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Advising with Purpose: Utilizing the Motivation for College Success Model

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CHAPTER TWO

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Good advising begins with good listening. Active listening workshops often direct participants to reflect back to speakers what they are saying and to practice using the "what I hear you saying is . . ." tag in roleplay situations. Reflecting back is also an important listening skill in advising that helps to build rapport, to enable students to see their situation more objectively, and to keep the ownership of the decision-making process in students' own hands. Because of the limited time an advisor sometimes has with students, purposeful listening to assess their level of motivation for learning and success can lead to more focused advising conversations and to meaningful growth outcomes for the students. In particular, honors students, who are often described as highly motivated but also prone to higher levels of anxiety and perfectionism, can benefit

from this approach to advising to build on that motivation and to manage anxieties that may become barriers to their success.

A knowledge of motivation theory equips advisors for such purposeful listening and motivational advising. Studies of motivation applied to college student learning focus on why and how students begin, continue, and develop in their use of learning strategies and their ability to learn. Wilbert McKeachie (Duncan & McKeachie, 2005) began exploring this area in the 1960s, seeking to discover which variables would predict college students' behavior and which factors motivated students to achieve. In the 1980s, Paul R. Pintrich et al. (1991) developed an instrument based on motivation theory called the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ). The MSLQ is comprised of two sections, the first measuring six motivational constructs that have a demonstrated impact on students' achievement and success in college: intrinsic goal orientation, extrinsic goal orientation, task value, control of learning beliefs, self-efficacy for learning and performance, and test anxiety. The second section of the MSLQ instrument measures use of learning strategies that have been linked to success in college. In this chapter, I focus exclusively on the Motivation Scales. Table 1 lists the six Motivation Scales in the instrument, provides a definition of the scale, and the range of scores possible for that scale. The Motivation Scales section of the instrument is included as Appendix A.

The MSLQ has been used extensively in research to understand how students are motivated and the impact of various motivational constructs on their college experience and outcomes (Duncan & McKeachie, 2005). Based upon previous work with the MSLQ instrument, I developed The Motivation for College Success Model (see Figure 1; Santarosa, 2011). The model graphically represents the contribution of each construct to student success and the interrelationship of the constructs to one another. The larger the box or oval, the more influence that construct has on college student achievement. The dotted lines on either side of test anxiety and extrinsic goal orientation represent the way in which these two constructs often form a barrier to success in college. Two-way arrows connect constructs that were shown to positively correlate with one another, that is, to rise and fall together.

In this chapter, for each of the six constructs included in the model, I discuss the following four elements: (a) its definition; (b) its impact on the student experience; (c) ways to assess its presence in a student; and (d) suggestions for responding to the presence of each construct in order to build up those that are positive indicators of student success and to manage or lessen those that are negative.

Before I examine these motivational constructs, it is important to note that, tempting though it may be to try to create a how-to guide to motivational advising, each advising situation is unique.

