to personalize the content or connect their personal lives to the content was another method teachers used to ensure student interest and increase motivation.

Similar to Mark, Maria utilized methods that encouraged learners to personalize the content of the class in an effort to increase learners' interest and motivation. Before an activity, Maria reported she asked learners to think about their past experiences and beliefs before beginning an activity. Maria explained how this worked, "Get them involved in discussing it and adding their own ideas before they might begin doing an activity like the reading... What was special in their culture - that's motivating" (lines 2503-2505). Likewise, Natalie encouraged students to take a more active role in learning through the use of warm-up activities that allowed the learners to personalize content. She described utilizing activities that started with an open-ended, thought-provoking question that each learner answered with personal details. Natalie explained how these questions helped her gain additional perspective of the learners and how personalization enabled even quieter students to become more involved in the class activity:

> It helped me get a little more understanding of the students, and helped them – I think - get warmed up and feel, okay, we are talking. And, it did help them talk. I realized it was really useful for the ones who did not participate in discussion in class because they had to. They had to speak at this, and it was a personal thing. So, they could try and relate to the questions. (lines 4904-4908)

The TOEFL class offered less flexibility in terms of the teacher being free to choose content that was interesting to the students. This class used a textbook in which the topics of study were already chosen. An observation of the TOEFL class Helen taught revealed that despite the limitations of following a strict curriculum and using the content provided by the textbook, it was still possible to connect the content with the learners' interests and personal experiences. Helen's use of open ended, yet focused questions,

enabled learners to personalize and connect with the content of the lesson. In the TOEFL

class I observed, Helen had planned a lesson focused on note taking. She began by asking

the learners how they took notes and proceeded to ask follow up questions such as "What

do you mean ,map," and "So how do you differentiate main ideas and details" (lines

4627-4628). Helen's method of using open-ended questions, although focused on a

specific skill area, allowed for the personalization of content in the classroom, as students

added their ideas and spoke about their past experiences of note taking. During her

interview, Helen offered another example of how she encouraged learners to connect

with the preselected content in the TOEFL textbook. Helen explained it this way:

> We talk about the topics that we talked about in class. Let's say we did a thing on
>
> Frank Lloyd Wright architecture, you know, maybe the next week I'll say, hey did
>
> you see that article in the *New York Times* about Frank Lloyd Wright? So it's like
>
> I'll try to make them excited on their own or we'll talk about something in their
>
> life that relates to the class. (lines 4359-4363)

Another way teachers encouraged students to connect with the content was by

encouraging them to use examples from their own lives when practicing a language skill.

In a class observation where the learners were practicing a specific grammatical structure,

Kim's method of encouraging learners to connect the grammar structure to their own

lives consisted of asking the learners to think of their own examples and to work in

groups. Kim instructed the learners: "If you have examples from your life, for example,

have you ever gotten picked on? Try to make sentences passive, which may require a

little more effort. Use it so that it becomes a little more natural" (lines 781-784). Similar

to Kim, Sara also asked learners to use examples, stating, " Use examples from either

UCAELI or from your life in general" (lines 3750-3751) and "Use sentences that you actually use. Use sentences that are actually useful to you" (Lines 3764-3765).

The way Helen made learning materials and activities more meaningful to the students was to connect what she perceived as a boring task or boring content to the students' goals. Although Helen, like other teachers, tried to utilize materials and content that was of interest to the students, she had to balance student interest with skill building in her TOEFL Preparation class. In that class, the materials were preselected and appeared in the textbook the class used. When Helen encountered content and activities that she believed would be boring, she would try to motivate students by connecting the task or activity to the student goals. Helen explained:

> I'll say this is really boring, but I'm going to make it as interesting as possible for you, you know. So they're thinking this class is going to be meaningful for me, and we're going to learn something that you can use on the TOEFL, that you can use in your classroom. And I know that sounds like little things, but I think it's really important because they're seeing this class today is going to be valuable. (lines 4528-4532)

Although teachers initially found themselves taking a more prominent role in choosing learning materials due to learner resistance and inexperience, they noted that gradually this role diminished. Teachers commented on how learners changed as the semester progressed, noting learners became more willing to take an active role in learning by volunteering their interests and identifying their own learning materials. Mark explained he knew learners had become more independent because they would begin to share their interests and describe instances where they found their own learning materials.

Mark stated, "They will come in with songs on their own - not just in music class, but in other classes. They'll bring in songs, literature, movie references that they watched" (lines 1220-1221). Similar to Mark, Sara observed that students began to share their interests and would come into class with content. Sara explained:

> I feel like it (becoming more independent) happened, the evidence is when someone comes in and talks about something that they, well, okay -- so I had a student who watches some TV series and he came to me one day and he said, "This is what they said at the end of this show. I don't know what it is. It sounded like this." (lines 3519-3523)

In Sara's example, the student was now coming in with the content and asking questions about language. This represented a shift from teachers ensuring a student is invested in the content that the teacher of their choosing to the students selecting content themselves and talking about it with the teacher. Kim noticed the same type of shift, where students began talking about content they were interested in and began using that content for language learning. Kim explained the evidence she had that students became more independent this way:

> Most of the time its why did they say this and not that. It's something that I wouldn't even have thought about. That wouldn't have jumped at me as something strange or different or relevant, and they picked up on it because it was different from their language. So, I love it. I love it when that happens and it really yeah, tends not to happen in the beginning, its mostly middle, end, and I get really proud when that happens. (lines 590-597)

By bringing in learning materials or content that they were interested in and by using the content to focus on language pragmatics, learners demonstrated to teachers that they were in fact becoming more self-regulated, thus leading to a more learner-centered classroom.

Theme 3: Teachers moved from a teacher-centered to learner-centered classroom by affording learners more control over tasks and content and by providing autonomous support structures.

The challenge for teachers was to encourage self-regulation in learners who tended to rely on the teacher to completely direct their learning. The teachers attributed this view of the teacher as the authority over learning with learners' cultures. Kim explained the challenge of shifting from teacher to student responsibility for learning:

> It has to do with being prepared to be independent or not. You get a lot of people from a culture where the teacher holds the knowledge and yeah the teacher knows it. If the teacher says it, it's the rule. (lines 484-486)

Kim reported that a group of students in her Grammar Communication class explained to her one day that they simply were not accustomed to taking an active role in learning by choosing learning materials, selecting projects, or giving themselves, peers, or teachers feedback. After an activity where Kim asked the students to pretend they were giving feedback to teachers and administrators at UCAELI, Kim summarized the students' responses this way:

> One of the things they talked about is that the teachers and the program should remember that they're coming from a different educational setting, and how things here you know, they have to be more independent. (lines14-16).

Kim continued to say the students "mentioned something like it's hard, it's difficult, you're a bit lost sometimes. So, they kind of suggested that they needed a little more guidance, at least in my class"(lines 20-21).

Maria, too, spoke about the challenges facing teachers in encouraging learners to become more self-regulated and connected the challenges with culture. Maria explained:

> I think when students come from a culture where everything is driven by the authority whether the authority is the teacher or the religious person or whoever, it's not very comfortable to break out of that mold and they really do want to be told what to do. And they want questions answered immediately. They want to know the answer immediately. (lines 2555-2559)

Like Maria and Kim, Helen observed that students' culture played a role in how they viewed the role of the teacher. Helen specifically mentioned the Asian learning culture in terms of depending on the teacher to choose what is important and to provide the exact answer. Helen explained:

> The Asian students really thrive on structure. They want to know, what's the right answer, what's the wrong answer. And that's such a priority in their culture that any kind of creativity or, kind of like expanding ideas isn't always there if it's not directly taught in the class because they're so concerned with pleasing the teacher. (lines 4447-4451)

Natalie, too agreed that students relied heavily on the teachers to direct their learning, stating, "I have noticed with certain cultures, there is kind of this idea that they want the teacher to do everything for them" (lines 5284-5285).

In order to overcome student views of the teacher controlling and directing their learning, and transition from a teacher-centered to a learner-centered classroom, teachers

reported they provided autonomy supportive structures. Teachers created these supportive structures, which included class agendas, rubrics, and models, in order to gradually encourage students to take control over learning content, pacing, and assessment. Because teachers had observed that students relied on the teacher as the authority over learning, teachers utilized the supportive structures as adaptive scaffolds to transfer the control over learning to the student.

