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AN EXAMINATION OF THE FACTORS UNDERLYING THE MOTIVATION
AND LEARNING STRATEGIES OF GENERATION 1.5 KOREAN
AMERICAN STUDENTS

A Dissertation

Submitted to the School of Education

Duquesne University

In partial fulfillment of the requirements for
the degree of Doctor of Education

By

Rosa Cho Stoffa

December 2009

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Rosa Cho Stoffa

2009

DUQUESNE UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
Department of Instruction and Leadership

Dissertation

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
For the Degree of Doctor of Education (Ed.D.)

Instructional Leadership Excellence at Duquesne

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July 21, 2009

AN EXAMINATION OF THE FACTORS UNDERLYING THE MOTIVATION
AND LEARNING STRATEGIES OF GENERATION 1.5
KOREAN AMERICAN STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

AN EXAMINATION OF THE FACTORS UNDERLYING THE MOTIVATION AND LEARNING STRATEGIES OF GENERATION 1.5 KOREAN AMERICAN STUDENTS

By

Rosa Cho Stoffa

December 2009

Dissertation supervised by Joseph C. Kush, Ph. D.

Comprehensive research into student learning has established that the effective use of learning strategies will enable students to take responsibility for their own learning, enhance their motivation in the learning process, and improve their academic success (Sternberg & Grigorenko, 2001). However, little research has investigated the learning strategies used by immigrant students and how these strategies relate to academic excellence. While survey instruments currently exist for assessing these constructs in the general population, the construct validity of these scales has yet to be examined within immigrant populations.

The subjects who participated in this study were randomly selected from the Korean American generation 1.5 students who were member of the Korean community churches located in Pittsburgh and Philadelphia. Students' motivation and their use of language learning strategies were examined using two instruments: the Motivated

Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) and the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). Data were collected via 81 items from Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) and 50 items from the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). An exploratory factor analysis was conducted in order to determine the factor structures for the self-regulated learning strategy and for the motivation question items. This study expands the continuum of ESL research by focusing on unexplored ESL population, Generation 1.5 immigrant students in higher education.

DEDICATION

Stay with me, Lord, for You are my life, and without You, I am without meaning and hope.

Stay with me, Lord, for I seek You alone, Your Love, Your Grace, Your Will, Your Heart,

Your Spirit, because I love You and I ask for no other reward but to love You more and

more, with a strong and active love (Saint Padre Pio).

Thank You Lord for all You have done for me!

Dedicated to

My wonderful parents, Thomas Cho & Juliana Oh

My loving parents-in-law, John M. & Donna Stoffa

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

Currently, educators are encountering an increasingly diverse mix of ethnic students; therefore, curriculum development in K-12, and in higher educational settings, has dramatically changed within the United States. As the U.S. population expands to include diverse immigrant groups with multicultural perspectives, there is a growing population of immigrant adolescents entering American secondary schools (Garrett & Holcomb, 2005). The foreign born, aged 25 and over (67.2%), are less likely to have graduated from high school than natives the same age (87.5%) (United States Census Bureau, 2003).

Immigrant adolescents who grew up speaking languages other than English at home, and in their communities in the United States, are forced to learn the languages of both settings, the culture of both settings, and must also be able to successfully achieve academically. These immigrant adolescents, a population of Southeast Asian refugee youth, have been identified by Rumbaut & Ima (1998) as generation 1.5. The term 1.5 generation immigrants is differentiated from both parents' generation (first) and their offspring's generation (second)-born in the second country. Generation 1.5 immigrant students were brought to the United States when they were in their adolescent years. These students were foreign-born immigrants and they were partially foreign-educated, as well as partially U.S.-educated (Roberge, 2005). Additionally, generation 1.5 immigrant students typically have graduated from American high schools and are

somewhat familiar with American academic systems (Harklau et al., 1999; Roberge, 2005).

Although they have often been eager to pursue academic success during their first semester in college, many have decided to drop classes, or they have decided to withdraw from college (Goldschmidt & Miller, 2005). Because of their immigration status these students possess several distinctive characteristics, which distinguish them from other traditional immigrant populations. With the intent of increasing retention rates for these students, state governments, colleges and universities have been asked to develop policies and practices in order to promote student success for this population of students (Perna & Thomas, 2006).

In addition to a significant facet in immigrant student populations, many college programs have appeared to be unresponsive to the academic needs of immigrant students (Szelényi & Chang, 2002). That is, no comprehensive studies about immigrant students' needs and their perceptions of the academic environment in higher education have yet to be conducted (Gary, Rolph & Melamid, 1996). A comprehensive study that will examine the academic needs of immigrant students must be considered in order to extend a better understanding of the current educational issues regarding immigrant education.

In recognition of diverse ESL learners within immigrant student populations, generation 1.5 students are normally classified as long-term U. S. residents, and are often described as “oral” learners, unlike international ESL students (Roberge, 2005).

International students may lack opportunities to develop their oral English language skills, because the instruction that they receive in language acquisition is primarily focused on the grammatical and mechanical skills needed to compose texts which will

adhere to edited Standard English. Thus, they seem to achieve written communication before oral communication.

It is clear that the longer generation 1.5 students stay in the United States, the more they become familiar and comfortable with American culture and the English language. That is, generation 1.5 immigrant students possess good communication skills, and are likely to be fluent in spoken English. Although these students have resided in the United States for many years, they typically still need to acquire academic literacy skills in order to succeed in college academic coursework.

Korean immigrants are one of the fastest growing immigrant groups in the U.S. According to the U.S. Census data collected in 2000, the Korean American immigrant population was approximately 1.56 million (United States Census Bureau, 2009). The current study examined characteristics of the cultural and the historical backgrounds of Korean, generation 1.5 immigrant college students, and the influence of these characteristics on their perspectives of ESL learning styles and motivations.

Quantitative data were collected from The Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) and The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) to determine the influence of these characteristics on their perspectives of learning styles and motivations. In addition to two survey instruments, the demographic questionnaire was utilized in order to obtain participants' background information (i.e., gender, age, ethnicity, first (native) language, length of residence in the US, citizenship, academic preparation, and ESL levels) relevant to their involvement for this study.

Background Information

Unfortunately, generation 1.5 students are increasingly being sent to school without adequate instruction in English as a Second Language (ESL) education (Harklau, Losey & Siegal, 1999). Many teachers have struggled with seeking the best ESL instruction for immigrant students; it remains a crucial educational issue in the United States. Clearly, it is evident that the United States educational system should be committed to meeting the needs of the increasingly diverse multiethnic, multilingual classroom. If research is conducted to gain a better understanding of the issues (i.e., motivation, learning styles, etc.) for this particular population of students, then educators will be better prepared to recognize, and meet the educational needs of these students from diverse cultural and ethnic backgrounds.

Other ESL learners have been classified as international students who have diverse cultural, linguistic and educational backgrounds in higher education. College educators need to recognize distinct differences in the learning backgrounds and the learning processes between generation 1.5 immigrant students and international students in order to develop effective instructional strategies as well as to serve their specific academic needs. Additionally, these groups of students have learned their English differently, so it is logical that their language problems would have different sources and different solutions (Reid, 1997). That is, gaining a clearer understanding of the cultural/social dimension of the difficulties that these students confront as they attempt to read and write academic texts, would greatly enhance students' ESL learning development.

If educators seek to understand what factors influence generation 1.5 students' academic excellence, it is essential to identify how they make sense of their learning situations in their ESL learning process through the application of learning strategies. In order to establish instructional strategies more effectively, educators need to develop a better understanding of how generation 1.5 college students process ESL learning strategies and sustain motivation in academic success.

Students who are capable of self-regulating their learning are more effective learners. These students are described as self-regulated learners who can control their own learning by applying cognitive strategies in their own learning process (Zimmerman, 1994). Within the framework of self-regulated learning, cognitive learning strategies play a major role by providing methods for students to gain higher academic achievement (Pintrich, 2000). It is evident that the use of learning strategies assists students to comprehend information efficiently for their academic achievement (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). Research on cognitive strategies has demonstrated a significant correlation between cognitive learning strategies and academic performance (Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990). Indeed, educators need to find out how the use of cognitive strategies contributes to successful academic adaptation. In particular, it is crucial that not only do students need to know how, when, and what learning strategies to apply, but they also need to be motivated to use these strategies.

Based on these perceptions, a high degree of motivation is obviously essential considering the nature of the learning task. For example, immigrant students who are highly motivated, will do well in the context of the academic setting, because they are hard working and they are high achievers. In contrast, other students possess a slow and

long learning process due to limitations such as a lack of motivation, a lack of learning strategies input, and a lack of learning situations to practice their ESL instruction, which are critical to academic performance.

Students' beliefs concerning their reasons for engaging their learning tasks are related to their achievement goals (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). There are learners' beliefs about their academic performance, and how they decide to make attributions for their academic achievement (Weiner, 2000). Additionally, students with low self-concept had a higher self-esteem if they attributed their academic success to effort rather than to their ability to learn (Skaalvik, 1994). Based on these findings, it appears that students who demonstrated a high degree of effort could understand this characteristic as an essential part of their academic success.

Self-Regulated Learning and Motivation

There is evidence that high achievers tend to use self-regulated learning strategies with greater frequency than lower achieving students (Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990; VanderStoep, Pintrich, & Fagerlin 1996). Specifically, higher levels of cognitive strategy use and self-regulation were closely tied to higher levels of academic achievement. That is, the use of cognitive strategies and self-regulated learning were predictors of actual academic performance. Consequently, students who have both the "will" and the "skill" can be successful in their academic achievement (Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990).

Motivation

There have been a number of empirical studies that have investigated how students have approached their learning processes, which included their self-efficacy, motivation, and their application of learning strategies toward academic achievement

(Marsh & Yeung, 1998; Stipek, 1998; VanderStoep, Pintrich & Fagerlin, 1996). In particular, these findings concluded that students' motivation was related positively to their academic achievement. Regarding students' motivation, there is the relationship between positive motivation and the use of learning strategies (Pintrich & Schrauben, 1992). The basic assumption underlying the use of effective learning strategies is that students who are able to maintain their motivation will also improve their academic achievement.

As a result, investigating how students' motivation relates to their learning strategy application can develop a better understanding of the learning processes of college students with diverse learning backgrounds in higher education. Much of the research that has examined student motivation and the use of learning strategies have demonstrated that positive student motivation has been responsible for the use of effective learning strategies that have proven to increase academic achievement (Pintrich & Schrauben, 1992).

Motivation and Language Learning Strategies

In the field of ESL research, motivation has consistently been shown to produce a significant impact on learning outcomes (Dörnyei, 1990; Ely, 1986; He, 2004; Okada, Oxford & Abo, 1996; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Regarding motivation research, the view of motivation to self-regulated learning from Gardner and his associates' (1997) viewpoint was first highlighted. Researchers concluded that motivated learners play a significant role in self-regulated learning, because they seem to outperform their peers as well as tend to avoid failures (He, 2004). Learners need to apply distinctive cognitive and metacognitive strategies to accomplish their learning task.

Therefore, clarifying academic self-efficacy plays a significant factor in self-regulated learning in English as a second (ESL) or foreign language (EFL) contexts.

The importance of well-grounded language learning strategies has also been shown to be crucial for ESL students. Regarding language learning strategies, these strategies include specific behaviors, step or techniques that learners need to use in order to develop their progress in comprehending the second language (Oxford, 1990). In particular, second language acquisition is related to language learning strategies. Additionally, successful language learners are able to combine specific types of language learning strategies for their own learning needs (Oxford, 1990). However, additional research on language learning strategies with learners' self-regulated learning is necessary within ESL education.

Regarding language learning strategies, the use of strategies will enhance language proficiency (MacIntyre, 1994). Particularly, the difference between successful and less successful learners was the learners' capability of applying strategies in their own learning situations (Vann & Abraham, 1990). Clearly, students with different levels of language proficiency make different use of certain learning strategies to become successful language learners (Rost & Ross, 1991). Similarly, in examining college students' language learning strategies, research revealed that students with higher proficiency used language learning strategies more often than those with lower proficiency in their language learning situations (Sheorey, 1999). Furthermore, evidence indicated a close relationship between language strategies and their language proficiency levels among university students (Wharton, 2000).

Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ)

The role of motivation in students' learning is a significant discussion topic for education research. Current research has identified three components of motivation including intrinsic goal motivation, extrinsic goal orientation, and task value (Weber, Martin & Cayanus, 2005). These domains have been used to create the three subscales of The Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ). The MSLQ is a self-report instrument developed by the late Pintrich and his colleagues (McKeachie, Pintrich, & Lin, 1985; Pintrich, 1989; Pintrich, McKeachie & Lin, 1987). Empirical support for three subscales has been shown by Weber, Martin & Cayanus (2005) and the MSLQ has also been found to produce a positive correlation with academic performance (Weber, Martin & Cayanus, 2005).

The 3 subscales of the MSLQ have also been found to account for differences in self-regulated learning and motivation of diverse college students and their academic achievement (Carroll & Garavalia, 2002). Additionally, the MSLQ has been used to identify students' motivational orientation as well as their use of self-regulated learning strategies within professional programs (Garavalia, Scheuer & Carroll, 2002). Specifically, students' scores for intrinsic motivation correlated significantly with their motivation and learning strategies as well as with their achieving strategies (Donald, 1999).

In addition to motivation in instructional settings, college students with high intrinsic goal motivation and low extrinsic goal motivation preferred self-regulated instructors. That is, these students preferred instructors who asked high demands on their learning, developed critical thinking and material integration. Specifically, these

teaching approaches required students' self-regulated learning and effort investment (Hativa & Birenbaum, 2000). It is clear that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation have been extensively identified by many researchers with using MSLQ.

Self-Regulated Learning Strategies

Additional research must be undertaken on how self-regulated learning relates to ethnicity with regards to the importance of the role of motivation. This research can guide educators to help students to develop their self-regulated learning (Schunk, 2005). In a preliminary study examining the use of self-regulated learning strategies, the MSLQ was used with 222 Australian high school students, and 168 Malaysian high school students to define conceptions of learning, motivational orientations and their use of learning strategies (Pillay, Purdie, & Boulton-Lewis, 2000). Four of the learning strategy subscales, critical thinking, metacognitive self-regulation, peer learning, and help-seeking, examined the relationships between conceptions and strategies for both Australian and Malaysian students. This study concluded that students who possessed effective learning strategies also had a strong sense of learning, as well as a responsibility to obtain and to comprehend information. Consequently, this study illustrated the significance of self-regulated learning per different ethnic students to identify how students used successful learning strategies.

When examining self-regulated learning, there is a relationship between academic achievement and the use of cognitive strategies including rehearsal, organization, and elaboration (VanderStoep, Pintrich, & Fagerlin, 1996). In terms of the cognitive strategies, students use rehearsal, elaboration, and organization strategies from The Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) (Schunk, 2005). In terms of

cognitive strategies, high-achieving students use these strategies for their learning and these cognitive strategies help them encode, recall, and comprehend information (VanderStoep, Pintrich, & Fagerlin, 1996).

Additional research on the use of MSLQ has been conducted in higher education settings (VanderStoep, Pintrich, & Fagerlin, 1996). A total of 380 undergraduate students from three different colleges participated in the study. Students were enrolled in different introductory courses from each school including social science (psychology, sociology), humanities (English composition, literature), and natural science (introductory biology, general ecology). Specifically, The Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) was used to assess students' motivational beliefs and self-regulated learning. Students who did well academically also have had adaptive motivational beliefs as well as increased use of their cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Specifically, four of six cognitive strategy variables (pretest and post-test elaboration, rehearsal, and organization) showed significant correlations with natural and social science courses, with high achievers using more of these strategies in comparison to low achievers (VanderStoep, Pintrich, & Fagerlin 1996).

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

In addition to language learning strategies in learning situations, the use of appropriate learning strategies enabled students to take responsibility for their own learning (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989). Regarding language learning strategies, recent theories have examined how choices of learning strategies related to language learning development. In particular, in introducing the use of Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), SILL was created by Oxford (1990) and it included several learning

strategies including cognitive strategies (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989). There is evidence that the SILL has been utilized for language learners in higher education, including government agencies around the world (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989). Given the prevalent use of the SILL, the scale has also been examined in second language acquisition regarding language strategy use (Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997).

Language Proficiency and Self-Regulated Learning Strategy

Regarding learning strategies, it is clear that students can take responsibility for their own learning by enhancing learner autonomy, independence, and self-direction when they use proper learning strategies (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989). Presumably, language learners can develop their own understandings or examples of ESL or EFL settings when they reach language proficiency.

Relatedly, research has shown how language proficiency level relates to the use of language learning strategies that were used by Japanese university students. These findings produced five factors from the SILL: Factor 1, Metacognitive-affective strategy; Factor 2, Memory-compensation strategy; Factor 3, Social strategy; Factor 4, Cognitive strategy; and Factor 5, entrance-exam-measured strategy (Kato, 2005). Although Factor 5, entrance-exam-measured strategy, was not the same as the components of the factors from SILL, it could be considered as a characteristic factor among generation 1.5 adolescents for their SAT, or any type of English tests. In order to develop their English proficiency more quickly, more easily, and more effectively, college instructors encouraged their students to use language learning strategies as much as they possibly could (Kato, 2005). Additionally, students' improved proficiency on these tests, and their greater self-confidence in academic settings, were derived from the appropriate use of

language strategies (Oxford, 1990). Above all, the use of language learning strategies and self-regulated learning were linked, because the language learning strategies grasps aspects of self-regulated learning strategies.

It is clear that the use of cognitive learning strategies, including affective strategies as measured within the SILL, can be beneficial for ESL students in an academic context (Chamot, 2004). These strategies overlay in the self-regulated learning strategy from MSLQ. It is crucial that the self-regulated learning strategies, language learning strategies, and motivation be recognized as significant factors and contributors of academic success in higher education; furthermore; it is also critical to acknowledge that these factors be identified as important variables that are worthy of study.

Research Examining the MSLQ

History and Development of the Scale

The origin of The Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) began in 1986 at the National Center for Research on Improving Postsecondary Teaching and Learning (NCRIPAL) at the University of Michigan. The MSLQ was used to evaluate the effectiveness of the Learning to Learn course at the University of Michigan. Over 1000 University of Michigan undergraduate courses have used this instrument. The previous MSLQ was administered at a 4-year public university, a small liberal art college and a community college in the Midwest. This previous version of the MSLQ went through the usual statistical and psychometric analyses, including internal reliability coefficient computation, factor analyses, and correlations with academic performances measures (Garcia & Pintrich, 1995).

The final version of the MSLQ is a self-report instrument designed to measure students' motivational orientations and the use of learning strategies for college students. The MSLQ is composed of two main categories: questions that examine motivation and learning strategies. The motivation category includes 31 items that assess students' goals and value beliefs for a course, their beliefs about their skills to succeed, and their anxiety about the tests. The learning strategy category includes 50 items: 31 items concerning the use of metacognitive and cognitive strategies; and 19 items concerning management of different learning resources. There are 81 total items on the MSLQ that are scored a 7 point Likert scale, from 1 (not at all true of me) to 7 (very true of me).

Psychometric Characteristics in General Population

The MSLQ has been used to measure college students' academic motivation and their learning strategies (Freeman, Anderman, & Jensen, 2007; Lynch, 2007). In particular, the MSLQ has been used to assess students' learning strategies in the field of educational psychology (Tseng, Dörnyei, & Schmitt, 2006). Although the MSLQ has been used for young adolescent populations, it is not recommended for students below third grade because of developmental considerations. Accordingly, mainly white, middle class or working class samples have been used in the research, and minority students (about 5%) have not been used due to low sample size as well as issues about the reliability of the findings (Karabenick, Pintrich, & Wolters, 2003). There is a clear need to examine cross-cultural research and research with ethnically diverse populations (Karabenick et al., 2003; Schunk, 2005).