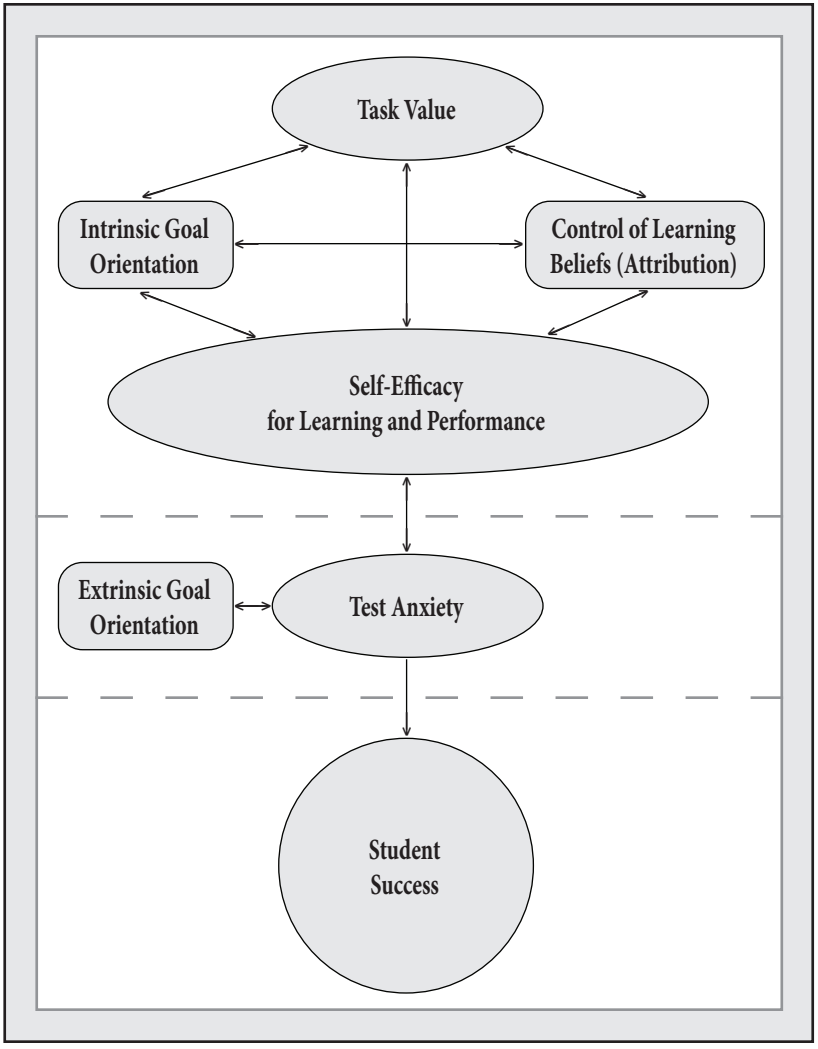
Table 1. Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire Scales

Section	Scale	Definition	Number of Items in Scale	Possible Range of Scores
Motivation Scales	Intrinsic Goal Orientation	"The desire to work because you enjoy the challenge of learning, you are genuinely curious, or you enjoy the feeling of understanding"	4	4–28
	Extrinsic Goal Orientation	"The desire to work because you appreciate the external rewards"	4	4–28
	Task Value	"The extent to which tasks are perceived as interesting, important, useful and worthwhile"	6	6–42
	Control Beliefs about Learning	"The extent to which you believe your efforts will result in positive outcomes"	4	4–28
	Self-Efficacy for Learning & Performance	"Self-appraisal of one's ability to master a task"	8	8–56
	Test Anxiety	"Nervous or anxious feelings during an exam or test; related to poor performance"	5	5–35
Totals	6 scales		31 items	

Note: Definitions in the table above are taken from S. W. VanderStoep and P. R. Pintrich (2003, pp. 275–278).

The reason for the advising session, the needs of the student, the time in the academic cycle when a conversation is occurring, the personality of the advisor and the student, and myriad other variables impact the outcome of an advising session. For that reason, advising is an art that cannot be mechanically performed or succeed through the consistent application of fixed, cookie-cutter techniques. Nevertheless, advisors need tools, and knowing how to

Figure 1. The Motivation for College Success Model



identify a students' motivation and how to build motivational skills will be among the most valuable tools in the advisor's toolbox.

Although these constructs are neatly organized in separate boxes and ovals in the model, they co-exist in reality as a messy bunch of interrelated entities in students' minds and psyches. Discussing them separately is merely a way of calling attention to various student motivators so that advisors can begin to notice how they present themselves in advisees' comments, conversation, affect, and experience and how they can assist advisors in crafting a helpful response.

Finally, these motivational constructs are not fixed traits but rather malleable characteristics. Some researchers refer to them as motivational skills, implying that they can be learned, fostered, and developed. A skilled advisor, then, can influence students' motivations with an eye toward increasing student success and achievement. Knowledge of these constructs is, therefore, particularly practical and valuable.