One initial step that all of the teachers in my study utilized to provide learners with structure was defining goals for the class or activity. Teachers did this either verbally before an activity, at the start of class, or in writing through the use of an agenda. Mark explained how this worked in his class, stating, "Every class I start with the agenda for the class. I tell them the goals of the class. Usually I numerate them" (lines 1346-1348). Sara, too used an agenda for her classes. Typically, in a student-centered classroom, the student would have input in the creation of agendas; however, teachers in this setting used the agendas as a scaffold to transfer more responsibility to the students in the classroom. The agendas enabled the teachers to take less of an active role within the class meeting time. During her interview, Sara explained how she believed using an agenda helped learners to become more independent. Sara stated:

> Well, before students arrive I, for most of my classes, I write an agenda on the board to students so they're aware of what the plan is and that they can also sort of take responsibility and in knowing what they need for that day, what we're covering. (lines 3122-3124)

Before a Listening and Speaking class, I observed Sara writing an agenda on the board that provided a guideline for students on the activity they were taking part in, a debate. Sara provided the students with numbered steps, such as "First Affirmative Speech,"

"Questions & Answers" "First Negative Speech," and "Second Affirmative Speech". Each step also had a time limit listed next to it. Having this underlying structure available allowed the learners to take more control over the classroom and act more independently, without having to depend on the teacher to intervene or interrupt to provide instructions. In fact, I had noted learners did not need Sara to remind them of what to do during the class. Sara sat off to the side of the room while the two teams of students conducted the debate. By providing an underlying structure for the students to refer to, Sara provided an adaptive scaffold that empowered the students to take a more active role once the class began and effectively took the focus off herself as the authority in the classroom.

Similar to Mark and Sara, Maria provided learners with a step-by-step agenda at the beginning of class. When I observed Maria's Reading and Writing class, I had noted she wrote the agenda on the front board. Her agenda included specific directions, such as "Look at the pictures" and "Write questions about the story". Her agenda not only provided students with a guide of how class time would be used, it reminded students what they should be doing and also served as a guide for students who arrived late. As students entered late, they sat down and started working on the activity at hand, without much direction from Maria. Like Sara, Maria was able to sit off to the side of the room because she provided the tools, or scaffolds, the students needed to begin behaving in a more independent manner during class time.

Clearly stated goals or objectives not only provided an adaptive scaffold that enabled the learners to act more independently during class, they also focused learners' attention on the development of competence and understanding, or mastery goal orientation. By focusing on clearly communicated performance standards, or goals and objectives of the activity, teachers are providing students with a necessary background to

begin taking a more active role in their learning in the planning and self-assessment stages. Natalie explained that when she provided learners with goals before a class or an activity, learners felt less lost and encouraged participation in the activity. Natalie explained her views on providing goals this way:

> It is like giving the view of the result before it happens kind of. Like, this is what I hope we will be able to learn from this. This is the goal of this exercise, so that they know they are going and they have a way to... they don't feel so lost and especially for the ones who don't (understand) right away, they are afraid of the activity. So, for those people, I think it is good to have that kind of recipe like. This is what we are doing. This is why we are doing it. Let's try it, and then we will talk about it. (lines 5201-5207)

Maria explained she focused learners' attention on course objectives as a way of trying to divert learners' focus on teacher grading as feedback on language learning. During her interview, Maria described how she had a discussion with learners in an attempt to persuade them to rely less on her providing numerical grades. Despite her attempts, the learners in her class insisted that they wanted to receive grades from Maria. After the learners informed her of their decision to have her provide numerical grades on assignments, Maria's solution was to direct learner attention to objectives. Maria stated, "And so my attempt at getting away from this [grading] is to talk about what objectives they need to fulfill, what they need to be able to do at this level" (lines 2512-2513).

One way Maria and the other teachers directed student attention towards fulfilling objectives was through the use of rubrics. The rubrics were another way teachers scaffolded the methods they used to encourage a learner-centered environment. Through

necessity, the teachers created a rubric; however, use of the rubric encouraged students to become more active in assessing their learning, instead of relying solely on the teacher for feedback. Helen explained she provided a rubric to her beginner level Reading and Writing class to encourage the students to check for important objectives themselves. Helen explained the process this way:

> One thing we did this semester was when I gave them a writing assignment, I gave them certain objectives. Like, if they wrote a paragraph, they would have to have…say, whatever skills we were working on, they would have a little rubric to say this is included in my paragraph. (lines 4047-4050)

Having students check their assignments before handing them in to the teacher was one way a rubric was used. Another way rubrics were used was as more of a general assessment of skills the students had acquired. Later in the semester, students began to take a more active role in the creation of this type of rubric. Maria explained that the students, with her assistance, created a list of important objectives for reading and writing class at the high beginner level. Students used this list before handing in a writing assignment or after completing a task connected to reading. Maria explained how the students used the list of objectives:

> I have them look at their own writing for example, and their own reading answers for example and see if they can do the things that we made a list for them to be able to do. Like in reading to be able to understand what is the main idea and to summarize a paragraph. (lines 2516-2518)

By using the list of objectives or a rubric, teachers initially provided needed support for learners to assess their performance, which also gradually encouraged learners to rely less

on the teacher for immediate answers. Providing students with a model or drawing their attention to an existing model was another way teachers encouraged learners to rely less on the teacher for direction and immediate answers.

While learners were working together to check their answers on an activity in Sara's class, I observed her working with the students and offering advice at key times. Even when students asked her a question to get a direct answer, Sara often replied by providing a model. For example, when one group was making a mistake on an activity, Sara redirected their attention by pointing at a group of sentences as a model and stating, "Okay you are looking at these two sentences. These two verbs use the same tense. Talk about what you think and look at the example" (lines 3604-3606). Instead of correcting the verb tense in the student's sentence or even directly telling the students which verb tense to use, Sara used a model. Kim used a model in a very similar way to help students complete a task using accurate sentence structure. I observed Kim suggesting to students to "Look at the examples. Read the descriptions" (line 879) so that the students could complete their own descriptions.

In addition to using models as a way to encourage students to find and correct their mistakes, teachers also used models to illustrate how a skill or task could be completed to fulfill the targeted learning objectives. When teachers used models this way, they provided ongoing support in form of a reference that encouraged learners to become more independent. For example, Mark used a model to introduce a new project to his Intercultural Communication class and to prompt the students to identify the qualities of a well-constructed video outlining the communication problem between cultures. The model Mark provided was a video about chatting online and arranging a date. While they

were watching the video together, Mark first identified some positive characteristics of the video. As the video continued playing, Mark drew students' attention to the time marker of the video and asked them to identify aspects that would improve the overall quality. Students offered answers and Mark summarized them, linking them to the project objectives. In this example, Mark moved from taking a very active role by initially identifying positive attributes of the model and then faded his support as he began to elicit ideas from the students. As the students offered their ideas, taking a more active role in their learning, Mark stood to the side of the room. Because the model was available online, it became a reference tool for students, enabling the students to rely less on the teacher for clarification.

Just as Mark utilized a model to initially engage learners in his class in identifying the strengths and weaknesses of a project and then later as a reference that encouraged independence, Natalie engaged the learners in her Service Learning class to identify important aspects of an effective email to an organization in which the learners were interest in volunteering. Natalie explained that with her assistance, the learners first identified important points to include in an email. As a next step, Natalie wrote, with student input, an example email on the board. Natalie explained how the students used the example email:

> They kind of copied it, or they copied the points that they needed to have. Then they went home and each group – there were pairs, and each pair had the responsibility to write an email to the organization they chose. (lines 5051- 5058)

Having a model enabled the students to write and send an email outside of class without the assistance of a teacher.

Another way teachers encouraged the shift from a teacher-centered classroom environment to a learner-centered environment was by gradually relaxing teacher control over the timing and content of course activities and projects. Teachers reported that they did not adhere to a strictly timed lesson plan. Instead, teachers would judge student engagement and amount of guidance needed to initially figure out the ending time of class activities and the due dates of projects. The same was true for content. Initially, teachers provided more of the content for the class and then relaxed that control as students began to bring in learning materials themselves. Because students were not comfortable determining the timing and content themselves, teachers needed to provide some initial structure. Once the structure was established however, an important scaffold was to ease the teacher control in order to empower the students to take control when they felt comfortable. Natalie explained that she relaxed teacher control and transferred control to learners over the pace and content of learning this way:

> If things are not going according to plan, but students are still motivated and instituting discussion and really learning from each other, then I just let it go and step back and allow them to kind of take charge of the way... the direction that the conversation goes. (lines 4848-4850)

Similarly, Mark stated, "And if everybody's engaged, I don't want to stomp on it. I want to encourage it" (line 1397). Mark continued to explain how and why students should be able to take control over the timing of a discussion:

> I think in terms of the discussion, if the discussion is going well I don't want to stop it because they're invested in it, but it's wrong for me to stop that, and to tamp it down, and to mold it into my pedagogical curriculum. I don't want to do

that. I want to just let it flow, because that's the goal. Right? The pedagogy's not

the goal. (lines 1400-1404)

Natalie echoed Mark's opinion on allowing students to take over a discussion,

explaining: "I think it is really important to let go - to really kind of relax that control so

that the students have the opportunity to change where the class goes" (lines 5241-5244).