Research Characteristics with Special Populations

The MSLQ was used to estimate a possible difference in motivation between college students with learning disabilities and students without learning disabilities (Ruban, McCoach, McGuire, & Reis, 2003; Trainin & Swanson, 2005). To understand academic achievement motivation and self-regulation for special student populations, the MSLQ was used to identify underprepared college students' motivation and the use of self-regulated learning strategies (Langley, Wambach, Brothen, & Madyun, 2004). Researchers around the world have investigated the determinants of self-regulated learning to understand why some students use strategies and others do not (Yen, Bakar, Roslan, Suluan, & Zabariah, 2005). The MSLQ has been used to address the nature of motivation and use of learning strategies for diverse target populations including African American undergraduates, female undergraduate engineering majors, nursing students, and gifted high school students (Duncan & McKeachie, 2005). Although a large number of studies have been examined on motivation and learning strategies regarding the academic success of college students, few studies pertain to immigrant college students. In addition to a growing number of researches, self-regulated learning has had positive effects on students' academic excellence; it is essential to identify generation 1.5 college students' self-regulation.

In an experimental study, the MSLQ has been used with students in middle/ junior high schools (Karabenick et al., 2003). That is, the MSLQ has been used widely. Both the college version and the junior high school version have been used with different language-using populations to identify the nature of motivation and the use of learning strategies across content areas (Duncan & McKeachie, 2005).

In particular, examining the role of self-regulation has been linked to the research of academic success. Although there have been an ample number of research studies that have been conducted on motivation and self-regulated learning for college students, little research has studied the learning strategies used by immigrant students and how these strategies relate to academic success. The results of future research should highlight the relationship that exists between generation 1.5 college students' self-regulated learning processes and their self-efficacy about their academic excellence.

Researchers have indicated that the MSLQ does not have norms associated with students' responses to a specific subject area (e.g., reading-English, mathematics, science, social studies, etc.) or to a classroom context (Karabenick et al., 2003). Feasibly, this could lead researchers to use the MSLQ to investigate general strategy use in school, or overlook subject matter, domain, or classroom level specificity (Duncan & McKeachie, 2005). Although the MSLQ can provide learning strategy and motivation in academic courses for generation 1.5 students, it is difficult to measure their ESL learning strategy.

Factor Analytic Findings

In terms of factor analyses, both exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses with different college samples ($n > 2,000$) have been performed on the MSLQ. Theoretically, the MSLQ is thought to consist of four strategies for the regulation of academic cognition including rehearsal, elaboration, organization and metacognitive self-regulation (Karabenick et al., 2003). However, previously conducted factor analytic studies, using United States college students, have generated results that reflect varying numbers of factors. Clearly, additional research examining the MSLQ scales with

immigrant populations must be conducted before educators can be confident that the same constructs can be assessed across ethnic groups.

Significance of Study

Despite the growing numbers of immigrant students who have enrolled in college, few studies have examined the effectiveness of the learning strategies that they have adopted in their efforts to improve academic success. To date, most research related to immigrant children has focused upon English language acquisition in K-12 ESL education (Harklau et al., 1999).

Most immigrant students who have faced difficulties with academic ESL literacy, as well as with issues related to their racial/ethnic identity, find it difficult to envision their future (Harklau et al., 1999). Foreign-born immigrants, such as generation 1.5 students, are likely to drop college classes due to lack of proficiency in the use of academic English skills that they must draw upon to succeed in courses (Goldschmidt & Miller, 2005). Regarding the educational issue of generation 1.5 students in higher education, it is critical that college educators are trained to support generation 1.5 students. As spoken by a recent freshman generation 1.5 student, “when I came to the country, I always thought that this country was ‘the land of opportunity’ or ‘the promised land’. In order for me to be free, I have to cross over the gate, which I have not yet crossed over” (Goldschmidt & Miller, 2005, p. 10). Researchers described the “gate” as any barrier or obstacle that hinders these students in pursuing their academic goals in higher education. Gaining a better understanding of the academic issues that have caused barriers or obstacles that have hindered the academic success of generation 1.5 students will bring crucial educational perspectives to higher education.

Five outcomes of implications for educators are highlighted:

- Educators must recognize that immigrant students have extraordinarily complex lives. Teachers need to encourage students to acknowledge and appreciate their complexity so that these students can better handle the complexity within higher education.
- Educators must recognize that immigrant students often lack control of some academic skills. With encouragement and reinforcement, students will be more adept at gaining control of these skills and feel more in control of using them. Control of their sense of self can greatly impact their control of academic skills.
- Educators must have confidence in immigrant students' abilities as valued members of the classroom. Students respond favorably to teachers who have confidence in them, and they also are more likely to want to succeed in their quest for higher education.
- Educators must recognize that immigrant students want to be participating members of the academic community, but they can only participate when they feel competent to do so.
- Educators must acknowledge that immigrant students have much to contribute to both the classroom and the campus and that the entire campus community can benefit from their knowledge and experience (Goldschmidt & Miller, 2005).

It is imperative that teachers identify the types of learning processes employed by 1.5 generation college students, because the more that teachers understand the nature of their background, and the more that teachers understand the particular learning styles that they rely upon to produce academic work, the better teachers will be able to prepare

effective instruction. Thus educators, including ESL teachers, should consider this case and develop a variety of instructional strategies that help these 1.5 generation college students succeed in their academic pursuits. Given these significant implications for college educators, there is a need to examine differences in these students' motivation and their self-regulated learning as well as the manner in which they relate to their academic success.

This study provided various factors of self-regulated learning strategies and motivation for generation 1.5 Korean American immigrant students in their academic years. Providing factor analytic studies of generation 1.5 immigrant students are crucial since college educators confront student populations with diverse learning backgrounds in the classroom.

Above all, this study provided academic institutions, educators, researchers and students with practicable information about the factors that influence successful adaptation of effective learning strategies during their academic years. Fundamentally, college educators predict the academic success of generation 1.5 students; they can bring forth appropriate instruction methods.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore Korean American generation 1.5 students' factors of academic adaptation in their college years. The reason for selecting Korean American immigrant students is that they represent one of the largest and fastest growing ethnic immigrant populations in the United States (United States Census Bureau, 2003). Given this primary reason for selecting Korean American generation 1.5 students, Korean immigrants came to America more for educational purposes than any other ethnic

immigrants (Hong, 2006). That is, recent Korean immigrants tend to focus on recognition of academic success based on the value of education.

Exploratory factor analyses were conducted using The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) and The Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ). The use of exploratory procedures allowed for a stringent examination of factor loadings from SILL and MSLQ. The vast majority of items SILL and MSLQ are related to the self-regulated learning. Particular SILL items are intended to assess language learning strategy use; whereas, MSLQ items are intended to measure general trends of learning strategy. Mainly, this study expands the continuum of ESL research by focusing on generation 1.5 immigrant students in higher education.

Hypotheses

1. There will be a positive, significant relationship between self-regulated learning strategy and motivation.
2. There will be a positive, significant relationship between the MSLQ learning strategies and the SILL learning strategies.
3. There will be a positive, significant relationship between the MSLQ total scores and the SILL total scores.

Definitions of Terms

ESL: English as a Second Language. People typically use English as main vehicle of everyday communication (Oxford & Shearin, 1994).

Generation 1.5: Immigrant students whose diverse educational backgrounds display features of both first and second generation immigrants' experience. Rumbaut and Ima (1998) were the first used the term “Generation 1.5” to describe the

population of Southeast Asian refugee youth in their study (Rumbaut & Ima, 1998).

Motivation: “In relation to the education, motivation refers to a student’s willingness, need, desire and compulsion to participate in, and be successful in, the learning process; it seeks to increase the factors that move a student toward becoming more involved in the class and the subject matter” (Bomia et al., 1997).

Parachute Kids: Unlike other immigrant adolescents who live with their parents, most parachute kids live apart from their parents in the United States (Zhou, 1998).

Self-Regulation: Several words such as self-control, self-directed behavior, copying behavior, and self-management are synonymous with self-regulation (Dörnyei, 2005).

Self-Regulated Learning: Self-regulated learning involves actively constructing strategies and goals, regulating and monitoring certain aspects of cognition, behavior, and motivation, modifying behavior to achieve a desired goal, and an interaction between performance, contextual factors, and personal characteristics (Pintrich, 2000).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Who are generation 1.5 Students?

Although learning English as a Second Language (ESL) appears to be a natural process for non-native English speakers to succeed in higher education, immigrant students are not likely to have sufficient opportunities to enhance their academic English proficiency for academic success. A growing number of immigrant students are multiethnic, multilingual and grew up speaking their first language, other than English, either in their native country, or in their home communities located within the United States (Harklau, 2003). As a result, many U.S. resident ESL learners are entering college and are subsequently referred to as generation 1.5 immigrant students whose diverse educational backgrounds display features of both first and second generation immigrants' language experience.

The term, - generation 1.5 was first identified by Rumbaut & Ima to describe a population of Southeast Asian refugee youth who participated in their research (Rumbaut & Ima, 1998). Subsequently, the intent of the term “generation 1.5” has been to enhance awareness and to relieve confusion about second language acquisition for this specific group of learners. Additionally, the term is beneficial in ESL education to differentiate international students from immigrant students who came to the United States after they had graduated from high school. The term has been used to identify first generation immigrants and second generation immigrants and childhood immigrants who arrived in the United States (Roberge, 2005). Because of their unique status, generation 1.5 students can probably be best defined as a generation of immigrant youth who arrived to

the United States after their first generation parents but before their second generation of offspring. This distinction is crucial because generation 1.5 students are very different in terms of language learning processes from traditional categories of ESL learners who are non-native English speakers.

The phenomenon of growing numbers of generation 1.5 language learners can be recognized from a global perspective of diversity in education, as learning and teaching become more important as educational issues. That is, whether a college is located in a country where English is not the native language, or in English speaking countries such as Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and United Kingdom, college educators will encounter a diverse mix of ethnic students in their classrooms. Given that Kachru (1996) has estimated that there are four non-native users of English for every native speaker in the world today, generation 1.5 students constitute part of this global majority.

In particular, generation 1.5 students are children of adult immigrants; therefore, many of these students are familiar with the U.S. culture, and the school systems in their new country. Many of these students have graduated from high schools and are entering colleges (Singhal, 2004). Because of their familiarity with the culture and the schooling experiences, these students will have developed distinct learning processes and will be able to depend upon the educational support offered from other ESL students. Many college instructors often tend to presume that any student who has been identified as an ESL student should be placed in an ESL class; however, they need to gain a clearer understanding of the educational conditions that have been examined in an effort to better identify those students referred to by the term “generation 1.5” due to the increasing presence of these students in college. The more precisely educators identify the features

that are common among those students who have been referred to as Generation 1.5 students, the more clearly they can establish effective instructional strategies in their classroom.

General Characteristics of generation 1.5 Students

Generation 1.5 students commonly have difficulties with identity issues during adolescence. When they were brought into the United States at a very young age by their parents, they experienced several distinctive phenomena, being both bilingual and bicultural. However, the acquisition of English skills is often an additional major concern for these students.

The established literature on generation 1.5 students has consistently identified four areas in which additional research should be conducted: (1) problems and difficulties in ESL learning during the adjustment stages; (2) personality and identity factors on ESL learning, (3) effective ESL instructional practices, and (4) the level of English proficiency that a student must possess in order to demonstrate successful academic achievement. In particular, the bicultural acculturation adjustment process of generation 1.5 immigrant students has been identified. Immigrant parents have sent their children to American schools, and these children have had difficulty adjusting both academically and socially (Roberge, 2005). It is imperative that generation 1.5 immigrant students' acculturation and identity formation processes are discussed in ESL teacher education programs, and that the progress of generation 1.5 students is monitored closely throughout their higher educational experiences.

When families immigrate from their home culture to the U.S., they usually face problems adapting to the new culture. Research has identified four stages in the normal

acculturation process. In the first stage, immigrant families have feelings of excitement and happiness associated with being in a new place. In the second stage, they experience culture shock. During the third stage they are likely to suffer from emotional problems related to the adaptation of the cultural rituals and practices of the target culture, as they sense a loss from the alienation they will experience from being dislocated from their native culture. Finally, in the fourth stage, they will experience a feeling of full recovery. That is they will effectively assimilate into the target culture and complete the cultural transitions necessary for them to complete the acculturation process that will lead to their acceptance of the new culture as they gradually gain self-confidence (Brown, 2000).

In the first stage, generation 1.5 immigrant students will perceive the U.S. environment from within their own cultural viewpoint. They will not yet be able to recognize how the host culture is different from their home culture. At this point they will rarely expect problems in their education. Also, in this stage these students will still maintain their native cultural values and beliefs. At the second stage, they will be likely to begin missing their close friends and the taste of ethnic food that has been familiar to them. During the third stage, they will begin using strategies to cope with the problems that they have come across. Above all, there will be urgent problems such as their lack of English competency that will impede their communication with teachers and their peers in schools. Consequently, they will move to the fourth stage where they will develop more self-confidence in ESL learning.

In terms of language learning, motivation to participate in ESL instruction is related to the psychological factors that influence the composition of the students' personality. Many of generation 1.5 students are likely to suffer from the difficulties that

influence their acculturation and ESL learning. In other words, they still experience language confusion and are embarrassed by their misunderstandings and being misunderstood by teachers and peers in daily school life situations; however, if they are more extroverted, their positive viewpoint will lead them to solve problems more easily than those who are more introverted. Furthermore, although other immigrant students migrated to the United States during adolescence, their English skills seemed to be like that of a foreign student's compared to students who immigrated at a younger age (Singhal, 2004). These students may face more academic challenges, because limited English skills may bring about negative consequences for them to succeed in higher education. For instance, they are more likely to encounter academic difficulties, because a post-secondary education requires more advanced academic English skills. In addition, they are more likely to encounter more often the academic and social interactions in post-secondary settings (Harklau, Losey, & Siegal, 1999). The inability to communicate in English may result in lower motivation, as well in lower self-esteem, which may impact their ability to succeed in academic work.

Some immigrant students may possess oral fluency in English, but lack proficiency in reading and writing. As a result, their fluency in spoken English leads educators to overlook their learning processes as they relate to the acquisition of English literacy (Brittain, 2005). These students may sound like native speakers since they are able to explain ideas clearly through oral communication; however, they may not be familiar with the variety of texts that will be necessary for them to successfully employ the reading and writing skills needed to accomplish academic work. Additionally, generation 1.5 students are typically placed in mainstream classes without receiving

adequate academic support while still possessing language barriers that they will confront in various academic courses (Singhal, 2004).

Regarding immigrant students, research has shown that many Korean students favor cognitive strategies over social and affective strategies; they tend to avoid social interaction in classroom. These students depend upon visual stimuli as learners, much more than would be expected of most ESL learners (Park, 2002). For instance, when teachers provide charts, character web, semantic maps, graphs, computer graphics, and visual instructional materials, generation 1.5 immigrant students develop ESL literacy skills easily. Thus, the nature of the language acquisition process used by these students as they attempt to become proficient in the literacy skills necessary to read and write edited Standard English can be considered a cognitive process.

In terms of placement, research has further indicated that it is difficult to accurately place generation 1.5 students within appropriate, individualized freshman composition courses. Since most ESL writing courses are designed for ESL students, who typically are international students who are literate in their first language, but generation 1.5 students have had limited exposure to edited Standard English, or to the U.S. educational system overall. Consequently, there is evidence that neither the freshman English composition course that are required of most students, or the subsequent writing classes that are offered to these students as elective courses, are suitable for generation 1.5 students (Harklau, 2003).

Given this placement issue, there are additional pedagogical factors in English classes, or in regular content classes, that must be addressed. For instance, many instructors have had limited experience and teacher training in working with immigrant

students, which includes ESL learners. Many of these instructors are not aware of the specific student needs, or how to support them, in their efforts to enhance the academic English skills of generation 1.5 students.

Differences between generation 1.5 Students and International Students

Other ESL learners have been classified as international students who possess diverse cultural, linguistic and educational backgrounds. Many of these students have decided to attend colleges and universities in order to pursue at least a Bachelor's degree in the United States. These international students have learned English as a Foreign Language (EFL) but they are also proficient in their first language. Moreover, they have a good grasp of English grammar, therefore their reading and writing skills are substantial (Reid, 1997).

College educators need to recognize that there are distinct differences in the learning backgrounds and learning processes that exist between generation 1.5 immigrant students and international students that these students draw upon as they attempt to read and write academic texts; therefore, instructors must acknowledge these differences as they attempt to develop effective instructional strategies that will be designed to serve the specific academic needs of these students. Additionally, these groups of students have learned edited Standard English differently, so it is logical that their language problems will have different sources and different solutions (Reid, 1997).

Because of their immigration status, immigrant students have assimilated to U.S culture, because they have been in the U.S. longer than international students. It is expected that the longer immigrant students stay in the United States, the more they will become familiar and comfortable with the U.S. culture and English language acquisition.

The general characteristics of Generation 1.5 students have been summarized by Singhal (2004) as follow:

Some generation 1.5 students exhibit dialect features rather than ESL features because they may identify with a particular racial/ethnic group such as Latinos or African Americans. For the most part, they have learned English by listening, and not through extensive reading and writing. Many may also be living in home or community environments where English is not the dominant language. Their language may exhibit community dialect features and English learner features. (Singhal, 2004, p. 2)

Many generation 1.5 students need to use English to communicate and interact with people in almost every situation of their lives. They are “ear-based” learners who are exposed to the language through the pop culture as well as through their encounters with the slang they hear on the street, and the pop music they listen to (Reid, 1997).

Given this particular learning circumstance, these students are likely to learn American slang and the idioms associated with it by interacting with their peers who speak the same first language as them. Although these “ear-based” learners' status may enable them to be familiar with spoken English, they tend to make rules on what they have heard without correcting the language structures (Schwartz, 2004).

On the other hand, international students may lack opportunities to develop their spoken language, because their language learning is focused on the English grammar offered to them through their non-native English-speaking teachers' instruction. In addition, there is a distinctive cultural aspect of Japanese international students' learning style that college educators need to be aware of. When compared to other international

students, there is evidence that the Japanese educational system typically allows students to be quiet and attentive; reflective of passive behavior in the classroom. These students are reluctant to express their opinions, because they are afraid of making a mistake in front of their peers (Brickman & Nuzzo, 1999). In fact, it is a challenging task for college educators to identify each individual student with diverse learning backgrounds; however, the more that teachers are able to understand about the nature of the particular learning styles that influence the progress that students make towards success in their academic endeavors, the better teachers will be able to design effective instructional pedagogy (Stoffa, 2006).

To become successful, students will be required to set their goals based on their self-confidence or self-efficacy. That is, students' academic achievement will depend upon their ability to persevere in the face of academic challenges and to overcome the obstacles that can undermine their academic success, which means these students will have to have to be immersed in effective learning activities in order to accomplish the academic tasks expected of them. These essential learning skills are known as self-regulation strategies (Orange, 1999). In order to enhance the learning skills of generation 1.5 college students, it is crucial that educators identify the learning strategies that will lead these students to academic success, and that they understand how academic motivation can be achieved in an effort to develop effective self-regulated learning.

Factors of Academic Learning

Self-Regulated Learning

The cultural and linguistic difficulties encountered by generation 1.5 students may be better understood within a broader, self-regulated learning theory. Self-regulation has

been defined as the “self-generated thoughts, feelings, and actions that are planned and cyclically adapted to the attainment of personal goals” (Zimmerman, 2000, p. 14). In addition, the definition of self-regulation has been introduced as the “self-generated thoughts, feelings, and actions, that are planned and systematically adapted as needed to affect one’s learning and motivation” (Ertmer, 2000; Schunk, 1994; Zimmerman, 1989, 1990, 2000; Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 1996). Clearly, self-regulation is the self-directive process that has been adopted by students who have transformed their mental abilities into academic performance skills (Zimmerman, 2000), and self-regulated students have demonstrated that they are metacognitively, motivationally, and behaviorally active in their learning.