INTRINSIC AND EXTRINSIC GOAL ORIENTATION: LEARNING AS REWARD

A student's response to the question "why participate in this learning task?" reveals that student's goal orientation. When students engage in a learning task, they do so for a reason; they seek to achieve a goal. Researchers categorize goal orientation as either intrinsic or extrinsic, mirroring work on mastery goals—goals related to increasing understanding, competency, or appreciation—and performance goals—goals related to outperforming others and displaying one's own ability. These constructs are frequently studied together. Scott W. VanderStoep and Paul R. Pintrich (2003) describe students with these goal orientations as follows: students with an intrinsic goal orientation spend time on learning tasks because they enjoy the challenge of learning, are curious, and enjoy understanding. They learn for learning's sake to master a skill, to improve their knowledge, and to realize their potential. In other words, they find value in the task itself. Students with an extrinsic

goal orientation, on the other hand, work for the external rewards: to get a good grade, to receive or to keep a scholarship, or to enjoy the approval of a valued other. They are performing in a particular way to achieve a goal other than the learning itself (VanderStoep & Pintrich, 2003).

Ironically, despite the emphasis on performance associated with extrinsic goal orientation, higher levels of performance as well as a variety of other positive outcomes are associated instead with intrinsic goal orientation. The work of Heidi Grant and Carol S. Dweck (2003), Peggy Hsieh et al. (2007), and Christopher A. Wolters (2004) established that, while intrinsically motivated students do not focus on their performance—they seek to master a body of knowledge or a new skill—they often end up performing at higher levels as well, particularly when they encounter obstacles or challenges. Moreover, a study by Yi Guang Lin et al. (2003) found that intrinsic goal orientation was also associated with higher levels of self-efficacy and more frequent use of learning strategies. Put another way, intrinsically motivated students develop confidence as they persist in a learning process and are willing to find and use new strategies that will assist them along the way. Because they are not focused on performing to receive positive feedback from others, seeking help and using strategies do not compromise their view of themselves as competent individuals. Instead, anything that helps them to learn is welcome because learning is the goal.

Extrinsic goal orientation, on the other hand, can lead students to avoid challenging tasks. If the goal is to receive the reward and if students see that reward as difficult to attain, then they are more likely to avoid engaging in that task with its increased risk of failure. Alternatively, they may choose a less challenging task where there is greater likelihood of achieving the reward. In extreme cases, students may develop learned helplessness: they will expend less effort and decrease strategy use when pursuing a goal to avoid seeing themselves as poor performers should they not reach the goal. Additionally, extrinsically motivated students, who are more prone to evaluating their success through their performance, can frame their success as outperforming others and set themselves up

in competition with other students rather than viewing them as co-learners in a supportive community.

While intrinsic and extrinsic goal orientation are often seen as opposites, they are not mutually exclusive. Instead, it is possible for students to have multiple goals for the same task (Grant & Dweck, 2003; Wolters 2004). For example, a student may research a particular topic both because it is inherently interesting and because extensive research will lead to an excellent grade on a paper. Furthermore, although extrinsic goal orientation is often seen as maladaptive, it is not inherently negative. In fact, Lin et al. (2003) found that, while intrinsically motivated students received high grades, the best grades were obtained by students with a high level of intrinsic motivation coupled with a moderate level of extrinsic motivation. So, while an extrinsic goal orientation is motivating, it needs to be outweighed by intrinsic motivation in order for students to achieve the most positive outcomes.

Honors students, in particular, may experience a complicated relationship with intrinsic and extrinsic goal orientation. Because they were often rewarded for their efforts in high school by appearing on the honor roll or by receiving scholarships, beginning college and hearing the message that they should learn for learning's sake or welcome feedback for its learning value, even when it comes in the form of B or even C grades on papers, assignments, and quizzes, can be confusing for these students. By recognizing and acknowledging this tension, an advisor can help students to resolve it and balance multiple goals.

Because students associate intrinsic motivation with so many positive outcomes, an advisor who can build this kind of motivation in students significantly contributes to their success. A savvy advisor is able to recognize indicators of intrinsic or extrinsic goal orientation. For example, in determining a course schedule, a student may ask "how hard is this class?" revealing a desire to take classes in which the extrinsic reward of an A is attainable. Another student may express a desire to take a class that does not fill a requirement just because it seems interesting, that is, intrinsically rewarding. The purposeful advisor affirms intrinsic motivation where it is