Maria explained a few of the ways she gave learners more power to make

decisions when she responded to my question about what she thought her role was in

encouraging language learners to become more independent:

Allowing them to make more decisions about what they want to do, what they can

do in the learning process. One example is how much more homework they want

to do. And you know, also, getting more into having them think more about

developing their skills rather than having it the information come from me - to

have more of an exchange that way. (lines 2616-2620)

Maria's syllabus provided an additional example of how learners had the power to make

decisions about their own learning along with support provided by the teacher. Maria

provided a timeline in her syllabus of the skills and general content her Reading and

Writing class would cover, but also allowed learners to choose their own reading

material, with guidance from Maria about the genre.

Just as Maria provided structure that encouraged learners to take a more active

role in their learning by choosing materials, Natalie too designed a timeline in her

syllabus that gradually shifted responsibility over learning from the teacher to the student.

Through the use of projects, Natalie added an element of learner choice, gradually

scaffolding learner power to make decisions relating to learning activities by providing

fewer and fewer constraints. In Natalie's Listening and Speaking course syllabus, she listed projects such as: "choose an American music artist and pick three of their songs, analyze the lyrics to each song orally in class" and "Choose a topic". In the beginning of the semester, Natalie provided the general focus of the project, reserving some power over content for the learner; however, towards the end of the semester, she transferred more of that power by simply directed learners to choose the entire topic themselves.

Towards the end of the semester, Helen described an instance that illustrated a change in the amount of responsibility learners were willing and able to take. Whereas teachers reported that initially students were reluctant or unable to provide teachers feedback or suggestions on what they preferred to focus on, by the end of her TOEFL class, Helen had observed that the students could choose the focus of a class, a task typically performed by the teacher. Helen explained:

> They wanted to do this. They came up with—I said what do you want to do the last day and …I said what do you want to work on because we're going to do something, and they wanted to work on their grammar mistakes and their essays. (Helen lines 4316-4319)

Kim, too noted a change in the way students took more responsibility for their own learning as the semester progressed. When I asked Kim how she thought students' roles changed throughout the semester, Kim replied, "You start getting a better, more smooth relationship in terms of them deciding more" (lines 330-340). Mark also explained students began to take a more active role in selecting their own learning materials, stating that the students begin bringing in materials on their own for him to use in class. By providing students with supportive structures, such as rubrics and models and

by giving learners more power to make decisions concerning their own learning, teachers supported self-regulation in learners. Natalie commented on the connection between independence and structure when she stated:

> So, it is interesting the way that works. Giving the student structure in the class. Giving the student ideas and support, but also having expectations... high expectations of them hopefully – I think – motivates some independent learning. (lines 5255-5257)

The models, whether they were examples of projects, essays, strategies, or even grammatically correct sentences, rubrics or agendas that contained goals and objectives, and instances where teachers encouraged learners to make decisions in their learning empowered the learners to become more self-regulated.

Chapter Summary

Teachers promoted the development of self-regulation in university English language learners in three main ways. First, teachers encouraged learners to interact with others in English, both inside and outside of the classroom. Teachers also elicited and incorporated learners' interests and goals when designing course activities or selecting content. Finally, teachers facilitated the move from a teacher-centered classroom environment to a learner-centered environment by affording learners more control over learning tasks and content and by providing autonomous support structures that they scaffolded according to the comfort level of the students. Student culture influenced the methods teachers used to promote interaction with peers inside the classroom and how they viewed the role of a teacher.

Chapter Four

Conclusion and Recommendations

English language learners need to be able to improve their language proficiency independently to meet the academic language demands in higher education. Self-regulation, a process by which learners monitor, regulate, and control their cognitive, metacognitive, and behavioral process in order to achieve a goal (Zimmerman, 2008) encourages learners to be more independent (White, 2007). The problem Intensive English Program (IEP) teachers face is encouraging the development of self-regulation in learners who are exam- or product-oriented. These learners tend to depend on teachers to direct their learning and measure outcomes using scores on tests. In addition, these learners tend to resist methods that encourage process-oriented learning aimed at increasing the capability of acquiring language proficiency (Chen, 2003). As a first step in addressing this issue, I explored the teacher's role in promoting the development of self-regulation in language learning in IEP university classrooms.

As discussed in Chapter Three, the findings from my study included:

1. Teachers encouraged learners to interact with others in English both inside and outside the classroom;

2. Teachers elicited and incorporated learners' interests and goals when designing course activities or selecting content; and

3. Teachers moved from a teacher-centered to learner-centered classroom by affording learners more control over tasks and content and by providing autonomous support structures.

These findings yielded new insight into how IEP teachers promoted self-regulation. First, student collaboration is challenging, but critical for IEP learners. Second, teachers

relinquish control and apply autonomy supports structures to encourage self-regulation, and finally, intrinsic motivation supports the development of self-regulation when learners understand how to use their interests to learn independently. In this chapter, each of these conclusions is presented and discussed in terms of the contribution to existing literature and implications for practice.

Student collaboration is challenging, but critical for IEP learners

Findings from this study indicate teachers in IEP classrooms were challenged to find ways to encourage collaboration among a diverse group of learners. My research findings indicate that teachers believe that collaboration played a key role in encouraging self-regulation in language learners, and despite the challenge in implementation, teachers in the study stressed the positive effects of collaborative processes.

Collaboration in the IEP classroom required the use of the target language, English, and allowed the teachers to gradually decrease their involvement in the students' learning process. Learner collaboration provided opportunities for teachers to redirect learner attention to resources and provide hints that enabled learners to discover answers for themselves, rather than rely on the teachers to provide answers and explanations. When learners collaborated to complete a task or project, teachers were freed up to transition into a role of guiding learning instead of directing learning. To manage, and in some cases counteract, the range of cultural norms and prior experiences the learners brought to the classroom, teachers engaged in a form of ethical coercion (Brookfield, 2006).

Ethical coercion by teachers in my study was used in order to promote the development of self-regulation in English language and collaboration. According to

Baptist (2000), coercion means to prevent learners "from doing what they would have otherwise done, or to cause them to do what they would not have voluntarily done" (p. 28). Brookfield (2006), borrowing from Baptiste, added the modifier ethical to coercion to describe instances where teachers engaged in coercion with the best interests of the learners in mind. Teachers explained that the IEP learners showed a preference for a traditional classroom approach and given the choice would rather continue to rely on the teacher to direct all learning activities. Such preferences for a traditional teaching approach become problematic when encouraging learners to become more self-regulated in language learning because in a traditional classroom, learners exhibit minimal participation and collaboration (Birzer, 2004). Similar to Auerbach's (2001) work encouraging English language learners to engage in participatory education, teachers in my study encouraged collaboration despite English language learners having different ideas about what language learning is and their preferences for traditional, teacher-directed approaches.

My findings support Moore's (2005) assertion that difficulties arise when teachers expect learners who feel more comfortable with their role in the traditional classroom to participate in collaborative learning. In order to encourage collaboration in the classroom, teachers purposefully arranged learners so they sat next to, or worked in small groups with, at least one other learner who did not share the same native language, which is not something that the learners did on their own. In fact, teachers requested learners move seats after they had already come into the classroom and chosen a seat next to a learner sharing the same first language. Teachers also insisted learners stay in the group they had put them in, even when learners showed a clear preference for no group work or to not

work in the group the teacher assigned to them. Natalie, in explaining how she would not give in to learners' wishes, described one learner she had been working with for two semesters. Natalie explained this learner "was one of the ones who was complaining about partners and once I made it clear that she could not change, she adapted and she did change – she changed her view and she did it [completed the group project] anyway" (lines 5353-5355). In insisting upon mixed cultural groups and group project or activities, teachers encouraged collaboration through ethical coercion.

The notion that teachers retain a form of control or apply coercion in order to encourage collaboration are in direct opposition to Zimmerman's (1996) claim that learner choice and control are central to the development of self-regulation. Teachers in my study clearly articulated instances where learners resisted collaborating and if the English language learners controlled learning, their choice would be to engage in traditional teaching approaches that did not include collaboration. Teachers deny English language learners' choice and control over learning when those choices impede collaboration because teachers view collaboration as a key for learners to become self-regulated.