In terms of self-regulated learning, the structure of self-regulatory systems has been described in detail (Zimmerman, 2000). Self-regulatory processes include three cyclical phases: forethought, performance, or volitional control, and self-reflection. The forethought phase refers to processes and beliefs that precede efforts to learn. There are two distinctive categories of the forethought phase process: task analysis and self-motivational beliefs. The task analysis process includes goal setting and strategic planning. Self-motivational beliefs are described as the processes that students draw upon as they attempt to gain a better understanding of their beliefs about their own learning. Examples of these processes include self-efficacy, outcome expectations, intrinsic interest, and goal orientation. It is true that students who set specific proximal goals for themselves tend to pursue academic achievement.

In particular, Zimmerman described self-efficacy within the self-motivational belief process. That is, students who felt self-efficacious about their learning also

demonstrated a stronger willingness to sustain self-regulatory efficacy in order to achieve satisfactory academic outcomes.

Finally, the performance, or volitional control phase, refers to processes that students focus upon to optimize their efforts to achieve academic success. The performance, or volitional control phase, processes include two major classes: self-control and self-observation. Self-control processes include the use of imagery, self-instruction, attention focusing, and task strategies. Self-observation refers to self-recording and self-experimentation. Presumably, self-recording time is a determination of how much time students have spent studying. There are two main categories of the self-reflection phase processes: self-judgment and self-reaction. Self-judgment includes a process of self-evaluation and causal attribution. During this phase, students compare their performance with some standard, such as another person's performance, or one's prior performance. An additional form of self-judgment is characterized as causal attribution. This term refers to beliefs about the cause of a learner's errors or successes (Zimmerman, 2000). That is, one may think poor performance is due to one's limited ability or insufficient effort; therefore, one is discouraged to improve performance. These attributional judgments are pivotal to self-reflection, because attributions of errors to a fixed ability cause learners to discourage efforts as well as to respond negatively (Weiner, 1979).

Self-reaction refers to self-satisfaction and adaptive/defensive inferences. It is clear that self-satisfaction involves self-efficacy about learning goal orientations and enhances motivation. In this regard, these adaptive/ defensive inferences are highlighted:

Defensive reactions refer to efforts to protect one's self-image by withdrawing or avoiding opportunities to learn and perform, such as dropping a course or being absent for a test. In contrast, adaptive reactions refer to adjustments designed to increase the effectiveness of one's method of learning, such as discarding or modifying an ineffective learning strategy (Zimmerman, 2002, p. 68).

Apparently, students learn self-regulation through experience and self-reflection (Pintrich, 2000). It is true that self-reflection supports the use of self-regulation skills in one's process of learning.

Table 1

Phases Areas for Self-Regulated Learning (Pintrich, 2000, p. 454)

Areas for regulation				
Phases	Cognition	Motivation/affect	Behavior	Context
1. Forethought, planning, and activation	Target goal setting Prior content knowledge activation Metacognitive knowledge activation	Goal orientation adoption Efficacy judgments Ease of learning judgements (EOLs); Perceptions of task difficulty Task value activation Interest activation	[Time and effort - planning] [Planning for self-observation of behavior]	[Perception of task] [Perception of context]
2. Monitoring	Metacognitive awareness and monitoring of cognition (FOKs, JOLs)	Awareness and monitoring of motivation and affect	Awareness and monitoring of effort, time use, need for help Self-observation of behavior	Monitoring changing task and context conditions
3. Control	Selection and adaptation of cognitive strategies for learning, thinking	Selection and adaptation of strategies for managing motivation and affect	Increase/decrease effort Persist, give up Help-seeking behavior	Change or renegotiate Change or leave context
4. Reaction and reflection	Cognitive judgments Attributions	Affective reactions Attributions	Choice behavior	Evaluation of task Evaluation of context

A general framework for self-regulated learning was proposed in an attempt to classify and analyze the different processes that take place in self-regulated learning (Pintrich, 2000). Table 1 summarizes phase areas for self-regulated learning. In this model, four general phases of self-regulation represent regulation of cognition; the four phases are cognitive planning and activation, cognitive monitoring, cognitive control and

regulation, and cognitive reaction and reflection. Not all academic learning tasks explicitly involve these phases, because students' academic tasks may not require their plan or evaluation. That is, students may have a chance to learn their academic material automatically without self-regulation within their learning processes.

Cognitive planning and activation includes areas for regulation such as target goal setting, efficacy judgments, and time/effort planning. These procedures serve as a guide to initiate relevant aspects of prior knowledge that makes comprehending content knowledge easier. Cognitive monitoring includes areas for regulation including the awareness and monitoring of various aspects of cognition as well as monitoring of effort, time use, and need for help. Monitoring activities assist students in understanding the material and integrating it with their prior content knowledge. Cognitive control and regulation includes areas for regulation such as the selection and the adaptation of strategies for managing motivation and affect, which would include behaviors such as persisting or giving up on the need to seek help in support of their academic efforts. One of the central aspects of the control and regulation of cognition is the selection of appropriate cognitive strategies for learning and problem solving. These processes can provide students with a positive influence related to their learning and performance. Cognitive reaction and reflection includes areas for regulation such as cognitive judgments and evaluations of performance on the task as well as attributions for performance. Self-regulators seem to make adaptive attributions for their performance (Zimmerman, 1998). Adaptive attributions were not viewed as lacking general ability (e.g., I did poorly because I am stupid or dumb) but they were viewed as making attributions to low effort or poor strategy use (Pintrich, 2000).

Finally, Pintrich's model presents four components including cognitive, motivational/affective, behavior and contextual processes that promote self-regulated learning. One of the more noticeable features of this model indicates that students are able to change and modify the academic context within which they operate; as a result, this aspect can be viewed as a significant issue in self-regulated learning. In terms of self-regulated learning, college faculty must identify students who just complete their assignments without academic goal plans. The concept of self-regulated learning was described by Pintrich (1995) as follows:

Students are likely to engage in self-regulated learning if they are focused on just completing their work to "get it done" or to get the highest grade. This type of performance orientation is not conducive to self-regulated learning. They show that it is much more facilitative for self-regulated learning when students have a mastery orientation and focus on learning and understanding the material (Pintrich, 1995, p. 10).

It is clear that completing a task does not determine a self-regulated learner; rather, the ability to adopt self-regulatory learning strategies to a task is an important criterion to determine whether a student is a self-regulating learner. Although numerous theories and models have tried to identify self-regulated learning processes, Pintrich's (2000) model is one of the most significant examples to describe self-regulated learning.

In particular, self-regulated learning is appropriate for college students, since they can control their behaviors as well as their coursework schedules. Students can develop strategies that will assist them in how they will approach their learning and employ effective studying skills in order to improve their academic performance (Stoffa, 2007).

Clearly, self-regulated learning strategies could be taught in any type of academic context. It is evident that teachers can help learners become self-regulating learners (Pintrich, 1995). It is expected that self-regulating immigrant students may improve their opportunities to enhance their academic success when they can effectively regulate their own learning styles. Additionally, if college faculty can help immigrant students to become self-regulating learners, they will be encouraged to acknowledge the significance of self-efficacy in their learning processes.

A main component of self-regulated learning is metacognition. Metacognition is the awareness, knowledge, and control of cognition (Boekaerts, Pintrich, & Zeidner, 2000). All definitions of self-regulated learning include systematic use of behavioral, motivational, cognitive and metacognitive strategies; however, they also indicate how and why students choose to use a particular learning strategy (Bandura, 1986; Zimmerman, 1990).

Self-regulated learning has not been thoroughly mentioned in the context of ESL; however, it has been recently recognized as a crucial aspect in ESL learning research (McDonough, 2001). Self-regulated learning has been related to academic performance. Researchers have indicated that self-efficacy has been found as an influential factor in goal setting (Zimmerman, 2000). Self-efficacy reflects the confidence that a student expresses in their personal beliefs about learning or in their ability to perform effectively as the attempt to accomplish an academic task. For instance, self-efficacy refers to the belief that one achieves a grade of A and one's outcome leads one to have a desirable job after graduation. That is, students' perceived self-efficacy for their self-regulated learning will become a strong predictor of their self-efficacy for academic achievement;

as a consequence, it will also predict their final grades. When students observe successes and attribute their accomplishments to their ability, their self-efficacy will increase. It is evident that students who establish realistic goals for themselves are likely to have a sense of self-efficacy to succeed academically.

Clearly, high self-efficacy is not the only factor which influences academic success. Mostly, when students lack the requisite knowledge and skills to successfully produce academic work, high self- efficacy will not manifest itself in their learning processes. Self-efficacy is relative to self-regulation in regards to motivation (Schunk, 1994). In academic learning processes, learners' beliefs about their likelihood of success of learning, or their self-efficacy can be a crucial component of motivation.

Motivation

There have been numerous studies that have examined how motivation has affected the learning process as well as the outcome of learning (Rheinberg, Vollmeyer & Rollett, 2000). Motivation is often described to explain the success or failure on any complex task (Brown, 2000). It is clear that motivation within the circumstances related to self-regulated learning is an inevitable educational issue that must be examined in higher education. It is expected that motivation will be essential, considering the nature of the learning task.

The research that has investigated the influence of motivation on academic achievement, as well as the orientation of that motivation, has been identified. The importance of motivational styles has been recognized as an important factor in student achievement (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Recent research has differentiated between intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. The distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic

motivation has been effectively delineated and has been an important factor in the investigations that have been conducted into second language acquisition (SLA) research (Dörnyei, 2000). Intrinsic motivation includes a tendency to engage in activities for individual sake, and for one's satisfaction of curiosity rather than for some rewards (Covington & Muller, 2001). On the other hands, extrinsic motivation occurs when an activity is rewarded by incentives such as praise or grades (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Covington & Muller, 2001). In addition to research on motivation, the distinction between intrinsic/extrinsic motivation has been identified regardless of the differences that exist in cultural backgrounds and in the attitudes of the learners as well as of the teachers (Brown, 2000). Regarding motivation in academic achievement, the main question concerns how to motivate students to value and self-regulate learning tasks without external pressure (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

The dichotomy of motivation, the conceptual understanding of integrative motivation and instrumental motivation, has also been identified (Carreira, 2005). Instrumental motivation focuses on utilitarian purposes such as employment or travel. Integrative motivation focuses on the culture of the target language community (Ngeow, 1998). In addition, it is clear that students develop a target language successfully when they have a desire to become familiar with the culture as well as with a new community (Norris-Holt, 2001).

Gardner's (1985) model recognized that learner attitudes toward the target language and the culture of the target language community served as a primary factor in language learning motivation. That is, learners' desire to integrate with the people who spoke the target language and attitudes associated with them was a critical factor in their

motivation. This model stresses an important relationship between positive attitudes toward the learning situation, second language acquisition and linguistic outcomes. It is expected that attitudes toward the target language community are hypothesized to present a significant factor in ESL learning. In other words, learners' attitudes toward the learning environment attribute to the students' reaction to the immediate setting where the target language is used. Considering the ESL context, this immediate setting is more relevant to immigrant students, because they are likely to have more chances to develop ESL skills from their target language community, compared to international students who return to their home country after graduation. It is true that international students rarely have sufficient learning experiences with the target language community to develop ESL skills (Ferris, 1999).

College educators may confront some students who will be more eager to learn than others in the classroom. It will be meaningful to examine why some students are motivated and put in much effort in their coursework while some do not make such an effort. Many factors affect the learning processes associated with motivation, which is generally recognized as a key component of academic success.

However, acknowledging the distinction of motivation and how it relates to students' learning processes may not necessarily lead educators to fully comprehend how learners elaborate upon their motivation, and how college faculty can support their students efforts to become more motivated in the classroom. Various theoretical perspectives of motivation will provide different implications of ESL instruction, such as learners' self-efficacy and learning attitudes. Understanding the factors that will enhance motivation is crucial if educators hope to improve the efficacy of ESL instruction in

higher education. For example, it seems that college campus life arranges special demands on college students, because students will encounter many choices and regulations in their academic environments. It is to be expected that students will receive less feedback from faculty about their coursework, since feedback seems to be limited to a few course assignments, or to projects that students may have submitted during the semester. In particular, learning ESL within a formal educational context can be a long process due to the learners' language barriers, or due to the limitations that restrict the integration of adequate language practices into their every day learning situations. In considering motivation for ESL college students, motivation connects to a combination of factors, including a confluence of relationships, ideologies, institutions, and activities. The outcome may often be above the individual's control (Rodby, 1999). Therefore, if students want to be successful in their coursework, they need to be able to regulate and control their motivation as well as possess the requisite learning strategies in order to accomplish their coursework.

In particular, generation 1.5 college students may be confronted with difficulties in processing their academic tasks on account of their lack of motivation and their use of learning strategies. Researchers have indicated that students who have approached their courses with high levels of motivation and who have established effective goal orientations were more likely to have better academic performance (Garcia & Pintrich, 1994). It is essential that college educators understand how their students' goal orientations and motivation influence their academic success.

The issue of motivation within ESL education perspective is crucial. Regarding motivation within academic success, self-efficacy, attributions, intrinsic motivation and

achievement goals are main components of student motivation (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002).

The Measurement of Motivation in Learning

Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ)

The Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) is a self-report instrument developed by the late Pintrich and his colleagues (McKeachie, Pintrich, & Lin, 1985; Pintrich et al., 1987). This self-report instrument was designed to assess students' motivation and their use of different learning strategies. Different versions of the MSLQ have been used for different research purposes over the years; however, it continually covers motivation and self-regulated learning items. The instrument contains a total of 81 items based upon a 7-point scale.

The category of motivation includes four subcategories labeled intrinsic orientation (e.g., interest and challenge of course work), task value (importance and value of material to be learned), control beliefs (how much effort helps), and expectancy for success (self-efficacy) (Schunk, 2005). The MSLQ is composed of two main categories: motivation and learning strategy. The learning strategies section includes 50 items including 31 items concerning the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies and 19 items concerning time management, rehearsal, elaboration, and organization strategies. Within the motivation section, 31 items assess students' goals and beliefs for a course as well as their self-efficacy. In addition, there are three subscales that assess intrinsic goal orientation, extrinsic goal orientation, and task.

The MSLQ continues to be utilized extensively by educators examining motivation and learning strategy with students of different ages (Schnuk, 2005).

To measure students' motivation and their learning strategies, the MSLQ has been used (Freeman et al., 2007; Lynch, 2007). In addition, the MSLQ has been used to investigate the interactive and differential effects of professors' instructional methods and college students' conceptual levels on their achievement and motivation (Hancock, Bray, & Nason, 2002). Research using the MSLQ indicates that the learning processes of nontraditional-age students may differ in significant ways from those of traditional-age students (Justice & Dornan, 2001). In particular, the MSLQ has been used to assess students' learning strategies in the educational psychology field (Tseng et al., 2006).

Measuring Self-Regulated ESL Learning

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

The Strategy for Language Learning (SILL) is often utilized as an instrument for assessing language learning strategy. It was created by Oxford (1990). SILL was revised by Oxford based on previous research on ESL and foreign language learning. It is clear that SILL covers self-regulated learning strategies aspects from MSLQ regarding metacognition and motivation. Two versions of SILL have been identified: one version for English speakers learning a new language and one version for speakers of foreign languages who are attempting to learn English. The latter version was used for this study. This SILL has 50 items with 5 point self-report questionnaire in order to assess the strategy use of students' ESL learning. The former version of SILL has 80 items and it was designed for students learning English as a foreign language.

SILL includes six categories: 1) memory strategies (e.g. reviewing well.), 2) cognitive strategies (e.g. analyzing and reasoning.), 3) compensation strategies (e.g. overcoming limitations in seeking and writing.), 4) metacognitive strategies

(e.g. arranging and planning your learning.), 5) affective strategies (e.g. encouraging yourself.), 6) social strategies (e.g. cooperating with others; Oxford, 1990). It is expected that college immigrant students who possess effective self-directive goals will also develop effective learning strategies that will allow them to succeed in college.

As the number of immigrant students in the United States rapidly grows, educators are responsible for creating effective educational materials to enhance ESL education. Recently, a growing number of studies have investigated the characteristics that have influenced the adoption of effective learning processes by that population of students referred to as generation 1.5 college students (Vásquez, 2007). However, college faculties often do not understand generation 1.5 students' backgrounds, needs, abilities or strengths. In other words, they expect that generation 1.5 students should be prepared for college since they have graduated from U.S. high schools (Goldschmidt & Ousey, 2006). It is evident that many of the educational challenges that many educators face in higher education have derived from the growing number of immigrant students. Given previous information about generation 1.5 immigrant students, there is a need for research knowledge about ESL teaching and learning within ESL teacher education. It is crucial that college educators understand the learning difficulties that generation 1.5 students face as they attempt to produce the academic work required of them within the context of an institution of higher learning.

Summary of Previous Research Review

In this chapter, the theoretical development and psychometric properties of the MSLQ and SILL has been reviewed. While preliminary psychometric analyses have been used previously in these research studies, factor analyses have not been conducted

extensively. Factor analysis is useful in making large datasets more manageable (Dörnyei, 2007) and is conducted to establish the factorial or construct validity of these scales. While preliminary construct validity studies have been conducted with these instruments, the number of underlying factors represented by these scales has varied greatly across studies. Table 2 and Table 3 provide a brief summary of the factor analytic research that has been conducted, to date, with the MSLQ and the SILL.

Table 2

Factor Analysis by MSLQ

Authors	Year	Number of participants	Number of factors found	Factors
Virtanen, Niemi, Nevgi, Raehalme, Launonen	2003	256	3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Forethought of learning ▪ Strategies in learning ▪ Learning skills
Mousoulides, Philippou	2005	194	7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Mastery goal orientation ▪ Extrinsic goal orientation ▪ Task value ▪ Self-efficacy ▪ Elaboration ▪ Organization ▪ Metacognitive strategies
Duijnhouwer, Stokking	2007	689	6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Learning ▪ Assessment ▪ Self-efficacy ▪ Regulation of learning together ▪ Effort and attention ▪ Control of the quality of work

Table 3

Factor Analysis by SILL

Authors	Year	Number of participants	Number of factors found	Factors
Nyikos, Oxford	1993	1200	5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Formal, Rule-related practice strategies ▪ Functional practice strategies ▪ Resourceful, Independent strategies ▪ Standard academic strategies ▪ Conversational input elicitation strategies ▪
Gardner, Tremblay, Masgoret	1997	102	5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Self-confidence ▪ Language learning strategies ▪ Motivation ▪ Language aptitude ▪ Orientation to learn
El-Dib	2004	504	8	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Active naturalistic use of English ▪ Metacognitive planning ▪ Cognitive compensatory strategies ▪ Sensory-memory strategies ▪ Repetition-revision strategies ▪ Social strategies ▪ Affective strategies ▪ Cognitive memory strategies
Tsutsui, Nakano	2005	607	10	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Positive problem solving strategic use ▪ Rational planning ▪ Positive feeling-oriented ▪ Learning through other-regulation and social interactions ▪ Semantic or POS association ▪ Analytic grammar learning ▪ Mnemonics ▪ Practical writing ▪ Avoidance ▪ Repetition

It is interesting that some notable examples of various numbers of measuring items from Table 2 and Table 3 have been identified. Reviewing the number of underlying factors from Table 2 and Table 3 is more likely to provide confusing statistical procedures. It is questionable whether this study will reach statistical results since, a researcher does not know how variables are measured from the research instrument. Within the context of factor analyses, it is crucial to identify what measured variables should be included in the study (Fabrigar, MacCallum, Strahan, & Wegener, 1999). Additionally, it is clear that a researcher may fail to uncover significant common factors when the researcher inadequately samples measured variables from the domain of interest.

