

GOAL SETTING AND ITS INFLUENCE ON ACHIEVEMENT IN THE SPANISH
LANGUAGE CLASSROOM: COMBINING SECOND LANGUAGE
ACQUISITION, ACHIEVEMENT GOAL THEORY, AND
GOAL SETTING THEORY

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ABSTRACT

The present study employs an interdisciplinary approach that bridges theories from second language acquisition, education, and psychology, and centers on finding new techniques to help students learn. In this study, I examined goal orientations, goal setting, and the effects on achievement in beginning level Spanish language learners. Firstly, I defined language achievement as three-fold consisting of final course grades, intercultural competence, and linguistic competence. Then, in nine sections of a beginning level Spanish course, I employed five steps of goal setting, a process that I have coined the “5 As.” They are articulation, action, assessment, adherence, and achievement. Results show that in the main goal orientation categories (which consist of mastery, performance, approach, and avoidance) mastery goals and approach goals were the most common. The mastery approach goal orientation was the most common goal type when using a 2 x 2 framework (which compares mastery approach, mastery avoidance, performance approach, and performance avoidance). Analysis of participants’ written goal statements showed communication/speaking, grammar, and listening comprehension as the main areas that participants wanted to master in their Spanish course.

Considering the effects on achievement, results indicate that students who followed this process of the 5 As and actively set goals had statistically significant higher final course grades as compared to the control group ($p = .034$). Further analysis of these results revealed a significant difference between the control group and the approach goal orientations ($p = .020$). In terms of intercultural competence development, results suggest that students did not develop intercultural, and this was independent of whether they set a goal or not. Participants also did

not believe that learning culture was a necessary part of language learning. Regarding linguistic competence development, there were statistically significant interactions, but the main effects and post hoc analyses only revealed significance between the pre- and posttest scores in the control group, who significantly decreased ($p = .050$), and the pre- and posttest scores in the avoidance group, who significantly increased ($p = .024$).

This study also demonstrates the positive benefits gleaned from the goal setting process. These include increased attentiveness, awareness, engagement, language learner autonomy, motivation, self-efficacy, and self-regulation. As such, the results of this study can and should be implemented into the standards, curricula, and textbooks in order to have students become an active part of the learning process.

DEDICATION

To all who came before and all who will come after – may you always defy gravity.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

η^2	Partial eta squared: estimate of the degree of association for the sample
5 Cs	World-readiness standards for learning languages
ACTFL	America Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages
AGT	Achievement goal theory
AIC	Assessment of intercultural competence
ANOVA	Analysis of variance
d	Cohen's effect size: estimate of the degree of association for the sample
df	Degrees of freedom: number of values free to vary after certain restrictions have been placed on the data
DELE	Diplomas de español como lengua extranjera – Language proficiency examination
F	Fisher's F ratio: a ration of two variances
GST	Goal setting theory
ICC	Intercultural competence
L2	Second language
M	Mean: the sum of a set of measurements divided by the number of measurements in the set
MAp	Mastery approach goal/ goal orientation
MAv	Mastery avoidance goal/ goal orientation
n	Number in sample
N	Number in population

<i>NCSSFL</i>	National council of state supervisors for language
<i>p</i>	Probability associated with the occurrence under the null hypothesis of a value as extreme as or more extreme than the observed value
PAP	Performance approach goal/ goal orientation
PAV	Performance avoidance goal/ goal orientation
RQ	Research question
SLA	Second language acquisition
<i>t</i>	Computed value of <i>t</i> test
<	Less than
>	Greater than
≤	Less than or equal to
≥	Greater than or equal to
=	Equal to

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Philippians 4:13

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1. INTRODUCTION

Knowing how to promote learning is an important aspect of second language acquisition (SLA) research. Research has shown that there are many factors that affect SLA, such as motivation, cognition, personality, instruction, etc. One factor that has not been studied as extensively in SLA research is that of goals and goal setting. It seems intuitive that goals that learners set for themselves would have an impact on language learning, but it is unknown if there is a direct correlation between goal setting and the expected outcomes of a foreign language classroom, such as intercultural competence or linguistic competence. While there are goals in the second language (L2) classroom,¹ they are most commonly seen in the form of course goals or learning objectives that the teacher or instructor sets. It is unknown how these broader goals relate to the goals that students set themselves.

There are commonly understood ideas of what learner goals should be that stem from the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) Standards, and there is a plethora of research on teacher beliefs and what they believe should be goals in the classroom (Allen, 2007; Arnett & Turnbull, 2007; Burns, 1992; Elola, 2007; Fang, 1996; Farrell & Ives, 2015; Graham, Santos, & Francis-Brophy, 2014; Martinez & Sanz, 2007; Taguchi & Iwaski, 2007). But, instructors and researchers alike are still uncertain about what students' goals

¹ I will refer to this type of learning generally as L2 learning. More specifically, I will be focusing on foreign language learning, since the language in question is Spanish and the language-learning environment is English.

actually are, how students set these goals, and what implications goal setting has on achievement. In the words of Oxford and Shearin (1994), “Goal setting can have exceptional importance in stimulating L2 learning motivation, and it is therefore shocking that so little time and energy are spent in the L2 classroom on goal setting” (p. 19). Therefore, the purpose of this study is two-fold: (i) to investigate what types of goals L2 learners set; and (ii) to determine whether the type of goals that learners set and maintain has an effect on their academic achievement, intercultural competence, and linguistic competence in an L2 course. If this relationship can be determined, L2 instructors can help foster the types of goals that lead towards L2 acquisition.

Interestingly, there is not an explicit goal theory within the field of SLA, but when looking at related disciplines, there are two main theories that examine goals and goal setting in the relevant context. One is Achievement Goal Theory (AGT) from general educational research, and the second is Goal Setting Theory (GST) from organizational psychology research. Each of these theories will be detailed in the following chapters. In order to investigate the goals that students set in their L2 classroom and the entire goal setting process, this study will combine AGT and GST with key factors from SLA research, such as motivation, self-efficacy, self-regulation, and autonomy, which fundamentally underlie the concept of goals and goal setting. This study focuses primarily on AGT; however, further description of this theory will reveal how it does not account for the maintenance of a goal, which is why key components from GST will be implemented. That is to say, this study adopts the goal categories that are the basis of AGT and complements these with components from GST to aid in the maintenance and achievement of those goals.

This study has many implications for the language classroom. First, it gives voice to the

student and shows their perspective on personal goals for the purposes of language learning. It also highlights the relationship between the student perspective and the ACTFL Standards. Furthermore, it reveals the need for identifying, establishing, and maintaining an achievement goal to aid in L2 development and lends confirmation to the importance of feedback in the classroom.

This study also aims to add to the current body of research on SLA, AGT, and GST and to show the intertwining nature between these three areas. Previous research has shown the joining of AGT and GST, and only a few studies have examined the combination of SLA, AGT, and GST; however, I propose that the intersection of these three areas is a crucial connection to effective language learning and development.

1.1 Chapter Overview

Following this introduction, I begin with Chapter 2, which is a review of the relevant literature that guides this study. Chapter 2 begins within the field of SLA with an overview of goals and the factors that affect goals that are present within second language acquisition. I also explore ACTFL's connection to language learning in this section. Then, I will introduce the two goal theories that frame this project. First, I will discuss AGT and the components that structure it. Then, I will examine GST and the factors relevant to this project. I will also make connections to SLA in each of these sections. The next section provides the conceptual framework of the study and specifically explores definitions of *goals*, *achievement*, *intercultural competence*, and *linguistic competence* so as to appropriately situate the reader. I will end this chapter with the particular research questions that this study will examine.

Chapter 3 gives the methodology used in the present study. I describe the participants, instruments, and procedures. In terms of instruments, I used an intercultural competence

measurement and proficiency test to serve as baseline measurements, and these same measures were employed at the end the study to show any possible change. Specifically relating to the goal process are the goal orientation survey, the goal choice survey, feedback form, goal commitment form, and perceptions survey. Each of these surveys and forms are important in the goal setting process and will provide insight into learners' progress towards their goal as well as their thoughts and beliefs about the goal setting process and its components.

Chapter 4 presents the results from this study. First, I analyzed all data quantitatively, using both descriptive and inferential statistics when necessary. Then, I analyzed the applicable data qualitatively using a Constructivist Grounded Theory (Charmaz, 2006) approach.

Then, I discuss the results in Chapter 5. I first analyze and discuss the types of goals that students set in their language course. Then, I evaluate the relationship between goal setting and achievement, which includes final course grade, intercultural competence, and linguistic competence. I also examine students' perceptions of the goal setting process. Using these analyses, I, then, make connections to the ACTFL Standards. Lastly, I move into the goal setting process itself and offer a new strategy for the goal achievement process. Finally, Chapter 6 gives concluding remarks about the present study and also presents possible future directions in the areas of pedagogy, research, and technology.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

I will begin the literature review by discussing important aspects related to goals and goal setting and SLA. Given this information, I will then expand this view to general goal theories outside of the field of SLA that specifically come from research in education and organizational psychology as these theories encompass many of the components found in SLA. Therefore, SLA, AGT, and GST will serve as the main frameworks for this study.

2.1 Goals in SLA

With regard to SLA, there are two main areas that I will be exploring concerning goals in the classroom. The first area that I will address is the National Standards as set by ACTFL as they represent the contemporary criteria for language learning. Then, I will discuss four psychological tenets that are closely associated with goal setting in the foreign language classroom, particularly as they are also seen as factors relative to SLA.

2.1.1 ACTFL guidelines. Teacher goals are often present in the L2 classroom, and the most prominent of these is seen through the Standards set forth by ACTFL, an organization formed by instructors, program directors, and government officials that is “dedicated to the improvement and expansion of the teaching and learning of all languages at all levels of instruction” (ACTFL, 2004, Mission and Vision, para. 1), and it is the recognized body on language education in the United States. In 1996, ACTFL first developed and, then later revised, a set of standards, or goals, of what should be present in the L2 classroom. These Standards are set from an educator perspective, through which the ACTFL task force created five

goal areas, commonly referred to as the 5 Cs, as a means to incorporate the many reasons that students choose to study a foreign language and as a representative sample of the benchmarks that students should reach during their language study. The 5 Cs are the following: Communication, Cultures, Connections, Comparisons, and Communities.² As they represent a collection of student outcomes agreed upon by educators, business leaders, government, and the community, the 5 Cs have a prominent place in the language classroom and are necessary elements when discussing goals and goal setting in the L2 classroom. Previous research has examined the ACTFL Standards and their inclusion in the classroom; however, for the purposes of this study, I will be using them as a point of comparison for the possible concepts students may want to learn themselves.

Another important set of guidelines developed by ACTFL in collaboration with NCSSFL (National Council of State Supervisors for Languages) is the Can-Do Statements. Originally issued in 2015, the Can-Do Statements are proficiency benchmarks for students at different levels of language learning, such as novice (low, mid, high), intermediate (low, mid, high), advanced (low, mid, high), superior, and distinguished. In November 2017, NCSSFL-ACTFL released an updated version to these statements, which added an emphasis on intercultural communicative competence. The purpose of these statements is to guide “language learners to identify and set learning goals and chart their progress towards language and intercultural proficiency” (ACTFL, 2017, NCSSFL-ACTFL Can-Do Statements). For the purposes of this study, I will use the 2015 Can-Do Statements as the basis for the surveys administered to the

² For more information, see <http://www.actfl.org/publications/all/world-readiness-standards-learning-languages>

control group, and I will discuss the specifics more in Chapter 3. The 2015 version is being used as the 2017 update was just recently released, and this occurred after the completion of the data collection of this study.

2.1.2 Psychological tenets related to language acquisition and goals. There are many psychological tenets related to language acquisition that can affect students' goals and achievement of said goals. There are four main areas that I will be exploring: motivation, self-efficacy, self-regulation, and language learner autonomy.³ Individually, these four tenets have been shown to influence language acquisition; however, they are also interwoven in and amongst themselves and work together as one component may influence another. For example, motivation may impact self-regulation, or language learner autonomy may affect self-efficacy. There is also one common thread found among motivation, self-efficacy, self-regulation, and language learner autonomy; and, that is their influence on goals and goal setting.

2.1.2.1 Motivation. Motivation is a commonly researched topic in both SLA and mainstream psychological research as it can have an effect on many different areas. Motivation is seen as a process that examines an individual's thoughts, beliefs, and emotions that lead first to an action and then continue in the maintenance of said action. Schunk, Pintrich, and Meece (2008) define motivation as "the process whereby goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained" (p. 4). As such, motivation should be understood as directly linked to goals and goal setting.

Due to the process-oriented nature of motivation, much research has been conducted on what processes are involved in learning, which is exemplified by the following:

³ I will be focusing on the language learning aspect to motivation, self-efficacy, self-regulation, and language learner autonomy, but they can be expanded to other areas as well.

The observed goal-directedness of the behavior, the inception and completion of a coherent behavioral unit, its resumption after an interruption, the transition to a new behavioral sequence, the conflict between various behavioral goals and its resolution, all of these represent issues in motivation. (Heckhausen, 1991, as cited in Tremblay & Gardner, 1995, p. 505-506)

As such, there is a plethora of research on this topic. While there are varying results in L2 research, motivation in general has been shown to play a role in language acquisition. It has been found to be a predictor of communicative language competence (Karlak & Velki, 2015), global competence (Semaan & Yamazaki, 2015), and foreign language achievement (Dashtizadeh & Farvardin, 2016; Wen 1997). There is a relationship between teacher and student motivation that is in direct correlation (Alzubaidi, Aldridge, & Khine, 2016; Matsumoto, 2011; Moskovsky, Alrabal, Paolini, & Ratcheva, 2013; Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012), and there are many relationships between motivation and individual differences (Alzubaidi et al., 2016; Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; Noels, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand, 2000). In research outside of the field of SLA, motivation has been found to have a positive effect on academic performance (Ariani, 2016; Kursurkar, Ten Cate, Vos, Westers, & Croiset, 2013; Zimmerman, Bandura, & Martinez-Pons, 1992). Therefore, it is evident that motivation has a wide-ranging level of importance for the L2 learner, and, in turn the L2 learner's goals.

2.1.2.1.1 Gardner's socio-educational model of SLA. As previously mentioned, there is a plethora of research on motivation in the field of SLA. Much research has been conducted using Gardner's Socio-Educational Model of SLA in which integrative and instrumental motivations play a main role. Integrative motivation is commonly understood as the L2 learner's openness to communicate and form community with the other language and its speakers for socio-emotional purposes, whereas instrumental motivation is the desire to learn the target language for purposes of obtaining a job or more education and away from the socio-emotional purpose (Gardner,

1985). Research using this theory is prolific with thousands of published articles and book chapters.⁴ Over the years, this theory has been criticized and modified, but the notions of these two types of motivation – integrative and instrumental – have remained.

2.1.2.1.2 Dornyei's motivational self system. Zoltan Dornyei critiqued and expanded upon Gardner's Socio-Educational Model of SLA. Drawing from research in psychology, Dornyei proposed the L2 Motivational Self System, which is comprised of three dimensions. They are the *Ideal L2 Self*, the *Ought-to L2 Self*, and the *L2 Learning Experience*. The *Ideal L2 Self* refers to the person the L2 learner sees themselves as in the L2. Dornyei (2005) says, "If the person we would like to become speaks an L2, *the Ideal L2 Self* is a powerful motivator to learn the L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal selves" (p. 106). The *Ought-to L2 Self* discusses the "attributes that one believes one ought to possess in order to avoid possible negative outcomes" (Dornyei, 2005, p. 106). The third dimension is the *L2 Learning Experience*, which is described as the "situation-specific motives related to the immediate learning environment and experiences" (Dornyei, 2005, p. 106). This motivational self system has been cited thousands of time,⁵ and research has shown that students who see themselves under the *Ideal L2 Self* paradigm have lower foreign language anxiety (Papi, 2010), exert more effort (Dornyei & Chan, 2013; You & Dornyei, 2016), and have higher final course

⁴ For more information, see: Choe and Son (2017), Ely (1986), Gardner (2001a, 2001b, 2012), Gardner, Day, and MacIntyre (1992), Gardner and MacIntyre (1991, 1993), Gardner, Masgoret, Tennant, and Mihic (2004), Hernández (2006, 2008), Lamb (2004), Masgoret and Gardner (2003), Noels (2001), Sumiyoshi and Svetanant (2017), Warden and Lin (2000), Wen (1997).