Besides learners' preference for traditional teaching modes, teachers in my study were challenged to manage diverse learner backgrounds. Given the importance of collaboration, especially in language learning, my study supports prior research attributing differences in self-regulation to cultural background (e.g. Purdie et al., 1996; Rotgans & Schmidt, 2008). My findings extend the literature on culture, scaffolding, and self-regulation to qualitatively support the notion cultural constructs can be addressed by adaptively scaffolding the methods to encourage collaboration to promote self-regulation.

All of the teachers in my study described challenges students from different cultures faced and how they adapted the methods they used to encourage collaboration based on culture. In particular, the teachers noted the reticence of Middle Eastern students to work in groups of mixed gender and the apprehension of all students to use English in front of peers sharing the same first language. The teachers explained how they would adaptively scaffold activities and group construction in a way that would encourage everyone to collaborate, regardless of cultural beliefs.

My study findings indicate through the use of ethical coercion and adaptive scaffolds that encouraged collaboration, teachers were able to gradually fade their involvement in the learning process and increase learner self-regulation. English language learners need a high degree of self-regulation to continue to develop their language skills outside of class without a teacher. The literature on web-based learning and web-based pedagogical tools (e.g. Dabbagh & Kitsantas, 2005; Vermans et al., 2000) explore the relationship between adaptive scaffolding and the development of self-regulation. Dabbagh and Kitsantas (2005) claim web-based learning environments require a high degree of learner self-regulation due to the physical absence of the teacher. As described in Chapter One, adaptive scaffolds are supports that are constantly adjusted according to the ever-changing development of an individual (Azevedo et al., 2005). Although obvious distinctions exist between online learning environments and English language learning in my study environment, both contexts require a high degree of self-regulation for success. Just as I found student collaboration to figure prominently into the methods IEP teachers used to promote self-regulation, student collaboration figured prominently into the course design and web-based pedagogical tools that Dabbagh and

Kitsantas (2005) and Pifarre and Cobos (2010) investigated as adaptive scaffolds in online learning environments. Piffarre and Cobos stated that the goal of the instructional process in their research was to promote collaboration among peers. They noted that through the use of adaptive online scaffolds, students became co-regulated. That is, learners began to share the responsibility of the learning process, a transition from being teacher-regulated.

Much like the findings for on-line learning, my study highlights the importance of collaboration in course designs that encourage the development of self-regulation. The findings support the adaptive scaffolding research and extend it with qualitative data collected from teachers working in a face-to-face environment. In particular, teachers chose face-to-face small group or pair activities in the classroom as a form of adaptive scaffolds that enabled them to take on the role of guide. Teacher-designed small group or pair activities allowed the teachers to continually modify and adapt the amount of guidance they provided to students and as such, served as adaptive scaffolds. The adaptive scaffolds used to promote collaboration also encouraged the development of self-regulation as learners became less dependent on the teacher. More specifically, teachers used a combination of group activities and seating arrangements to encourage collaboration. These findings support the Critical Theory research of Brookfield (2006), who states circle type seating seeks to equalize power by evenly distributing it among students. Brookfield seems to imply the students as a group have more power by virtue of the physical seating arrangement. My research findings qualify this and suggest that while seating arrangements take the focus off of the teacher as the authority over learning, the teacher needs to further support the transfer of power (or control) to

students. Transfer can occur through maintaining their power as a teacher (ethical coercion) to engage learners in collaborative activities, redirect learner attention back to their peers or relevant resources, and adaptively scaffold group make-up in order for control to shift from the teacher to the student.

The idea that teachers find IEP student collaboration both challenging and critical is a crucial piece in better understanding how to encourage self-regulation in students from a variety of cultural and educational backgrounds. This notion has implications for teachers' pedagogical practice. Teachers need to design course syllabi utilizing activities and tasks requiring learners to work together in English. Activities that require the input of multiple learners to complete a task or project will encourage learners to interact with each other and enable the teacher to move from the front of the room where he or she is visible to all students, to along the side of the room or with groups of students when needed. Decreasing or eliminating the use of fill in the blank, closed exercises where an individual is required to provide a correct answer in favor of more open-ended activities enables teachers to provide guidance and feedback in a way that empowers learners and reinforces the notion the teacher isn't the only person who holds the answers. Open-ended activities requiring multiple perspectives encourage collaboration and enable the teacher to transition to the role of a guide. Collaborative projects and group activities will enable the teacher to begin to fade their involvement in directing learning. These types of activities provide an opportunity for the students to ask the teacher questions on an as-needed basis, instead of encouraging lecture style delivery. Projects and small group tasks also provide teachers with opportunities to answer individual questions using hints or redirecting learners' attention to the appropriate resources. Taking the role of a guide like

this encourages learners to develop the ability to plan, monitor, and evaluate their learning, strategies required for self-regulation, instead of relying exclusively on the teacher to do that for them.

Another important consideration in supporting a collaborative environment is manipulating the physical layout of the classroom. Administrators and teachers will need to ensure the classroom layout is conducive to these types of activities. Classrooms with fixed chairs and tables oriented towards the front of the room pose a physical barrier to small group activities. A classroom containing smaller moveable tables with moveable chairs is ideal because upon entering the classroom, students will need to sit together in groups. Tablet desks that can be easily moved and connected together to create a common work space for small groups will also provide the needed flexibility to encourage interaction and enable teachers to circulate among groups of learners when needed.

Teachers relinquish control and apply autonomy support structures to encourage self-regulation

My findings extend the literature (e.g., Jang et al., 2010; Sierens et al., 2009) by further defining the notion of teacher structure as it relates to autonomy and self-regulation. In my findings, I discussed what I called "autonomy support structures." These structures included agendas, clear objectives, rubrics, and models or exemplars. An important distinction is made in my study in that teachers did not believe that inaction by the learners was connected to a lack of motivation, but instead, teachers attributed inaction with a lack of self-regulation strategies. Attributing inaction to lack of self-regulation strategies meant that teachers directed their guidance to providing autonomy

supports structures. Using, and adaptively scaffolding, autonomy support structures thus enabled teachers to successfully relinquish control over tasks that a teacher in a traditional classroom environment performs, such as assessment, identification and selection of content and learning materials, and the timing of learning activities. Through the use of these structures, teachers were able to relinquish more control over time, which increased the amount of choice as learners became more skilled and receptive to taking a more active role in their learning.

Autonomy support structures are critical. Without such structures teachers reported that learners expressed feelings of being lost or that learners ended up doing nothing. A clear example of this comes from Kim. When Kim tried to relinquish control over choosing the topics to the students, students ended up not completing the assignment. She stated, "I just kept asking myself, was it because it was too vague? They didn't really know what to do" (lines 302-304). In fact, Kim noted finding the balance between providing the right amount of support for the amount of control for the amount of power students have was the golden question, "I'm trying to find the balance between making it come from them but at the same time guiding, which is, I think, one of the golden questions really. How do we get that balance between independence and guidance?" (lines 308-310). My study indicated that finding the balance required teachers to continually adapt the autonomy support structures they provided as guidance for students so that the students could benefit from the control teachers relinquished.

Teacher structure included not only subject matter related to guidance and support, but guidance and support directed at developing learners' self-regulation strategies. The inclusion of these autonomy support structures in teacher structure adds to

the literature that discusses the relationship between autonomy and self-regulation (e.g. Jang et al., 2010; Sierens et al., 2009). Jang et al. (2010) and Sierens et al. (2009) used the definitions of autonomy support and teacher structure from research on Self-determination Theory. In that literature teachers provide autonomy support through the availability of choice, providing explanations when choice is limited, and avoiding the use of controlling language (Sierens et al., 2009). Teacher structure is commonly defined from the perspective of Self-determination Theory as clear explanations, expectations, guidance on tasks, and competency related feedback (Sierens et al., 2009). My findings indicate that scaffolded autonomy support structures are a specific type of teacher structure that teachers provide to learners. Including scaffolded autonomy supports in the notion of teacher structure provides an important distinction because the definition of teacher structure Sierens et al. and Jang, et al. used referred mainly to content related support. As the findings in my study indicate, it is through the teacher-provided autonomy support structures that learners can utilize availabilities of choice effectively.