Within any statistical methods, Table 2 and Table 3 present a significant perspective regarding construct validity of the MSLQ and the SILL. Regarding construct validity as the most important kind of validity, a researcher should define the domain of interest (i.e., what is to be measured). In other words, if irrelevant measured variables are included to the domain of interest, it will be difficult to discover genuine common factors in the study. For instance, more than any other commonly used ESL research instrument, SILL requires a researcher to decide how many variables are being measured with native English speakers. Conversely, if a researcher does not know how many things are being measured with native English speakers, it will be even more confusing if one uses the test with generation 1.5 students. Therefore, a researcher needs to decide how many variables should be included in the study.

Much of the published factorial validity research with the SILL and MSLQ series is difficult to integrate because disparate factoring methods were applied

(e.g., exploratory and confirmatory analyses; maximum likelihood, principal factors, and alpha extraction techniques; orthogonal and oblique rotations) to diverse populations.

The current study was designed to extend previous validity research by utilizing the factor analytic techniques originally applied to the normative samples of these instruments with an independent sample of generation 1.5, Korean American students.

The review of the literature that is relevant to this study provides the background information of generation 1.5 immigrant students as well as a clear overview of MSLQ and SILL. Through the review of the literature, it is apparent that the nature of generation 1.5 immigrant students' academic learning backgrounds are distinctive. In order to obtain a clear view of generation 1.5 immigrant students' academic learning experiences, this study made a significant contribution to higher education. Given the educational overview of generation 1.5 immigrant students' academic backgrounds, it is imperative that essential implications for further research should be proposed. The following chapter describes the details of research overview.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Research Overview

This chapter presents a description of the research design, research participants, and the research instruments. The first purpose of this study was to investigate the correlation between self-regulated learning and motivation as it relates to the levels of academic success among generation 1.5 Korean American immigrant college students. Specifically, two survey instruments, The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) and The Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) were utilized. Eighty one items of Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) and 50 items from the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) were collected.

The second purpose of the study was to compare the factor structure of these scales with data derived from U.S. college students and generation 1.5 Korean American immigrant college students. The study intended to use factor analysis to explore the construct validity of two measures of self-regulated learning strategy and motivation for generation 1.5 Korean American immigrant students. Specifically, exploratory factor analyses was conducted to determine the underlying factor structures for the self-regulated learning strategy and for the motivation question items from MSLQ and SILL and to determine how many components were actually being measured by each scale. Given the unique learning styles of this population it remains critical that educators who work with these students can be confident that differential constructs are not be assessed by these instruments.

Participants

Korean immigrants are one of the largest and fastest growing immigrant groups in the U. S. According to the U.S Census data in 2007, the Korean American immigrant population was approximately 1.56 million (United States Census Bureau, 2009). Participants were generation 1.5 Korean American immigrant college students and Korean international students from universities located in Pittsburgh and in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. The target age of the participants was over 18 years old.

There were several reasons for choosing generation 1.5 Korean American immigrants for this study. First, Korean American immigrants are one of the fastest growing immigrant populations. Second, these students would have already established English as a Second Language (ESL) learning processes through prior immigration experiences in their high school experiences.

The study was conducted with populations of generation 1.5 Korean American immigrants and Korean international students residing in Pittsburgh and in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. In order to address issues of validity for this study, it was necessary to select only Korean students as ideal participants. More specifically, participants whose native country was a non-English speaking country were included. Given the indication of participants' country, it was expected that there might be a majority of Koreans who were born in Korea, and possibly a number of participants who were born in non-English speaking countries.

Instruments

Three research instruments were used in this study. Two main research instruments included The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) and The

Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ). Additionally, the demographic questionnaire (Appendix C) was utilized with participants to obtain their background information relevant to their involvement in this study.

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

In the field of ESL, The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) has been one of the most commonly used survey instruments in the second language studies. The SILL was developed by Oxford (1990) when she identified fifty individual second language strategy items within six broad categories of second language learning strategies with a 5-point scale (Dörnyei, 2005). In particular, Oxford identified language learning strategies using factor analysis with six categories of language learning strategies: Memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. The Strategy for Language Learning (SILL) is an often utilized instrument for assessing language learning strategy. The SILL was designed and revised by Oxford (1990) based on previous research on ESL and foreign language learning. It covers aspects of self-regulated learning strategies from MSLQ regarding metacognition and motivation. That is, these language learning strategies are classified as self-regulated learning strategies.

The SILL has been used worldwide for ESL/EFL settings in universities and governments (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Yang, 2007). Two versions of the SILL (ESL/EFL) have been identified: one version for speakers of foreign languages who are attempting to learn English (ESL), and one version for English speakers learning a new language (EFL). The ESL SILL has 50 items with a 5 point self-report questionnaire designed to assess the learning strategies used by students who have enrolled in an ESL

course. The EFL SILL, the other version of SILL, has 80 items and it was designed for students learning English as a foreign language. The ESL SILL, the version developed for speakers of a foreign language who wish to learn English, was used for this study. The SILL includes six categories: 1) memory strategies (e.g. reviewing well), 2) cognitive strategies (e.g. analyzing and reasoning.), 3) compensation strategies (e.g. overcoming limitations in seeking and writing), 4) metacognitive strategies (e.g. arranging and planning your learning), 5) affective strategies (e.g. encouraging yourself), 6) social strategies (e.g. cooperating with others) (Oxford, 1990).

Cronbach alpha reliability, a measure of internal consistency, has been high. Oh (1992) found the internal consistency reliability to be .91 based on a 59 Korean university EFL learners. The SILL has also been used and tested for its reliability and validity using different languages (e.g., Chinese version of SILL, Japanese version of SILL, Korean version of SILL) (McDonough, 2001). For instance, a Chinese version of SILL was used to minimize possible error due to Taiwanese vocational college students' various levels of English comprehension. In this study, the internal consistency, Cronbach alpha, was .94. In a similar study, Su, (2005) found the six categories of language learning strategies, Cronbach alpha to be between .73~.87.

More specifically, ESL/EFL SILL reliabilities have also been high when it was administered in the native language of learners (Yang, 2007). Internal consistency reliability was found to be .93, using the researcher-revised Korean translation with 332 Korean university students (Park, 1994); .92 based on a 255 Japanese university students using Japanese translation (Watanabe, 1990); .91 based on a 374 EFL learners in the island of Puerto Rico using Spanish translations (Watanabe, 1990); .91 based on a 374

EFL learners in the island of Puerto Rico using Spanish translations (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). Although ESL/EFL SILL reliabilities have been slightly lower when it is distributed in English instead, these reliabilities are very respectable (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Su, 2005).

Hsiao & Oxford, (2002) conducted a similar study with 517 college EFL learners using the ESL/EFL version of SILL. Cronbach alpha coefficient was .94 for the whole questionnaire. For the six categories of language learning strategies, Cronbach alpha were respectively, .75, .84, .69, .86, .68, and .78. Overall, statistical results suggested the SILL has relatively good reliability. Research examining the ESL/EFL SILL has demonstrated it to be a valid instrument (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). The Korean version of SILL was used to determine the relationship between strategy use and academic proficiency among 332 college students (Park, 1994). In Park's study, results showed the correlation between total The Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) score and strategy use was $r = .34$ ($p < .0001$).

Additionally, in a research study conducted by Watanabe's (1990) the Japanese version of SILL was used to rate from low to high the subjects' own proficiency in English. As a result, their proficiency self-ratings correlated moderately (average $r = .30$) with SILL strategies ($p < .05-.001$). There was a significant relationship ($p < .0005$) between learning styles and overall strategy use on the ESL/EFL SILL through a MANOVA (Oxford, 1996). Lastly, ESL/EFL SILL data support the link between learning strategy use and learning styles. The relationships between learning strategy use and learning styles can be viewed as partial evidence of the construct validity of the SILL.

The use of SILL will be meaningful since it has been adapted continuously worldwide for students' awareness of the second language learning strategies (Dörnyei, 2005). In search of immigration and ethnic factors contributing to differences in the choice of learning strategies, however, SILL has not been used yet for immigrant student populations. If the strategies chosen by generation 1.5 Korean immigrant students could be identified, more insights regarding the characteristics of the generation 1.5 immigrant learners' learning processes could be obtained. In addition, since students with different learning backgrounds might use different learning strategies, the generation 1.5 immigrant students might use effective learning strategies to pursue their academic success.

Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ)

The MSLQ is a self-report instrument developed by the Pintrich and his colleagues (McKeachie, Pintrich, & Lin, 1985; Pintrich et al., 1987). The MSLQ was designed to assess college students' motivational orientations and their use of different learning strategies in college courses. The MSLQ has been used to conceptualize and empirically validate a general example of college students' self-regulated learning and their motivation in educational psychology (Duncan & McKeachie, 2005). The MSLQ has been used for many different languages (e.g., Arabic, Chinese, Dutch, Finnish, French, German, Greek, Hindi, Hungarian, Italian, Japanese, Norwegian, Spanish, and Swedish) (Karabenick et al., 2003). In Chen's (2002) review of literature, he demonstrated that the MSLQ instrument has been used worldwide to investigate students' motivation and learning strategies in many countries (e.g., Arabia (Almegta, 1997); China (Rao, Moely,

& Sachs, 2000); Japan (Yamauchi, Kumagai, & Kawasaki, 1999) and Taiwan (Lee, 1997).

The self-report items were divided into two categories: questions that examined motivation and learning strategies. The motivation category included 31 items that accessed students' goals and value beliefs for a course, their beliefs about their skills to succeed, and their anxiety about the tests. The learning strategy category included 50 items: 31 items concerned the use of metacognitive and cognitive strategies; and 19 items concerned management of different learning resources. There were 81 total items on the MSLQ that were scored on a 7 point Likert scale, from 1 (not at all true of me) to 7 (very true of me).

Regarding reliability, the subscales of the MSLQ have yielded the following reliability coefficients: learning belief = 0.08; self-efficacy = 0.93; self-regulation = 0.79; time and study environment = 0.76; and effort regulation = 0.69 (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990). In Pintrich, Smith, Garcia and McKeachie's (1993) study, the internal reliability coefficients for the six factors in this study were: (a) intrinsic goal orientation, .74; (b) control of learning, .68; (c) self-efficacy for learning and performance, .93; (d) metacognitive self-regulation, .79; (e) time and management resource management, .76; and (f) effort regulation, .69.

Estimates of internal consistency, computed using coefficient alpha, were reasonable with ranges from .54 to .89 for the motivation section and from .61 to .81 for the learning-strategy section (Sungur & Tekkava, 2006). Overall, given the statistical results, the MSLQ has a relatively good reliability.

Pintrich et al., (1993) found that the MSLQ, yielded moderate correlations with final course grades in a sample of college students. Specifically, motivation scale includes six subscales: intrinsic goal orientation; $r = .30$; self-efficacy; $r = .41$; test anxiety; $r = .27$; metacognition; $r = .30$; time and study environment management; $r = .28$; and effort regulation; $r = .32$. As a result, the six subscales were shown the predictive validity. A number of research findings have supported the predicative validity of the MSLQ (Garcia & Pintrich, 1994; Pintrich et al., 1991).

With regard to address instrument validity issues, researchers have provided a pilot study using the MSLQ questionnaire item which were either added or removed (Sharma, Dick, Chin, & Land, 2007). The MSLQ scales used in the pre-and post-test student self-reported survey of 164 community college students for classroom assessment research measured any changes from the beginning to the end of the semester (Steadman, 1998).

In terms of factor analyses, both exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses with different college samples ($n > 2,000$) have been performed on the MSLQ. These analyses found four strategies for the regulation of academic cognition including rehearsal, elaboration, organization and metacognitive self-regulation are indicated (Karabenick et al., 2003). Consequently, the MSLQ scales will be examined through exploratory factor analyses in this study to investigate factors contributing to generation 1.5 college students' academic experience.

Procedure

The initial identification of Korean churches in Pittsburgh and in Philadelphia was accomplished by the use of Internet search engines. Following this preliminary

identification, an initial phone contact was made to the pastor or the director of the youth ministry in each of these Korean community churches. The purpose of this phone call was to estimate possible numbers of Korean American immigrant students attending these churches. Subsequently, research packets including the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) and the demographic questionnaire was mailed to the college fellowship directors (pastors) in churches.

This research packet was distributed to the target participants during the Fall 2008 semester. The researcher hand delivered the research packets to the Pittsburgh college fellowship directors, and mailed the packets to the Philadelphia directors. Seven days following the mail delivery, the researcher contacted college fellowship directors in Philadelphia to confirm that the research packets were delivered on time.

In addition to the SILL and MSLQ, participants were asked to complete a demographic questionnaire (Appendix C) that included eight variables: gender, age, ethnicity, first (native) language, length of residence in the US, citizenship, academic preparation, and ESL levels. Participants were asked voluntarily to report their SAT scores, American high school GPA to identify their academic level. In addition, any number of advanced placement courses and exams taken during high school were to identify their academic preparation and the amount of English studied.

Survey questionnaires were expected to be completed within two weeks. In order to prevent losing the survey responses, participants were asked to complete survey questionnaires at the church without taking the questionnaires home. Two weeks prior to completing the survey, a reminder phone call was made to college fellowship directors.

After contacting college fellowship directors, each response from the research packet were mailed to the researcher via self-addressed postage paid envelope.

Data Analysis

To examine the factors underlying the motivation and learning strategies of generation 1.5 Korean American students, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted for this study with Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), Version 15 for Windows. Before analyzing response data, the returned survey responses were inspected for incomplete or inappropriate responses.

Although exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is a complex, multi-step process, it is a widely utilized and broadly applied statistical technique in the social sciences. Exploratory factor analysis allows for an underdetermined amount of factors, which meet a certain criterion, to be extracted from the data. It is most appropriate for use in exploring a data set (Costello & Osborne, 2005).

Consistent with previous exploratory factor analyses (EFA) reported for the SILL and MSLQ on data comprising the standardization sample, maximum likelihood extraction (using squared multiple correlations) with Varimax rotation was conducted. As recommended by Gorsuch (1983), multiple criteria was used to determine the number of factors to retain, including the scree test (Cattell, 1966) and parallel analysis (Horn, 1965). The Scree test plots eigenvalues against factors to visually identify the optimum number of common factors. Parallel analysis compares eigenvalues extracted from the sample data with eigenvalues generated from random normal data containing the same number of subjects and variables. Factors are considered meaningful when they are

represented by larger eigenvalues than are produced by this random data (Lautenschlager, 1989).

Because none of these procedures in the previous studies were without error, it was also considered to be the number of factors to retain in the final model. The final decision in EFA involves interpreting the results of the procedure. The following conditions were used to determine meaningful factors: factors required pattern loadings greater than .34 (Stevens, 2002), factors required a minimum of three unique variable loadings (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001), and variables required communality estimates greater than or equal to .40 (MacCullum, Widaman, Shang, & Hong, 1999).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Introduction

Survey Data Inspection

All 117 surveys were inspected for incomplete or inappropriate responses. Eleven surveys were eliminated because they were not properly completed. Eight out of these eleven surveys were removed because participants skipped questions. Three participants produced an inappropriate response to the survey, such as responding “true” or “false” to each question. In addition, two surveys were removed because their ethnic information did not fit any of the categories from the demographic question. These participants identified themselves as Korean Canadian.

Student Demographics

The Demographic Questionnaire included eight variables: gender, age, ethnicity, first (native) language, length of residence in the US, citizenship, academic preparation, and ESL levels. Participants were asked to voluntarily report their SAT scores, and their American high school GPA to identify their academic level. Additionally, the number of advanced placement courses and exams taken during high school were recorded in an attempt to identify their academic preparation and to determine the amount of English studied. Demographic questions four through six provided information regarding ethnicity of participants and their parents. Lastly, questions twelve through fourteen provided information regarding academic preparation.

As a result, the total number of participants included 104 students. Of these 104 students, fifty-five (52.9%) were male and forty-nine (47.1%) were female. Table 4

demonstrates the distribution of age among participants. As reflected in Table 4, the age range of participants was from 18 to 35 years. Overall, two-thirds responded they were 24 years of age or younger and 12% of the participants were over the age of 30.

Table 5 presents the distribution of birth country of the participants' parents. A review of Table 5 indicates that the vast majority of respondents indicated that their fathers' birth country was South Korea. All mothers of the participants (100%) were born in South Korea.

Table 4

Frequency Distribution: Age

Age	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
18	3	2.9	2.9
19	8	7.7	10.6
20	13	12.5	23.1
21	13	12.5	35.6
22	18	17.3	52.9
23	9	8.7	61.5
24	7	6.7	68.3
25	3	2.9	71.2
26	5	4.8	76.0
27	5	4.8	80.8
28	3	2.9	83.7
29	4	3.8	87.5
30	1	1.0	88.5
31	2	1.9	90.4
32	2	1.9	92.3
33	4	3.8	96.2
34	2	1.9	98.1
35	2	1.9	100
Total	104	100	

Table 5

Frequency Distribution: Birth Country of Parents

Parents	Country	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Father	Japan	1	1.0	1.0
	South Korea	103	99.0	100
Mother	South Korea	104	100	100
Total		104	100	

Table 6 presents the reported ethnicity of each of the 104 participants. The majority of the participants (70.2%) were Korean American and only 5.8 % identified themselves as Asian American. In addition, 24% of the participants identified themselves as “Other” Interestingly, participants created the third choice of the question as “Other” to identify themselves as Korean. Thus, they were likely to respond with their identity rather than leave it out.

Table 6

Frequency Distribution: Ethnicity

Ethnicity	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Asian American	6	5.8	5.8
Korean American	73	70.2	76.0
Other	25	24	100
Total		104	100

Participants were also asked to respond to questions about their first native language. According to the respondents, the majority (99%) identified Korean as their first native language. Table 7 demonstrates the distribution of age of immigration. Twenty percent of participants did not respond to the question, because they came to the United States as international students. Of those who responded to the question that asked them to identify their age at the time of their immigration, 25% identified their age as 16 to 18 years old. Overall, eighty- three out of 104 participants (79.8%) identified themselves as an U.S. citizen or U.S. permanent resident.

Table 8 demonstrates the distribution of length of residence among the participants. According to the participants, they responded that their length of residence ranged from 1 to 20 years. Twelve participants (11.5%) responded 6 years of U.S residence whereas three participants (2.9%) did not respond to the question. Some of those who did not respond to this question may have concluded that this question was directed only towards Korean immigrant students.

Table 7

Frequency Distribution: Age of Immigration

	Age	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
	1-4	2	1.9	2.4
	5-11	17	16.3	22.9
	12-14	18	17.3	44.6
	14-16	20	19.2	68.7
	16-18	26	25.0	100
	Total	83	79.8	
Missing		21	20.2	
Total		104	100	

Table 8

Frequency Distribution: Length of Residence

Length (years)	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	3	2.9	3.0
2	9	8.7	11.9
3	8	7.7	19.8
4	5	4.8	24.8
5	7	6.7	31.7
5.2	1	1.0	32.7
6	12	11.5	44.6
7	9	8.7	53.5
8	8	7.7	61.4
9	2	1.9	63.4
10	10	9.6	73.3
11	10	9.6	83.2
12	1	1.0	84.2
13	6	5.8	90.1
14	1	1.0	91.1
15	2	1.9	93.1
16	1	1.0	94.1
17	1	1.0	95.0
18	1	1.0	96.0
19	3	2.9	99.0
20	1	1.0	100
Total	101	97.1	
Missing	3	2.9	
Total	104	100	

Table 9 demonstrates the distribution of citizenship among participants. Twenty-nine participants (27.9%) identified themselves as U.S. citizens while thirty-three participants (31.7%) identified as Korean citizens. Overall, Table 10 indicated 62.5% of participants (n =65) were generation 1.5 Korean immigrant students. It is important to note that twenty-nine participants (27.9%) were naturalized United States citizens.