⁵ For more information, see: Baker (2011), Benson (2007, 2013), Cheng and Dornyei (2007), Cohen (2014), Cook (2013), Csizér and Dornyei (2005), Dornyei (2006), Dornyei and Taguchi (2009), Guilloteaux and Dornyei (2008), Macaro (2006), MacIntyre (2007), McDonough and Shaw (2012), Mills, Pajares, and Herron (2007), Ryan (2009), Shrum and Glisan (2015), Taguchi, Magid, and Papi (2009), Tseng, Dornyei, and Schmitt (2006), Ushioda (2009).

grades (Dornyei & Chan, 2013). The *Ideal L2 Self* is also a predictor of motivated learning behavior (Csizér & Lukács, 2009) and is positively related to visual/imaginative capacity (Al-Shehri, 2009). Students who identify more with the *Ought-to L2 Self* have an increase in foreign language anxiety (Papi, 2010) and lower motivation compared to the *Ideal L2 Self* (Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012). Additionally, the *Ought-to L2 Self* does not significantly affect final course grade (Dornyei & Chan, 2013).

Dornyei's L2 Motivational Self System is still relatively new with just over 12 years since the first publication date, but it has revolutionized the field of motivation and SLA. It is also highly interdisciplinary as it combines psychology and the field of SLA, which illustrates the importance of cross-disciplinary, interdisciplinary, and multidisciplinary research. Overall, it is evident that there are many facets to the concept of motivation and how it relates to the field of SLA, and research has shown the many benefits motivated students may glean.

2.1.2.2 Self-efficacy. As the basis of Social Cognitive Theory, self-efficacy is defined as an individual's belief that he or she is capable of achieving a certain task or outcome (Bandura, 1977; Pajares, 1995; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). From this definition, it is clear that self-efficacy can have an effect on any type of task, and as such, there has been a multitude of studies conducted on the role of self-efficacy in different settings. Specifically relating to the language classroom, self-efficacy has been found to influence final course grades (Hsieh & Schallert, 2008; Mills et. al, 2007) and can lead to self-regulation (Kim, Wang, Ahn, & Bong, 2015). Moreover, language learners with high self-efficacy are more apt to use language learning strategies (Nosratinia, Saveiy, & Zaker, 2014), which have been correlated to high listening proficiency in the L2 classroom (Mills, Pajares, & Herron, 2006; Rahimi & Abedini, 2009). Additionally, language learners with high self-efficacy and high achievement tend to attribute

ability and effort to their success while those with low self-efficacy look to external factors as an explanation for low achievement (Hsieh & Kang, 2010). As such, self-efficacy is an important factor in language learning.

Commonalities found across research on self-efficacy are (i) that “perceived self-efficacy is theorized to influence performance accomplishments both directly and indirectly through its influences on self-set goals” (Zimmerman et al., 1992, p. 664-665) and (ii) that “self-efficacy beliefs are important influences on motivation and behavior in part because they mediate the relationship between knowledge and action” (Pajares, 1995, p. 4). This indicates that self-efficacy, motivation, goals and goal setting are interconnected. Furthermore, self-efficacy increases goal commitment. Research on goal setting and self-efficacy is well documented, and goal setting itself has been found to increase self-efficacy (Latham, Winters, & Locke, 1994; Morin & Latham, 2000; West, Welch, & Thorn, 2001). There is also a positive correlation between self-efficacy and performance (Brown & Latham, 2000; Durham, Knight, & Locke, 1997; Knight, Durham, & Locke, 2001; Lerner & Locke, 1995; Seijts & Latham, 2001), academic achievement (Choi, 2005; Hsieh & Schallert, 2008; Mills et al., 2007; Tilfarlioglu & Ciftci, 2011), and linguistic achievement (Chularut & DeBacker, 2003; Kim & Cha, 2017). As we can see, self-efficacy influences both goals and language learning.

2.1.2.3 Self-regulation. Self-regulation, a concept closely related to self-efficacy, refers to the “self-generated thoughts, feelings and behaviors that are oriented to attaining goals” (Zimmerman, 2002, p. 65). Furthermore, self-regulation is, like motivation, an ongoing and cyclical process-oriented behavior. Unlike motivation, though, self-regulation requires feedback, so that the individual can make adjustments in order to attain said goal. According to Zimmerman (2008), the self-regulation process has three phases: forethought, performance, and

self-reflection. The forethought phase occurs before goal or task accomplishing action is taken. This phase includes task analysis, which involves goal setting and strategic planning, and self-motivation beliefs, which incorporates self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and task value or interest. After this phase, the performance phase begins. This phase contains self-control, which is comprised of task strategies, attention focusing, and self-instruction. It also includes self-observation, which implicates metacognitive monitoring and self-recording. The third phase is the self-reflection phase, which also has two sub-sections. One is self-judgment, which includes self-evaluation (a form of feedback) and causal attribution. The second is self-reaction, which features self-satisfaction, affect, and adaptive or defensive reactions. This process then repeats itself until the goal or task is accomplished. Self-regulatory processes not only play an important role in learning, but these processes also combine many factors to enhance motivation, which in turn enhances task accomplishment.

Regarding self-regulation in academia, research has shown that it is a predictor of academic success in terms of final grade in general courses (Ariani, 2016; Erdogan, 2017; Mega, Ronconi, & De Beni, 2014; Pintrich & De Groot, 1990; Zheng & Li, 2016; Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994) and in the language classroom (Tilfarlioglu & Delbesoglugil, 2014). This is partially due to its positive relationship to motivation (Alzubaidi et al., 2016; Mahmoodi, Kalantari, & Ghaslani, 2014). Self-regulation also predicts not only success in the present course but also in future coursework (Goulão & Menezes, 2015). More specifically, a positive relationship has been found between self-regulation and reading, writing, speaking, and overall language proficiency (Ekhlās & Shangarffam, 2013; Nami, Enayati, & Ashouri, 2012). Through this research, self-regulation is seen as an important component of general academic success, but it is also key to language development.

2.1.2.4 Language learner autonomy. The concept of learner autonomy is one that can be interpreted in various ways, but it is generally defined as “the outcome of learning in which the goals, progress, and evaluation of learning have been done by learners themselves” (Tabrizi & Saeidi, 2015 p. 158) wherein “the autonomous learner takes a (pro-) active role in the learning process, generating ideas, and availing himself of learner opportunities, rather than simply reacting to various stimuli of the teacher” (Thanasoulas, 2000, “What is autonomy?” para. 2). This means that learners take personal responsibility for and take charge of their own learning. According to Najeeb (2013), in order to be autonomous learners, individuals need to “explicitly accept responsibility for learning, share in the setting of learning goals, take initiatives in planning and executing learning activities, and regularly review their learning, and evaluate its effectiveness” (p. 1240). Through these definitions and components of learner autonomy, it can be seen that autonomy influences language learning, but it is crucial that learners take on this responsibility for themselves.

Research has shown that there are many benefits of autonomous learning that can be seen through motivation, engagement, performance, and psychological well-being (Reeve, 2014). Specifically, in the L2 classroom, language learner autonomy has been linked to increased self-efficacy (Mojoudi & Tabatabaei, 2014; Tabrizi & Saedi, 2015), reading comprehension (Koosha, Abdollahi, & Karimi, 2016), listening comprehension (Tabrizi & Saedi, 2015), academic achievement (Afshar, Rahimi, & Rahimi, 2014; Tilfarlioglu & Ciftci, 2011; Yen & Liu, 2009), vocabulary acquisition (Dam & Legenhausen, 1996), language proficiency (Dafei, 2007; Liu, 2015), critical thinking, and instrumental motivation (Afshar et al., 2014). It has also been shown as one of the learner variables that facilitates students’ language learning progress (Liu, 2014).

Language learner autonomy is a valuable implementation tactic in the L2 classroom and is inherently linked to goals and goal setting.

2.1.3. Implementation of psychological tenets into the goal setting process.

Unmistakably, motivation, self-efficacy, self-regulation, and language learner autonomy are four factors that show strong connections to goals and goal setting. As Zimmerman et al. (1992) state, “self-regulation of motivation depends on self-efficacy beliefs as well as on personal goals” (p. 664), and as mentioned above, language learner autonomy is closely linked to these concepts. Using the information gleaned from each of these tenets, I will now map out the process of goal setting (Figure 1). I propose that there are four stages to goal setting: the *planning stage*, the *performance stage*, the *feedback stage*, and the *reaction/response stage*. This is the expected trajectory that anyone setting a goal would complete. The first stage, *the planning stage*, would include the planning and setting of the goal. Motivation and self-efficacy particularly play a role in this stage as they influence the goal that is set. The *performance stage* would include the completion of regular course work. In the classroom, the *feedback stage* would be in the form of a grade or written comments from the instructor and/ or in the form of student self-reflection; and the *reaction/response stage* would be the student’s reaction to the given feedback. Self-regulation and autonomy are important in this last stage as they determine how a person will react and then respond to the feedback that is given. This cycle would repeat itself throughout the semester.

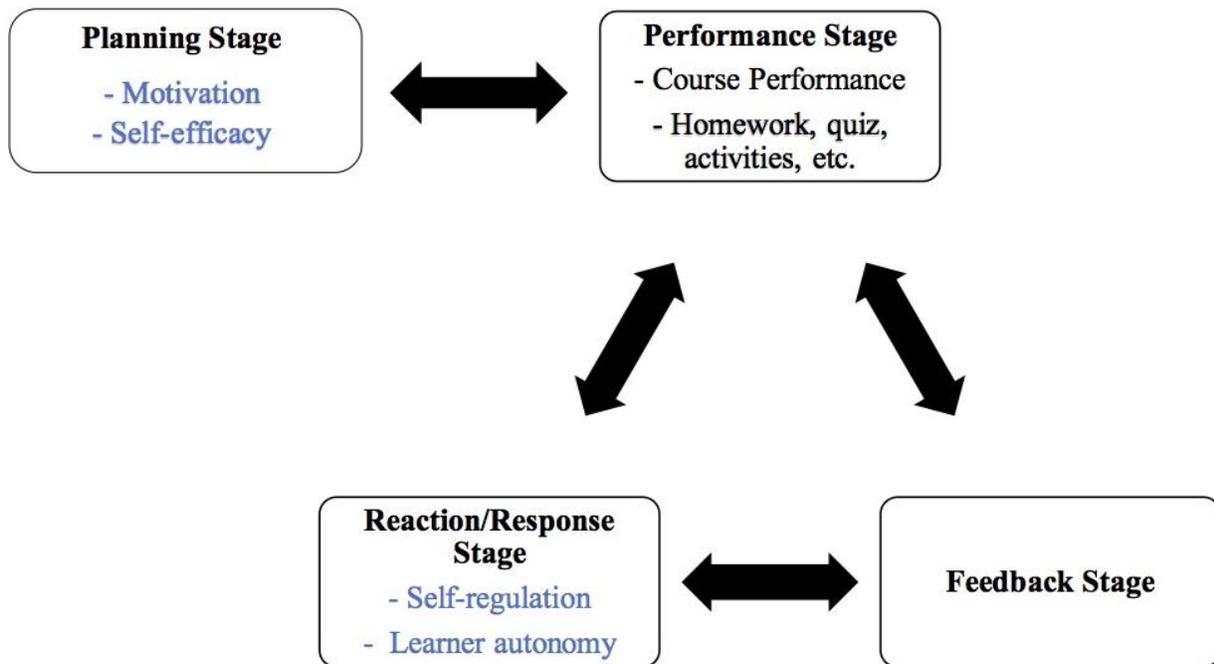


Figure 1. The incorporation of the four psychological tenets into the process of goal setting in the L2 classroom.

2.1.4 Combining the ACTFL Standards and the psychological tenets. While the ACTFL Standards and the psychological tenets that affect SLA (motivation, self-efficacy, self-regulation and language learner autonomy) have been researched extensively within the field, many of these principles are established by program directors, teachers, and instructors and are not derived from the student perspective. In fact, research has shown that students' perceptions do not necessarily fall in line with the standards imposed by figureheads (Drewelow, 2012; Drewelow & Mitchell, 2015; Mantle-Bromley, 1995). Furthermore, there is not an obvious theory within SLA research that examines goals or the act of goal setting, and thus, it would be fruitful to explore theories outside of the field of SLA.

2.2 Introduction to Additional Theories

I will now move on to two theories outside the realm of SLA that explicitly discuss goals and goal setting. They are Achievement Goal Theory, which is most commonly found in the field of education, and Goal Setting Theory, which is often explored in organizational psychology research. Through the addition of these two theories, the precise act of identifying, establishing, and maintaining a goal can be investigated.

2.2.1 Achievement Goal Theory. Originating in the 1980s, Achievement Goal Theory (AGT) has been explored in a multitude of studies in different fields.⁶ The nature of this theory is to study the motivation behind achievement-seeking behavior. It investigates not the goal itself, but rather the *purpose* that drives an individual to achieve a desired outcome. AGT is most commonly seen in academic empirical studies, although it is also applicable to other achievement environments outside of the classroom, such as athletics (Almagro, Sáenz-López, Moreno-Murcia, & Spray, 2015; Kristiansen, Halvari, & Roberts, 2012; Smith, Smoll, & Cumming, 2009). For the purposes of this study, focus will be maintained on the academic environment, but in a specific context: the L2 classroom.

Individuals can adopt a variety of types of goals to attain a desired outcome. The tendency towards a certain type of achievement goal is known as *goal orientation*. Over the years, AGT has gone through revisions of what goal orientations should be included. It first started with a dichotomous approach that only examined mastery and performance goal orientations. Later, a trichotomous approach was designed to incorporate mastery, performance

⁶ For pioneers of this line of research, see Ames (1992), Ames and Archer (1988), Diener and Dweck (1980), Dweck (1991), Dweck and Leggett (1988), Elliot and Dweck (1988), Leggett and Dweck (1986), Maehr (1974, 1984), Maehr and Midgley (1991), and Nicholls (1984).

approach, and performance avoidance goal orientations. The most recent addition is the split between mastery approach and mastery avoidance goal orientations in what is called a 2 x 2 approach. There is still some division over which approach (dichotomous, trichotomous, or 2 x 2) is the most appropriate.⁷ As such, I will examine both the dichotomous approach and the 2 x 2 approach. This means that I will divide the goal orientations into four main categories – *mastery*, *performance*, *approach*, and *avoidance* – and four subcategories – *mastery approach*, *mastery avoidance*, *performance approach*, and *performance avoidance*. I will detail these main categories as well as sub-categories in the following sub-sections paying particular attention to how these goals pertain to the academic setting. Finally, I will relate AGT specifically to the L2 classroom, which will establish a foundation for my research that investigates the goals a language learner sets in order to achieve certain outcomes in the L2 classroom.

2.2.1.1 Performance orientation and performance goals. Performance-oriented individuals will most often choose performance goals (sometimes referred to in the literature as *ego-oriented goals*), which are understood to be concrete and directly observable since the focus is on an individual's ability or accomplishments. The purpose of a performance goal is to demonstrate ability, which is judged in terms of performance and how that performance compares with others. In an academic setting, this ability then is typically, but not exclusively, tied to the student's grade in the course. Demonstrating ability is what drives performance goal-oriented individuals, as through ability, an individual can show competence and high performance by receiving a high grade on a specific task or in the course overall (Ames & Archer, 1988; Elliot & Church, 1997; Harackiewicz & Elliot, 1993; Kim, Kim, & Svinicki, 2012;

⁷ See Appendix A for a more detailed view of the division of studies.

Murayama, Elliot, & Yamagata, 2011; Skaalvik, 1997). As such, an individual who adopts this type of goal determines his or her self-worth as a perception of ability to perform. Because the focus is on the end result, the learning process for these individuals is only regarded as a stepping-stone to reach the desired goal.