found while acknowledging extrinsic motivation as a fact—sometimes harmful but sometimes helpful—of human existence. That a student wants a high GPA or to fulfill the requirements for a degree is not problematic; in fact, advisors are tasked, in part, with helping students do these very things. Something is lost, however, when such extrinsic concerns outweigh the desire for learning or become a student's primary focus. Thus, before going over the requirements for a degree or reviewing what went wrong last semester to land a student on academic probation, advisors should activate students' intrinsic motivation. For example, an advising session might begin with questions: "What do you want to learn this year?" "What are you curious about?" or "What's the most interesting class you've taken or book you've read?" When working with students on major selection, advisors can share their observations about the subjects that seem to resonate most with students. If a student is clearly more excited to talk about the properties of ceramic glazes in an art class than the activities in the anatomy class that is required for a nursing degree, then that student may have stronger intrinsic motivation toward art than toward nursing. Moreover, advising conversations about the role and purpose of feedback can support the development of intrinsic goal orientation and a growth mindset. Advisors who coach students into seeing instructors' comments on their projects as valuable opportunities to learn instead of as evidence of their failure to perform perfectly set their advisees up to perform better the next time around.

TASK VALUE: A REASON TO LEARN

Students also benefit from advisors who listen for clues regarding what they value in the learning tasks they are undertaking. The construct of task value refers to the extent to which tasks are perceived as interesting, important, useful, and worthwhile (VanderStoep & Pintrich, 2003). Not surprisingly, Dale H. Schunk et al. (2008) found that students are more likely to undertake learning tasks or to choose courses that they perceive as having value

in any one of these ways. The value that students place on a learning task is a predictor of their motivation to complete that task, their likelihood of persisting when the task gets difficult, and their performance on the task (Patall et al., 2008). For example, Jenefer Husman et al. (2004) found that students increased their time spent studying when they connected that time with the achievement of an important future goal. In this example, task value led to an increase in a behavior that is known to contribute to student success.

At first glance, this finding suggests an obvious strategy for advisors. If students are more likely to choose challenging courses, to develop positive habits, or to persist in difficulty when they see value in doing so, then why not simply expound on the value of various courses and tasks? The difficulty is that values are deeply personal. They vary widely between and even within individuals at different points in their lives. Many college students are only beginning to understand, form, shape, and establish their personal values and identities. Traditional-aged students (aged 18–25) are often learning to distinguish their own values from those of their parents and high school communities, and they rarely benefit from another set of values being thrust upon them. A best practice with these students is listening closely for indicators and asking good questions to discover students' values. Honors students, in particular, might struggle with finding their own values because they have often adopted those of others.

Rather than seek to persuade students to value a learning task, then, an advisor contributes to students' identity development process by helping them to clarify their own values. Jeffrey P. Hause's (2017) discussion of attention in honors advising is helpful here. Hause emphasized the need for advisors, first, to develop a thorough understanding of their advisees' learning needs, challenges, and current and emerging values. The next step is to draw connections between the values that students articulate and the learning task at hand. To the extent that a learning task connects or disconnects with students' values, their motivation rises and falls. In the cases of students whose GPA has placed them on academic probation, for example, advisors might help them to articulate whether and why a college education

matters to them. If they are in college merely because it was the next thing to do after high school, then they may find it difficult to choose studying for an economics exam over playing video games until 3:00 A.M. with their roommates. In other words, they need a reason to choose the more difficult option. Conversely, if they can articulate what a college degree will do for them, such as open the door to a particular career, help them to gain critical thinking skills, or connect them to a supportive community, then they have a reason to get up for that 8:00 A.M. class and a clearer idea what is at stake if they fail to turn in an assignment. When honors students can articulate what they hope to gain from an honors program or college curriculum, they are more likely to persist when the challenge stretches them in uncomfortable ways.

The same principle applies to smaller tasks or tasks that hold low interest. The more that such tasks connect to a valued outcome, the more motivated students are to accomplish them and the more likely they are to persist. For example, students may struggle to see the value in taking a required general education course when they could take more interesting courses in their major. Helping them to define what it is that they can gain from the required course and connecting it to a larger task they value can provide them with the motivation they need to engage and invest in that task.