Table 10 presents the distribution of Korean citizen arrival in the United States. Twenty out of forty-eight participants (19.2%) responded that they came to United States when they were aged 16-18 years old. Table 11 indicates that forty-eight participants were either U.S. permanent resident or Korean international students (citizen with a student visa or other non-immigrant visa).

Table 11 presents the distribution of SAT scores of participants. Participants were asked to voluntarily report their SAT scores. However, less than half of the participants (42.3%) provided their SAT scores.

Table 9

Frequency Distribution: Citizenship

Citizenship	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
U.S. citizen	29	27.9	29.6
U.S. permanent resident (green card holder)	36	34.6	66.3
Citizen of Korea with a student visa or other non-immigrant visa	33	31.7	100
Total	98	94.2	
Missing	6	5.8	
Total	104	100	

Table 10

Frequency Distribution: Korean citizen arrival in America

	Arrival in America (years ago)	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
	5-11	5	4.8	10.4
	12-14	9	8.7	29.2
	14-16	14	13.5	58.3
	16-18	20	19.2	100.0
	Total	48	46.2	
Missing		56	53.8	
Total		104	100.0	

Table 11

Frequency Distribution: Participant Self-reported SAT scores

SAT score	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
800	1	1.0	2.3
1010	1	1.0	4.5
1050	1	1.0	6.8
1100	1	1.0	9.1
1150	1	1.0	11.4
1180	1	1.0	13.6
1190	1	1.0	15.9
1200	4	3.8	25.0
1250	3	2.9	31.8
1270	1	1.0	34.1
1280	1	1.0	36.4
1300	1	1.0	38.6
1360	2	1.9	43.2
1390	1	1.0	45.5
1460	1	1.0	47.7
1500	1	1.0	50.0
1510	1	1.0	52.3
1560	1	1.0	54.5
1600	1	1.0	56.8
1650	1	1.0	59.1
1680	1	1.0	61.4
1700	1	1.0	63.6
1840	1	1.0	65.9
1860	1	1.0	68.2
1950	2	1.9	72.7

Table 11 (*continued*).

	SAT score	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
	1980	3	2.9	79.5
	2000	6	5.8	93.2
	2020	1	1.0	95.5
	2100	1	1.0	97.7
	2200	1	1.0	100
	Total	44	42.3	
Missing		60	57.7	
Total		104	100	

Table 12 presents the distribution of American high school GPA for the survey participants. Sixty-one out of 104 participants provided their high school GPA. Of those who provided their high school GPA, thirty-seven participants (35.6%) reported their American high school GPA to be 4.0.

Table 13 presents the distribution of advanced placement courses among students. Fifty-three out of the participants (51%) responded while fifty-one participants (49%) did not respond to the question. Table 14 represents a connection between advanced placement courses and ESL status of participants. Overall, fifty-three participants (51%) were more likely to view as advanced ESL learners.

Table 14 demonstrates the distribution of ESL status of 104 participants. The majority of participants (49%) identified as advanced ESL learners whereas 9.6 % identified as ESL beginners. Of those twenty-three participants did not report their ESL status because they might not consider themselves as ESL learners.

Table 12

Frequency Distribution: Participant Self-reported High School GPA

	High School GPA	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
	3	17	16.3	27.9
	3.2	1	1.0	29.5
	3.5	2	1.9	32.8
	3.6	1	1.0	34.4
	3.7	2	1.9	37.7
	3.8	1	1.0	39.3
	4	37	35.6	100.0
	Total	61	58.7	
Missing		43	41.3	
Total	104	100.0		

Table 13

Frequency Distribution: Advanced Placement Courses

	Advanced placement courses taken	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
	1	10	9.6	18.9
	2	14	13.5	45.3
	3	15	14.4	73.6
	4	6	5.8	84.9
	5	4	3.8	92.5
	6	2	1.9	96.2
	8	1	1.0	98.1
	13	1	1.0	100.0
	Total	53	51.0	
Missing		51	49.0	
Total		104	100.0	

Table 14

Frequency Distribution: Participant Self-reported ESL Status

	ESL status	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Beginner	10	9.6	12.3
	Intermediate	20	19.2	37.0
	Advanced	51	49.0	100.0
	Total	81	77.9	
Missing		23	22.1	
Total		104	100.0	

Descriptive statistics are presented in Tables 15 and 16. Table 15 shows the minimum, maximum, and mean scores as well as standard deviations on MSLQ totals for Korean American students. Table 16 presents minimum, maximum, and mean scores as well as standard deviations on SILL totals for Korean American students.

Table 15

Descriptive Statistics of Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) for Korean American Students¹

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
MSLQ1	1	7	4.89	1.494
MSLQ2	3	7	5.75	1.213
MSLQ3	1	7	3.71	1.772
MSLQ4	2	7	5.29	1.259
MSLQ5	1	7	4.93	1.360
MSLQ6	1	6	4.16	1.247
MSLQ7	1	7	4.41	1.788
MSLQ8	1	7	3.83	1.491
MSLQ9	1	7	4.75	1.688
MSLQ10	1	7	5.69	1.330
MSLQ11	1	7	4.61	1.610
MSLQ12	1	7	5.36	1.350
MSLQ13	2	7	5.85	1.305
MSLQ14	1	7	3.75	1.722
MSLQ15	1	7	4.62	1.367
MSLQ16	1	7	4.93	1.572
MSLQ17	1	7	4.96	1.365
MSLQ18	1	7	5.72	1.333
MSLQ19	1	7	3.83	2.021
MSLQ20	1	7	5.07	1.264
MSLQ21	1	7	5.38	1.324
MSLQ22	1	7	5.14	1.504
MSLQ23	1	7	5.00	1.552
MSLQ24	2	7	4.57	1.467
MSLQ25	1	7	4.78	1.649
MSLQ26	1	7	4.83	1.458
MSLQ27	1	7	5.38	1.515
MSLQ28	1	7	3.60	1.898

Table 15 (continued).

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
MSLQ29	1	7	4.68	1.324
MSLQ30	1	7	5.10	1.610
MSLQ31	1	7	5.00	1.300
MSLQ32	1	7	4.50	1.729
MSLQ33	1	7	4.06	1.794
MSLQ34	1	7	3.62	1.656
MSLQ35	1	7	5.26	1.589
MSLQ36	1	7	3.75	1.842
MSLQ37	1	7	4.08	1.699
MSLQ38	1	7	4.64	1.393
MSLQ39	1	7	4.31	1.601
MSLQ40	1	7	4.66	1.629
MSLQ41	2	7	5.46	1.350
MSLQ42	2	7	5.25	1.446
MSLQ43	1	7	4.41	1.549
MSLQ44	1	7	3.61	1.726
MSLQ45	1	7	3.72	1.851
MSLQ46	1	7	4.76	1.732
MSLQ47	1	7	4.42	1.505
MSLQ48	1	7	4.34	1.820
MSLQ49	1	7	4.23	1.962
MSLQ50	1	7	3.16	1.780
MSLQ51	1	7	4.11	1.648
MSLQ52	1	7	3.83	1.809
MSLQ53	1	7	4.80	1.554
MSLQ54	1	7	4.92	1.575
MSLQ55	1	7	4.67	1.542
MSLQ56	1	7	4.17	1.591
MSLQ57	1	7	4.30	1.474
MSLQ58	1	7	4.51	1.735

Table 15 (continued).

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
MSLQ59	1	7	5.12	1.680
MSLQ60	1	7	3.24	1.856
MSLQ61	1	7	4.43	1.682
MSLQ62	1	7	4.54	1.588
MSLQ63	1	7	4.66	1.623
MSLQ64	2	7	5.08	1.486
MSLQ65	1	7	4.79	1.688
MSLQ66	1	7	4.33	1.497
MSLQ67	1	7	4.38	1.927
MSLQ68	1	7	4.51	1.880
MSLQ69	1	7	4.78	1.576
MSLQ70	1	7	4.23	1.818
MSLQ71	1	7	4.30	1.545
MSLQ72	1	7	4.85	1.647
MSLQ73	1	7	5.63	1.775
MSLQ74	1	7	4.92	1.512
MSLQ75	1	7	4.44	1.842
MSLQ76	1	7	4.78	1.589
MSLQ77	1	7	4.27	1.626
MSLQ78	1	7	4.70	1.379
MSLQ79	1	7	4.62	1.566
MSLQ80	1	7	3.45	1.879
MSLQ81	1	7	4.46	1.582
MSLQTotal	268	481	371.60	45.350

Note. ¹Minimum and maximum scores are based on 7-point Likert scale (one through seven)

Table 16

Descriptive Statistics of Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) for Korean American Students¹

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
SILL1	1	5	3.59	1.187
SILL2	1	5	3.33	1.202
SILL3	1	5	3.38	1.271
SILL4	1	5	3.36	1.269
SILL5	1	5	2.80	1.424
SILL6	1	5	2.50	1.475
SILL7	1	5	2.59	1.348
SILL8	1	5	2.68	1.272
SILL9	1	5	2.92	1.312
SILL10	1	5	3.43	1.268
SILL11	1	5	3.67	1.144
SILL12	1	5	3.68	1.317
SILL13	1	3	3.36	1.088
SILL14	1	5	3.39	1.403
SILL15	1	5	3.82	1.298
SILL16	1	5	3.11	1.365
SILL17	1	5	3.91	1.116
SILL18	1	5	3.65	1.221
SILL19	1	5	3.32	1.225
SILL20	1	5	3.31	1.255
SILL21	1	5	3.23	1.232
SILL22	1	5	3.43	1.245
SILL23	1	5	2.96	1.292
SILL24	1	5	3.74	1.052
SILL25	1	5	3.48	1.277
SILL26	1	5	3.05	1.234
SILL27	1	5	3.60	1.273
SILL28	1	5	3.23	1.225

Table 16 (continued).

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
SILL29	1	5	3.88	1.094
SILL30	1	5	3.40	1.145
SILL31	1	5	3.69	1.062
SILL32	1	5	3.68	1.241
SILL33	1	5	3.64	1.173
SILL34	1	5	2.73	1.301
SILL35	1	5	2.97	1.376
SILL36	1	5	3.09	1.263
SILL37	1	5	3.07	1.324
SILL38	1	5	3.22	1.292
SILL39	1	5	3.18	1.290
SILL40	1	5	3.25	1.385
SILL41	1	5	2.77	1.309
SILL42	1	5	2.85	1.305
SILL43	1	5	2.02	1.097
SILL44	1	5	2.59	1.251
SILL45	1	5	3.44	1.213
SILL46	1	5	3.01	1.303
SILL47	1	5	2.72	1.333
SILL48	1	5	2.98	1.285
SILL49	1	5	3.68	1.225
SILL50	1	5	3.28	1.303
SILLTotal	62	239	161.66	32.110

Note. ¹Minimum and maximum scores are based on 5-point Likert scale (one through five)

Table 17

Pearson Correlation Coefficients for MSLQ and SILL

	MSLQLS	MSLQTotal	SILLDirect	SILLIndirect	SILLTotal
MSLQMot	.460**	.749**	.170	.220*	.210*
MSLQLS		.933**	.324**	.331**	.355**
MSLQTotal			.310**	.336**	.350**
SILLDirect				.698**	.931**
SILLIndirect					.911**

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

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

MSLQMot: Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ)
Motivation

MSLQLS: Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) Learning
Strategies

SILLDirect: Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) Direct Strategies

SILLIndirect: Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) Indirect
Strategies

Correlations among scores of MSLQ and SILL are shown in Table 17. Generally speaking, the two MSLQ scores correlated strongly with each other, as did the two SILL scores. There was a strong correlation (.93) between the MSLQ Learning Strategies and the MSLQ total scores. In addition, there was a strong correlation (.91) between the SILL Indirect Learning Strategies and the SILL total scores. However, the MSLQ Motivation failed to correlate significantly (.17) with the SILL Direct Learning Strategies.

Among the two types of scores (Direct/ Indirect Strategies) produced by the SILL, there were several moderately strong correlations in the .33 to .69 range. In terms of learning strategies, there was moderate correlation between the MSLQ Learning Strategies and the two types of scores (Direct/ Indirect Strategies) produced by the SILL. These correlations were .32 and .33 respectively. Overall, there was a moderately strong correlation (.35) between the SILL total scores and the MSLQ total scores.

Table 18

*Maximum Likelihood Factor Loadings (Varimax) of MSLQ for Korean American**Students*

Question	Communalities	Factor 1	Factor 2
1	.93	.77	-.00
2	.94	.40	.12
3	.90	-.21	.05
4	.92	.55	-.02
5	.91	.21	.22
6	.87	.32	.23
7	.90	-.21	.36
8	.85	-.21	.12
9	.83	.09	.04
10	.81	.35	.08
11	.87	-.16	.13
12	.90	.45	.19
13	.78	.21	.12
14	.93	-.30	.00
15	.79	.26	-.06
16	.92	.69	-.00
17	.86	.44	.17
18	.86	.30	.06
19	.85	.15	.11
20	.90	.25	.22
23	.94	.23	.33
24	.85	.39	.05
25	.84	.22	.12
26	.87	.32	.15

Table 18 (continued).

Question	Communalities	Factor 1	Factor 2
27	.94	.32	.14
28	.92	-.27	.20
29	.91	.25	.39
30	.88	-.09	.31
31	.90	.02	.44
32	.90	.23	.35
33	.88	.16	-.18
34	.85	.12	.13
35	.93	.35	.17
36	.94	.09	.36
37	.92	-.02	-.18
38	.89	.06	.11
39	.88	.05	.14
40	.80	.18	-.24
44	.89	.22	.39
45	.95	-.04	.38
46	.80	.14	.45
47	.94	.20	.64
48	.88	-.03	.34
49	.92	.21	.13
50	.90	-.05	.21
51	.91	.44	.51
52	.77	-.08	.07
53	.94	.40	.39
54	.92	.16	.30
55	.84	.34	.33
56	.86	.08	.32

Table 18 (continued).

Question	Communalities	Factor 1	Factor 2
57	.88	-.15	-.16
58	.89	.18	.38
59	.91	.35	.33
60	.88	-.15	-.20
63	.92	.28	.52
64	.89	.29	.53
65	.92	.14	.35
66	.92	.43	.38
67	.92	.32	.46
68	.91	.06	.60
69	.94	.40	.57
70	.86	.16	.40
71	.91	.45	.29
72	.92	.28	.37
73	.91	.10	.24
74	.86	.27	.31
75	.89	.09	.46
76	.84	.28	.36
77	.91	-.01	-.08
78	.89	.10	.41
79	.87	.37	.40
80	.89	.02	.23
81	.89	.40	.42

Before performing the factor analysis, the appropriateness of the data for EFA was examined according to multiple criteria. First, skewness and kurtosis statistics of questions from both scales was examined for univariate normality. Second, initial communality estimates were below 1.0, reflecting the absence of singularity and multicollinearity (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Third, correlation matrices were examined for sizable correlations among the questionnaire items. Bartlett's (1954) Test of Sphericity was also significant ($p < .001$), indicating that correlations in the matrix were not random. Finally, results of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (Kaiser, 1974) revealed a value of .721 for the SILL and .931 for the MSLQ, exceeding Tabachnick and Fidell's recommended cutoff of .60. As a result the data were considered to be appropriate for factor analysis.

Three criteria were subsequently required for a factor to be considered meaningful. First, variables were required to have factor loadings greater than .34 to be considered salient (Stevens, 2002). Second, factors were retained only if they had at a minimum of three unique variables loading saliently. Third, the solution must be plausible from a theoretical standpoint; that is, the content of the questionnaire items should reflect the proposed theoretical constructs.

Table 18 represents maximum likelihood factor loadings (varimax) of MSLQ for Korean American students. A Maximum likelihood technique with varimax rotation was used to analyze eighty-one MSLQ and fifty SILL questions. According to the initial communalities, the majority of MSLQ values were identified greater than 0.80. Only three of the MSLQ questions (MSLQ13, 15, 52) demonstrated communalities less than 0.80.

Table 19 represents MSLQ questions with significant factor 1 loadings. MSLQ questions with significant factor 2 loadings are presented in Table 20. Only three of the MSLQ questions (MSLQ13, 15, 52) demonstrated communalities less than 0.80.

Additionally, Figure 1 shows Scree plot of eigenvalues and factors. A subsequent Scree plot showed there was a large gap between the first and second factors. The Scree plot further showed that the angle on the curve started to fall off after two factors. The remaining factors showed that the majority of values were less than 0.40. As a result, it was demonstrated that two possible factors would be retained. Factor 1 had thirteen MSLQ values greater than 0.34. Factor 2 had seventeen MSLQ values greater than 0.34. The following two Tables present Factor 1 and Factor 2 questions with MSLQ values greater than 0.40.

Table 19

MSLQ Questions with Significant Factor 1 loadings

Factor 1	
MSLQ1	In a class like this, I prefer course material that really challenges me so I can learn new things.
MSLQ2	If I study in appropriate ways, then I will be able to learn the material in this course.
MSLQ4	I think I will be able to use what I learn in this course in other courses.
MSLQ12	I'm confident I can learn the basic concepts taught in this course.
MSLQ16	In a class like this, I prefer course material that arouses my curiosity, even if it is difficult to learn.
MSLQ17	I am very interested in the content area of this course.
MSLQ51	I treat the course material as a starting point and try to develop my own ideas about it.
MSLQ53	When I study for this class, I pull together information from different sources, such as lectures, readings, and discussions.
MSLQ62	I try to relate ideas in this subject to those in other courses whenever possible.
MSLQ66	I try to play around with ideas of my own related to what I am learning in this course.
MSLQ69	I try to understand the material in this class by making connections between the readings and the concepts from the lectures.
MSLQ71	Whenever I read or hear an assertion or conclusion in this class, I think about possible alternatives.
MSLQ81	I try to apply ideas from course readings in other class activities such as lecture and discussion.

Table 20

MSLQ Questions with Significant Factor 2 loadings

	Factor 2
MSLQ22	The most satisfying thing for me in this course is trying to understand the content as thoroughly as possible.
MSLQ31	Considering the difficulty of this course, the teacher, and my skills, I think I will do well in this class.
MSLQ41	When I become confused about something I'm reading for this class, I go back and try to figure it out.
MSLQ42	When I study for this course, I go through the readings and my class notes and try to find the most important ideas.
MSLQ46	When studying for this course, I read my class notes and the course readings over and over again.
MSLQ47	When a theory, interpretation, or conclusion is presented in class or in the readings, I try to decide if there is good supporting evidence.
MSLQ51	I treat the course material as a starting point and try to develop my own ideas about it.
MSLQ63	When I study for this course, I go over my class notes and make an outline of important concepts.
MSLQ64	When reading for this class, I try to relate the material to what I already know.
MSLQ67	When I study for this course, I write brief summaries of the main ideas from the readings and my class notes.
MSLQ68	When I can't understand the material in this course, I ask another student in this class for help.
MSLQ69	I try to understand the material in this class by making connections between the readings and the concepts from the lectures.
MSLQ70	I make sure that I keep up with the weekly readings and assignments for this course.

Table 20 (*continued*).

Factor 2	
MSLQ75	I try to identify students in this class whom I can ask for help if necessary.
MSLQ78	When I study for this class, I set goals for myself in order to direct my activities in each study period.
MSLQ79	If I get confused taking notes in class, I make sure I sort it out afterwards.
MSLQ81	I try to apply ideas from course readings in other class activities such as lecture and discussion.