Performance goals, which in general are motivated by the fear of failure, can be divided into two subcategories: *approach* and *avoidance*. Those who adopt performance approach goals (also called *self-enhancing ego goals* in the literature) specifically seek positive judgments of competence and try to outperform their peers. These individuals also have a high competence expectancy meaning that they believe that they possess the skills and knowledge to complete or surpass a certain task. An example of a performance approach goal in an academic context is “One of my goals is to look smart in comparison with the other students in my class” (Gehlbach, 2006, p. 362); or “My goal in this class is to get a better grade than most of the other students” (Elliot & McGregor, 2001, p. 504). Research shows that these goals have a positive effect on performance. Particularly, those with a performance approach goal orientation show high academic performance in terms of course grades (Darnon, Butera, Mugny, Quiamzade, & Hulleman, 2009; Darnon, Harackiewicz, Butera, Mugny, & Quiamzade, 2007; Darnon, Jury, & Aelenei, 2017; Elliot & Church, 1997; Harackiewicz, Barron, Carter, Lehto, & Elliot, 1997; Mouratidis, Michou, Demircioglu, & Sayil, 2018; Skaalvik, 1997). They are also more likely to self-regulate to achieve high performance (Kozlowski & Bell, 2006), and these goal orientations are associated with high positive affect (Linnenbrink, 2005), increased self-efficacy (Edwards, 2014), deep processing (Barker, McInerney, & Institute, 2002), and a competitive attitude (Elliot et al., 2016). Because performance approach goals lean towards a performance outcome, individuals with this type of goal orientation exhibit low task effort, a low use of complex

learning strategies (Fisher & Ford, 1998), and a low tendency to seek help (Luo & Noels, 2016). Individuals with this goal orientation tend to have depleted working memory (Avery & Smillie, 2013; Crouzevialle & Butera, 2013) and often will have self-handicapping tendencies (Midgley, Kaplan, & Middleton, 2001). Therefore, performance approach goals are “valuable, yet vulnerable” (Elliot & Moller, 2003, p. 345).

On the other hand, those who adopt performance avoidance goals (also known as *self-defeating goals* or *performance-avoidance* goals in the literature) focus on avoiding both negative judgments of perception and the demonstration of incompetence. Examples of a performance avoidance orientation in an academic setting include the following: “It’s very important to me that I don’t look stupid in my...class” (Middleton & Midgley, 1997, p. 713); or “I just want to avoid doing poorly in this class” (Elliot & Church, 1997, p. 223). These individuals may avoid or withdraw from challenges because of the possibility of failure (Elliot, 1999; Tercanlioglu, 2004; Wolters, 2004). Research shows that these individuals have less interest in the task at hand (Wolters, 2004), low competence expectancies (Elliot & Church, 1997), a heightened level of test anxiety (Shih, 2005; Skaalvik, 1997; Tanaka, Takehara, & Yamauchi, 2006), and avoid help-seeking patterns (Karabenick, 2004). More generally, performance avoidance goals have a negative effect on academic achievement (Mägi, Lerkkanen, Poikkeus, Rasku-Puttonen, & Kikas, 2010; Skaalvik, 1997), often predict low exam grades (Dickhäuser, Buch, & Dickhäuser, 2011), and are often associated with competitive attitudes (Elliot et al., 2016). Individuals with this type of goal orientation have low intrinsic motivation (Elliot & Church, 1997; Elliot, 1999), which is defined as “doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable” (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p.55). Performance avoidance goal orientations also exhibit negative self-thoughts (Dickhäuser et al., 2011). In short, performance avoidance-oriented individuals tend to back

away from tasks or challenges so as not to demonstrate incompetence, which can have self-handicapping effects.

To summarize, while these two performance goals are closely linked, the distinction is that performance approach individuals seek positive perceptions from others, whereas performance avoidance individuals wish to avoid negative perceptions. This difference, then, has a divergent effect on academic success: with performance approach goals aiding in that achievement, and performance avoidance goals deterring it.

2.2.1.2 Mastery orientation and mastery goals. Mastery oriented individuals will most often choose what are called mastery goals (also referred to in the literature as *learning goals* or *task-mastery goals*), which are more abstract in nature as compared to performance goals, and as such, they are not directly observable. Instead, they are based on an individual's own perception of knowledge or skill. Individuals who have a mastery goal orientation seek to use effective learning strategies for acquisition of knowledge and to master material or a specific task (Ames & Archer, 1988), in which the focus is on developing new skills and competence. The emphasis is not on performing but on learning, wherein effort is seen as an important attribute of the learning process and as the ultimate success. In an academic context, this learning is not tied to an individual's grade, but rather whether the individual perceives that they have improved their own knowledge or skills pertaining to the subject matter. These individuals are more apt to put forth a greater effort (Fisher & Ford, 1998; Wolters, 2004), have higher self-efficacy beliefs (Pérez, Medrano, Ayllón, & Furlán, 2010), and persist in challenging tasks even after difficulty (Ames & Archer, 1988; Wolters, 2004). Furthermore, these individuals are likely to pursue help during difficult tasks because they recognize the benefits to the learning process (Ryan & Pintrich, 1997). Also, research shows that learners stay involved in the task due to interest, which

yields more adaptive patterns of learning and less procrastination (Elliot & McGregor, 2001; Harackiewicz et al., 1997; Harackiewicz & Elliot, 1993; Howell & Watson, 2007; Kim et al., 2012; Pintrich, 2000). The mastery goal orientation has shown positive effects on performance in terms of academic grade or task outcome (Chen & Mathieu, 2008; Dishon-Berkovits, 2014; Gehlbach, 2006; Pérez et al., 2010; Porter & Latham, 2013; Tanaka et al., 2006), on the use of complex learning and cognitive strategies (Fisher & Ford, 1998; Middleton & Midgley, 1997; Shih, 2005; Wolters, 2004), and on less frequent procrastination (Wolters, 2004). Overall, mastery goal-oriented individuals focus on the learning process and on effort as the ultimate achievement. They also represent the majority of goal orientations present in the research (Wormington & Linnenbrink-Garcia, 2017) and are “considered the most beneficial goals” (Lüftenegger, Tran, Bardach, Schober, & Spiel, 2017, p. 73).

Like performance goals, mastery goals can be divided into two subcategories: mastery approach and mastery avoidance. Mastery approach goals are focused on learning and understanding the material or a task. Examples in an academic setting are: “One of my goals in class is to learn as much as I can” (Midgley et al., 2000, p. 44); or “Understanding psychology is important to me” (Harackiewicz et al., 1997, p. 1287). Individuals with mastery approach goals tend to have high competency expectancies, and this type of goal has been shown to facilitate intrinsic motivation (Cury, Elliot, Da Fonseca, & Moeller, 2006; Elliot & Church, 1997; Elliot & Murayama, 2008) and cooperative attitudes (Elliot et al., 2016). Research has also shown that this goal orientation is positively related to academic satisfaction, performance, interest, and knowledge transfer (Belenky & Nokes-Malach, 2012; Belenky & Nokes-Malach, 2013; Darnon et al., 2017; Gaudreau, 2012; Mouratidis et al., 2018; Ranellucci, Hall, Muis, Lajoie, & Robinson, 2018; Senko & Hulleman, 2013). Mastery avoidance goals, on the other hand, are

focused on avoiding the misunderstanding of material or avoiding failure of a task. Examples in an academic environment include: “I am striving to avoid an incomplete understanding of the course material” (Elliot & Murayama, 2008, p. 617); or “I worry that I may not learn all that I possibly could in this class” (Elliot & McGregor, 2001, p. 504). Individuals with this type of goal orientation exhibit a fear of failure, low self-determination, and low competence valuations (Elliot & McGregor, 2001). They can lead to anxiety and negative affect (Sideridis, 2007) and can be detrimental towards performance development (Van Yperen, Elliot, & Anseel, 2009).

Both types of mastery goals concentrate on learning and understanding, but the approach to learning and understanding is different. Mastery approach individuals seek to acquire knowledge and/or master a task whereas mastery avoidance individuals wish to avoid the misunderstanding of material or failure of a task.

2.2.1.3 Summary and additional information about Achievement Goal Theory. Now that all types of goal orientations found within AGT have been described, a summary is found in Table 1, highlighting the main features of each type.⁸

⁸ Many researchers believe in a multiple goal perspective through which individuals can adopt a combination of goal orientations (Barron & Harackiewicz, 2001; Elliot, 2005; Harackiewicz, Barron, Pintrich, Elliot, & Thrash, 2002; Law, Elliot, & Murayama, 2012; Luo, Paris, Hogan, & Luo, 2011; Pastor, Barron, Miller, & Davis, 2007; Pintrich, 2000; Schwinger, Steinmayr, & Spinath, 2016; Schwinger & Wild, 2012; Wormington & Linnenbrink-Garcia, 2017). Due to the scope of this study, however, multiple goal orientations will not be the main focus.

Table 1. <i>Summary of AGT goal orientations</i>		
	<u>Performance</u>	<u>Mastery</u>
<u>Approach</u>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Focus on ability - Seek positive judgments of competence - Try to outperform peers - High competence expectancies - Tendency to self-regulate - Positive academic performance 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Focus on knowledge or skill - Seek help during difficult tasks or challenges - Try to master material or task - Develop competence and skills - Tendency to use complex learning strategies - Positive academic performance
<u>Avoidance</u>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Focus on ability - Avoid negative judgments of perception - Try to not demonstrate incompetence - Low competence expectancies - Tendency to withdraw from challenges - Negative academic performance 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Focus on knowledge or skill - Avoid the misunderstanding of material - Try to avoid failure of a task - Low competence expectancies - Tendency to have low self-determination - Negative academic performance

Additionally, goal stability and change has been a topic of inquiry, but little research has dived into this further. Research does show that goal orientation can exhibit both stability and change over time. In fact, according to life span psychology, “to maximize gains and minimize losses throughout adult life, people need to adapt to and master changing developmental opportunities and constraints” (Ebner, Freund, & Baltes, 2006, pp. 675). This is also true in the classroom. Students need to adjust to constantly changing environments. A study conducted with fourth grade students found that 85% of students changed their goal orientation over the school year (Schwinger et al., 2016), and between third and seventh grade, about 33% of students sustained the same goal orientation (Schwinger & Wild, 2012). Some change in goals can be attributed to the classroom environment in that if students perceived that their classroom stressed ability more and mastery less then students’ goals were more apt to change in favor of the classroom environment (Anderman & Midgley, 1997; Urdan & Midgley, 2003). In studies with university students, variation was found between each goal orientation; however, stability was found to be higher with mastery approach and performance avoidance goals (Fryer & Elliot, 2007; Muis & Edwards, 2009). Additionally, goal switching occurred from mastery approach to

performance avoidance or vice versa (Muis & Edwards, 2009). Goal changes can occur when initial goal adoption is

driven primarily by factors that individuals bring with them to the achievement setting and by explicit or easily detectable features of the achievement environment. Goal change...is driven by additional information that one acquires directly from encountering the achievement task and from receiving performance feedback (Fryer & Elliot, 2007, p. 711).

2.2.1.4 Achievement Goal Theory in the L2 classroom. While AGT has been studied in academia in general, there is little research that explores this theory in the L2 classroom. One study, conducted by Tercanlioglu (2004) with Turkish learners of English, briefly touched on a possible correlation between achievement scores, gender, and goals, but it principally investigated goals and gender differences in the English language classroom. This study found that advanced foreign language learners primarily showed mastery orientations but also could have tendencies of a multiple goal perspective. When examining gender differences, gender was not found as a main effect for differences in goal types; however, the data did show a significant relationship between males and avoidance goals. Similarly, another study by Pérez et al. (2010) found that mastery goals contributed to self-efficacy beliefs for writing and language and were significantly related to grades.

Even though there is limited research on goal orientations in the L2 classroom, AGT can be translated to this specific context with ease. This study examines achievement goals in multiple ways in accordance to previous research. First, this study looks at mastery versus performance goal orientations and approach versus avoidance goal orientations. Then, it follows a 2 x 2 approach (mastery approach, mastery avoidance, performance approach, and performance avoidance). The possible goal orientations investigated in this study, as well as examples of each, are seen in Tables 2-5.

Table 2. <i>Possible performance goals according to the main categorical goal orientations</i>
<i>The best way to succeed in this class is to get a good grade.</i> <i>One of my goals is to keep others from thinking I'm not smart in class.</i>

Table 3. <i>Possible performance goals by sub-categorical goal orientation</i>	
<u>Performance approach</u>	<u>Performance avoidance</u>
<i>The best way to succeed in this class is to get a good grade.</i>	<i>One of my goals is to keep others from thinking I'm not smart in class.</i>

Table 4. <i>Possible mastery goals according to the main categorical goal orientation</i>
<i>My goal is to completely master the concepts presented in this class.</i> <i>My goal is to avoid misunderstanding the concepts presented in this class.</i>

Table 5. <i>Possible mastery goals by sub-categorical goal orientation</i>	
<u>Mastery approach</u>	<u>Mastery avoidance</u>
<i>My goal is to completely master the concepts presented in this class.</i>	<i>My goal is to avoid misunderstanding the concepts presented in this class.</i>

AGT falls in line with the proposed goal setting model in the *planning stage* of the goal setting process (Figure 2). This is due particularly to the use of goal orientation as its purpose is to find a person's innate reasoning for an action.

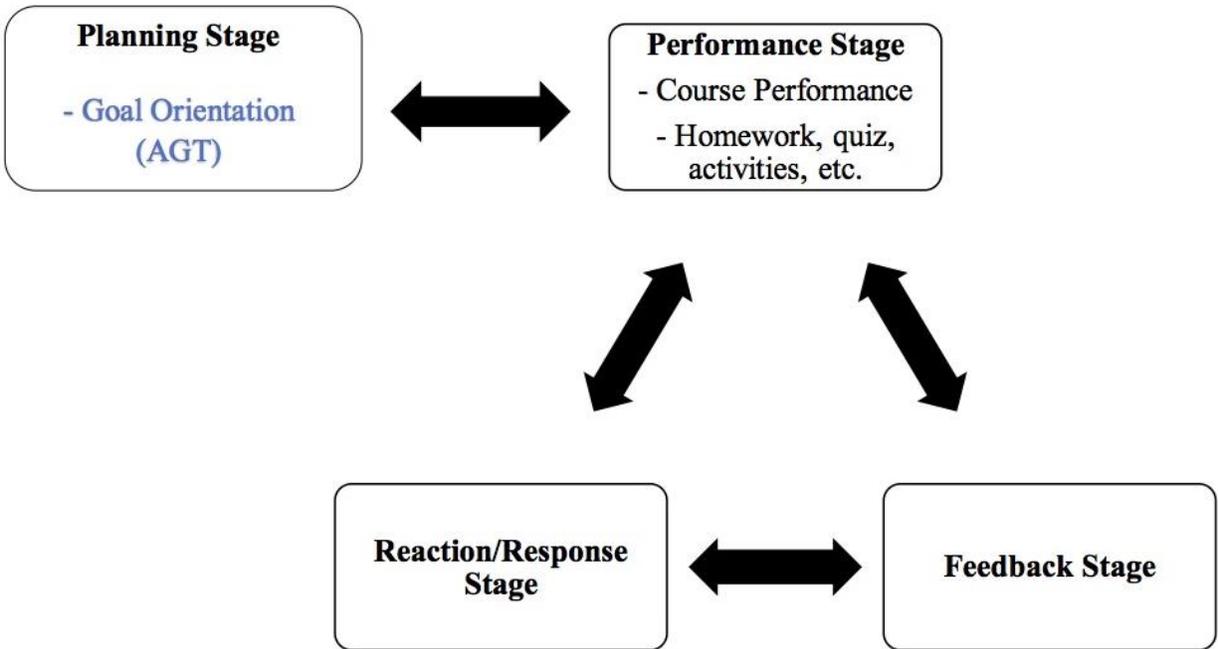


Figure 2. The incorporation of AGT into the process of goal setting in the L2 classroom.

2.2.1.5 Missing components in Achievement Goal Theory. Previous research that adopts AGT looks at the type of goal that is set and then the final outcome in the course. In other words, the methodology of these studies is to give participants a goal orientation questionnaire near the beginning of the course and then examine their final course grades (Dishon-Berkovits, 2014; Gehlbach, 2006; Harackiewicz et al., 1997; Jögi, Kikas, Lerkkanen, & Mägi, 2015; Luo, Lee, & Hua Koh, 2015; Meece, Blumenfield, Hoyle, 1988; Senko & Miles, 2007; Tercanlioglu, 2004). There is no knowledge of what occurs between the time the students' goal orientations are determined and when they are completed (i.e., at the end of the course). Specifically, AGT does not factor in goal awareness throughout the course or the maintenance timeframe; thus, it crucially misses the explicitness of the goal. Therefore, to add factors of explicitness and maintenance that are needed in goal achievement, this study adds additional factors to AGT

found in Goal Setting Theory. Importantly, the addition of these components does not alter the basis of AGT.