The addition of autonomy support structures into the definition of teacher support could shed some light on why Jang et al. (2010) could not find support for their hypothesis of curvilinear support for the relationship between autonomy and structure. Jang et al. predicted that too much structure would negatively impact autonomy while too little structure would create a chaotic learning environment. They proposed that the right amount of structure would result in optimal autonomy. Their quantitative analysis revealed no support for their curvilinear hypothesis, only linear support; meaning that autonomy support was highest when instructional structure was highest. In contrast, my study findings do indicate that the right amount of structure is associated with high

autonomy support, which aligns with Jang et al.'s initial assumption. What Jang et al. failed to consider was teacher structure and autonomy support should change over time and teacher structure should include supports aimed at effective use of autonomy.

Adding autonomy support structures to the notion of structure enables teachers to adjust the amount of structural support as they relinquish more control. For example, Helen stated that in the beginning of the semester, she provided a rubric to the learners in her reading and writing class. Learners used the rubric she provided to self-assess their writing and to then assess the writing of their peers. The rubric was an autonomy support structure because it assisted learners in assessment, which in a traditional classroom setting is an action reserved for the teacher. As the semester progressed, the teacher relinquished control over creating the rubric to the learners, again an action usually performed by the teacher in a traditional classroom setting. This example illustrates teachers adjust autonomy support structures as learners become more competent using autonomy. Decreasing the amount of teacher structural support in this way will increase the amount of autonomy support. This implies that at some point medium structure support could be associated with high autonomy support.

Researchers (e.g. Tanaka & Yamauchi, 2000; VanGrinsven & Tillema, 2006) posit autonomy is an important factor in self-regulation because it supports intrinsic motivation, which leads to self-regulated learning. My research findings indicate combining autonomy and autonomous support structures leads to self-regulation. This suggests autonomy does not only impact self-regulation through motivation, but autonomy impacts self-regulation directly. This finding adds important support to the scholarship of Sierens et al. (2009), who stated that their research was the first to

demonstrate the relationship between self-regulation and autonomy support and structure. Sierens et al. noted a positive correlation between structure and support and stated too much structure and not enough autonomy support did not encourage self-regulation. Based on the positive relationship of autonomy support and teacher structure with self-regulation, Sierens et al. recommended teachers provide differentiated support.

Teachers in my study described scaffolded structure support and autonomy support as encouraging self-regulation in learners. Furthermore, these findings indicate that when learners experience a greater amount of autonomy than they have the self-regulation strategies to cope with, the learners may perceive the learning environment to be lax or unorganized. These findings qualify Pintrich and Zusho's (2007) assertion that an unstructured, lax learning environment could negatively impact motivation by suggesting that it is the lack of self-regulation strategies, not lack of structure, that negatively impacts motivation in class environments where teachers provide a high degree of autonomy to learners. Distinguishing between the lack of self-regulation strategies and an unstructured, lax environment is important because the latter will not negatively impact a learner's motivation if the learner has sufficient self-regulation strategies to deal with the amount of autonomy. In order to continue to learn beyond the last ESL class, English language learners must be able to cope with an unstructured environment. By relinquishing control and scaffolding autonomy support structures, teachers can encourage the development of self-regulation strategies in learners that will help them continue to learn outside the classroom.

Knowing learner autonomy can directly impact the development of self-regulation highlights the need for autonomous support structures and raises implications for IEP

teachers. Teachers should utilize support structures such as models, rubrics, and agendas to support learners' development of self-regulation strategies. These self-regulated structures enable the learner to plan (agendas), monitor (models), and evaluate (rubrics) their learning. By adjusting their involvement with learners in creating these structures, teachers will encourage feelings of learner autonomy and be able to relinquish more control over learning to the student.

Because relinquishing more control to the student plays a key role in supporting learner feelings of autonomy and the development of self-regulation, teachers and administrators will need to examine the ways in which student assessment takes place. The use of tests to measure learning will detract from learner feelings of autonomy when teachers maintain control over exam creation and evaluation. Other assessment methods such as writing assignments, projects, or open-ended tasks will enable teachers to relinquish control over assessment and support learner autonomy.

Intrinsic motivation supports the development of self-regulation when learners understand how to use their interests to learn independently.

Teachers used learners' interests in two key ways: first to promote intrinsic motivation in teacher designed learning activities, and also as a model to help learners understand the connection between interests and their learning process. This finding contributes to the literature by describing how teachers promote the development of self-regulation through intrinsic motivation in the classroom and fill a specific need "for more research on how the different aspects of the college classroom influence college student motivation and learning" (Pintrich & Zusho, 2007, p. 793).

First, my findings indicated teachers structured learning activities in the classroom to promote intrinsic motivation. Teachers strived to connect learner interests and goals with the content, projects, and activities of their courses in an effort to increase intrinsic motivation, which they viewed as crucial for the development of self-regulation. Engaging learners in the content of the activities is integral to self-regulation because many of the methods teachers utilize to encourage the development of SR, such as peer reviews, self-assessments, discussion groups, depend upon student engagement and participation in the teacher designed activities. Knowing learner interests and goals was important to teachers because utilizing student interests and goals in designing learning activities increased learner motivation by supporting learner feelings of autonomy. The initial challenge for teachers was scaffolding the amount of guidance they provided to encourage learners to identify their needs because learners were not always initially able to, or willing to, communicate their interests or goals to the teacher.

Because learners were not always in a position to choose the content and content was often pre-determined by the institution or teacher, which are key aspects of self-regulation, teachers need to support learners' perceptions of autonomy in order to encourage intrinsic motivation. Teachers accomplished this by using the class' interests and goals to make the activities relevant to the learners. This finding supports the research of Jang et al., (2010) who posited that by using learners' interests, needs, and goals in activity design, teachers support learners' perceptions of autonomy.

Incorporating learners' interests and goals into teacher-designed activities not only supports learner feelings of autonomy, it also increases the task value and increased the possibility of intrinsic motivation. According to Wigfield and Eccles (1992), students

are more likely to become engaged in tasks they feel are relevant to their goals. My study data indicated that by utilizing learner interests teachers supported learner feelings of autonomy and contributed to intrinsic motivation. These findings support Garcia and Pintrich's (1996) conclusion that learners are more likely to be motivated when teachers offer autonomy supportive behaviors and the research of Garcia and Pintrich (1996) and Young (2005) who found perceived autonomy to positively impact intrinsic motivation.

Second, using learner interests and goals provided an opportunity for teachers to model the strategies associated with self-regulation. This finding offers an important distinction between my research and the quantitative research indicating intrinsic motivation is connected to self-regulation (e.g. Henning & Shulruf, 2011;Rotgans & Schmidt, 2008; Young, 2005). Although my findings support the connection between intrinsic motivation and self-regulation, the finding extends the prior research by indicating teachers help the learner to understand how to use their goals and interests and it is that understanding that connects intrinsic motivation to self-regulation. For example, Mark repeatedly advised learners "It is productive to enjoy a learning process by picking content you are interested in…Just enjoy yourself" (lines 1223-1225). Advice such as this, when combined with teacher modeling, encourages self-regulation in learners. Teacher designed course activities incorporating learner goals and interests serves as a first step towards modeling how learners can use their interests to learn independently outside the classroom and after formal learning has ended. Moreover, this approach can encourage the development of self-regulation including collaboration, and peer or self-assessment. Teachers in the study modeled during the learning process how students could locate and utilize resources connected with their goals and interests.

Through this type of modeling, teachers in my study indicated learners not only began identifying their interests, but also began using those interests to develop their language proficiency. The teachers described instances where students came into class and asked language related questions related to the content the learner had selected and used outside of class. These actions of identifying learning materials and seeking help are strategies associated with self-regulation (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2008; Zusho & Edwards, 2011).

Based on the conclusion that intrinsic motivation supports the development of self-regulation when learners understand how to use their interests to learn independently, teachers should incorporate learners' interests and goals into course design. Teachers indicated that learners are not always able or willing to identify or share their interests and goals with their teacher or classmates, therefore, teachers will need to scaffold the methods they use to acquire this information. This means teachers will become more informed over time of what learners' goals and interests are, which is problematic when planning a course.

Administrative policies requiring teachers to create and distribute a pre-determined course syllabi detailing the content and materials may negatively impact the extent to which a teacher can subsequently connect content with learners' goals and interests. Similarly, the practice of adopting a textbook series for different proficiency levels of learners, a practice widely followed in Intensive English Programs (Miller, 2011), will inhibit the extent to which teachers can utilize learner interests and goals. Despite the attempts of ESL textbooks to include high interest contexts that appeal to a wide audience, the textbooks cannot possibly appeal to every learner or take every

learner's interests into account. Encouraging learners to identify interests enables teachers to locate and direct learner attention to appropriate learning resources when learners do not posses the self-regulation to locate resources for themselves. Standardized texts and readings that are devoid of student interests could negatively impact learner motivation and affect the development of self-regulation. Teachers should use open-ended projects and activities where learners could incorporate their interests and goals. By providing skill or proficiency related guidelines but not content for projects and activities, teachers could satisfy the administrative demands of providing a detailed syllabus and support motivation in learners. Having students supply content not only ensures learners will have some interest in the activity, but also provides an opportunity for teachers to model how a student provided resource can be used to increase a skill or proficiency.