Scree Plot

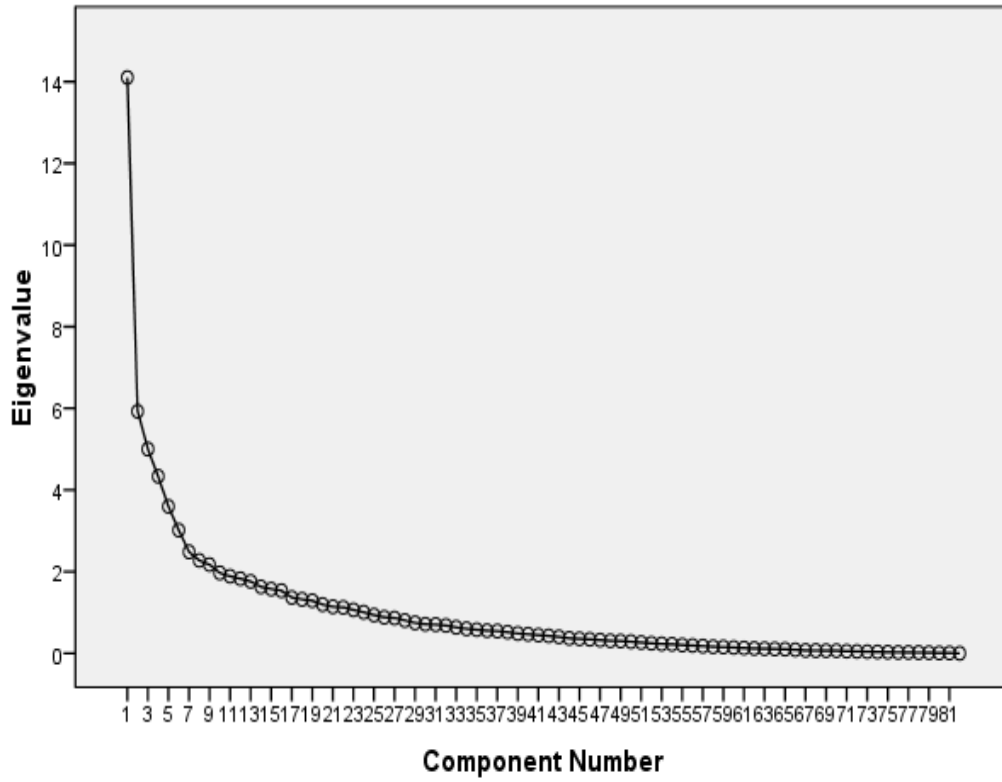


Figure 2. Scree Plot of Eigenvalues and Factors

Table 21

Maximum Likelihood Factor Loadings (Varimax) of SILL for Korean American Students

Question	Communalities	Factor 1	Factor 2
1	.68	.18	.02
2	.67	.30	.12
3	.67	.26	.05
4	.69	.45	-.01
5	.73	.40	.27
6	.61	.09	.30
7	.66	.29	.13
8	.77	.44	.37
9	.73	.39	.13
10	.71	.45	.23
11	.64	.16	.10
12	.68	.32	.31
13	.51	.27	-.06
14	.72	.15	.31
15	.72	.10	.43
16	.76	.30	.35
17	.65	.19	.09
18	.65	.46	.08
19	.64	.49	.08
20	.84	.88	-.00
21	.77	.58	.05
22	.62	.16	-.07
23	.81	.67	-.01

Table 21 (continued).

Question	Communalities	Factor 1	Factor 2
24	.76	.20	.08
25	.67	.25	.14
26	.72	.52	.21
27	.70	.22	.06
28	.61	.36	.15
29	.78	.25	-.14
30	.72	.34	.42
31	.74	.39	.20
32	.69	.43	.27
33	.74	.35	.61
34	.77	.43	.54
35	.80	.50	.33
36	.79	.46	.42
37	.79	.38	.56
38	.84	.39	.53
39	.82	.42	.55
40	.81	.48	.52
41	.75	.43	.47
42	.74	.18	.49
43	.75	.39	.12
44	.71	.30	.41
45	.75	.27	.33
46	.75	.20	.48
47	.84	.38	.61
48	.79	.34	.43
49	.81	-.00	.00
50	.67	.03	.38

Table 21 represents maximum likelihood factor loadings (varimax) of SILL for Korean American students. A Maximum likelihood technique with varimax rotation was used to analyze fifty SILL questions. According to the initial communalities, the majority of SILL values achieved values less than 0.80. Only eleven out of fifty of SILL values produced communalities greater than 0.80.

Table 22 presents SILL questions with significant factor 1 loadings. SILL questions with significant factor 2 loadings are presented in Table 23. Similarly, Figure 2 shows Scree plot of eigenvalues and factors. This resulting Scree plot showed there was a large gap between the first and second factors. As with the SILL analyses, the Scree plot showed that the angle on the curve started to fall off after two factors. The remaining factors showed the majority of values were less than 0.40. As a result, factor analytic results demonstrated that two possible factors would be retained. Factor 1 had seventeen SILL values greater than 0.40. Factor 2 had fifteen SILL values greater than 0.40. The following two tables presents Factor 1 and Factor 2 questions with SILL values greater than 0.40.

Table 22

SILL Questions with Significant Factor 1 loadings

Factor 1	
SILL4	I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.
SILL5	I use rhymes to remember new English words.
SILL8	I review English lessons often.
SILL10	I say or write new English words several times.
SILL18	I first skim an English passage (read the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.
SILL19	I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.
SILL20	I try to find patterns in English.
SILL21	I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.
SILL23	I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.
SILL26	I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.
SILL32	I pay attention when someone is speaking English.
SILL34	I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.
SILL35	I look for people I can talk to in English.
SILL36	I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.
SILL39	I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.
SILL40	I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.
SILL41	I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.

Table 23

SILL Questions with Significant Factor 2 loadings

Factor 2	
SILL15	I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.
SILL30	I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.
SILL33	I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.
SILL34	I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.
SILL36	I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.
SILL37	I have clear goals for improving my English skills.
SILL38	I think about my progress in learning English.
SILL39	I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.
SILL40	I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.
SILL41	I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English speakers.
SILL42	I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.
SILL44	I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.
SILL46	I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.
SILL47	I practice English with other students.
SILL48	I ask for help from English

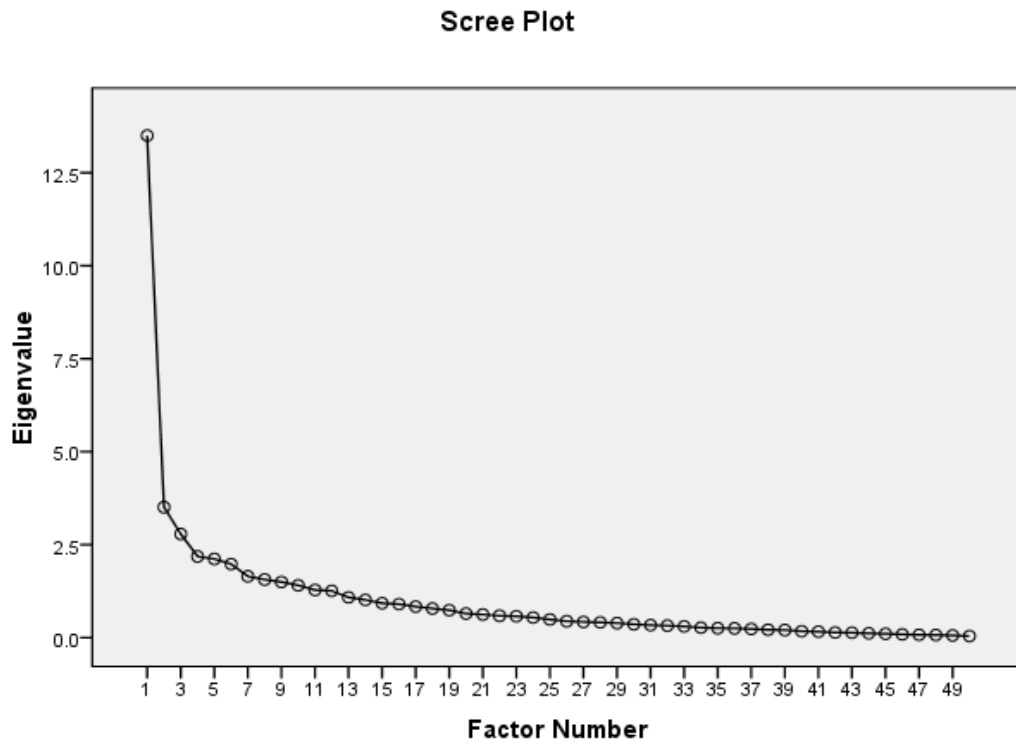


Figure 3. Scree Plot of Eigenvalues and Factors

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Introduction

Educating immigrant students has always been a challenging task for U.S. schools. Since these students bring with them their educational traditions, cultural communication patterns, language issues, and their different learning experiences, U.S. schools have made strong demands for supporting their needs. Accommodating immigrant students' needs will not be an easy task for U.S. educators. The vast majority of immigrant students who have been identified as generation 1.5, or who have lived in the U.S. for a long time, differ in terms of their linguistic transitions, as well as in their social and psychological adjustments during the years that they invest in their formal schooling (Lee & Zhou, 2004).

Unfortunately, immigrant students, especially Asian American students, and the educational issues that have been responsible for their academic struggles, have received little attention among U.S. policy makers, because they are assumed to be doing well compared with other immigrant populations (Rong & Preissle, 2009). In addition to the educational issues related to the academic efforts put forth by immigrant students, little research has studied the learning strategies and motivation for them, and what factors, based on learning strategies and motivation, contribute to their academic excellence.

Defining Generation 1.5 Students

In response to the growing number of immigrant student groups, the term generation 1.5 has been recently introduced. The term has been used to identify students who are somewhere between first generation adults and second generation children

(Rambout & Ima, 1998). Interestingly, the Korean American community has long used the term, “il-jum oh-se,” which could be translated as generation 1.5 (Roberge, 2002). Holton (2002) has suggested that the term generation 1.5 student groups be limited to non-native speakers who have been in the U.S. longer than eight years. Consequently, researchers have divided these two groups of immigrant students into one classification referred to as “early-arriving students” and another classification referred to as “late-arriving students” in their attempts to define the status of generation 1.5 student groups (Ferris, 2009). “Early-arriving students” have been identified as immigrant students who immigrated to the U.S. before their tenth birthday, and have resided within the United States for longer than eight years. Despite the improved definition of “early-arriving students”, there is now a new group of children called “parachute kids” who immigrated to the U.S. from Korea and Taiwan (Roberge, 2005). Roberge (2005) introduced “parachute kids” as a broad definition of generation 1.5 student groups. Unlike other immigrant adolescents who live with their parents, most parachute kids live apart from their parents in the United States (Zhou, 1998). Furthermore, it is more likely to see “late-arriving students” attend four-year colleges, and many of them are highly motivated and financially stable, therefore, may attend prestigious institutions (Ferris, 2009). Research has shown that “generation 1.5 students are perhaps best considered along a demographic continuum rather than as a homogeneous group who immigrated to the United States as children” (Yi, 2004, p.24).

Generation 1.5 “late arriving students,” who attend college “with backgrounds in U.S. culture and schooling, [they] are distinct from international students or other newcomers...while at the same time these students’ status as English language learners is

often treated as incidental or even misconstrued as under preparation” (Harklau et al., 1999, p.1). Because of their unique status, generation 1.5 students are probably best identified as being a generation of immigrant students who have immigrated to the U.S. after their first generation parents, but before their second generation of offspring. This distinction is crucial because generation 1.5 students are very different in terms of language learning processes from traditional categories of ESL learners those who are international students. Scholars and researchers stress that it is significant to consider how and where generation 1.5 students were educated (Ferris, 2009).

Characteristics of Generation 1.5 Students

At this point, it is necessary to identify important specific characteristics of generation 1.5 students. “Early-arriving students” have resided in the United States for eight years or longer; therefore, they possess a better long-term second language acquisition. Furthermore, “late-arriving students” have been aware of the long-term benefits of improving English skills, and they have known the importance of the second language learning for future success (Ferris, 2009). For them, English has been the key to effective communication and interaction with people in almost every situation of their lives. Research has demonstrated that these students are “ear-based” learners who have learned language through the pop culture as well as through their encounters with the slang that they have heard on the street, and the pop music that they have listened to (Reid, 1997; Roberge, 2005). It is clear that the longer these students stay in the United States, the more they are familiar and comfortable with the U.S. culture and their language acquisition practices.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine how generation 1.5 Korean American students utilize their self-regulated learning strategies and motivation to achieve academic excellence. Specifically, this study was designed to analyze factors of two assessment instruments, the MSLQ and the SILL among generation 1.5 Korean American students. More particularly, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted to compare the factor structures for the self-regulated learning strategy and motivation scales. The goal of the study was to determine if the same factor structure, which exists for American-native students, exists for generation 1.5 Korean American students.

Representative of Sample

The first conclusion to be derived from the data is that the participants were Korean American generation 1.5 students. They were also identified as “late-arriving students.” All participants first completed a demographic questionnaire that included eight variables: gender, age, ethnicity, first (native) language, length of residence in the US, citizenship, academic preparation, and ESL levels. Student demographic data showed that slightly more than half of the participants were male, and that more than half of the participants came to the United States in their adolescent years. In terms of ethnicity, it was necessary to examine birth country of participants’ parents. Most of the respondents indicated that their parents’ birth country was South Korea. Having examined their parents’ birth country regarding ethnicity, demographic data revealed their true origin as Korean American.

An important variable when considering immigrant students’ ESL proficiency levels was their length of residence. Regarding the length of residence, the majority of

participants from the present study were identified as “late-arriving students,” which also included “parachute kids.” For the majority of participants, those who were identified as generation 1.5 Korean students differed in many respects, such as academic preparation with ESL environment from those who were born in the United States.

Given their age, it is important to consider how Korean college-age students differ fundamentally from American students in terms of self-regulated learning and motivation during their college years. This study investigated self-regulated learning and motivation in the use of The Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) and The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) for the generation 1.5 Korean American students.

Comparison the Characteristics of Generation 1.5 Korean American Students with American Students

Previous research has included both homogeneous college students and college students with diverse backgrounds (Anderman, Freeman, & Jensen, 2007; Tseng, Dörnyei, & Schmitt, 2006; Lynch, 2007). Several studies have examined motivation and the use of self-regulated learning strategies for diverse student populations, such as African American undergraduates, female undergraduate engineering majors, and nursing students (Duncan & McKeachie, 2005). When considering these previous studies, their samples were primarily selected from underprepared college students. (Langley et al., 2004). The data samples from previous studies have shown that most of the samples were college-age students.

The MSLQ has been used to address the nature of motivation and use of learning strategies for college student populations (Anderman et al., 2007; Lynch, 2007).

Although the MSLQ can provide learning strategy and motivation information in academic courses for generation 1.5 Korean American students, it is difficult to predict their use of ESL learning strategies within an academic context. In order to explore hidden ESL students, it was necessary to examine ESL learning strategies using the SILL.

In terms of ESL learning strategies, the SILL has been utilized for language learners in higher education, including government agencies around the world (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989). The majority of previous research that has utilized the SILL has included samples that were collected in ESL, or EFL settings in higher education (Chamot, 2004; Kato, 2005). This research investigated the types of language learning strategies that were widely used by students at the college level (Chamot, 2004; El-Dib, 2004; Gardner, Masgoret & Tremblay, 1997; Kato, 2005; Tsutsui, Ueda, & Nakano, 2006 Nyikos & Oxford, 1989). There is no doubt that the use of SILL has been associated with assessing language learning strategies for ESL learners at college level. This should not be surprising, because the equivalent characteristic of samples consisted mainly of college students who were identified as ESL learners during the years that they attended college.

The initial finding of this demographic data indicated that generation 1.5 Korean students have adapted well academically when compared with U.S. born American students. Perhaps most importantly, bilingual and bicultural skills, such as organizing a study plan by writing a Korean journal, helped foreign-born generation 1.5 Korean students utilize various resources available to them in their first language textbooks. Because of their relatively high levels of first language proficiency and Korean cultural literacy, foreign-born generation 1.5 Korean students have more effectively accessed the

broad educational resources available to them, as compared to U.S. born American students. Numerous factors affected immigrant students' ability to cope with adjusting to a new culture, preparing for their academic courses, and developing personal strategies in order to achieve academic success. It is important to examine how these students developed their self-regulated learning strategies and motivation and applied them to their efforts to achieve academic excellence.

Survey Findings

Pearson Correlation Coefficients for MSLQ and SILL

The first comparison of the two measures examined the correlations between the MSLQ and SILL. The results indicated that there was a moderate, positive relationship between each of the MSLQ Learning Strategies and the MSLQ total scores. Regarding the first research hypothesis, it was expected that there would be a positive, significant relationship between self-regulated learning strategy and motivation. This indicates that while the two scales do have some similar content, or areas where the information derived from the questions does overlap, the scales do not overlap entirely, and do appear to measure two discrete indices.

Additionally, there was a strong correlation between the SILL Indirect Learning Strategies and the SILL total scores. Regarding the second research hypothesis, it was expected that there would be a positive, significant relationship between the MSLQ learning strategies and the SILL learning strategies. The relationship between the learning strategies of MSLQ and SILL, correlated to each other moderately. There was a moderate correlation between the MSLQ learning strategies and the SILL learning strategies. Finally, regarding the last research hypothesis, it was expected that there

would be a positive, significant relationship between the MSLQ total scores and the SILL total scores. The findings showed a moderately strong correlation between the SILL total scores and the MSLQ total scores.

Correlations between Learning Strategies and Language Learning Strategies

Although there does exist a theoretical framework connecting learning strategies and motivation in general, there has not yet been an examination that has used the MSLQ and the SILL to study this relationship. Results of the present study demonstrated that there was a moderate correlation between the MSLQ learning strategies and the SILL learning strategies. That was an expected result, which showed that there was a common feature between these two learning strategies. When reviewing the questions from the MSLQ and the SILL, there were similar traits that obviously existed between these questionnaires. First, both questionnaires were based on metacognitive aspects of learning in general. Specifically, the SILL focused upon the metacognitive perspective of language learning. Given the common characteristic between learning strategies and language learning strategies, it was necessary to consider the taxonomies of learning strategies. Dörnyei (2005) proposed one of the taxonomies within language learning strategies when he defined 'metacognitive strategies' as "involving higher-order strategies aimed at analyzing, monitoring, evaluating, planning, and organizing one's own learning process"(p. 169).

With regard to one of the learning strategies, Everson et al. (1997) pointed out that "students use learning strategies to plan their strategies for learning, to monitor their present learning, and to estimate their knowledge in a variety of domains" (Miller & Filcher, 2000, p. 64). McKeachie et al. (1986) summarized their findings by claiming

that “the metacognitive strategies are similar to those of Everson et al. (1997) and include planning, monitoring, and regulating” (p. 64). Furthermore, as suggested by researchers (Bemt & Bugbee, 1990; Zimmerman & Martinez Pons, 1986), “metacognitive strategies include planning, monitoring, and self-regulation” (p. 65).

Secondly, as seen within the taxonomies of learning strategies, based on metacognitive strategies, it becomes clear that the nature of the strategies was related to self-regulated learning. Interestingly, Winne & Perry (2000) stressed that self-regulated learning, as an aptitude, constituted two components: metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive monitoring. Indeed, a significant notion of self-regulated learning, specifically, in regards to academic circumstances, was highlighted by Dörnyei (2005) when he elaborated upon the concept of self-regulation and asserted that, “the notion of self-regulation of academic learning is a multidimensional construct, including cognitive, metacognitive, motivational, behavioral, and environmental processes that learners can apply to enhance academic achievement” (p. 191).

As a result, the common perspective between these two learning strategies points to the claim that there is a crucial connection between metacognitive strategies and self-regulated learning. Having considered this implication, linking metacognitive strategies to self-regulated learning is not only significant, but can also become a framework that can be used to better understand the relationship that exists between the MSLQ and the SILL.