2.2.2 Goal Setting Theory. Goal Setting Theory, though not formally theorized until 1990 by Edwin Locke and Gary Latham, has precursors dating to the early 1900s. GST has over a thousand published articles and reviews and has been cited in almost 8000 publications (Mitchell & Daniels, 2003). Most of these studies explore employee motivation in organizational psychology, and there is little research that studies GST in an academic setting and even less in the L2 classroom.

GST has many components that can affect task performance such as mediators, defined as “active organism[s that] intervene between stimulus and response” (Barron & Kenny, 1986, p. 1176). In GST, the mediators are choice, effort, persistence, and strategy. Other components that can affect task performance are moderators, which are defined as “variable[s] that affect the direction and/or strength of the relation between an independent variable...and a dependent...variable” (Barron & Kenny, 1986, pg. 1174). Moderators in GST are ability, goal commitment, which is enhanced by self-efficacy and the importance of the goal, feedback, task complexity, and situational factors. Many of these factors have been explored in different fields, but the main contributors to this line of research are the mediators, goal commitment, and feedback, as they naturally work together. I will discuss each of these in more detail in the following sections. I also focus on these components of GST as they amplify the middle portion of the goal setting process, between the starting and ending points that are the basis of AGT.

First, GST states that there is a “positive linear relationship between a specific, high goal and task performance” (Latham & Locke, 2007, p. 291), and therefore, difficulty and directionality of goals affect task performance. Research shows that difficult and specific goals

yield higher performance as compared to easy, “do your best,” or no goals (Brown & Latham, 2000; Gauggel & Fischer, 2001; Latham, Seijts, & Crim, 2009; Lerner & Locke, 1995; Wood, Atkins, & Bright, 1999; Wright & Kacmar, 1994). This can be explained by the fact that goals have an effect on the intensity of the actions taken to complete said goal. When a goal is high and difficult, more effort is exerted, which in turn affects persistence in reaching the goal. Ultimately, this combination leads to a higher level of goal commitment and task performance; however, there is a balance that needs to be obtained to reach a goal. If a goal is too easy, it will not yield an increase in performance; and, at the same time, if a goal is too difficult, it will be seen as unattainable.

Second, goal setting, in general, increases goal commitment. Goal commitment is necessary, because, if a person is committed to a goal, they are more likely to increase their effort to reach the goal, which also increases performance. Research has shown that a higher goal commitment leads to higher performance for individuals (Brown & Latham, 2000; Martin & Manning, 1995; Morin & Latham, 2000) and teams (Knight et al., 2001; Locke, Smith, Erez, Chah, & Schaffer, 1994). Furthermore, participants are less likely to change their goal if they have a higher goal commitment (Wright & Kacmar, 1994). And, there is a significant, positive relationship between goal commitment and performance.

Lastly, while progressing towards a goal, feedback is necessary as it provides a way to measure performance as compared to the desired outcome. It can determine if performance needs to be adjusted in order to improve, which can cause an individual to self-regulate (Zimmerman, 1990). Research has shown that goal setting is more effective when feedback is given as compared to its absence (Locke & Latham, 1990; Terpstra & Rozell, 1994), and the type of feedback also plays an important role in moderating goal setting. Research has shown that after

receiving negative feedback, participants will adjust their goals downwardly, but after receiving positive feedback, participants will raise their goals (Ilies & Judge, 2005; West et al., 2001). Feedback has also been shown to influence motivation and self-efficacy (Burger, Eden, van Engelenburg, & Buningh, 2015; DePasque & Tricomi, 2015; Graham, 2007; Khatib & Maarof, 2014; Kim et al., 2015). As mentioned previously, both motivation and self-efficacy have a crucial role in goals and goal setting.

2.2.2.1 Goal Setting Theory in the L2 classroom. There is a limited amount of research that studies GST in the L2 classroom. The research that does exist mostly examines the goals of L2 learners of English around the world. A common conclusion found in these studies is that students who set goals find them valuable in measuring their progress in the course and feel more motivated in the class (Chang, 2012; Haynes, 2011). One of these studies found that those who set high goals had fewer difficulties learning English (Srichanyachon, 2010); and, another study found that the power of choice, defined as students being able to choose and set their own goal, led to students choosing higher and more challenging goals (Vahidnia & Fatemi, 2015). To the author's knowledge, the only study that discusses GST in the L2 Spanish classroom implemented *LinguaFolio*, a goal-based, evidence-collecting program, in a Spanish high school classroom and found a significant relationship between a student's ability to set goals and subsequent achievement in the Spanish class (Moeller, Theiler, & Wu, 2012). Therefore, it can be seen that it is beneficial to add these components of GST to those found in AGT as it will promote positive

effects on the goal setting process.⁹ Figure 3 adds GST to the proposed goal setting model. GST is seen in the *Planning Stage* and in the *Feedback Stage*.

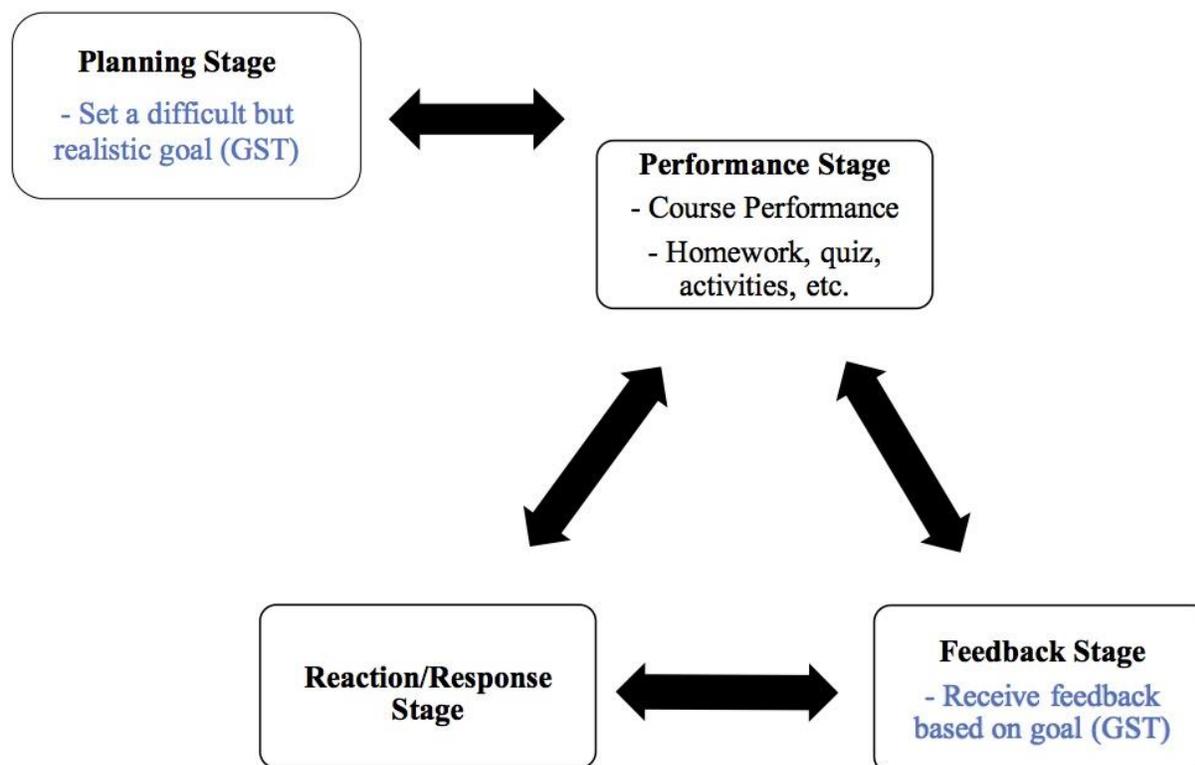


Figure 3. The incorporation of GST into the process of goal setting in the L2 classroom.

2.2.3 The combination of Achievement Goal Theory, Goal Setting Theory, and the psychological tenets. As it has been seen so far, there is not a singular perspective when attempting to investigate the role that goals play in the classroom. Nonetheless, I would argue that some studies that examine goal setting do combine both of these theories, if not explicitly, inadvertently. For example, feedback instruction had effects on emotions in which achievement

⁹ There are other studies that discuss goals in the L2 classroom, but they do not fall exclusively into either of these theories. (See: Koul, Roy, Kaewkuekool, & Ploisawaschai, 2009; Morisano, Hirsh, Peterson, Pihl, & Shore, 2010; Suzuki, 2009).

goals served as mediators (Pekrun, Cusack, Murayama, Elliot, & Thomas, 2014). Similarly, mastery goals were found to act as a buffer against negative feedback as they focus individuals on mastering a task instead of on performance (Cianci, Klein, & Seijts, 2010). Furthermore, individuals with mastery goals have shown less intense affective reactions – such as tension, anxiety and frustration – to negative feedback (Cianci et al., 2010; Cianci, Schaubroeck, & McGill, 2010). Similarly, self-efficacy is positively related to performance (Lerner & Locke, 1995; Seijts & Latham, 2001), and mastery goals have been shown to yield an increase in self-efficacy (Gerhardt & Brown, 2006; Schunk, 1996; VandeWalle, Cron, & Slocum, 2001; Winters & Latham, 1996). While the majority of research yields similar results, there are some discrepancies or caveats that have been found. Gerhardt and Luzadis (2009) discovered that a mastery goal is not beneficial towards performance unless it is being used as part of a difficult task. A study by Duijnhouwer, Prins, and Stokking (2010) showed that feedback did not have an effect on students' mastery goals and performance in the context of the writing process. And, Rakoczy, Harks, Kliem, Blum, & Hochweber (2013) found that written feedback was moderated by goal orientation.

From these studies, it can be seen that this particular combination of AGT and GST is useful and practical for enhancing the effects of goals. AGT focuses on the purpose and perceptions of goals, and GST promotes the actual achievement of goals. Taking components of both theories can yield a tighter connection between goal type and language achievement. Therefore, this study combines goal orientation from AGT with mediators, feedback, and goal commitment from GST in order to better investigate any possible effect that goals can have on L2 learners' language achievement. Figure 4 illustrates the combination of AGT, GST, and key components from SLA research into the goal setting process.

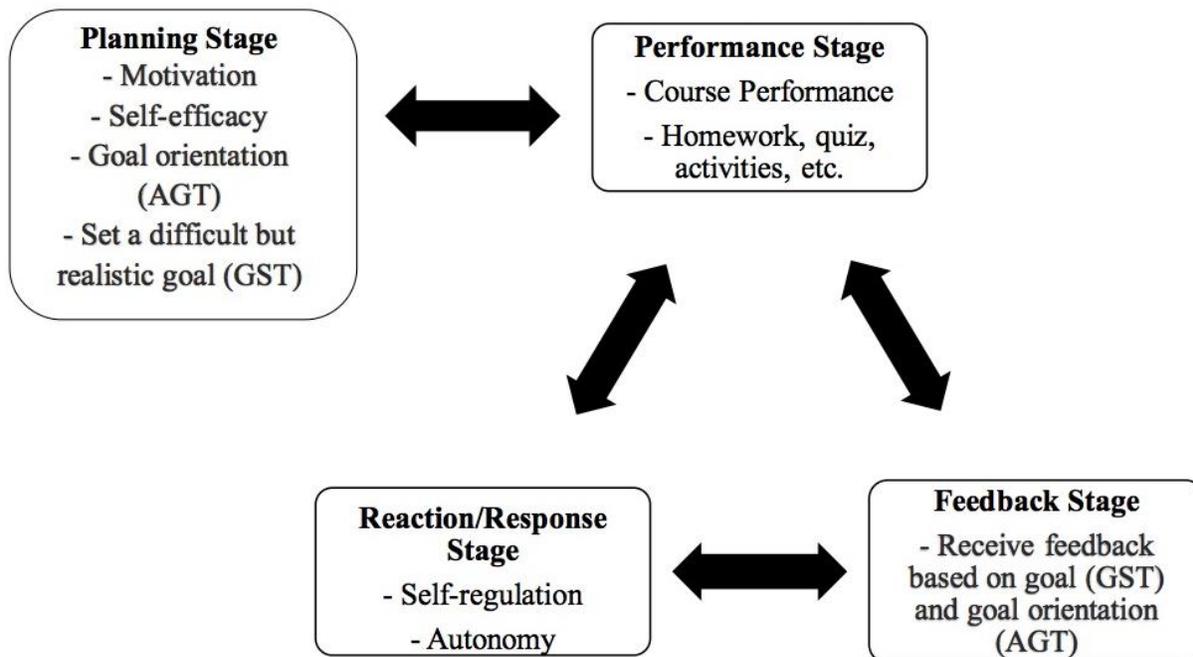


Figure 4. The incorporation of AGT, GST, and the four psychological tenets into the process of goal setting in the L2 classroom.

2.2.4 The context of the L2 classroom. Before continuing, it is important to note that the L2 classroom itself provides a very different context as compared to previous studies, which have examined goals and goal setting in general courses, such as math and psychology, for example. Language learning is different than other courses because of the multiple ways that achievement can be measured – through final course grades, intercultural competence, linguistic competence, etc. – but also because of particular components related specifically to language learning, such as affective filters, L2 self/identity, and interlanguage to focus on a few. The Affective Filter Hypothesis generated by Stephen Krashen (1982) posits that there are attitudinal factors, such as motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety, that affect second language acquisition based on the level of a student’s affective filter. This means that students who have a strong affective filter will not be as receptive to L2 input. On the opposite side, students who have a

weak affective filter are more susceptible to input and acquire language more easily as compared to their counterparts. This hypothesis has been criticized over the years, but a point of agreement is that there are components unique to L2 acquisition and the context of the L2 classroom that makes research and learning in this area distinct as compared to other areas of study.

Another component exclusive to the context of the L2 classroom is the concept of L2 self and identity that has been mentioned previously. It is important to note that this theory is obviously singular to the L2 learner and classroom. This theory proposed by Dornyei (2005) details the “psychological theories of the self ... in the L2 field” (Dornyei, 2009, p. 9). Again, this is a concept with which students must grapple in L2 acquisition and learning, which does not occur outside of this context. As such, it adds an extra layer to not only the L2 process but also to the classroom environment.

The last component that I will mention briefly as unique to the L2 classroom as compared to other course contexts is that of interlanguage. Originally proposed by Selinker (1972), interlanguage is a concept that states that L2 language learners create a system of language in which there are elements from both the native language and the L2. This is another topic that has many components such as pragmatics, grammar, vocabulary, and phonology that all play a role in interlanguage. Not only are students attempting to acquire another language, but they also have interlanguage with which to engage. Again, this is another example of what makes the L2 classroom a different learning environment compared to other areas.

Overall, the context of the L2 classroom and of SLA in general makes this study distinct. While previous research has examined the act of goals and goal setting in the classroom, the majority of these studies were not conducted in the L2 context, which has its own set of challenges and concepts that only occur in this context.

2.3 Conceptual Framework

Since there are various components from AGT, GST, and general SLA found in this study, it is necessary to provide specific definitions for various essential terms, including the following: goals and achievement, which includes subcomponents of academic achievement, intercultural competence, and linguistic competence.

2.3.1 Goals. The overarching definition of a goal is commonly understood as something that a person is trying to do or achieve. AGT and GST provide more precise information to this definition. AGT examines the *purpose* that drives an individual to achieve a certain outcome, and GST states that a goal is “the object or aim of an action, for example, to attain a specific standard of proficiency, usually within a specified time limit” (Locke & Latham, 2002, p. 705). For the purposes of this study, the general definition of a goal will combine these components and be defined as the following: the self-set objective or pursuit of achievement-seeking action coupled with the purpose of such action, which will be shown through the demonstration of academic achievement, intercultural competence, and/or linguistic competence.