Future Research Recommendations

This qualitative study explored the teacher's role in promoting student self-regulation in language learning in Intensive English Language Program (IEP) university classrooms. The findings provide important insight into understanding how IEP teachers foster independence in language learning of students who tend to be exam-oriented or product-oriented learners. Given the widespread use of high stakes tests to measure English language proficiency for entry into degree programs in the United States and the dearth of literature exploring self-regulation in the field of language learning, continued research is needed. Empirical research designed to collect data from English language learners would inform practitioners of the effectiveness of the methods teachers used to encourage self-regulation in university settings. Specifically, confirming the methods

teachers used to promote the development of self-regulation had the same effect on learners that teachers intended would deepen our understanding of how best to encourage self-regulation in language learners.

My study provides a preliminary understanding of how teachers promote self-regulation in English language learners in university settings. To increase understanding of how to help these particular learners improve their English beyond their last language class, the field of second language learning would benefit from the additional insight on the long-term effectiveness of teachers' methods from the perspective of the learner. A longitudinal study investigating the effectiveness of the methods used to promote self-regulation in English language learners continuing on to a Master's or PhD degree program, where a particularly high level of English language proficiency is required to fulfill degree requirements, could provide valuable in understanding of the strategies used by these successful learners to improve their English skills beyond what is minimally required for entry into the degree program.

My qualitative data indicated the right amount of structure is associated with high autonomy support and that teachers reduced the amount of structure they provided to learners as learners became more self-regulated. Reducing the amount of structure also meant teachers were providing a high degree of autonomy support as they began to relinquish more control to learners. An area for future research would be to quantitatively test the relationship between autonomy support and teacher structure over time, with the extended definition of teacher structure proposed in this chapter. Collecting data at different points throughout the progression of the course could reveal important patterns as teachers relinquish control to the learners.

Conclusion

This study explored the ways in which teachers promoted the development of self-regulation in English language learners in an Intensive English Language Program in a university setting. The findings of this study yielded new insight into how teachers promote self-regulation in an adult second language classroom. The setting of an intensive English program classroom at a university offered an ideal setting to investigate the teacher's role in promoting self-regulation for a few important reasons. First, the IEP from which I collected data highlighted the importance of promoting self-regulation through student-centered teaching approaches in their overarching goals and methods statement, which is found on their website and as an introduction to their curriculum. One of the main reasons why I chose this particular IEP was because of the inclusion of self-regulation in their overarching goals. I found program wide practices, such as providing final assessments in terms of proficiency levels and promotion among class levels based on proficiency (as opposed to test scores) that encouraged self-regulation. These practices are in direct contrast to what other IEPs may be doing. In fact, Kaplan, a very large, well known corporate IEP that partners with universities across the United States, clearly states that their policy of promotion from level to level is by examination. An administrative policy that encourages exam-oriented learning approach will negatively impact the extent to which a teacher can promote self-regulation in students. In contrast, administrative policies that support and are in agreement with teachers' efforts to promote self-regulation in language learners provide ideal environments to investigate self-regulation.

In regards to promoting a greater understanding of self-regulation within the wider context of adult learning, choosing an IEP classroom provided a unique insight into the influence of cultural factors. IEP classrooms tend to have a wide variety of cultures represented in each class. This was true in the IEP from which I collected data as well. I believe this diversity provided me with the valuable opportunity to analyze the impact of culture on the methods used to encourage self-regulation. Each culture presented its own challenge in terms of barriers to collaboration ,which highlighted the need for adaptive scaffolding. As college campuses become more diverse with the numbers of international students studying in the U.S. continuing to rise, instructors will increasingly have to address cultural constructs in the methods they use to encourage self-regulation.

Despite having received a significant amount of attention in the field of psychology, self-regulation is not a widely researched topic in the field of ESL. However, it is a concept that is drawing an increased amount of new attention. In a 2006 article, Tseng, Dornyei (a leading researcher in the field of second language motivation) and Schmitt proposed using self-regulation to help language learners learn vocabulary. These authors recommended a shift away from language learning strategies, the focus of the past 20 years of research, towards self-regulation. Since that time, leading second language researchers have begun to address self-regulation in language learning, some critiquing Tseng et al's proposed shift in research on self-regulation in language learning (e.g., Gao, 2006; Rose, 2011) and some applying the principals of self-regulation to ESL teaching practice (e.g., Andrade & Evans, 2013). Most notably, Oxford (2011), whose work in language learning strategies spans two decades, has published a strategic self-regulation model. To date; however, very little empirical research exists on how to

promote self-regulation in second language learners. I believe that my research contributes valuable insight into how language teachers promote self-regulation in language learners and can be extended with data collected from the students' perspective to gain a more complete understanding of successful teaching methods. Acknowledging that English language learners need to be able to improve their language proficiency long after their last class has ended, future research in second language learning and self-regulation needs to focus on effective ways to encourage self-regulation in learners. A more complete understanding will provide teachers and administrators of language programs with the knowledge they need to align curricula and policy to supply learners with the skills they need to improve beyond the last class.

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Appendix A

Model of Conceptual Framework
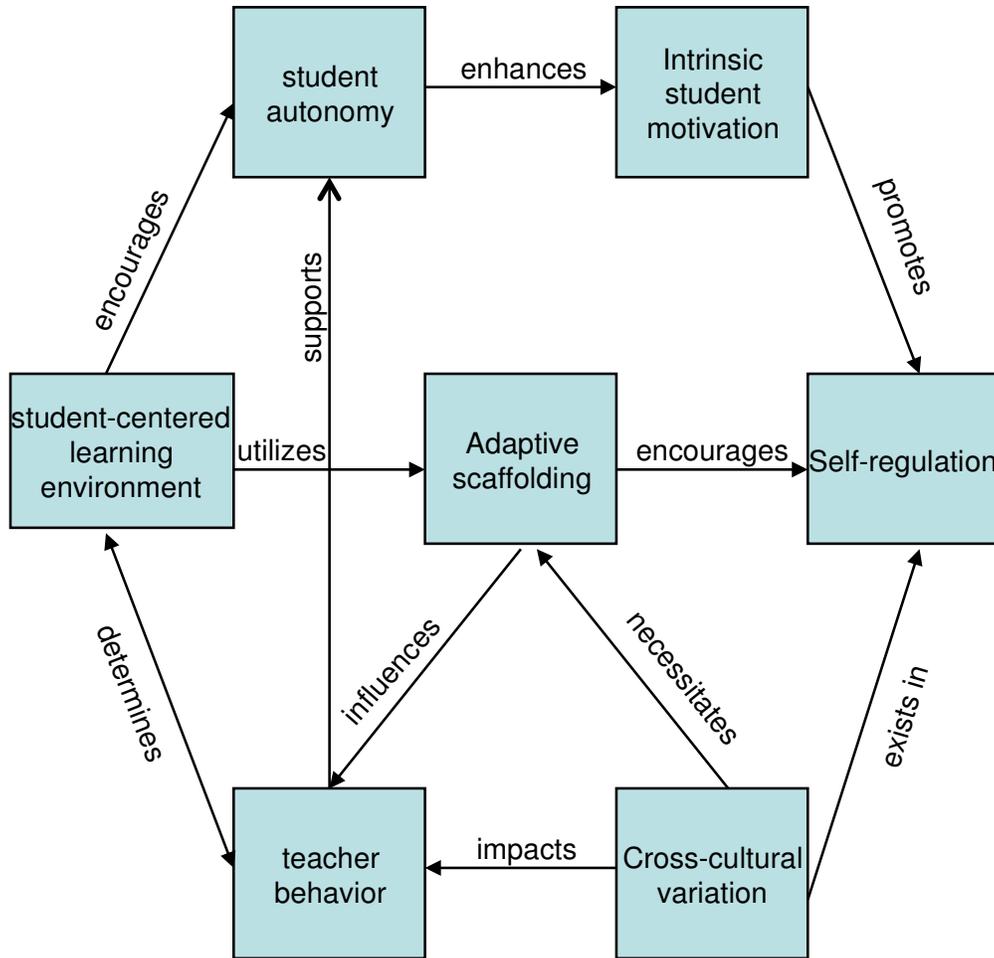
Appendix B
Teacher's Invitation to Participate in this Study

Dear UCAELI instructor,

My name is Jeannie Slayton and I am a Ph.D. candidate at the University of Connecticut. As part of my doctoral research, I am conducting a study to learn more about how teachers encourage students to become independent language learners. There will be no monetary benefits for participating in this study, but participants will receive a letter of appreciation for their contributions.