Values-clarification exercises, such as values or list of pros and cons, can effectively make students aware of what is important to them. And, once clarified, their values can guide their decision making. In major exploration advising, or even in course selection, advisors can guide students through comparisons of various options in light of their expressed values. Questions such as the following can advance this effort: "What would making that choice do for you?" "If you made that choice, what would you be giving up?" or "How would this option lead you closer to _____ [a stated value]?"

CONTROL OF LEARNING BELIEFS: EFFORT MATTERS

The next construct, control of learning beliefs, is based on attribution theory and refers to students' beliefs about their own ability

to control the outcome of their efforts at learning. Here, an advisor is listening for student answers to this question: "to what do I attribute my success or failure?" Attribution theorists maintain that students will be more likely to expend effort to use study strategies and, thus, to perform better on academic tasks when they believe that positive outcomes are linked to effort rather than to luck, ability, or task difficulty. Conversely, if students believe that their effort will make little difference in the outcome, they will not be motivated to expend effort on utilizing resources or learning strategies known to enhance achievement (VanderStoep & Pintrich, 2003). For example, students who link their failure on a math test to being bad at math are attributing the outcome to ability. In this scenario, students have little reason to believe that visiting the tutoring center or spending more time studying is worthwhile and cannot see why they should try new strategies or expect different outcomes in the future. Similarly, if students believe that they did well on an assignment because it was easy (task difficulty) or aced a test because they made some lucky guesses or happened to study the right material (luck), then such students also feel no control over the learning outcome and have little motivation to engage in behaviors that would ensure learning and result in future success.

Advisees benefit when advisors take every opportunity to affirm their expenditure of effort on their academic tasks and to challenge or deconstruct students' beliefs that their grades or learning are outside of their control. By supporting and challenging students in this way, advising goes beyond course scheduling and registration and becomes what Jacqueline Klein et al. (2007) would call developmental advising, a process in which students grow and learn. When students share either a success experience or a failure experience, advisors can help them to break it down into the action steps that led them there. If students successfully write a paper, then their advisor is able to affirm actions like planning ahead for writing time, visiting the writing center, consulting with the instructor, or choosing a writing environment that worked for them. This affirmation helps students own their success and to identify specific ways in which their effort mattered. Conversely, if

a student presents a failure narrative, conversation might highlight action steps that could have been taken, emphasizing that different efforts can lead to different outcomes.

Language matters here. References to earning good grades, rather than getting or being given them, value effort expended. Likewise, referring to honors students as high ability or even high achieving can be counterproductive in motivating students to achieve. When our language leads students to believe that their success is due to high intelligence or unchangeable personal qualities outside of their control, we risk setting them up to devalue their efforts and to overidentify with their ability as the source of their success. These labels become identities, and grades become a marker of whether or not a student fits a fixed identity. When grades become a marker of identity, expending effort is dismissed as a possibility because that identity is fixed. Thus, if straight-A high school students earn a B in an honors class, they may reconsider whether they belong in honors.

Interestingly, some research on control of learning beliefs has focused on links to student affect. Jodi Patrick Holschuh et al. (2001) conducted research on college students' beliefs about the causes of failure in a course. They found that sadness, guilt, and shame about failure were experienced most often when students attributed failure to a lack of effort on their part. In essence, students felt poorly about themselves when they did not try. Another tool for an advisor, then, is listening for indicators of student affect and recommending ways for students to apply effort and to change their study strategy.

SELF-EFFICACY: LEARNING AND PERFORMING

The next construct, self-efficacy for learning and performance, also has to do with students' affect and feelings about themselves.[1] It is also the most important of the six constructs in influencing student success. Answers to the question "to what extent do I believe I can do this task?" provide clues to students' level of self-efficacy.

Self-efficacy refers to students' self-appraisal of their ability to master a task (VanderStoep & Pintrich, 2003). A measure of self-efficacy is specific to a particular task and is unrelated to a person's actual competence or likelihood of mastering that task. Students who believe that they can write good essays would have high self-efficacy for that task whether or not they have the experience and related skills to succeed. At the same time, those same students might have low self-efficacy for mathematical problem solving even if they do possess that ability. Their confidence in their abilities matters, and this confidence can vary between tasks.