Comparison between Related Previous Studies and the Current Study

While diverse statistical techniques using MSLQ and SILL have been conducted in previous studies, the goal/objective/scope of the current study necessitated factor analysis. However, using factor analysis in the theoretical development and psychometric properties of MSLQ and SILL is not new.

In a previous study that used the MSLQ, Mousoulides & Pilippou, (2005) performed confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to examine the relationships between motivational belief, self-regulation strategies use, and mathematics achievement in 194 sophomore pre-service teachers. These researchers found the following seven factors: 1) mastery goal orientation, 2) extrinsic goal orientation, 3) task value, 4) self-efficacy, 5) elaboration, 6) organization, and 7) metacognitive strategies. Researchers identified these factors as predictive factors that could be used to examine the relationships that exist between motivational beliefs, self-regulation strategies use, and mathematics achievement (Mousoulides & Pilippou, 2005).

Although the confirmatory factor analysis was performed by Mousoulides & Pilippou (2005), other researchers utilized another type of factor analysis which was called an exploratory factor analysis. In addition, Duijnhouwer & Stokking (2007) also conducted exploratory factor analysis. They focused on writing tasks to study motivation and self-regulation in a total of 689 university students from two different departments (e.g, psychology N=418, pharmacy N=271). Researchers identified the following factors by using varimax rotation: 1) learning, 2) assessment, 3) self-efficacy, 4) regulation of learning together, 5) effort and attention, and 6) control of the quality of work (Duijnhouwer & Stokking, 2007).

An interesting finding from the previous studies was that different numbers of factors were identified depending on the type of factor analysis. That is, there was evidence that performing mixed statistical techniques by applying both confirmatory and exploratory factor analysis in their study (Virtanen Niemi, Nevgi, Raehalme, & Launonen, 2003). It is thus recommended for researchers, who want to conduct an exploratory factor analysis, to consider adding a follow up study (confirmatory factor analysis) with a separate data set (DeCoster, 1998). Virtanen et al. (2003), for example, conducted a study with both exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis. Participants of the study were a total of 256 (127 males, 126 females) university students from five universities in Finland (Virtanen et al., 2003). These researchers studied the following three factors by performing exploratory factor analysis (Maximum Likelihood with varimax rotation): 1) forethought of learning, 2) strategies in learning, and 3) learning skill (Virtanen et al., 2003). In addition to the exploratory factor analysis, they confirmed their findings by using a confirmatory factor analysis of factor solutions based on the theoretical framework. Virtanen et al. (2003) several theories of self-regulation as a theoretical framework to build the measurement for self-regulated dimensions of an interactive self-evaluation test on the WWW.

When reviewing the number of underlying factors from the MSLQ, researchers performed divergent statistical techniques (e.g., exploratory and confirmatory analyses, and varimax rotations) and these methods were applied to diverse number of student populations. Although different factor analyses were utilized to the previous studies, common features, in terms of maximum likelihood as well as varimax rotation, were shared in both previous studies and the current study.

Interestingly, the previous studies that used the SILL have indicated that researchers performed the exploratory factor analysis (El-Dib, 2004; Gardner, Tremblay, Masgoret, 1997; Nyikos & Oxford, 1993; Tsutsui & Nakano, 2005). As similar to the previous studies that used the MSLQ, all participants were college students. In terms of rotation methods, researchers (Nyikos & Oxford, 1993; Tsutsui, Ueda, & Nakano, 2005) used promax rotation, non-orthogonal (oblique) method usually for large datasets (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003). Nyikos & Oxford (1993) collected a large dataset from 1200 undergraduate students from a major Midwestern university. They performed the main statistical procedure and five following factors: 1) formal, rule-related practice strategies, 2) functional practice strategies, 3) resourceful, independent strategies, 4) standard academic strategies, and 5) conversational input elicitation strategies (Nyikos & Oxford, 1993).

Tsutsui et al. (2005) also performed the promax rotation. Researchers utilized a principal factor analysis in order to investigate 607 Japanese university students' individual traits as well as to measure the frequency of use of learning strategies, learner anxiety, and their motivation. This study also indicated that using promax rotation was the proper analysis for a large dataset.

Regarding methods of extracting the factors, a principal factor analysis was performed by Tsutsui et al. (2005). While a principal factor analysis was performed to detect data structure, a principal component analysis was generally used for data reduction (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003). When previous studies used exploratory factor analysis, researchers specifically performed principal component analysis to investigate learners' individual differences (Gardner et al., 1997). Exploratory factor analysis (EFA)

is often confused with principal component analysis (PCA). The main difference between the EFA and PCA is that the researcher is simply interested in performing data reduction (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003).

In terms of methods of extracting the factors, a principal component analysis was used to determine the structure of the relationships among various measures of attitudes, motivation, self-confidence, anxiety, aptitude and learning strategies (Gardner et al., 1997). The data was collected from a total of 102 university students who were enrolled in introductory French. Researchers found the following five factors using varimax rotation: 1) self-confidence, 2) language leaning strategies, 3) motivation, 4) language aptitude, and 5) orientation to learn (Gardner et al., 1997).

In addition to the most common rotation methods, varimax rotation, El-Dib (2004) found the following eight factors with using exploratory factor analysis: 1) active naturalistic use of English, 2) metacognitive planning, 3) cognitive compensatory strategies, 4) sensory-memory strategies, 5) repetition-revision strategies, 6) social strategies, 7) affective strategies, and 8) cognitive memory strategies. In terms of gender, the data collected was from a total of 504 (244 male and 260 female) college students who studied English for special purposes from a leading educational institution in Kuwait. The main purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between gender and language level, and the underlying factors of the SILL (El-Dib, 2004).

In sum, there were different results because previous studies used different statistical techniques and procedures. It is clear that the choice of statistical procedure can have an important impact on the interpretation of the study results. Consequently, previous studies provided different insights into the construct of motivation and learning

strategies with using divergent statistical techniques. It is possible that researchers first used an exploratory factor analysis to generate a theory about the constructs underlying their measures, and then tested the significance of a specific factor loading for performing a confirmatory factor analysis. Ultimately, it is expected that there is a crucial decision for researchers when they decide what statistical techniques that should be performed, as well as when they determine the number of factors in their studies. While the scree plot was used in the current study to determine the number of factors, none of the previous studies identified the same criteria for deciding the number of factors.

More importantly, the significant distinction between the previous studies and the current study is that the current study is the first to combine the use of MSLQ and SILL using factor analysis. Regarding the incorporated use of MSLQ and SILL, the current study gives a new direction to ESL education research in terms of self-regulation in higher education.

Exploratory factor analysis

As stated in the previous chapter, factor analysis is a set of statistical techniques used to identify groups of related factors. Factor analysis allowed the researcher to reduce the number of overlapping factors to a smaller set of factors. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) can be used to identify the underlying structure including common factors and relationships among a set of observable variables (Costello & Osborne, 2005). Ultimately, the use of EFA is to determine what sets of items overlap in a questionnaire, as well as to select what features are most significant when classifying a group of items. For this study, an exploratory factor analysis was selected, because the factors underlying the motivation and learning strategies were not identified from the MSLQ and the SILL.

That is, previous studies had not demonstrated the factor structures for motivation, and for learning strategies utilizing both MSLQ and SILL. The data analysis involved the use of maximum likelihood extraction (using squared multiple correlations) with Varimax rotation to identify from the MSLQ and the SILL.

Factor analysis required two important procedures, factor extraction and factor rotation. The primary goal of the first procedure was to make an initial decision about the number of factors underlying the set of measured variables. The main goal of the second procedure was to statistically control the results to make hidden factors more explainable (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003).

To better understand the data, an exploratory factor analysis was performed utilizing an extraction method of a maximum likelihood technique with varimax rotation. The purpose of performing exploratory factor analysis was to reduce the number of measures, and to identify an appropriate factor structure for eighty-one MSLQ and fifty SILL questions. The first step was that items with low communalities were eliminated. The majority of MSLQ values were identified as being meaningful. The initial objective was to retain only items with factor loadings greater than .40 in order to determine whether a factor should be considered salient. Additionally, exploratory factor analysis utilized a Scree plot as a statistical method of interpretation. The Scree plot was a method for determining the number of factors to retain.

As with the present study, the Scree plot of MSLQ indicated that two possible factors would be retained. Applying a maximum likelihood extracting method, two factors were subsequently extracted and rotated. Factor 1 presumed a participant's motivational learning strategies and factor 2 implied a participant's metacognitive self-

regulation strategies. At this point, the content of each factor reflected the original two components of MSLQ, motivation and learning strategies. That is, it is crucial that significant factors should be reasonable from the original proposed MSLQ constructs.

However, the SILL demonstrated only eleven items that loaded saliently. Similarly, the Scree plot showed two potential factors would be retained. Both factors showed strong loadings, such that most items loaded with a factor loading of .40 or greater. As a result, factor analytic results demonstrated that two significant factors contained language learning strategies. Given a maximum likelihood technique, two factors were extracted. Factor 1 presupposed cognitive strategies and factor 2 indicated metacognitive strategies. Interestingly, factor 2 from the MSLQ could be similar to these two factors from the SILL. That is, these factors may suggest that learners' learning strategies especially focused on metacognition and self-regulation. Regarding learning strategies, metacognitive self-regulation would be considered the common factor.

By applying exploratory analysis to both factors from the MSLQ and both factors from the SILL, demonstrated four entitled factors: 1) motivational learning strategies, 2) metacognitive self-regulation strategies, 3) cognitive strategies, and 4) metacognitive strategies. The three factors, with the exception of motivational learning strategies, could be analyzed within self-regulated learning perspectives. While two factors from the SILL were identified within self-regulated learning strategies standpoint, it should be noted that these factors were only focused on the set of language learning strategies.

Researchers have contemplated what language learning strategies are. Furthermore, they have become aware of the broaden perspective of learning strategies that are linked to self-regulation (Tseng, Dörnyei, & Schmitt 2006). Interestingly,

Dörnyei et al. (2006) have proposed a new research instrument based on self-regulation for language learners. Ultimately, the findings of factors from the SILL in this study supported a new conceptual approach for assessing language learners' self-regulation. Overall, each of two factors were extracted from the MSLQ and the SILL. One factor from the MSLQ was clearly identified as motivational. The other factor reflected the learners' self-regulation and learning strategies.

Conclusions

Although numerous studies exist that have examined how motivation and the learning strategies employed by students can be improved to enhance their academic achievement, to date, little research has studied the use of learning strategies by immigrant students and how these strategies relate to academic performance. Therefore, this study represents a preliminary research study that more closely examines the educational resources of immigrant students along the continuum of ESL research in higher education.

The context of educational psychology has been modified and the study of self-regulated learning has been a current focus in educational practice (Boekaerts, Pintrich, & Zeidner, 2000). Two main themes emerged when examining the survey findings from this current study in regard to the context of educational psychology. First, results showed that the MSLQ related to motivational strategies as well as learning strategies that predicted the academic success of generation 1.5 Korean students. Secondly, findings from both survey instruments, showed an overlap of metacognitive strategies in terms of self-regulated learning that enabled generation 1.5 Korean students to achieve desired academic tasks. By combining responses from the MSLQ and the SILL, the

finding demonstrated that the generation 1.5 Korean students were certainly self-regulated learners.

Zimmerman (2000) identified characteristics of self-regulating students as learners who were active participants with metacognitive, motivational, and behavioral points of view. Relatedly, Montalvo & González Torres (2004) summarized the following characteristics of self-regulating students (Corno, 2001; Weinstein, Husman and Dierking, 2000; Winne, 1995; Zimmerman, 1998, 2000, 2001, 2002):

- 1) They are familiar with and know how to use a series of cognitive strategies (repetition, elaboration and organization), which help them to attend to, transform, organize, elaborate and recover information.
- 2) They know how to plan, control and direct their mental processes toward the achievement of personal goals (*metacognition*).
- 3) They show a set of motivational beliefs and adaptive emotions, such as a high sense of academic self-efficacy, the adoption of learning goals, the development of positive emotions towards tasks (e.g., joy, satisfaction, enthusiasm), as well as the capacity to control and modify these, adjusting them to requirements of the task and of the specific learning situation.
- 4) They plan and control the time and effort to be used on tasks, and they know how to create and structure favorable learning environments, such as finding a suitable place to study, and seek help from teachers and classmates when they have difficulties.
- 5) To the extent that the context allows it, they show greater efforts to participate in the control and regulation of academic tasks, classroom climate and

structure (e.g., how one will be evaluated, task requirements, the design of class assignments, organization of work teams).

- 6) They are able to put into play a series of volitional strategies, aimed at avoiding external and internal distractions, in order to maintain their concentration, effort and motivation while performing academic tasks.

(pp. 3-4).

With regards to characteristics of self-regulating student, it is clear that generation 1.5 Korean students were self-motivated and they could control their mental processes; furthermore, they created a comfortable learning environment in order to achieve their academic goals.

The current study also contributes to the educational research literature not only by supporting previous research on self-regulated learning, but also by bringing about the significant opportunity of revisiting characteristics of self-regulated learners. Ultimately, this present study appears to have confirmed an important indicator of educational practice as well as ESL learning by combining the MSLQ and the SILL.

This study utilized an exploratory factor analysis to determine the factor structures for the self-regulated learning strategy and for the motivation. Exploratory factor analysis was used to reduce variables and to generate research hypotheses about the underlying constructs of the study. Applying exploratory factor analysis allowed the researcher to analyze the data by grouping variables that were correlated with each other. As stated earlier, there were three main research hypotheses: 1) the first conclusion was that there was a positive, significant relationship between self-regulated learning strategy and motivation, 2) the second conclusion was that there was a positive, significant

relationship between the MSLQ learning strategies and the SILL learning strategies, and lastly 3) the third conclusion was that there was a positive, significant relationship between the MSLQ total scores and the SILL total scores.

Finally, the current study brings attention to the methodology utilized by other researchers by applying exploratory factor analysis in the examination of both the MSLQ and the SILL. While previous studies used the MSLQ and the SILL separately to investigate motivation and learning strategies, this study extended previous findings by combining the two survey instruments. More specifically, when examining generation 1.5 students, there have been many studies that have focused on issues related to the teaching of writing to generation 1.5 students (Harklau et al., 1999). In addition to significant academic issues, however, little research has studied generation 1.5 students' learning process in general. Regarding the context of educational psychology, this study suggests aspects that are useful for developing and considering pedagogical practices for students with diverse learning backgrounds.

This study has expanded the understanding of how self-regulation plays a significant role in managing academic tasks as well as their ESL learning process. This study has contributed to the insights that may more effectively explain how motivation and the learning strategies used by generation 1.5 immigrant students can influence their academic success.

Implications

The first implication from this study is the value of incorporating MSLQ and SILL to examine the factors underlying the motivation and learning strategies of generation 1.5 Korean American immigrant students. This study provides a framework

for better understanding generation 1.5 immigrant students, because sufficient attention has not been addressed in the research that has been conducted in an effort to investigate the academic difficulties that confront immigrant college students. This study contributes to Tseng et al.'s (2006) new research which has focused on self-regulation for language learners. Similarly to the MSLQ, the new research, Self-Regulating Capacity in Vocabulary Learning (SRCvoc), offers learners' underlying self-regulatory capacity (Tseng et al., 2006). Unlike previous studies that simply used the SILL to assess language learning strategy use, this study pursues the significance of self-regulation by incorporating MSLQ and SILL in ESL perspective as well as educational psychology. Indeed, this study reinforces Tseng et al.'s (2006) new research because the new research instrument, Self-Regulating Capacity in Vocabulary Learning (SRCvoc) is similar to the MSLQ item to further the assessment of learners' self-regulatory capacity. In particular, this study brings into a crucial aspect of self-regulation from the MSLQ not only to examine the learning process in general but also to assess ESL learning. Thus, this study reinforces the concept of Rubin's (2005) construct of learner self-management, which parallels self-regulation in second language studies.

While the MSLQ is focused on general learning strategies, the SILL, on the other hand, is focused on language learning strategies (Dörnyei, 2005, 2006). Unfortunately, the necessary framework about a broader concept of self-regulation and learning strategies for immigrant students has not been studied thoroughly. Therefore, this study clearly can make a meaningful implication when a researcher uses both MSLQ and SILL to investigate common factors regarding motivation and learning strategies for immigrant student populations.

Ultimately, this study offers a new direction for ESL research, because the intended use of combining both MSLQ and SILL for this study was to expose the nature of self-regulation, so that it can be identified as an important language learning strategy for determining immigrant students' learning processes. Furthermore, it is important that ESL researchers contribute to the growing body of research on self-regulated learning and motivation in the learning process that has begun to take place in the United States (Rheinberg, Vollmeyer, & Rollett, 2000). Given the salient aspect of self-regulated learning strategies on the learning process, it is interesting to see how motivation factors affect academic tasks (Dörnyei, 2005). Clearly, the main assumption underlying the factors of motivation within the circumstance of self-regulated learning is an important aspect in higher education.

At this point, it is necessary to inquire as to what constitutes self-regulated learning and how self-regulated learning can influence academic success. Interestingly, self-regulated learning has been linked to deeper cognitive processing, metacognition and motivation to meet the demands of academic tasks (Boekaert & Niemivirta; Winne & Perry, 2000). As discussed earlier, four factors from MSLQ and SILL include motivation and metacognition: 1) motivational learning strategies, 2) metacognitive self-regulation strategies, 3) cognitive strategies, and 4) metacognitive strategies. Reviewing the entitled factors demonstrated how the structuring of self-regulated learning established the connection between motivation and metacognition.

It is necessary to foster and to promote self-regulated learning when it is adaptive for immigrant students, and even American students within unique learning situations. Additionally, it is crucial to identify situations where self-regulated learning may

contribute to reach learners' specific academic goals in college. For example, immigrant students have different personal academic goals (e.g., speaking practice during class, writing class reports) compared to American students. Regarding learners' academic goals, educators need to encourage Korean American students to expand their English skills and social competencies by participating in different types of class activities. Typically, Korean immigrant students' learning styles are different from American students due to their distinct cultural backgrounds (Park, 2002).

Gaining a deeper understanding of the unique relationship that exists between motivation and metacognition can support both better teaching practices and effective instructional resources in higher education, including the support that such research offers in pointing out the important implications for ESL research. There is no doubt that self-regulated learning plays an essential role in influencing academic performance.

The results of this study have several practical implications for teaching, and for serving as an instructional guide. More specifically, it is helpful to provide instructional guides for immigrant students who can adapt self-regulated learning strategies for achieving academic success. With regards to characteristics of self-regulated learning, metacognition plays a crucial role in the process of self-regulated learning (Garcia & Pintrich, 1994; Pintrich, 2002). The educator needs to consider the role of metacognitive knowledge in teaching. Because of showing the number of college students having little metacognitive knowledge, it is necessary that metacognitive knowledge is embedded in different subjects (Pintrich, 2002). Teachers can provide general strategies for thinking and problem solving within different academic contexts (e.g., English, mathematics, sciences, social sciences, art, music, and physical education courses). Pintrich (2002)

noted that the teaching of metacognitive knowledge will help students use general strategies for reading comprehension or writing. In particular, Pintrich (2002) highlighted that the key aspect of teaching includes teaching metacognitive knowledge in their regular unit planning. Consequently, it is important that the educator needs to consider teaching metacognitive knowledge for students to be self-regulated learners.

Researchers have focused on teachers' perspectives of self-regulated learning in higher education. The nature of teachers' belief has been particularly the topic of research discussion (Kember, 1997; Pajares, 1992; Pratt, 1998). Pratt (1998) highlighted that "if people want to understand and influence teaching, they must go beneath the surface to consider the intentions and beliefs underlying behavior" (p. 11). When educators truly understand the different beliefs and intentions that influence their teaching practice, they can improve their teaching practice by focusing on their own intentions and beliefs in order to prepare for the different responsibilities of guiding their students. The research study of what self-regulated learning is about, what processes are involved in it and how to teach them, has received extensive attention within educational psychology (Montalvo & González Torres, 2004).