I would like to invite you to participate in this study if you are currently teaching an IEP course at UCAELI. Participation involves an initial class observation, one interview, and one or more additional class observations. I will also collect artifacts such as class handouts, evaluation instruments and course syllabi with your permission to be used as data. Please note that no student data will be collected for research purposes. Finally, I will send you a follow-up email in which you read a summary of preliminary findings from the interview, observation, and artifact collection to ensure that I have accurately captured your perspective.

The information I collect from the interview, observation, artifacts and follow-up emails will be treated confidentially, as will your identity. There are no known risks to your participation or non-participation in this study or to your teaching position at UCAELI.

If you are interested in participating in this study or would like more information, please contact me by email at Jeannie.Slayton@UConn.edu, by phone at (860) 742 – 9328 or in person. Once I receive your response, we will arrange a meeting time where I will provide you with a consent form that outlines the details of the study. Your participation in the study will begin after you have had a chance to review and sign the consent form.

Sincerely,

Jeannie Slayton

Appendix C

Dear (name),

I appreciate your willingness to participate in my study. Unfortunately, I have reached the capacity of volunteers needed.

Thank you again for volunteering and I hope that you have a successful semester at UCAELI.

Sincerely,

Jeannie Slayton

Appendix D
Thank you letter to participants

Dear _____,

I wanted to take this opportunity to thank you for your participation in this study. I appreciate the time you took out of your own schedule to accommodate the requirements of the study. Your participation will assist in furthering the understanding of how English language learners become more independent learners.

Sincerely,

Jeannie Slayton

Appendix E
Teacher Interview Protocol

Part I Background Information
      Good morning/good afternoon. Before we begin, I would like to take this opportunity to thank you for taking the time to speak with me today. Today I would like to talk about a class that you are currently teaching. During the next hour, I will ask you some questions about this course. I would like your consent to tape record your responses so that I may review the interview at a later time.
      Please be assured that all of your responses will be anonymous and kept confidential. If you become uncomfortable at any point during the interview, please feel free to say so. We can stop recording at any time you wish.
      At the conclusion of the interview, we will set up a time for me to observe your class. During the observation, I will take field notes describing what is happening in the class. Your confidentiality and the anonymity of the students in your class will be preserved. I will not use any recording devices during the observation.
Do you have any questions?

Now that the recorder is on, please state your name, the date and that you consent to have this interview recorded.
1. I would like to learn more about how you encourage student to become independent language learners. What are some ways in which you do this?

2. Please describe how a typical class unfolds.
(Probe for information regarding teacher and student role, interaction)

     Timing
     Content
     Activities (types)
     Materials (types)
     Assignments (types)
     Feedback
     Assessment

      How do _these things_ vary throughout the semester? (look for evidence of scaffolding) How do these things vary on an individual basis? (look for evidence of adaptive scaffolding) Examples.
      How do _these things_ raise student awareness of planning, monitoring and regulating their own learning?

3. How do you help students understand the nature or meaning of the tasks that you give them?
4. How do you encourage student motivation?
5. How do you help students become independent learners?
6. How do you modify the ways in which you encourage students to take control of their own learning?
      As the semester progresses

On an individual basis
(probe for examples)

7. How does student culture influence the ways in which students view independence? (Probe for examples) How do you adapt the methods you use to promote student independence based on culture? (Probe for examples)

8. Describe your role in encouraging students to become independent language learners.

9. How do students change? Describe the evidence that you have that students have become more independent learners.

10. Is there anything else you would like to add about independent language learning?

Appendix F
Class Observation Guide

Description of the setting
       Physical layout
       Social environment
              How is communication being organized?
              Seating arrangement of students (& teacher)
              Composition of any groups that exist in the classroom

Assignments (types, evidence of fading, individual differences)

Activities (type: lecture, real world, application, problem based, project based, teacher role/student role, accommodating individual differences, evidence of fading support)

Collaboration
       Peer
       Student/teacher

Feedback
       Who?
       What? (supportive/corrective)
       Evidence of adaptive scaffolding

Questions
       Student generated
       Teacher generated
              Open? Closed?

Use of materials (types, teacher/student roles, student interest, textbooks, handouts, audio, video, technology)

Appendix G
Document Review Guide

Origin of document:
        Who created it?
        What source did it come from?

Intended audience:

Purpose:

Evidence of student autonomy:
        Type of task/activity:
        Open-ended?
        Assessment?
        Student input?

Evidence of adaptive scaffolding:

Letter of Support from UCAELI
Re: Permission to access site for data collection
Kristi Newgarden [kristi.newgarden@uconn.edu]
Sent: Friday, September 17, 2010 1:37 PM
To:
Slayton, Jeannie
Dear Jeannie,

You have permission to contact UCAELI teachers and speak with them at a future
meeting about participating in the study.

Best,

Kristi

Kristi Newgarden
Director
University of Connecticut American English Language Institute (UCAELI)
1 Bishop Circle, U-4056
Storrs, CT 06269-4056
phone: 860-486-2127
fax: 860-486-3834
web: http://www.ucaeli.uconn.edu

On Sep 17, 2010, at 12:53 PM, Slayton, Jeannie wrote:

September 17, 2010

Dear Ms. Newgarden,

I am currently preparing my dissertation proposal, a qualitative study, which seeks to
gain a better understanding of how teachers in an IEP promote the development of self-
regulation in English language learners. The study involves teacher interviews, class
observations, and document collection. Teacher participation is voluntary and the
personal information of the participants will be protected. I believe I will need 6-8
teachers to participate in the study in order to reach saturation.

I would like to have your permission to contact the UCAELI teachers via email and to
speak to them at a teacher meeting to introduce my project and ask for volunteers. The
volunteer recruitment process would begin immediately after IRB approval for this study
has been granted. I would be happy to meet with you at your convenience to discuss any
questions you may have about this study. You may also contact my advisor, Dr. Robin
Grenier, at Robin.Grenier@uconn.edu

Sincerely,

Jeannie Slayton

PhD student, Adult Learning

Neag School of Education

University of Connecticut

(860) 486 - 8484

Consent Form for Participation in a Research Study
University of Connecticut

Principal Investigator: Dr. Robin Grenier
Student Researcher: Jeannie Slayton
Study Title: Self-Regulation in the Intensive English Language Classroom

Introduction

You are invited to participate in a research study to find out more about how the teacher's role in an intensive English program is involved in the development of independent learning skills in students. You are being asked to participate because you are currently teaching a course in an intensive English program identified as having a student population interested in matriculating into an institution of higher education in the United States.

Why is this study being done?

The purpose of this research study is to explore the teacher's role in promoting the development of independent learning skills in English language learners. Students' abilities to monitor, regulate and control their own learning processes in order to achieve a goal are essential for lifelong language proficiency. Understanding the teacher's role in this process is a first step in understanding how teachers foster independence in language learning in students who tend to be exam-oriented or product-oriented learners

What are the study procedures? What will I be asked to do?

If you agree participate in this study, you will be asked to schedule a time for an initial class observation. The initial observation will last 50 to 90 minutes, depending on the length of the course you are teaching. During the initial class observation, the student researcher will take notes about what is going on during the class. No electronic recording devices will be used. If it is determined that the class that is observed contains some degree of student choice over pace, task or content, takes learners' interests into account, involves learners in assessment or emphasizes the co-construction of knowledge, then you will be asked to take part in an individual interview. The interview will take approximately one hour and it will be scheduled at a time that is convenient to you. The interview will consist of open-ended questions related to student development of independent learning skills. The interview will be audio recorded so that it may be reviewed at a later date by the researchers. At the conclusion of the interview, a date will be agreed upon for class observation of a course you are currently teaching. No electronic recording devices will be used during the class observation, which will last 50 to 90 minutes, depending on the length of the course you are teaching. In addition, you will be

asked to provide class materials, such as handouts used during the class that is observed, course syllabi or examples of assessments. You may be contacted via email at a later date if clarification of a response from the interview is needed.

What are the risks or inconveniences of the study?
We believe there are no known risks associated with this research study; however, a possible inconvenience may be the time it takes to complete the study.

What are the benefits of the study?
You may not directly benefit from this research; however, we hope that your participation in the study may lead to a better understanding of how English language learners develop independent learning skills.