2.3.2 Achievement. *Achievement* is commonly defined as an act done successfully through effort, courage, or skill, and most often, academic achievement is observed through students’ final course grades. Research related to AGT, GST, and SLA has a long history of measuring academic achievement in this manner; however, it has been suggested that research should move away from this form of measurement as “[grades] are not always accurate measures of learning or growth in cognitive capabilities” (York, Gibson, & Rankin, 2015, p. 9). While SLA in particular is moving away from this type of measurement in favor of intercultural and/or linguistic competence development (Mitchell, Pardinho, Yermakova-Aguiar, & Meshkov, 2015; Moeller & Nugent, 2014; Peng, Wu, & Fan, 2015; Schenker, 2012; Schulz, 2007; Wang, 2014),

it is still necessary to include academic achievement in the current study. This is because AGT and GST still use final course grades as the main measurement of academic achievement (Colquitt & Simmering, 1998; Dishon-Berkovits, 2014; Gehlbach, 2006; Harackiewicz et al., 1997; Morisano & Peterson, 2012; Muis, Ranellucci, Franco, & Crippen, 2013; Senko & Miles, 2007). Furthermore, final course grades directly tie to the performance goal orientations. Therefore, final course grades will be used as the measurement for academic achievement. However, since this will particularly target the performance goal orientations, it seems natural to include measurements that can be linked to the mastery goal orientations. In order to accomplish this, students' intercultural competence and linguistic competence will be tested in addition to the examination of final course grades. An intercultural competence questionnaire will be used as it can be linked to the majority of the ACTFL Standards, such as Communication, Cultures, Comparisons, and Communities. In order to better observe the Communication Standard, a linguistic competence measure will be used. A benefit to including these two additional measures of achievement is that they are both commonly used in quantitative SLA research (Dussias, Contemore, & Román, 2014; Guijarro-Fuentes & Marinis, 2007; Jegerski, 2015; Montrul, 2004, 2005; Peng et al., 2015). Given their prevalence within the field of SLA, both intercultural competence and linguistic competence are defined in more detail in the following subsections.

2.3.2.1 Intercultural competence. In terms of intercultural competence (ICC), there are various definitions and no real agreement between the definitions (Byram, 1997; Byram, Gribkova, & Starkey, 2002; Byram & Grundy, 2002; Byram & Nichols, 2001; Kramsch, 1993, 1995, 2006; Kupka, 2008; Mažeikienė & Virgailatė-Mečkauskaitė, 2007; Schulz, 2007); however, this study focuses on Byram and Nichol's (2001) definition, which states that there are three objectives to becoming interculturally competent. They are attitudes, knowledge, and skills,

and these factors are complemented by awareness. Intercultural attitude refers to having

a willingness to relativize one's own values, beliefs, and behaviors, not to assume that they are the only possible and naturally correct ones and to be able to see how they might look from the perspective of an outsider who has a different set of values, beliefs, and behaviors. (p. 5)

This is the foundation of ICC. Knowledge, in this context, signifies the understanding and comprehension of “social processes and...illustrations of those processes and products” (p. 6), which leads to the next component – skills. Skills are broken into two subcategories: (1) skills of interpreting and relating and (2) skills of discovery and interacting. The former suggests the “ability to interpret a document...explain it and relate it” (p. 6) to one's own and other cultures. The latter indicates an “ability to acquire new knowledge of a culture and cultural practices” (p. 6) and to apply this knowledge in communication and interaction. Finally, cultural awareness refers to the “ability to evaluate critically on the basis of explicit criteria, perspectives, practices and products in one's own and other cultures and countries” (p. 7). These four elements form the definition of ICC. This definition, in particular, was chosen as it clearly aligns with ACTFL's 5 Cs, especially in terms of Communications, Cultures, Connections, and Comparisons. Coupling this with AGT and GST, the relevant definition of ICC within this context is the following: the demonstration of (performance orientation) or the development of (mastery orientation) one or more of the following: (1) curiosity and openness to one's own and other cultures; (2) knowledge about products and processes of one's own and other cultures; (3) ability to interpret, explain, compare and contrast new knowledge of one's own and other cultures; and (4) the critical evaluation of the products, processes, and perspectives of one's own and other cultures.

2.3.2.2 Linguistic competence. Linguistic competence is a broad term with varying definitions provided by different researchers. For the purposes of this study, I will be using Canale and Swain's (1980) theory that states that there are three competencies that make up

communicative competence. I will be using two of these competencies, specifically, and so, I will refer to this as linguistic competence from this point. The three competencies specified by Canale and Swain are grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence. I will be examining grammatical competence and strategic competence.

Grammatical competence focuses on grammatical and lexical competencies and is defined as “[the] knowledge of lexical items and of rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics, and phonology” (Canale & Swain, 1980, p. 29). This definition was chosen as it is an “important concern for any communicative approach whose goals include providing learners with the knowledge of how to determine and express accurately the literal meaning of utterances” (Canale & Swain, 1980, p. 29). Overall, grammatical competence studies the particular linguistic components needed in language learning and communication.

The second area that I will be studying from this theory is that of strategic competence. Strategic competence is defined as the “verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence” (Canale & Swain, 1980, p. 30). This definition focuses on the communicative aspects of language learning.

Situating these definitions within the framework of this study, linguistic competence is defined as the following: the demonstration of (performance orientation) or the development of (mastery orientation) the knowledge of grammar (rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics and phonology), vocabulary (lexical items), and verbal and nonverbal communication strategies.

It is important to investigate both intercultural and linguistic competencies because these are two intertwining processes, and it can be very difficult to separate one from the other. This is

explained by the following:

Interculturalists often overlook (or leave to language teachers) the task of developing language competence, just as language teachers overlook (or leave to interculturalists) the task of developing intercultural abilities; this, despite wide acknowledgment that language and culture are dimensions of each other, interrelated and inseparable. Language, in fact, both reflects and affects one's world view, serving as a sort of road map to how one perceives, interprets, thinks about, and expresses one's view of the world. This intertwining invites a fresh look at how we conceptualize what is meant by world view, its components and their interrelationships; and at how language and culture mediate (inter)cultural process. (Fantini, 2000, p. 27)

Therefore, this study will consider achievement as three-fold in which final course grade, intercultural competence, and linguistic competence are defining factors.

2.4 Research Questions

Based on the relevant literature discussed thus far, the present study seeks to answer the following research questions. The first research question investigates the types of goals that students have and set in the L2 classroom and specifically asks:

Research Question 1: What types of goals do students set in the Spanish L2 classroom?

Based on previously mentioned research, it can be hypothesized that students will have a variety of achievement goals. Research suggests that the most common goal orientation is a mastery goal (Wormington & Linnenbrink-Garcia, 2017).

The second research question compares the individuals who are identified as having an achievement goal and are informed of it to those who are not and asks:

Research Question 2: Does identifying, establishing, and maintaining an achievement goal have an impact on students' academic achievement in the Spanish L2 classroom?

According to previous research in academic settings, it can be hypothesized that setting and maintaining an achievement goal will positively influence students' academic achievement.

The third set of related research questions are an extension of the second research question and looks at the different types of achievement goals, asking:

Research Question 3: Do specific types of goals have an effect on academic achievement in the Spanish L2 classroom?

There are three main ways to examine goal types, which means this research question is further divided into three sub-questions:

Research Question 3a: Is there a difference between mastery goals and performance goals on students' academic achievement in the Spanish L2 classroom?

Research Question 3b: Is there a difference between approach goals and avoidance goals on students' academic achievement in the Spanish L2 classroom?

Research Question 3c: Is there a difference between mastery approach, mastery avoidance, performance approach, and performance avoidance goals on students' academic achievement in the Spanish L2 classroom?

Previous research leads to the hypothesis that mastery goals or performance goals or a may lead to higher academic achievement (Ames & Archer, 1988; Dishon-Berkovits, 2014; Elliot & Church, 1997; Gehlbach, 2006; Harackiewicz & Elliot, 1993; Kim et al., 2012; Murayama et al., 2011; Skaalvik, 1997; Tanaka et al., 2006). Research also states that approach goals most often lead to higher academic achievement (Darnon et al., 2007; Elliot & Church, 1997; Harackiewicz et al., 1997; Skaalvik, 1997). Research also shows that performance approach goals are often associated with high final course grades (Darnon et al., 2007; Darnon et al., 2009; Elliot & Church, 1997; Harackiewicz et al., 1997; Skaalvik, 1997), and that mastery approach goals are positively related to academic performance (Gaudreau, 2012; Senko & Hulleman, 2013).

The first three research questions all stem directly from the line of literature related to AGT and GST. The fourth research question, however, is novel as it is unique to the L2 classroom:

Research Question 4: Does identifying, establishing, and maintaining an achievement goal have an impact on students' intercultural competence in the Spanish L2 classroom?

Previous research in academic settings shows a positive influence on students' academic achievement when coupled with goal setting, but this does not specifically refer to intercultural competence. Therefore, I will assume the null hypothesis: There will be no effect.

The fifth set of related research questions are once again an extension of the fourth research question reflecting specifically on the different goal types:

Research Question 5: Do specific types of goals have an effect on intercultural competence in the Spanish L2 classroom?

This research question is also further divided and looks to see if there is a difference in students' intercultural competence in varying areas.

Research Question 5a: Is there a difference between mastery goals and performance goals on students' intercultural competence in the Spanish L2 classroom?

Research Question 5b: Is there a difference between approach goals and avoidance goals on students' intercultural competence in the Spanish L2 classroom?

Research Question 5c: Is there a difference between mastery approach, mastery avoidance, performance approach, and performance avoidance goals on students' intercultural competence in the Spanish L2 classroom?

Most previous research has investigated goals and academic achievement not intercultural competence, and there is no evidence to suggest that one type of achievement goal would have more or less an impact on intercultural competence development.

This previous research question only examines the development of intercultural competence, which incorporates many of the ACTFL Standards. The sixth research question,

however, probes into students' linguistic competence and asks:

Research Question 6: Does identifying, establishing, and maintaining an achievement goal have an impact on students' linguistic competence in the Spanish L2 classroom?

Previous research in academic settings shows a positive influence in students' academic achievement when coupled with goal setting, but this does not specifically refer to linguistic competence. Therefore, I will assume the null hypothesis: There will be no effect.

The seventh set of related research questions are once again an extension of the sixth research question, honing in specifically on the different goal types:

Research Question 7: Do specific types of goals have an effect on linguistic competence in the Spanish L2 classroom?

This research question is also further divided and looks to see if there is a difference in students' linguistic competence in varying areas.

Research Question 7a: Is there a difference between mastery goals and performance goals on students' linguistic competence in the Spanish L2 classroom?

Research Question 7b: Is there a difference between approach goals and avoidance goals on students' linguistic competence in the Spanish L2 classroom?

Research Question 7c: Is there a difference between mastery approach, mastery avoidance, performance approach, and performance avoidance goals on students' linguistic competence in the Spanish L2 classroom?

As previously mentioned, most research has investigated goals and academic achievement not linguistic competence, and there is no evidence to suggest that one type of achievement goal would have more or less an impact on linguistic competence development.

Another interesting take on goal setting that has not yet been investigated is that of

students' thoughts, attitudes, and perceptions of goal setting. In order to determine what students' opinions are of goal setting, the final research question asks:

Research Question 8: How do students perceive goal setting in the Spanish L2 classroom?

This has not been previously investigated, but it can be hypothesized that students will have differing opinions about goal setting and the impact that it has in the L2 classroom.

2. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Participants

The participants for this study were university students enrolled at a large, southeastern university. Students were taking Spanish 103, an introductory language course designed as an intensive review covering material from both the first and second semester courses in one semester. This particular course serves the purposes of this study well as it yields a wide array of students who are enrolled for different reasons. Specifically, the course will include both students whose only priority is to complete the university's foreign language requirement and will not take any further Spanish courses, as well as students who have an interest in the language and will possibly continue with subsequent Spanish study. This course is also part of a coordinated program that, in general, practices communicative language teaching in which the emphasis is on meaningful interactions and communication. As a coordinated course, there is a strong element of consistency across sections in that every student in Spanish 103 receives the same syllabus and course calendar, takes the same quizzes on the same day, completes the same projects, etc.

Student participation in this study formed part of their regular coursework and as part of their participation grade. A total of 165 ($N = 165$) students participated in this study. Students were divided into the experimental group ($n = 107$) and the control group ($n = 58$). (More detailed information will be given in the Results chapter).

3.2 Instruments

The surveys and measurements were administered through different means. Some were given online, and others were given in person. The online surveys and measurements were administered through Qualtrics, an online software platform (“Qualtrics,” 2017). There were two pretests and posttests, including a modified version of both the Assessment of Intercultural Competence (AIC) and *The Diplomas de Español como Lengua Extranjera* (Diplomas of Spanish as a Foreign Language [DELE]).

3.2.1 Intercultural competence measurement. A modified version of the Assessment of Intercultural Competence (AIC) questionnaire (Appendix A) by Fantini (2006) served as one of the pre-tests and posttests in this study. The pretest was compared to the posttest to determine the intercultural competence development for each individual student. This proficiency measure consists of 41 statements on a Likert scale. It was chosen because it follows Byram’s model of ICC and has been used in several studies (Fantini, 2000, 2006, 2012; Matveev, 2017; Penbek, Sahin & Cerit, 2012; Rosenbusch, 2014; Zhou, Xu, & Bayley, 2011). In fact, in a report on understanding and assessing intercultural competence, Sinicrope, Norris, & Watanabe (2007) stated that the constructs of the AIC were knowledge, attitude, skills, and awareness, which are the same factors proposed by Byram (1997). Fantini (2006) does further develop the definition of intercultural competence by saying that it is “a complex of abilities needed to perform effectively and appropriately when interacting with others who are linguistically and culturally different from one’s self” (p. 12). This measurement was also chosen as it inherently follows the ACTFL Standards. More detailed information explaining how each question of the AIC matches with one or more of the ACTFL Standards can be seen in Table 6. Some questions addressed multiple areas and are listed in each corresponding category. Other questions focused on the importance

of intercultural competence in a general sense, meaning that it did not specifically focus on Hispanic culture. As such, this information is listed under “Other.”

Table 6. *Comparison of the AIC to the ACTFL Standards*

<u>ACTFL Standard</u>	<u>Question on the AIC</u>
Communication	5, 14, 21, 24, 27
Cultures	1, 2, 4, 5, 8, 9, 13, 16, 17, 21, 22, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28
Connections	10, 22, 25, 28
Comparisons	3, 6, 7, 11, 23, 30
Communities	12, 22
Other	15, 18, 19, 20, 29, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41

3.2.2 Proficiency test. A Spanish proficiency test (Appendix B), a modified version of *The Diplomas de Español como Lengua Extranjera* (Diplomas of Spanish as a Foreign Language [DELE], Instituto Cervantes, 2002), served as the second pretest and posttest in this study. The pretest was compared to the posttest to determine the linguistic competence development for each individual student. The first portion of the proficiency measure consists of a 30-question-multiple-choice vocabulary section, and the second is a 20-question cloze passage with three options per answer. The modified DELE was chosen as it is a recognized Spanish exam that has reliability and validity (Montrul, 2004) in determining proficiency levels of L2 Spanish learners, and it has been used in many studies that examine L2 acquisition (Dussias et al., 2014; Guijarro-Fuentes & Marinis, 2007; Jegerski, 2015; Montrul, 2004, 2005).

3.2.3 Goal orientation survey. A goal orientation survey (Appendix C) of 20 questions was adapted from previous AGT research (Barron & Harackiewicz, 2001; Elliot & Church, 1997; Elliot & McGregor, 2001; Elliot & Murayama, 2008; Gehlbach, 2006; Harackiewicz et al., 1997; Midgley et al., 2000; Pintrich & De Groot, 1990) in order to determine students' natural goal orientation. As detailed earlier, possible goal orientations at the broadest level include mastery or performance orientations or approach or avoidance orientations, and subcategories of mastery approach, mastery avoidance, performance approach, performance avoidance.

3.2.4 Goal choice survey. A goal choice survey (Appendices D, E, F, G) was created to expand upon students' broad goal orientations. Students in the experimental group were given a goal choice survey based on their individual goal orientation. For example, students with mastery approach goal orientations were given a mastery approach goal choice survey, performance approach goal-oriented students received a performance approach goal choice survey, and so on. In the survey, students were asked to state a difficult, but realistic goal for their Spanish course as is common in previous research (Brown & Latham, 2000; Gauggel & Fischer, 2001; Locke & Latham, 1990; Winters & Latham, 1996; Wood et al. 1999; Wright & Kacmar, 1994).

Students in the control group received a completely separate survey based on ACTFL's Can-Do Statements (Appendix H). To account for the distinct surveys being deliberately distributed in each classroom, all students were explicitly told that the study concerned ways of learning an L2, and as such, each survey may look different.

3.2.5 Feedback form. Feedback forms were added to the study for two reasons. The first is that feedback is a necessary component of GST. The second reason is due to information gleaned during a pilot study. During this preliminary version of the study, students only set goals and did not receive feedback on their progress. Results showed that simply setting a goal itself

without feedback or commitment ended in no significant difference in final course grades between groups. The feedback forms (Appendices I, J, K) employed were adapted from previous GST research (Cianci et al., 2010; Colquitt & Simmering, 1998; Duijnhouwer et al., 2010; Ilies & Judge, 2005; VandeWalle, et al. 2001; West et al., 2001). Students received an accurate, current assessment of their progress toward their goals after each chapter quiz. Given the quiz schedule of the course, there were four feedback forms throughout the semester. The type of feedback given varied depending on each student's individual goal orientation, such that those with a mastery goal received a mastery feedback form, whereas those with a performance goal received a performance feedback form, and so on.