Researchers have found a number of essential issues regarding the role of teacher in the process of self-regulated learning (Bolhuis, 2001; Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 1996). It is crucial that teachers incorporate knowledge of the discipline with the learning skills in order to learn the subject content matter. For instance, when a student learns a difficult text and does not know where to start, the teacher can provide clues by demonstrating how to break the text into components and examples of strategies to study text material (Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 1996). At this point, educators should be aware that students

have a tendency to be dependent on teachers to get started in a particular context (e.g., foreign language learning). In addition, teachers need to figure out what the student knows about the subject matter; what are the resources available to the student; and what is the student's anxiety level (e.g., how does the student feel about taking this test or doing class projects). When educators need to change their own strategies in their teaching practice, it is possible that they can establish what they detect significant. For instance, when teachers develop their own principles and strategies regarding self-regulated learning in their classroom teaching environment, students are led to articulate the need for their academic goal setting (Randi & Corno, 2000).

Educators may have different views of how the student becomes a self-regulated learner. It is possible that teachers may have different levels of teaching practice and teacher training. The important aspect of teaching for self-regulated learning is to investigate how students perceive different teachers' instruction. It is possible that the student's level of self-regulated learning is influenced by various factors (e.g., motivation, personality, socioeconomic status). The challenge for teachers is how to address the needs of the student who is not ready to receive instruction in self-regulated learning.

At this point, it is important to realize that the student's motivation impacts on their self-regulated learning process and how well teachers understand students' worldview. In terms of worldview, Korean's worldview is influenced by Confucianism that has provided with a strong cultural value emphasizing the importance of education. Koreans believe that the concept of success in life, or "rising in the world," has always been linked with the education of their children (Park, 1999). Additionally, Park (1999) remarks that Korean American parents consider education not only as a means of success

but also as a measure of one's self-worth. They believe that learning is inherently good and valuable. It is quite common to see education is a conversational topic among Korean parents (e.g., What college or universities do you want your children to go to? Instead of, Do you want your children to go to college?) (Park, 1999). Interestingly, this conversation might even start when their children are still in elementary school. Korean parents urge their children to value education (Park, 1999; Kim, 2008). It is apparent from the story of Korean students' academic success that Korean parents provide their children with the best possible education. For example, Korean parents are willing to take out a personal loan from the bank to pay for their children's private university education. Kim (2008) points out that education is considered an essential obligation of the Korean parents. Clearly, Confucian philosophy is very influential in Korean family values. The analysis of cultural influence regarding parents' high expectation of their children's academic achievement has been a common factor of Korean students' academic success. Another aspect of contributing academic success of Korean students involves their obligations based on Confucian value system. Korean children's obligations to their parents are to achieve the greatest education possible (Kim, 2008). Korean students are becoming more globalized in terms of their access to English education in South Korea and their opportunities for studying abroad. This becomes clear why there are many Korean students in the Ivy League and elite universities (Kim, 2008). In addition, Korean students tend to follow their parents' expectations and they are highly motivated not only to have approval of parents' satisfaction but also to have material concerns such as job prospects. It is important to note that identifying the family

values of students' cultural background helps create a better understanding of students' academic development.

Limitations

A major limitation of this study was the participant's status of arrival in the U.S. This study's participants were mainly "late-arriving students", including "parachuted kids." It would be advisable that a researcher regulate the participants' status of arrival in the U.S. in order to have an unmixed sample for the study. For instance, a researcher could identify "early-arriving students" without including "parachute kids."

An important limitation of this study reveals some doubt related to the decision of utilizing a second research instrument, Strategies Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) to examine language learning strategies. The initial intended purpose of using the SILL for this study was that utilizing the SILL was appropriate due to the popularity of the SILL as being the most often selected instrument for assessing language learning strategy use (Chamot, 2004; Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997; Kato, 2005; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989). In addition, the strength of the SILL as a research instrument has been demonstrated in this study and it has been proven to be a useful resource in research studies. Dörnyei (2005) argued that the SILL provided a rising awareness of language learning strategies among the students who participated in his study.

Interestingly, however, researchers have argued that the use of the SILL was not sufficient for research purposes. One particular study revealed that the use of language strategy was related with a low level of achievement (Gardner et al., 1997). Furthermore, Dörnyei (2005) pointed out that "one can be a generally good memory strategy user while scoring low on some of the items in the memory scales" (p. 182). These findings suggest

that it is better not to use the SILL in research because “the scales in the SILL are not cumulative and a computing mean scale score is psychometrically not justifiable” (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 182). Although the SILL was chosen for this study, it would have been more meaningful to use another research instrument, which would be similar to the MSLQ.

Another limitation of this study was the procedure used in the collection of the data. The survey that was used in this study was administered to participants who attended Korean churches located in Pittsburgh and Philadelphia. While the current study did not examine whether different denominations of churches and socioeconomic status of families that participants came from are covariates, these are advised for future researchers.

A larger number of participants could have been surveyed, if the study had been administered to students who were members of the Korean Student Association located in universities throughout Pennsylvania. More interestingly, the results of the study would have revealed a significant difference among students in different institutions. By surveying a larger and more diverse number of subjects who would have provided social/cultural histories that would have been shaped by the values, beliefs and assumptions of a wide range U.S. institutions of higher education, it is possible that the results would have demonstrated statistically significant differences in the factors underlying the motivation and learning strategies of generation 1.5 Korean American immigrant students. For instance, the responses from Ivy League college generation 1.5 Korean American students could be different compared to the responses from Korean immigrant students who attended working-class colleges.

Recommendation for Future Research

Future research needs to examine several of the limitations mentioned above, and further discuss some implications mentioned earlier. As discussed earlier regarding the concept of self-regulation and learning strategies, there is a need for more research that will examine the development and the use of learning strategies in a new learning environment. Future research should help to better understand the application of self-regulation to link learning strategies with educational practices. At this point, researchers need to find ways to integrate research that has focused its attention upon individual differences with research that will focus its attention upon the development of self-regulation within different demographic and sociocultural backgrounds in student populations. Therefore, there is a need for studies that will undertake the important mission examining how and under what specific instructional conditions individual learners become efficient self-regulated learners. It is important to investigate what crucial factors in the learning environment help and support students to manage and monitor their own learning processes for their academic success in college.

As indicated previously, the MSLQ was originally made designed to collect data that would provide information about performance in a specific class. For this reason, questions with very slight rewording were made to ask about performance in general rather than in a specific class. The MSLQ was utilized differently from other self-report instruments such as the Learning and Study Strategies Inventory (LASSI) which assessed students' learning strategies and attitudes in general (Duncan & McKeachie, 2005). It would be more appropriate to use the Learning and Study Strategies Inventory (LASSI) for this study instead of modifying the MSLQ. However, it should be noted that selecting

the proper research instruments, whether the MSLQ or the LASSI, would depend upon how the potential participants, in class or outside of the class, would be expected to participate in a future study. In addition to the selection of the most effective research instruments for future study, it would be worthwhile to conduct a factor analysis of language learning strategies for immigrant students using other language learning strategy instruments like Language Strategy Use Inventory and Index (LSUII) rather than the SILL.

Future research may need to consider conducting a longitudinal study, if college freshmen from several different institutions were to be considered as study's participants. Due to the differences that exist among academic schedules among academic institutions, collecting data for a future study would take some time to be analyzed. It would be valuable to further investigate significant differences in the factors underlying the motivation and learning strategies of Ivy League college Korean American students. It is worthy to compare these elite students' self-regulated learning strategies with other generation 1.5 immigrant students' self-regulated learning strategies.

Regarding self-regulated learning as an individual difference factor, the most important aspect of self-regulated learning is that students may choose a unique technique to apply their own way to develop their learning skills in college. Considering such an understanding of individual difference factor would provide very useful recourses for the design and development of instructional materials to guide academic success in college. Because of the rapid growth of immigrant student groups, educators need to track the differences that exist among this group of students as they relate to the learning processes that they have adopted to assist them in accomplishing the academic work expected of

their instructors. Such an effort will make a significant contribution to ESL research in its mission to gain a deeper and better understanding of the difficulties that these students face as they attempt to produce academic work, and such an effort will provide valuable support in the attempts that educators and researchers make to find instructional methods and practices that will meet the needs of these students as they struggle to succeed in college. The primary intention with this study has been to show the complexity of education issues of immigrant students, while introducing potential and useful research instruments for establishing future research.

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Appendix A

Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire

Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire

Part A. Motivation

The following questions ask about your motivation for and attitudes about this class.

Remember there are no right or wrong answers, just answer as accurately as possible. Use the scale below to answer the questions. If you think the statement is very true of you, circle 7; if a statement is not at all true of you, circle 1. If the statement is more or less true of you, find the number between 1 and 7 that best describes you.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all			True of me			Very true of me

1. In a class like this, I prefer course material that really challenges me so I can learn new things.
2. If I study in appropriate ways, then I will be able to learn the material in this course.
3. When I take a test I think about how poorly I am doing compared with other students.
4. I think I will be able to use what I learn in this course in other courses.
5. I believe I will receive an excellent grade in this class.
6. I'm certain I can understand the most difficult material presented in the readings for this course.
7. Getting a good grade in this class is the most satisfying thing for me right now.

8. When I take a test I think about items on other parts of the test I can't answer.
9. It is my own fault if I don't learn the material in this course.
10. It is important for me to learn the course material in this class.
11. The most important thing for me right now is improving my overall grade point average, so my main concern in this class is getting a good grade.
12. I'm confident I can learn the basic concepts taught in this course.
13. If I can, I want to get better grades in this class than most of the other students.
14. When I take tests I think of the consequences of failing.
15. I'm confident I can understand the most complex material presented by the instructor in this course.
16. In a class like this, I prefer course material that arouses my curiosity, even if it is difficult to learn.
17. I am very interested in the content area of this course.
18. If I try hard enough, then I will understand the course material.
19. I have an uneasy, upset feeling when I take an exam.
20. I'm confident I can do an excellent job on the assignments and tests in this course.
21. I expect to do well in this class.
22. The most satisfying thing for me in this course is trying to understand the content as thoroughly as possible.
23. I think the course material in this class is useful for me to learn.

24. When I have the opportunity in this class, I choose course assignments that I can learn from even if they don't guarantee a good grade.
25. If I don't understand the course material, it is because I didn't try hard enough.
26. I like the subject matter of this course.
27. Understanding the subject matter of this course is very important to me.
28. I feel my heart beating fast when I take an exam.
29. I'm certain I can master the skills being taught in this class.
30. I want to do well in this class because it is important to show my ability to my family, friends, employer, or others.
31. Considering the difficulty of this course, the teacher, and my skills, I think I will do well in this class.

Part B. Learning Strategies

The following questions ask about your learning strategies and study skills for this class.

Again, there are no right or wrong answers. Answer the questions about how you study in this class as accurately as possible. Use the same scale to answer the remaining questions. If you think the statement is very true of you, circle 7; if a statement is not at all true of you, circle 1. If the statement is more or less true of you, find the number between 1 and 7 that best describes you.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all			True of me			Very true of me

32. When I study the readings for this course, I outline the material to help me organize my thoughts.
33. During class time I often miss important points because I'm thinking of other things. (reverse coded)
34. When studying for this course, I often try to explain the material to a classmate or friend.
35. I usually study in a place where I can concentrate on my course work.
36. When reading for this course, I make up questions to help focus my reading.
37. I often feel so lazy or bored when I study for this class that I quit before I finish what I planned to do. (reverse coded)
38. I often find myself questioning things I hear or read in this course to decide if I find them convincing.

39. When I study for this class, I practice saying the material to myself over and over.
40. Even if I have trouble learning the material in this class, I try to do the work on my own, without help from anyone. (reverse coded)
41. When I become confused about something I'm reading for this class, I go back and try to figure it out.
42. When I study for this course, I go through the readings and my class notes and try to find the most important ideas.
43. I make good use of my study time for this course.
44. If course readings are difficult to understand, I change the way I read the material.
45. I try to work with other students from this class to complete the course assignments.
46. When studying for this course, I read my class notes and the course readings over and over again.
47. When a theory, interpretation, or conclusion is presented in class or in the readings, I try to decide if there is good supporting evidence.
48. I work hard to do well in this class even if I don't like what we are doing.
49. I make simple charts, diagrams, or tables to help me organize course material.
50. When studying for this course, I often set aside time to discuss course material with a group of students from the class.
51. I treat the course material as a starting point and try to develop my own ideas about it.

52. I find it hard to stick to a study schedule. (reverse coded)
53. When I study for this class, I pull together information from different sources, such as lectures, readings, and discussions.
54. Before I study new course material thoroughly, I often skim it to see how it is organized.
55. I ask myself questions to make sure I understand the material I have been studying in this class.
56. I try to change the way I study in order to fit the course requirements and the instructor's teaching style.
57. I often find that I have been reading for this class but don't know what it was all about. (reverse coded)
58. I ask the instructor to clarify concepts I don't understand well.
59. I memorize key words to remind me of important concepts in this class.
60. When course work is difficult, I either give up or only study the easy parts.
(reverse coded)
61. I try to think through a topic and decide what I am supposed to learn from it rather than just reading it over when studying for this course.
62. I try to relate ideas in this subject to those in other courses whenever possible.
63. When I study for this course, I go over my class notes and make an outline of important concepts.
64. When reading for this class, I try to relate the material to what I already know.
65. I have a regular place set aside for studying.

66. I try to play around with ideas of my own related to what I am learning in this course.
67. When I study for this course, I write brief summaries of the main ideas from the readings and my class notes.
68. When I can't understand the material in this course, I ask another student in this class for help.
69. I try to understand the material in this class by making connections between the readings and the concepts from the lectures.
70. I make sure that I keep up with the weekly readings and assignments for this course.
71. Whenever I read or hear an assertion or conclusion in this class, I think about possible alternatives.
72. I make lists of important items for this course and memorize the lists.
73. I attend this class regularly.
74. Even when course materials are dull and uninteresting, I manage to keep working until I finish.
75. I try to identify students in this class whom I can ask for help if necessary.
76. When studying for this course I try to determine which concepts I don't understand well.
77. I often find that I don't spend very much time on this course because of other activities. (reverse coded)
78. When I study for this class, I set goals for myself in order to direct my activities in each study period.

79. If I get confused taking notes in class, I make sure I sort it out afterwards.
80. I rarely find time to review my notes or readings before an exam. (reverse coded)
81. I try to apply ideas from course readings in other class activities such as lecture and discussion.

Appendix B

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING (SILL)

Version for speakers of Other Languages Learning English

Version 7.0 (ESL/EFL)

© R. Oxford, 1989

Directions

This form of the STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING (SILL) is for students of English as a second or foreign language. You will find statements about learning English. Please read each statement. On the separate Worksheet, write the response (1,2,3,4 or 5) that tells HOW TRUE OF YOU THE STATEMENT IS.

1. Never or almost never true of me
2. Usually not true of me.
3. Somewhat true of me
4. Usually true of me
5. Always or almost always true of me

NEVER OR ALMOST NEVER TRUE OF ME means that the statement is very rarely true of you.

USUALLY NOT TRUE OF ME means that the statement is true less than half the time.

SOMEWHAT TRUE OF ME means that the statement is true of you about half the time.

USUALLY TRUE OF ME means that the statement is true more than half the time.

ALWAYS OR ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE OF ME means that the statement is true of you almost always.

Answer in terms of how well the statement describes you. Do not answer how you think you should be, or what other people do. There are no right or wrong answers to these statements. Put your answers on the separate Worksheet. Please make no marks on the items. Work as quickly as you can without being careless. This usually takes about 20-30 minutes to complete. If you have any question, let the teacher know immediately.

1. I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.
2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.
3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.
4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.
5. I use rhymes to remember new English words.
6. I use flashcards to remember new English words.
7. I physically act out new English words.
8. I review English lessons often.

9. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.
10. I say or write new English words several times.
11. I try to talk like native English speakers.
12. I practise the sounds of English.
13. I use the English words I know in different ways.
14. I start conversations in English.
15. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.
16. I read for pleasure in English.
17. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.
18. I first skim an English passage (read the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.
19. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.
20. I try to find patterns in English.
21. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.
22. I try not to translate word-for-word.
23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.
24. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.
25. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.
26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.
27. I read English without looking up every new word.

28. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.
29. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.
30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.
31. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.
32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.
33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.
34. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.
35. I look for people I can talk to in English.
36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.
37. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.
38. I think about my progress in learning English.
39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.
40. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.
41. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.
42. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.
43. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.
44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.
45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.
46. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.
47. I practice English with other students.

48. I ask for help from English speakers.
49. I ask questions in English.
50. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.

Appendix C
Demographic Questionnaire

Demographic Questionnaire

Please answer the following questions about yourself. Your answers will be treated in a confidential manner and only identified to the researcher for this study.

1. Date:

2. Gender:

Male

Female

3. Age:

4. In what country was your father born?

5. In what country was your mother born?

6. Ethnicity (Please check all that apply):

Asian American

Korean American

7. First (Native) Language:

8. Age of immigration:

5-11

12-14

14-16

16-18

9. Length of residence in the United States: years

10. Citizenship status:

U.S. citizen

U.S. permanent resident (green card holder)

Citizen of Korea with a student visa or other non-immigrant visa

11. If you are a Korean citizen, when did you arrive in America?

5-11

12-14

14-16

16-18

12. SAT scores:

13. American high school GPA:
14. How many advanced placement courses have you completed?
15. How would you describe your ESL learning? (e.g., beginner, intermediate, or advanced)

Appendix D

Institutional Review Board (IRB) Approval



DUQUESNE UNIVERSITY

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Duquesne University
Institutional Review Board
Approval Date: September 8, 2008
Expiration Date: September 8, 2009

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH STUDY

- TITLE:** An Examination of the Factors Underlying the Motivation and Learning Strategies of Generation 1.5 Korean American Students
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Department of Instructional Leadership in Education
(412) 396-1151
- SOURCE OF SUPPORT:** This study is being performed as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Ed.D. degree in Instructional Leadership at Duquesne University.
- PURPOSE:** The purpose of the study is to examine how Korean American students learn in the United States. Specifically, this study will look at motivation and learning strategies of Korean American students and will compare those to American-born students.
You will be asked to provide some background information and to fill out two surveys. It will take you approximately 30 minutes to complete the forms.
If you choose not to participate in the research, you can either leave, or you can sit there, non-conforming and doing nothing while waiting for participants to finish.
- RISKS AND BENEFITS:** While there will be no direct benefits to you, your participation will help future teachers who work with Korean-born, generation 1.5 students.

COMPENSATION: You will not receive any compensation for participation in this research.

CONFIDENTIALITY: Your name will never appear on any survey or research instruments. No identity will be made in the data analysis. All written materials and consent forms will be stored in a locked file in the researcher's home. Your response(s) will only appear in statistical data summaries. All materials will be destroyed at the completion of the research.

RIGHT TO WITHDRAW: You are under no obligation to participate in this study. You are free to withdraw your consent to participate at any time.

SUMMARY OF RESULTS: A summary of the results of this research will be supplied to you, at no cost, upon request.

VOLUNTARY CONSENT: I have read the above statements and understand what is being requested of me. I also understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw my consent at any time, for any reason. On these terms, I certify that I am willing to participate in this research project. I also certify that I am at least 18 years old.

I understand that should I have any further questions about my participation in this study, I may call Dr. Paul Richer, Chair of the Duquesne University Institutional Review Board 412-396-6326.

Participant's Signature

Date

Researcher's Signature

Date