Intriguingly, studies of self-efficacy reveal that expecting success predicts success. Frank Pajares and John Kranzler (1995) found that self-efficacy has as much influence on academic performance as general mental ability or intelligence. Frank Pajares (1996) provides a summary of research findings on self-efficacy, painting a picture of how far-reaching the influence of this construct can be for students:

> Efficacy beliefs help determine how much effort people will spend on an activity, how long they will persevere when confronting obstacles, and how resilient they will prove in the face of adverse situations—the higher the sense of efficacy, the greater the effort, persistence, and resilience. Efficacy beliefs also influence individuals' thought patterns and emotional reactions. People with low self-efficacy may believe that things are tougher than they really are, a belief that fosters stress, depression, and a narrow vision of how best to solve a problem. High self-efficacy, on the other hand, helps to create feelings of serenity in approaching difficult tasks and activities. As a result of these influences, self-efficacy beliefs are strong determinants and predictors of the level of accomplishment that individuals finally attain. (pp. 544–545)

From the time the concept of self-efficacy was named, a number of studies have focused on discovering how this construct can be built and influenced. Albert Bandura (1977) identified four main influences on self-efficacy: enactive attainments, vicarious

experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological states. Enactive attainments are past success experiences. The idea is that past success leads to future success. Students who successfully pass the first physics exam, for example, are more likely to pass the next one. Students who successfully participated in honors programs in high school are more likely to seek and participate in a college-level honors program or college because they have reason to believe that they can replicate that success. An advisor, upon hearing a student talk about a success experience, would do well to ask the student to stop and dwell on that success or to elaborate on this narrative because doing so can build self-efficacy.

Vicarious experiences also build self-efficacy. Students who see another student like them achieve success are more likely to believe that, if that person can do it, they can as well. For this reason, peer mentoring programs are a powerful tool for building self-efficacy insofar as they offer relatable models of success to newer students. At my institution, for example, our honors orientation programs are implemented almost entirely by peer mentors—honors students who have completed a year or more of college and who have volunteered to share the ups and downs of their honors experience with incoming students. In this way, from the very beginning of their honors experience, students are connected with others who have persisted and thrived despite setbacks and difficulties and who can serve as models to build their own confidence. Whether or not a peer mentoring program exists on a campus, a purposeful advisor can build self-efficacy by helping doubting students to make connections with others who have been successful in comparable situations. Referring students to more advanced peers for real-time conversation, asking them to call to mind others they know who have successfully completed the task, or sharing the story of someone who has done so can all be effective strategies. No matter which strategy is employed, the message is "you are not alone; others have done this and you can, too." Verbal persuasion builds self-efficacy by expressing a similar message: "I believe you can do this; you can believe it, too!" Acknowledgments sections of books and theses consistently include tributes to verbal persuaders who have cheered authors and scholars along and helped them to believe they could

accomplish those tasks. Advisors can be such verbal persuaders for students.

Finally, physiological states also impact self-efficacy, but they do so in a negative way. The more that people experience a negative physiological state when working on a task, the less efficacious they will believe themselves to be. Students who tremble and feel their hearts racing during public speaking are less likely to believe they are effective public speakers and to feel self-efficacy for that task. Upon detecting clues revealing low self-efficacy, such as words like "can't" in an advisee's dialogue or patterns of procrastination linked to doubting one's ability, an advisor can employ enactive attainments, vicarious experiences, or verbal persuasion to build self-efficacy and contribute to that advisee's future success.

TEST ANXIETY: MANAGING INTERFERENCE

The sixth motivational construct measured by the MSLQ is test anxiety. This construct is so well known as an obstacle to students' achievement and success that it has its own scale on the MSLQ. Students experience test anxiety as nervous or anxious feelings during a test or exam to the point where their performance is negatively compromised (VanderStoep & Pintrich, 2003). These apprehensions interrupt students' ability to perform well by decreasing self-efficacy. And, of course, the less students expect to succeed, the less likely it is that they will. Furthermore, Mark S. Chappell et al. (2005) found that a higher level of test anxiety correlates to a lower GPA. This construct, then, is one that can potentially sabotage a student's success.