3.2.6 Goal commitment survey. Based on the principles of GST, and in order to ensure that students were committed to their goal and not solely on completing surveys as part of their course, a goal commitment survey (Appendix L) was used to assess students' dedication to their chosen goal (adapted from: Hollenbeck, Williams, & Klein, 1989; Martin & Manning, 1995; Porter & Latham, 2013; Wright & Kacmar, 1994). The goal commitment survey was administered in conjunction with each feedback form.

3.2.7 Perceptions survey. To further explore the implications of goal setting, students received a survey (Appendix M) after the posttests were taken to determine learners' perceptions and opinions of goal setting and the goal setting process. The post-study survey consisted of seven questions on a Likert scale and nine open-ended questions. Both the Likert scale questions and the open-ended questions asked students' opinions about goals in general and the goal setting process.

3.2.8 Weekly instructor survey. In order to gain more information about the course, the instructors were given a weekly survey (Appendix N) that asked about the activities and content

that were covered in the specific course sections. Even though the course is part of a coordinated program, instructors have the freedom to choose activities and modify content as they see fit. This survey was open-ended in nature and asked instructors to consider their instructional content.

3.3 Procedures

All students enrolled in the nine sections of Spanish 103 during the Fall 2016 semester were informed about the study through course content posted in their learning management system, Blackboard Learn. Students received a link that directed them to the online consent form and the two pretests, a modified version of the AIC and a modified version of the DELE. This was done outside of the classroom, and participants had a week to complete this initial step. If students did not complete this part of the study, they were not included in the study.

All participants then received the goal orientation survey in person. The results from this survey were used to indicate the goal orientation category for each participant. To do so, each answer was converted to a number. For example, each time a participant selected *Strongly Agree* as their answer, the score for that question was a 5.¹⁰ As each question was designed to (dis)agree with a specific goal orientation, four sums were calculated for each participant, one for each respective goal orientation. The category with the highest sum indicated the participant's goal orientation.¹¹ This process is detailed further in the Results chapter.

It is at this point in the study that the participants were randomly assigned to be in the

¹⁰ *Strongly Agree* = 5; *Agree* = 4; *Neither Agree nor Disagree* = 3; *Disagree* = 2; *Strongly Disagree* = 1.

¹¹ Participants ($n = 28$) who tied for multiple categories were randomly placed into one of their goal orientations.

control group (n=59) or the experimental group (n=107). By assigning participants into the control group randomly instead of by specific class, possible section differences and instructor differences could be alleviated.

After the researcher obtained and analyzed the results from the goal orientation survey, participants in the experimental group received a goal choice survey, in person, based on the results from the goal orientation survey.

After each quiz (i.e., during weeks 6, 8, 10, and 12 of the 15-week semester), students received a feedback form. This feedback form was given in person; however, if a student was absent from class that day, it was also sent in an electronic survey through email. In addition to the feedback form, a goal commitment survey was distributed.

Following the last feedback form, students took the AIC and the DELE again as the post-test. Students also completed a post-study survey on perceptions.

3.4 Data Analysis

As a mixed methods study, data analysis consisted of both descriptive and inferential statistics for the information pertaining to the quantitative data. More specifically, a two-way mixed ANOVA was used to compare the pre- and posttests within and between subjects. To analyze the qualitative portions of this study, I followed Charmaz's (2006) *Constructivist Grounded Theory*. First, I coded the data for common or repeated words and phrases. Then, I developed categories and themes based on the coded data.

3. RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I will present the results found from this study. I will begin by showing the different goal orientations that were discovered to be present in the Spanish L2 classroom. Then, I will show the information found related to achievement, which as previously mentioned, this study defines as being three-pronged, including: academic achievement, intercultural competence, and linguistic competence. Finally, I will detail students' perceptions to goal setting.

It is important to note that this study originated with a total of 165 participants ($N = 165$). Given the size and extended duration (a full academic semester), in combination with the various instruments used throughout, there were a few times where not all participants completed all portions of the study. Nonetheless, as the different surveys and measurements are tied to specific research questions, it was not necessary for all the participants to complete all portions of the study to answer each individual question. Due to this variation, I will give the participant specifics in the appropriate subsections.

4.2 Goal Orientations Present in the L2 Classroom

As previously stated, Research Question 1 investigated the types of goals that students set in the Spanish L2 classroom. To do so, the goal orientation survey was given to all participants at the beginning of the semester before they were divided into the control and experimental groups. A total of 158 participants took the survey. The survey was comprised of 20 questions on a Likert scale of agreement. There were five statements for each of the subcategories: mastery

approach (MAp), mastery avoidance (MAv), performance approach (PAp), and performance avoid (PAv). This setup allows statements to be analyzed by main categories (mastery, performance, approach, and avoidance) and by subcategories (MAp, MAv, PAp, PAv). As detailed earlier, a response of 1 is an indication of strong disagreement, and a response of 5 shows strong agreement. The responses were summed for each set of 5 questions, with participants' scores ranging from 5 – 25 for each of the four categories. This scoring process can be seen in Table 7. This participant (Identifier MAp2), for example, scored the highest in the mastery approach category, which indicates that the participant's goal orientation is mastery approach. Note that Table 7 is set up for visual understanding, and in actuality, the survey that participants received had the statements in a randomized order.

Goal orientations can be seen in Figure 5. As we can see, most students had mastery approach goal orientations, whereas performance approach had the lowest number.

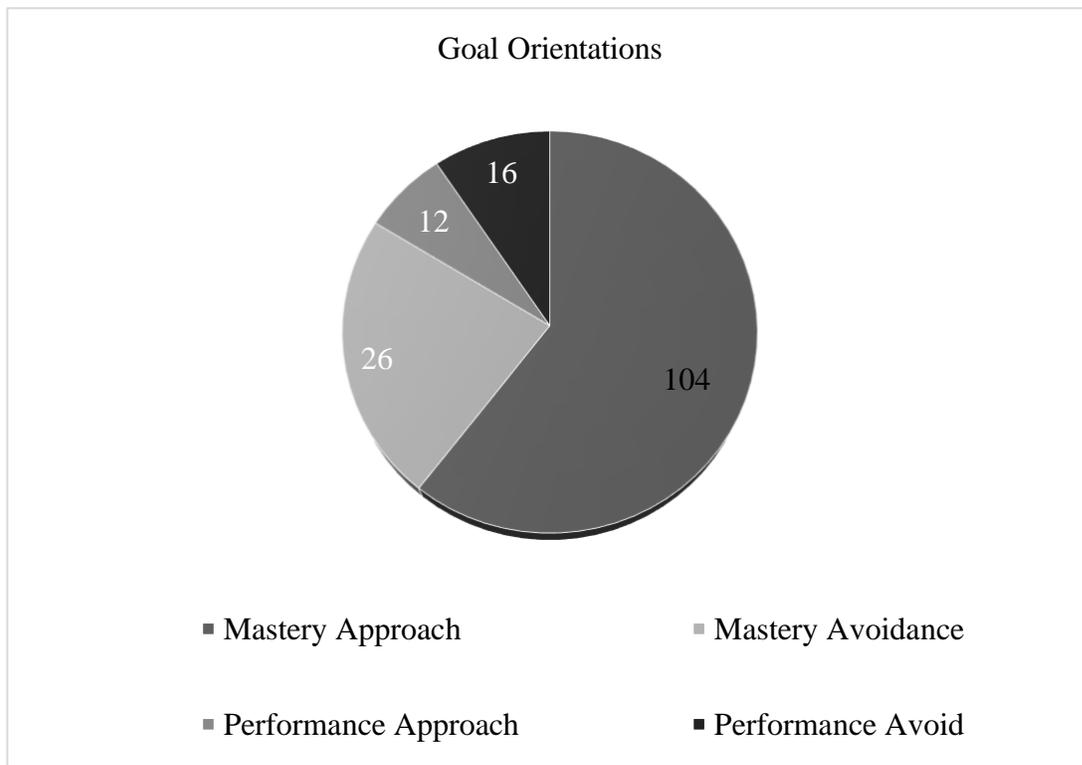


Figure 5. Goal orientations present in the Spanish L2 classroom.

Table 7. Example of goal orientation scoring process

<i>Statement</i>	<i>Mastery Approach</i>	<i>Mastery Avoidance</i>	<i>Performance Approach</i>	<i>Performance Avoidance</i>
Understanding the concepts presented in this course is important to me.	5			
My goal is to learn as much as I can in this course.	5			
I hope to have gained a deeper knowledge of the concepts in this course when I am done with this class.	5			
I desire to completely master the concepts presented in this class.	5			
It's important to me that I thoroughly understand the concepts presented in this class.	5			
I hope to not misunderstand the concepts that are presented in this class.		5		
I am often concerned that I may not understand the concepts in this course as thoroughly as I could.		3		
My goal is to avoid being incompetent about the concepts in this class.		4		
I just hope I am able to maintain enough knowledge of the concepts so I am competent in this class.		2		
My goal is to avoid misunderstanding the concepts in this class.		5		
The best way to succeed in this class is to get a good grade.			2	
I would feel really good if I were the only one who could answer the teacher's questions in class.			2	
My goal in this class is to get a better grade than most of the students.			5	
I'd like to show my teacher that I'm smarter than the other students in my class.			2	
It's important for me to do well compared to others in this class.			5	
It's important to me that I don't look stupid in my class.				4
I just want to avoid doing poorly in this class.				4
It's very important to me that I don't look stupid in my class.				2
One of my goals is to keep others from thinking I'm not smart in class.				1
I worry about the possibility of getting a bad grade in this class.				3
Scores	25	19	16	14

Some participants ($n = 28$), included in the numbers in Figure 5, tied for their top scores, and the multiple goal orientations are shown in Figure 6. With regard to multiple orientations, almost half of these participants fell under a combination of mastery approach and mastery avoidance. Other combinations of goal orientations were seen in lower numbers.

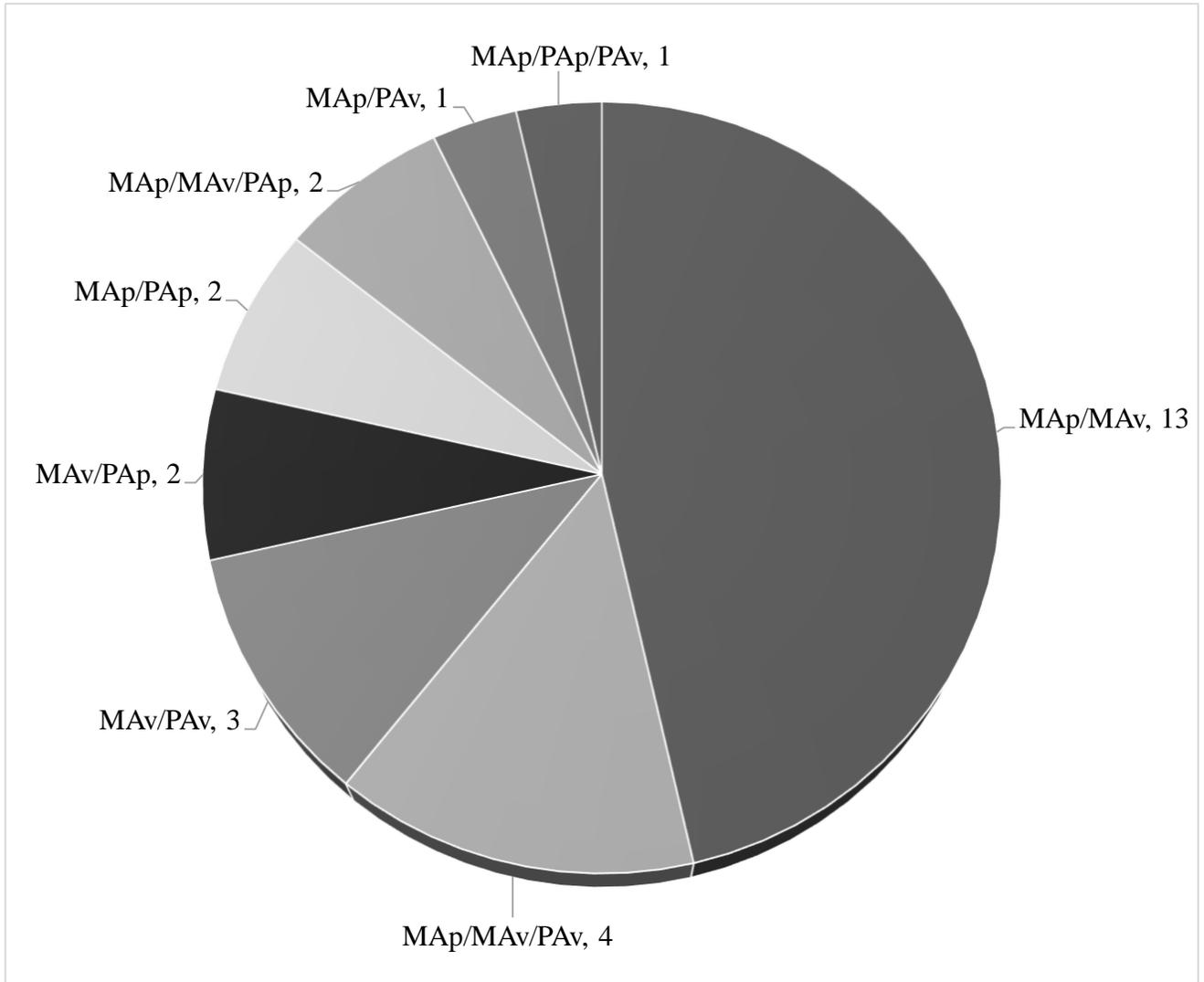


Figure 6. Multiple goal orientations present in the Spanish L2 classroom.

If we collapse the data and look at the broader, dichotomous categories, we can see mastery versus performance goals and approach versus avoidance goals in Figures 7 and 8, respectively.

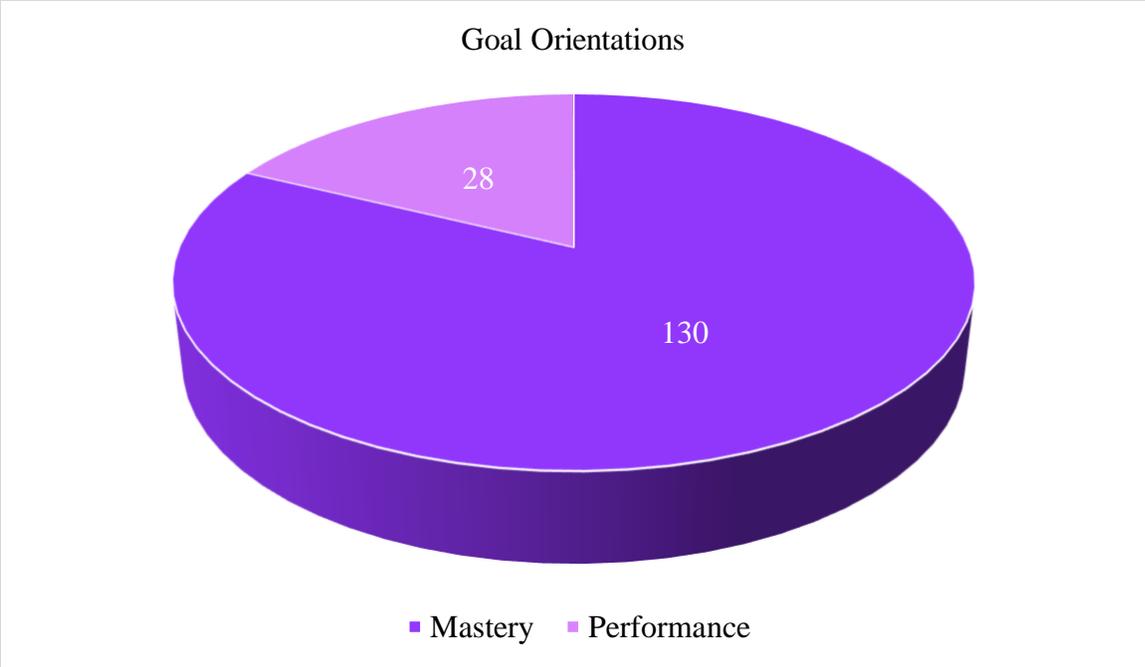


Figure 7. Goal orientations present in the Spanish L2 classroom categorized by mastery and performance.