Will I receive payment for participation? Are there costs to participate?

 There are no costs and you will not be paid to be in this study.

How will my personal information be protected?

The following procedures will be used to protect the confidentiality of your data:
- ☐ Pseudonyms will be used in place of actual names in any written analysis and reports of the results.
- ☐ Generic descriptors of the course you are teaching will be used.
- ☐ The professional transcription service that will be used for the interviews has a signed agreement with the researchers that requires them to maintain the confidentiality of the audio files.
- ☐ Only the researchers will have access to the observation field notes and documents provided to the researchers by the participants.
- ☐ The researchers will keep all study records locked in a secure location.
- ☐ Electronic recordings will be destroyed after 5 years.
- ☐ Confidentiality will be maintained in any publications and presentations. Information will be presented in summary format and you will not be identified in any publications or presentations.

You should also know that the University of Connecticut Institutional Review Board (IRB) and the Office of Research Compliance may inspect study records as part of its auditing program, but these reviews will only focus on the researchers and not on your responses or involvement. The IRB is a group of people who review research studies to protect the rights and welfare of research participants.

Can I stop being in the study and what are my rights?

You do not have to be in this study if you do not want to. If you agree to be in the study, but later change your mind, you may drop out at any time. There are no penalties or consequences of any kind if you decide that you do not want to participate. During the interview, you do not have to answer any questions that you do not want to answer.

Whom do I contact if I have questions about the study?

Take as long as you like before you make a decision. We will be happy to answer any question you have about this study. If you have further questions about this study or if you have a research-related problem, you may contact the principal investigator, Dr. Robin Grenier by phone at (860) 486-9201 or by email at Robin.Grenier@UConn.edu or the student researcher, Jeannie Slayton by phone at (860) 742-9328 or by email at Jeannie.Slayton@UConn.edu. If you have any questions concerning your rights as a research participant, you may contact the University of Connecticut Institutional Review Board (IRB) at 860-486-8802.

Documentation of Consent:

I have read this form and decided that I will participate in the project described above. Its general purposes, the particulars of involvement and possible risks and inconveniences have been explained to my satisfaction. I understand that I can withdraw at any time. My signature also indicates that I have received a copy of this consent form.

_____   _____   _____

Participant Signature: Print Name: Date:

_____   _____   _____

Signature of Person   Print Name: Date:
Obtaining Consent

Reflecting upon my own experiences, especially as they relate to teaching, is an important step towards ensuring trustworthiness as I proceed with my research. My past teaching experiences have played a major role in my decision to focus on the concept of self-regulation in the context of an adult intensive English program. It is through the lens of these past experiences that I will be collecting and analyzing data.

Although I did not pursue the field of education in my undergraduate educational experience, I secured a teaching job in a private school after graduation. As the only language teacher in a school specializing in science and mathematics, I was given the freedom to develop and implement new curriculum. In the beginning, my teaching was influenced by my past experiences as a student, but as my first year progressed, my interactions with students and parents increasingly influenced my teaching practices. I began to feel very strongly that students should be more involved in the learning process. The materials, assignments, and projects in my classes began to reflect a more student-centered approach. However, a continual source of frustration for me was the seemingly over-involvement of the parents in the learning process. Because the private school setting viewed parents as consumers, teachers at the school were under constant pressure to keep the parents happy.

At the end of my third year of teaching, I decided that I would prefer to work with adults. To that end, I began to pursue a Master's degree in Teaching English as a Second Language (TESOL). Not long after I received my degree in TESOL, I was offered a teaching position at the University of Connecticut American Language Institute (UCAELI). Having worked at my first teaching job for 5 years and having taken courses

in linguistics and second language acquisition, I felt ready to transition into a job where I could work with adults interested in improving their language proficiency.

During my first year at UCAELI, I was part of a team which included two other full time instructors, and approximately four part time instructors. I quickly realized that my prior experience and classroom learning were not enough to completely prepare me for the new teaching environment. One challenge in particular was becoming familiar with a new set of policies and procedures, which at that time, were not written down anywhere. Aside from teaching duties, all of the full time instructors were assigned special projects relating to a self-study UCAELI was conducting as part of the Commission on English Language Program accreditation process. I worked together with the other instructors, the Lead Instructor and the Director to create procedures for measuring student achievement and establishing a curriculum review. The outcome of everyone's efforts was the creation of a student handbook and an instructor handbook which detailed the procedures and policies in place at UCAELI.

Since my first year of teaching at UCAELI, many changes have taken place. My second year saw the elimination of the Lead Instructor position and my third year saw the creation of two Master Teacher positions, one of which I filled. Some of my responsibilities as a Master teacher included evaluating and placing students, communicating with the other instructors about class changes, student placement and student assessment guidelines, ordering learning materials, maintaining an up to date reference library and participating in annual reviews of UCAELI curriculum and policies.

As I became more familiar and comfortable with teaching adults English, I began to feel more and more like I needed additional guidance in order to continue developing my philosophy of teaching and learning. I decided to pursue my doctorate in Adult

Learning. My coursework in the Adult Learning Program not only helped me refine my understanding of the teaching and learning process, but it also fostered a new appreciation for and understanding of research. Adding the dimension of research meant that my own teaching practices were better informed, which I believe opened a new door for me at UCAELI. In January of 2010, I filled a new position of Academic Coordinator at UCAELI. As the Academic Coordinator, my main responsibilities involve curriculum development and student advising. For me, this represents an ideal opportunity to put into practice all that I have learned and will continue to learn throughout my career as a teacher and a student.

My experiences as a full time instructor, my responsibilities as a Master Teacher and my heavy involvement with the UCAELI accreditation process served to heighten my familiarity with all of the courses UCAELI offers, the UCAELI philosophy, mission statement and goals, and language learning and teaching resources. While my administrative experiences at UCAELI have offered me additional insight into the many aspects of an intensive English language program, my experiences inside the classroom served to strengthen my interest in getting learners more involved in their own learning process. The freedom I have experienced at UCAELI in terms of curriculum development, the maturity of the students at UCAELI, and the coursework in the Adult Learning Program at UConn, allowed me to further refine my ideas about how and why students should be more active participants in their own learning. It is my hope that my research in self-regulation will serve to increase my own understanding of teaching and learning as well as offer some insight into a problem that exists in an area of academia that I have become passionate about.

Appendix K
Thank you note for screened participants that do not meet screening requirements

Dear (name),

I appreciate your willingness to participate in my study. I have determined that additional observations and an interview will not be necessary.

Thank you again for allowing me to observe your class. I would like to wish you the best for a successful semester at UCAELI.

Sincerely,

Jeannie Slayton

Appendix L

Criteria for Participation

Each participant must meet the following criteria to determine that he or she will provide data that will answer the research question:

1. Teach in an Intensive English Program.
2. Use at least one of the following items must be present during the initial class observation in order to be eligible to participate in the study Self-Regulation in the Intensive English Program Classroom:

- ☐ Some degree of student control over the pacing of class activities
- ☐ Some degree of student control over the types of activities in class
- ☐ Some degree of student control over the content of activities
- ☐ Learner involvement in assessment
- ☐ Learner involvement in the selection of course materials
- ☐ Evidence of peer collaboration
- ☐ Open-ended questions

University of Connecticut, Storrs Confidentiality Agreement   For involvement in a research study involving human subjects

RE: Protocol #H10-320: "Self-Regulation in the Intensive English Program Classroom".

Principal Investigator: Dr. Robin Grenier Student Investigator: Jeannie Slayton

As condition of my involvement in the above-noted research protocol as a transcriber, I agree to the following Confidentiality Agreement:

I acknowledge that as a transcriber for the above-noted protocol, I will receive, have knowledge of, and have access to Confidential Information that may be available to me from the University of Connecticut research investigators or research participants. I will not, at any time, directly or indirectly, disclose, reproduce, divulge, or transfer, in whole or in part, any Confidential Information. I also agree to hold confidential any operational or procedural information proprietary to the University of Connecticut.

I agree to protect the identity of individuals and organizations identified in documents, materials, and examples; and, to protect the intellectual property, and any apparent product development plans or information that is stated or apparent in any Confidential Information I may be privy to while transcribing the research material.

As used herein, "Confidential Information" means any information, including, but not limited to, company names, protocol details or design, research, materials, formulas, processes, financial data, and financial plans relating to the business or affairs of the University of Connecticut or research participants. The term "Confidential Information" shall not include information that is or later becomes

available to the general public through no fault of mine.

ACCEPTED AND AGREED:

_____ Signature

Robert J. Foley_____ Name (please print)

February 4, 2011 Date