Therefore, when advisors encounter struggling students, time is well spent exploring sources of interference and barriers to their success. Test-taking may be only one source of the anxiety students experience. By guiding students through an analysis of the sources and effects of anxiety on both their well-being and their academic performance, advisors can assist students in learning to manage that stress and to regulate the associated emotions. Improving

study skills and learning test preparation techniques are effective strategies in managing text anxiety.

For all types of anxiety, though, students can learn to differentiate between motivating and debilitating stress, to identify whether a source of stress is within or outside of their control, and to brainstorm about utilizing campus resources to learn coping skills and to solve problems. Often, students need acknowledgment that stress is a fact of life and reassurance that they are not alone in experiencing or dealing with anxieties. By recognizing and affirming the connection between students' bodies and minds, as Samuel Schuman (2013) does in *If Honors Students Were People: Holistic Honors Education*, advisors can then recommend modifications to sleeping or eating habits, encourage participation in exercise classes and mindfulness practices, and, more generally, emphasize healthy lifestyles during time management discussions and exercises with students.

CONCLUSION

Whether or not advisors choose to use the formal MSLQ instrument as a tool in advising, they can contribute to their advisees' academic success by listening for the presence or absence of the motivational constructs it measures in advisee comments and conversation and by responding in ways that develop positive motivations and encourage management of those constructs that may present barriers to success. Because intrinsic goal orientation, task value, control of learning beliefs, and self-efficacy can be learned, and extrinsic goal orientation and test anxiety can be lessened and managed, advisors equipped with the knowledge and tools to evaluate motivation can contribute to honors students' educations in important and meaningful ways.

ENDNOTE

[1]My goal is in this section is to introduce the concept of self-efficacy and its role in motivating student success. Because self-efficacy plays, arguably, the most important role of the six motivational constructs unpacked in this chapter, interested readers will benefit

from the further discussion of expectancy-value theory in the next chapter. Matthew T. Best, Kenneth E. Barron, Jared Diener, and Philip L. Frana (2023) build on this discussion and provide case studies of this concept at work in the minds and behaviors of honors students.

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APPENDIX A

Motivation Scales

The questions in this section ask about your motivation for and attitudes about this class (*insert name and number of class when finalized*). Remember that 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, select 7; if a statement is not at all true of you, select 1. If the statement is more or less true of you, find the number between 1 and 7 that best describes you.

1. In a class like this, I prefer course material that really challenges me so I can learn new things.

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

2. If I study in the appropriate ways, then I will be able to learn the material in this course.

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

3. When I take a test, I think about how poorly I am doing compared with other students.

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

4. I think I will be able to use what I learn in this course in other courses.

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

5. I believe I will receive an excellent grade in this class.

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

6. I'm certain I can understand the most difficult material presented in the readings for this course.

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

7. Getting a good grade in this class is the most satisfying thing for me right now.

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

8. When I take a test, I think about items on other parts of the test I can't answer.

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

9. It is my own fault if I don't learn the material in this course.

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

10. It is important for me to learn the course material in this class.

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

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.

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

12. I'm confident I can learn the basic concepts taught in this course.

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

13. If I can, I want to get better grades in this class than most of the other students.

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

14. When I take tests, I think of the consequences of failing.

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

15. I'm confident I can understand the most complex material presented by the instructor in this course.

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

16. In a class like this, I prefer course material that arouses my curiosity, even if it is difficult to learn.

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

17. I am very interested in the content area of this course.

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

18. If I try hard enough, then I will understand the course material.

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

19. I have an uneasy, upset feeling when I take an exam.

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

20. I'm confident I can do an excellent job on the assignments and tests in this course.

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

21. I expect to do well in this class.

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

22. The most satisfying thing for me in this course is trying to understand the content as thoroughly as possible.

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

23. I think the course material in this class is useful for me to learn.

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

24. When I have an opportunity in this class, I choose course assignments that I can learn from even if they don't guarantee a good grade.

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

25. If I don't understand the course material, it is because I didn't try hard enough.

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

26. I like the subject matter of this course.

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

27. Understanding the subject matter of this course is very important to me.

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

28. I feel my heart beating very fast when I take an exam.

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

29. I'm certain I can master the skills being taught in this class.

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

30. I want to do well in this class because it is important to show my ability to my family, friends, employer, or others.

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

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

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