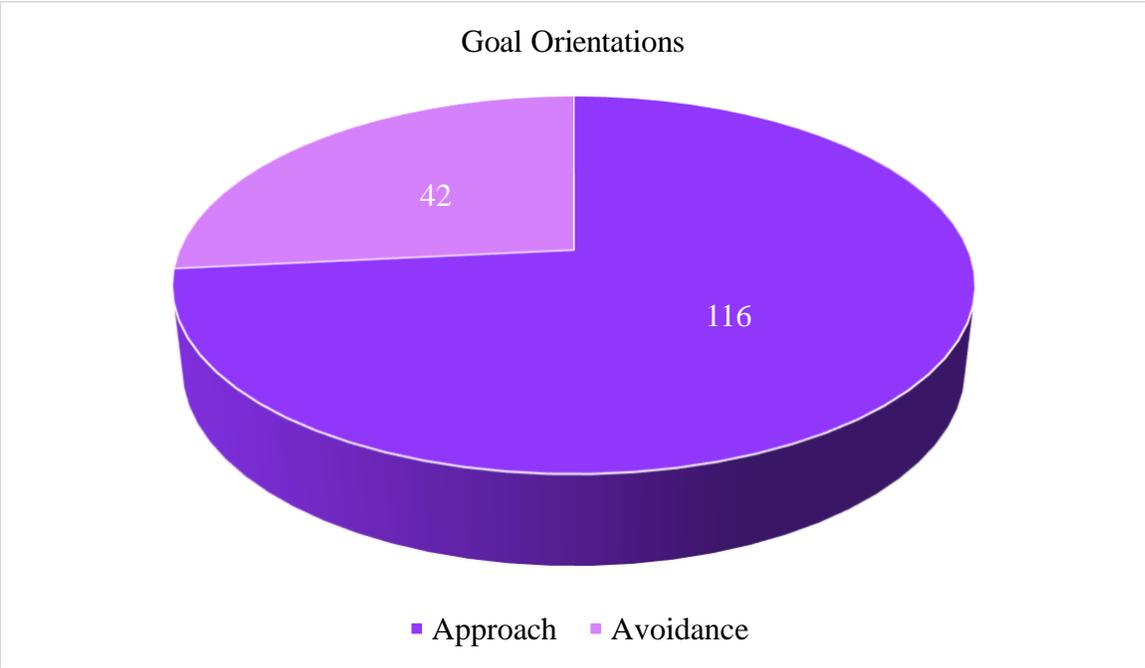


Figure 8. Goal orientations present in the Spanish L2 classroom categorized by approach and avoidance.

We can see that mastery goal orientations were over four times as common as performance goal orientations, and approach goal orientations were almost three times as common as avoidance goal orientations.

Then, students were randomly divided into the control and experimental groups. If randomly selected to participate in the experimental group, students who had multiple goal orientations were randomly assigned to one of their goal orientations. If students did not complete the goal orientation survey, they were automatically placed into the control group. The control group had 58 participants and the experimental group had 107 participants.

To continue analyzing RQ1, students in the experimental group were given a goal choice form where they were asked to open-endedly state their course goal based on their goal orientation. Mastery approach and mastery avoidance-oriented students were asked to write out specific concepts, whereas performance approach and performance avoidance-oriented students chose a grade goal for the course. When looking closer at these written goals, some trends emerged as seen in Figure 9.

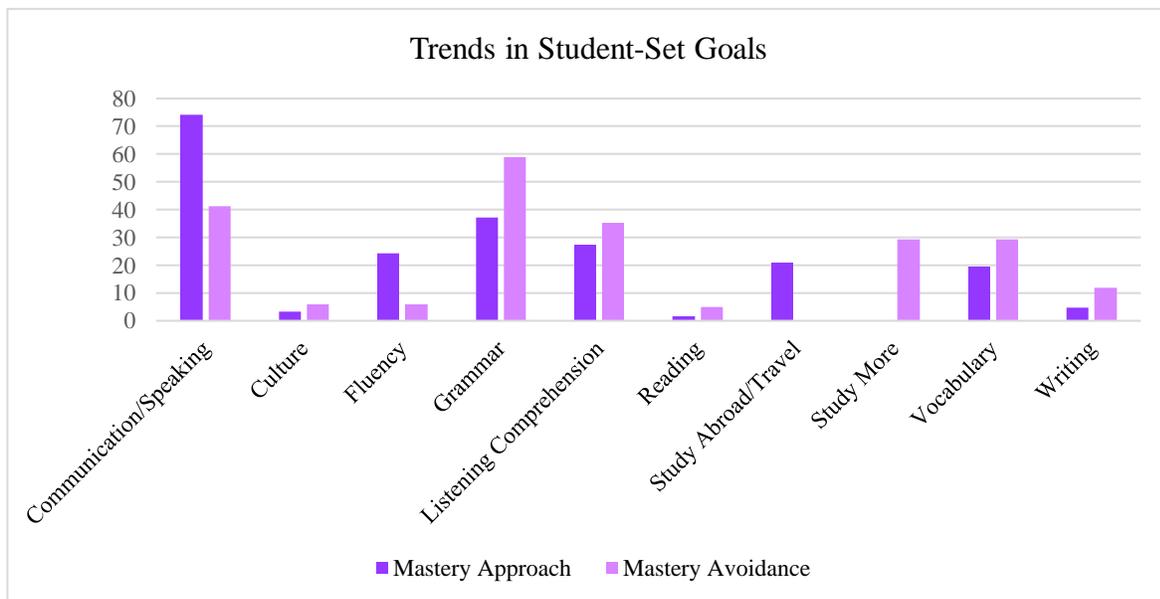


Figure 9. Trends in student-set goals.

Students with a mastery approach goal orientation tended to write about communication/ speaking (74.3%), grammar (37.1%), listening comprehension (27.4%), and fluency (24.2%) as the top four concepts that they wanted to master in their Spanish course. For example, one participant incorporated all four of these top concepts into his goal and said,

My goal is to speak confidently and correctly in Spanish. Speed and fluency of speech I hope will come as long as I perfect the basics and attain an understanding of the Spanish language. I hope to travel to a variety of Spanish speaking countries and have the ability to effectively comprehend and communicate at least on an elemental level. I hope to master most verb tenses and conjugations if not a plethora of vocabulary (Identifier MAp 69).

Students who were mastery avoidance-oriented wrote about grammar (58.8%), communication/ speaking (41.2%), listening comprehension (35.3%), vocabulary (29.4%), and the need to study more to avoid misunderstanding concepts in their Spanish course (29.4%). One participant combined several of these concepts into her goal and said,

A difficult but realistic goal that targets the specific concepts that I would like to avoid misunderstanding would be to learn a lot more vocabulary; therefore, I understand what is being said at all time so I won't misunderstand what my teacher is trying to tell me (Identifier MAV 5).

Between the mastery goal orientations, we can see some overlap such as communicating/ speaking, grammar, and listening comprehension but in different orders of importance. We also see other areas that are not commonly shared between mastery goal orientations, which are study abroad/travel and the need to study more.

Performance approach goal-oriented individuals stated the course grade they would like to achieve. The average grade that students set as their course goal was a 95.1%. Students were also asked to write down their thoughts about their goal. One participant wrote,

My goal in my Spanish class is to receive a 97. I would like to maintain a very high grade in Spanish 103. I will do this by always doing my homework and studying ahead for quizzes and tests. It is important to me to establish a base of good grades. Vocab may be the hardest thing for me. I need to find a way I can consistently study it (Identifier PAP 7).

Similarly, performance avoidance-oriented individuals stated the course grade they did not want to receive below. The average grade that students stated as the grade they did not want to receive below was a 90.9%. Students also wrote down their thoughts about their goal. One participant said,

My goal in my Spanish class is to not receive a grade below a 90. I would not be happy with anything less than an “A” in this class. Grades have always been very important to me (Identifier PAv 1).

Students’ grade goals varied between both performance goal orientations, but, in general, the performance approach goal orientation had a higher overall grade goal.

4.3 Goals and Academic Achievement

As previously stated, Research Question 2 investigates the impact of identifying, establishing, and maintaining a goal on students’ academic achievement in the Spanish L2 classroom. To analyze this research question, students’ final course grades were obtained. All participants who completed a goal survey received a final grade, resulting in a total of 165 individuals being included in the dataset for academic achievement, with 107 in the experimental group and 58 in the control group. Mean grades (out of 100) and standard deviations of final course grades appear in Table 8. As we can see, the experimental group had almost a 9-point higher final course grade than the control group. An independent sample t-test with group as the independent variable and final course grade as the dependent variable found that the experimental group had a significantly higher grade, $t(73.2) = -2.115, p = .034$.¹² Furthermore,

¹² This study adheres to the following significance levels: $p \leq .05$ indicates that results are significant; $.05 < p \leq .10$ indicates results that are approaching significance; $p > .10$ indicates that results are not significant.

Cohen's effect size value ($d = .37$) suggests moderate practical significance.¹³

<u>Group</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u> <u>(SD)</u>
Control	58	79.2 (28.8)
Experimental	107	87.8 (14.6)

Research Question 3 was examined to see if there was a difference in final course grade based on goal type. In other words, the results are also analyzed by separating the experimental group by goal orientation in three ways: (i) mastery vs. performance; (ii) approach vs. avoidance; and (iii) the specific combinations of those four variables. These results are shown as mean grades and standard deviations in Tables 9, 10, and 11.

Table 9 shows data divided by goal categories of mastery and performance. We can see that both mastery and performance goal orientations had similar final course grades. A one-way ANOVA with group as the independent variable and final course grade as the dependent variable was conducted to see if final course grade was different for these groups. Final course grades were found to be significantly different between groups, $F(2, 162) = 3.191, p = .044$, partial $\eta^2 = .038$.¹⁴ Tukey post hoc analysis revealed that the difference in final course grade in the control group and the mastery group was approaching statistical significance ($p = .054$), but no other group differences were statistically significant.

¹³ In order to interpret the effect of an intervention using Cohen's effect size, the following values are observed: small (.2), medium (.5), and large (.8) as posited by Cohen (1977).

¹⁴ In order to interpret partial η^2 , the following values are observed: small (.0099), medium (.0588), and large (.1379) from Richardson (2011).

Table 9. *Final course grades by goal category – mastery and performance*

<u>Group</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u> <u>(SD)</u>
Control	58	79.2 (28.8)
Mastery	81	87.6 (15.5)
Performance	26	88.4 (11.7)

In Table 10, on the other hand, we can see about a 5-point difference between final course grades divided by approach and avoidance goal orientations and a 10-point difference between the control and approach goal orientation. A one-way ANOVA with group as the independent variable and final course grade as the dependent variable was conducted to see if final course grade was different for these groups. Final course grades were found to be significantly different between groups, $F(2, 162) = 3.767, p = .025, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .038$. Tukey post hoc analysis revealed that the difference in final course grade in the control group and the approach group was statistically significant ($p = .020$), but no other group differences were statistically significant.

Table 10. *Final course grades by goal category – approach and avoidance*

<u>Group</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u> <u>(SD)</u>
Control	58	79.2 (28.8)
Approach	74	89.2 (12.2)
Avoidance	33	84.6 (18.8)

Finally, in Table 11 we have data divided into the four goal orientations. We can see that the performance approach goal orientation had the highest final course grade and the control group had the lowest final course grade. A one-way ANOVA with group as the independent

variable and final course grade as the dependent variable was conducted to see if final course grade was different for these groups. Final course grades were not statistically significantly different between groups, $F(2, 160) = 1.939, p = .147$, partial $\eta^2 = .046$.

Table 11. *Final course grades by goal subcategory*

<u>Group</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u> <u>(SD)</u>
Control	58	79.2 (28.8)
Mastery Approach	63	88.8 (13.0)
Mastery Avoidance	18	83.5 (22.3)
Performance Approach	11	91.8 (5.89)
Performance Avoidance	15	85.9 (14.2)

4.4 Goals and Intercultural Competence

Similar to the way Research Questions 2 and 3 investigated the impact of goals and goal setting on academic achievement, Research Questions 4 and 5 did so with regard to students' intercultural competence in the Spanish L2 classroom. To analyze this, students' intercultural competence scores (as measured by the AIC) from the beginning of the study were compared to those at the end of the study. Any participant who did not complete the pre- and/or posttest for intercultural competence development ($n = 36$) was discarded from this part of the data analysis. A total of 129 participants completed both the pre- and posttest of intercultural competences, with 38 participants in the control group and 91 participants in the experimental group. These results appear as mean scores (out of 205) and standard deviations in Table 12.

Both the control and experimental group scores increased over the course of the semester. A two-way mixed-design ANOVA was run with time (pre- and posttest scores) as the within-subjects variable and group (experimental and control) as the between-subjects variable. Intercultural competence was the dependent variable. There was no statistically significant interaction between group and time on intercultural competence scores, $F(1, 127) = .373, p = .542, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .003$. The effect of group on intercultural competence scores was approaching significance, $F(1, 127) = 3.777, p = .054, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .029$. There was no significant effect of group at the pre-test, $F(1, 127) = .604, p = .439, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .005$. There was an effect approaching significance of group at the posttest, $F(1, 127) = 2.863, p = .093, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .022$. There was no significant effect for time, $F(1, 127) = 1.855, p = .176, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .014$.

Table 12. *Intercultural competence scores*

<u>Group</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Pretest Mean</u> <u>(SD)</u>	<u>Posttest Mean</u> <u>(SD)</u>	<u>Mean Change</u> <u>(SD)</u>
Control	38	156.4 (19.9)	159.2 (17.1)	+2.84 (30.4)
Experimental	91	151.8 (21.0)	154.1 (21.5)	+2.29 (32.1)

Research Question 5 was examined to see if there was a difference in intercultural competence between the different goal types. These results appear as mean intercultural competence scores and standard deviations in Tables 13, 14, and 15. First, Table 13 shows data divided by main goal categories. We can see that the mastery goal orientations stayed about the same. The performance goal orientations increased in scores by over 10 points. A two-way mixed-design ANOVA was run with time (pre- and posttest scores) as the within-subjects variable and group (mastery and performance) as the between-subjects variable. Intercultural competence was the dependent variable. There was no statistically significant interaction

between group and time on intercultural competence scores, $F(2, 126) = 1.108, p = .333$, partial $\eta^2 = .017$. The effect of group was approaching significance, $F(2, 126) = 2.847, p = .062$, partial $\eta^2 = .043$. There was no significant effect in intercultural competence scores between groups at the pre-test, $F(2, 126) = .731, p = .483$, partial $\eta^2 = .005$. There was an effect for group at the posttest that was significant, $F(2, 126) = 3.296, p = .040$, partial $\eta^2 = .050$. A Tukey post hoc revealed a difference approaching significance between control and mastery ($p = .095$). The effect of time was significant, $F(2, 126) = 3.099, p = .048$, partial $\eta^2 = .024$. There was no significant difference between the pre- and posttests in the control group, $F(1, 37) = 1.524, p = .225$, partial $\eta^2 = .040$. There was no significant difference between the pre- and posttests in the mastery group, $F(1, 70) = .001, p = .975$, partial $\eta^2 = .000$. There was no significant difference between the pre- and posttests in the performance group, $F(1, 19) = 1.982, p = .175$, partial $\eta^2 = .094$.

Table 13. *Intercultural competence development by goal category – mastery and performance*

<u>Group</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Pretest Mean</u> <i>(SD)</i>	<u>Posttest Mean</u> <i>(SD)</i>	<u>Mean Change</u>
Control	38	156.4 <i>(19.9)</i>	159.2 <i>(17.1)</i>	+2.84 <i>(30.4)</i>
Mastery	71	152.0 <i>(22.0)</i>	151.9 <i>(19.9)</i>	-0.20 <i>(6.15)</i>
Performance	20	151.1 <i>(17.5)</i>	161.8 <i>(25.6)</i>	+10.7 <i>(34.0)</i>

Next, Table 14 shows about a one-point difference in mean change between the approach and avoidance groups. A two-way mixed-design ANOVA was run with time (pre- and posttest scores) as the within-subjects variable and group (approach and avoidance) as the between-subjects variable. Intercultural competence was the dependent variable. There was no statistically

significant interaction between group and time on intercultural competence scores, $F(2, 126) = .193, p = .825, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .003$. There was no effect of group, $F(2, 126) = 1.874, p = .158, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .029$ nor was there an effect of time, $F(2, 126) = 1.503, p = .226, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .012$.

Table 14. *Intercultural competence development by goal category – approach and avoidance*

<u>Group</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Pretest Mean</u> <i>(SD)</i>	<u>Posttest Mean</u> <i>(SD)</i>	<u>Mean Change</u> <i>(SD)</i>
Control	38	156.4 (19.9)	159.2 (17.1)	+2.84 (30.4)
Approach	55	151.9 (22.8)	154.0 (21.8)	+2.01 (34.4)
Avoidance	36	151.4 (16.0)	154.3 (21.0)	+2.96 (26.0)

Finally, Table 15 shows data divided into the four subcategories. We can see that the performance avoidance goal orientation had the largest change in pre- and posttest scores, and mastery approach had the smallest change. A two-way mixed-design ANOVA was run with time (pre- and posttest scores) as the within-subjects variable and group (subcategories) as the between-subjects variable. Intercultural competence was the dependent variable. There was no statistically significant interaction between group and time on intercultural competence scores, $F(4, 124) = 1.797, p = .134, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .025$. There was no effect of group, $F(4, 124) = 1.629, p = .171, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .050$. There was no significant effect of time, $F(4, 124) = 2.736, p = .101, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .022$.

Table 15. *Intercultural competence development by goal subcategory*

<u>Group</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Pretest Mean</u> <i>(SD)</i>	<u>Posttest Mean</u> <i>(SD)</i>	<u>Mean Change</u> <i>(SD)</i>
Mastery Approach	55	152.2 (23.3)	151.4 (20.8)	-0.764 (33.4)
Mastery Avoidance	16	151.2 (17.2)	153.4 (16.9)	+2.25 (23.8)
Performance Approach	10	150.5 (20.8)	167.8 (23.6)	+17.3 (37.5)
Performance Avoidance	10	151.7 (14.7)	155.8 (27.4)	+4.10 (30.6)

4.5 Goals and Linguistic Competence

Similar to the previous research questions addressing the relationship between goal setting and linguistic competence, Research Questions 6 and 7 asked about the impact of identifying, establishing, and maintaining a goal on students' linguistic development in the Spanish L2 classroom. To analyze this, students' Spanish proficiency scores (as measured by the DELE) from the beginning of the study were compared to those at the end of the study. Any participant who did not complete the pre- and/or posttest for Spanish proficiency ($n = 36$) was discarded from this part of the data analysis. A total of 129 participants completed both measures of linguistic competence, with 38 participants in the control group and 91 participants in the experimental group. These results appear as mean scores (out of 50) and standard deviations in Table 16.

The control group results seem to decrease over the course of the semester, whereas the experimental group shows a slight increase. A two-way mixed-design ANOVA was run with time (pre- and posttest scores) as the within-subjects variable and group (experimental and

control) as the between-subjects variable. Linguistic competence was the dependent variable.

There was a statistically significant interaction between group and time on linguistic scores, $F(1, 127) = 4.094, p = .045$, partial $\eta^2 = .031$. There was no significant main effect for group, $F(1, 127) = .382, p = .538$, partial $\eta^2 = .003$. There was no significant main effect for time, $F(1, 127) = 1.264, p = .263$, partial $\eta^2 = .010$. There was a statistically significant difference between the pre- and posttests in the control group, $F(1, 37) = 4.105, p = .050$, partial $\eta^2 = .100$. There was no significant difference between the pre- and posttest in the experimental group, $F(1, 90) = .648, p = .423$, partial $\eta^2 = .007$.

Table 16. *Linguistic competence development scores*

<u>Group</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Pretest Mean</u> <u>(SD)</u>	<u>Posttest Mean</u> <u>(SD)</u>	<u>Mean Change</u> <u>(SD)</u>
Control	38	20.2 (5.78)	18.2 (5.14)	-2.0 (6.08)
Experimental	91	18.4 (6.04)	19.0 (6.35)	+0.61 (6.84)

Research Question 7 was examined to see if there was a difference in linguistic competence between the different goal types. These results appear as mean proficiency scores and standard deviations in Tables 17, 18, and 19. First, Table 17 shows data divided by mastery and performance. We can see that the performance goal orientation group had a score that was two points higher than the mastery goal orientation group. A two-way mixed-design ANOVA was run with time (pre- and posttest scores) as the within-subjects variable and group (control, mastery, and performance) as the between subjects variable. Linguistic competence was the dependent variable. A statistically significant interaction between the group and time on linguistic scores was approaching significance, $F(2, 126) = 2.571, p = .080$, partial $\eta^2 = .039$. There was no significant effect for group, $F(2, 126) = .213, p = .808$, partial $\eta^2 = .003$, nor was

there an effect for time, $F(2, 126) = .002, p = .998, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .000$. There was a significant difference in pre- and posttest scores for the control group, $F(1, 37) = 4.105, p = .050, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .100$. The difference in the pre- and posttest scores for the mastery group were approaching significance, $F(1, 70) = .073, p = .788 .050, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .001$. The difference in pre- and posttest scores for the performance group was not significant, $F(1, 19) = .955, p = .341, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .048$.

Table 17. *Linguistic competence development by goal category – mastery and performance*

<u>Group</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Pretest Mean</u> <i>(SD)</i>	<u>Posttest Mean</u> <i>(SD)</i>	<u>Mean Change</u>
Control	38	20.2 <i>(5.78)</i>	18.2 <i>(5.14)</i>	-2.0 <i>(6.08)</i>
Mastery	71	18.6 <i>(5.86)</i>	18.8 <i>(6.13)</i>	+0.20 <i>(6.15)</i>
Performance	20	17.5 <i>(6.56)</i>	19.4 <i>(7.14)</i>	+1.90 <i>(8.73)</i>

Next, Table 18 shows data divided by the goal categories of approach and avoidance. We can see about a three-point positive difference between scores. A two-way mixed-design ANOVA was run with time (pre- and posttest scores) as the within-subjects variable and group (control, approach, and avoidance) as the between-subjects variable. Linguistic competence was the dependent variable. There was a statistically significant interaction between the group and time on linguistic scores, $F(2, 126) = 5.035, p = .008, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .074$. There was no main effect for group, $F(2, 126) = .191, p = .826, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .003$. There was no main effect for time, $F(2, 126) = .143, p = .867, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .001$. There was a significant difference in pre- and posttest scores for the control group, $F(1, 37) = 4.105, p = .050, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .100$, and for the avoidance group, $F(1, 25) = 5.817, p = .024, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .189$. No significant effect of time on linguistic

scores was found for the approach group, $F(1, 64) = .319, p = .574, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .005$.

Table 18. *Linguistic competence development by goal category – approach and avoidance*

<u>Group</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Pretest Mean</u> <i>(SD)</i>	<u>Posttest Mean</u> <i>(SD)</i>	<u>Mean Change</u> <i>(SD)</i>
Control	38	20.2 (5.78)	18.2 (5.14)	-2.0 (6.08)
Approach	65	18.9 (5.60)	18.4 (5.57)	-.461 (6.58)
Avoidance	26	17.0 (6.85)	20.3 (7.92)	+3.15 (6.67)

Finally, Table 19 shows data divided into the four subcategories. We can see that the performance avoidance goal orientation had the largest positive change and the performance approach goal orientation had the largest negative change. A two-way mixed-design ANOVA was run with time (pre- and posttest scores) as the within-subjects variable and group (control, mastery approach, mastery avoidance, performance approach, and performance avoidance) as the between-subjects variable. Linguistic competence was the dependent variable. There was a statistically significant interaction between group and time on linguistic scores, $F(4, 124) = 3.045, p = .020, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .089$. There was no significant main effect for group, $F(4, 124) = .140, p = .967, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .004$. There was no significant main effect for time, $F(4, 124) = .872, p = .483, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .007$. There was a significant difference between pre- and posttests of the control group, $F(1, 37) = 4.105, p = .050, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .100$. There was no significant difference between pre- and posttests of the mastery approach group, $F(1, 54) = .104, p = .748, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .002$. There was no significant difference between pre- and posttests of the mastery avoidance group, $F(1, 15) = 1.655, p = .218, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .099$. There was no significant difference between pre- and posttests of the performance approach group, $F(1, 9) = .314, p = .589, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .034$.

There was a difference approaching significance between the pre- and posttests of the performance avoidance group, $F(1, 9) = 4.514, p = .063$, partial $\eta^2 = .334$.

Table 19. *Linguistic competence development by goal subcategories*

<u>Group</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Pretest Mean</u> <i>(SD)</i>	<u>Posttest Mean</u> <i>(SD)</i>	<u>Mean Change</u> <i>(SD)</i>
Control	38	20.2 <i>(5.78)</i>	18.2 <i>(5.14)</i>	-2.0 <i>(6.08)</i>
Mastery Approach	55	18.7 <i>(5.71)</i>	18.5 <i>(5.75)</i>	-.272 <i>(6.26)</i>
Mastery Avoidance	16	18.0 <i>(6.52)</i>	19.8 <i>(7.42)</i>	+1.81 <i>(5.64)</i>
Performance Approach	10	19.5 <i>(5.17)</i>	18.0 <i>(4.67)</i>	-1.50 <i>(8.46)</i>
Performance Avoidance	10	15.4 <i>(7.40)</i>	20.7 <i>(9.04)</i>	+5.30 <i>(7.89)</i>

4.6 Summary of Goals and Achievement

To summarize the effects of goals and goal setting on achievement, I have compiled the data into Table 20. The information listed shows significant increases in results (denoted by \checkmark), significant decreases in results (denoted by \downarrow), results approaching significance (denoted by *), and no significance (denoted by X). The information on academic achievement is compared to the control group, and the information on intercultural competence and linguistic competence is a comparison of the pre- and posttest scores.

Table 20. *Summary of results on achievement*

<u>Group</u>	<u>Academic Achievement</u> [†]	<u>Intercultural Competence</u> ^{††}	<u>Linguistic Competence</u> ^{††}
Control	X	X	↓
Experimental	✓	X	X
Mastery	*	X	*
Performance	X	X	X
Approach	✓	X	X
Avoidance	X	X	✓
Mastery Approach	X	X	X
Mastery Avoidance	X	X	X
Performance Approach	X	X	X
Performance Avoidance	X	X	*

† compared to the control group
†† compared pre- to posttest

4.7 Students' Perceptions of Goals and Goal Setting

Moving away from achievement, Research Question 8 examines students' perceptions of goal setting in the Spanish L2 classroom. At the end of the study, as mentioned in the methodology, students were asked to rate their perceptions of goals and goal setting. This survey was only given to the experimental group, and some students did not participate and were not included in the results. Therefore, 102 students answered this survey, which was based on five questions on a five-point Likert scale of agreement. Each answer was then turned into a numerical value of 1-5. A score of 1 indicated strong disagreement whereas a score of 5

indicated strong agreement. Table 21 shows the mean perception scores and standard deviations for each question. Overall, we can see that students had a positive perception of the goal setting process, and the highest score was when asked about the likelihood of continuing to set goals in the classroom.

Table 21. *Students' perceptions of goals and goal setting*

<u>Question</u>	<u>Mean (SD)</u>
How much did you care about or pay attention to your goal?	3.53 (1.07)
Did you feel a connection to your goal and what you actually learned/did in the class?	3.84 (0.97)
How much of an effect do you think the goal setting process in general (setting a goal and receiving feedback about the goal) had on your performance in the class?	2.98 (1.36)
Did receiving feedback impact your dedication to achieving your goal?	2.79 (1.56)
How likely are you to continue setting goals for your courses?	3.95 (0.87)
Overall	3.42 (0.88)

In addition to the Likert scale questions, students were asked an open-ended question about their perceptions of goal achievement, the process of goal setting, and the effects of goal setting on class performance. This was done to provide further insight into student's opinions of goal setting. First, I will present the results for students' perceptions of goal achievement. Original responses were given in short answer format and were coded to represent goal achievement (=2), partial goal achievement (=1) or no goal achievement (=0). These

numbers were assigned to represent three levels of goal achievement. Mean scores and standard deviations of mastery and performance goal orientations appear in Table 22. Students in these groups perceived goal achievement similarly. An independent t-test shows no significant difference between the two groups, $t(27) = .9726, p = .339$.

Table 22. *Students' perceptions on goal achievement – mastery vs. performance*

<u>Group</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Mean</u> <u>(SD)</u>
Mastery	66	1.36 (.69)
Performance	21	1.14 (.96)
No Answer	15	N/A
Total	102	1.31 (.77)

Mean scores and standard deviations of approach and avoidance goal orientations appear in Table 23. Students in the approach group seemed to perceive higher goal achievement compared to those in the avoidance group. An independent t-test shows that this difference between the two groups is approaching significance, $t(42) = 1.8406, p = .0728$.

Table 23. *Students' perceptions on goal achievement – approach vs. avoidance*

<u>Group</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Mean</u> <u>(SD)</u>
Approach	59	1.42 (.67)
Avoidance	28	1.07 (.90)
No Answer	15	N/A
Total	102	1.31 (.77)

Mean scores and standard deviations of mastery approach, mastery avoidance, performance approach, and avoidance goal orientations appear in Table 24. As we can see, most students perceived goal achievement as similar across each question except for the performance avoidance orientation, which had almost half the perception score of the other goal orientations. A one-way ANOVA with goal type as the independent variable (mastery approach vs. mastery avoidance vs. performance approach vs. performance avoidance) and students' perception scores as the dependent variable yielded a main effect that was approaching significance, $F(3, 83) = 2.202, p = .094$. A Tukey post hoc test showed a difference approaching significance ($p = .096$) between mastery approach and performance avoidance.

Table 24. *Students' perceptions on goal achievement divided by subcategories*

<u>Group</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Mean</u> <u>(SD)</u>
Mastery Approach	50	1.40 (.64)
Mastery Avoidance	16	1.25 (.86)
Performance Approach	9	1.56 (.88)
Performance Avoidance	12	0.83 (.94)
No Answer	15	N/A
Total	102	1.31 (.77)

Now, I will present the open-ended results for students' perceptions of the goal setting process. Original responses were given in short answer format and were coded in NVivo (2016) using interpretive analysis. Responses were first coded for general perceptions. Results show that 85.3% of participants displayed a positive response to goal setting saying, "I liked setting a goal for my Spanish course" (Identifier PAv 4) or "I was proud of [setting a goal]" (Identifier MAp 18). A total of 5.8% of participants said that goal setting was a normal process stating, "I already set goals for myself in classes, so it's not unusual for me to have one" (Identifier MAp 72) or "I set goals for all of my classes so it's normal for me" (Identifier PAv 3). A total of 3.9% of participants had a negative view of goal setting saying, "It was basically pointless" (Identifier MAp 4) or "It was entirely unnecessary" (Identifier PAp 5). The remaining 5.8% of participants chose not to answer this question.

I further analyzed this open-ended question using Charmaz's Constructivist Grounded

Theory (2006). I began with line-by-line coding looking for recurring words and phrases. Then, I identified patterns through focused coding, and then I created and labeled categories. Figure 10 gives a visual representation of the coding process for this particular analysis. This visual representation is based on Saldaña's *The Coding Manual for Qualitative Research* (2009). This coding process indicated that students used words and phrases such as "work harder," "keep/stay on track," and "focus" to describe their opinions of goal setting in their Spanish course. Specifically, students' responses showed four main themes. They were *attentiveness*, *motivation*, *(self)-awareness*, and *engagement*. The first theme, *attentiveness*, I define as attention to or concentration on the goal. For example, one student said,

It was a good experience to write out goals for this course. Rather than listlessly working my way through the class, I was able to have a set list of things to pay attention to/ work towards. Regardless of the extent to which I accomplished these, I enjoyed having these goals and intend to reach them with additional work beyond this semester (Identifier MAp 3).

Other students said that goal setting held them responsible and on track in the course saying, "[Goal setting] kept me accountable for my everyday work and how I studied and prepared for exams and projects" (Identifier PAv 10) and "I think [goal setting] really helped me to stay on track because it showed me how high I had my standards at the beginning of the semester" (Identifier PAv 1). Students also indicated the desire for the requirement of goal setting as it draws attention to the purpose of classes. "I wish more classes required students to set goals. I think you pay more attention if there are personal goals to be met as well as the required class assignments" (Identifier MAp 46).

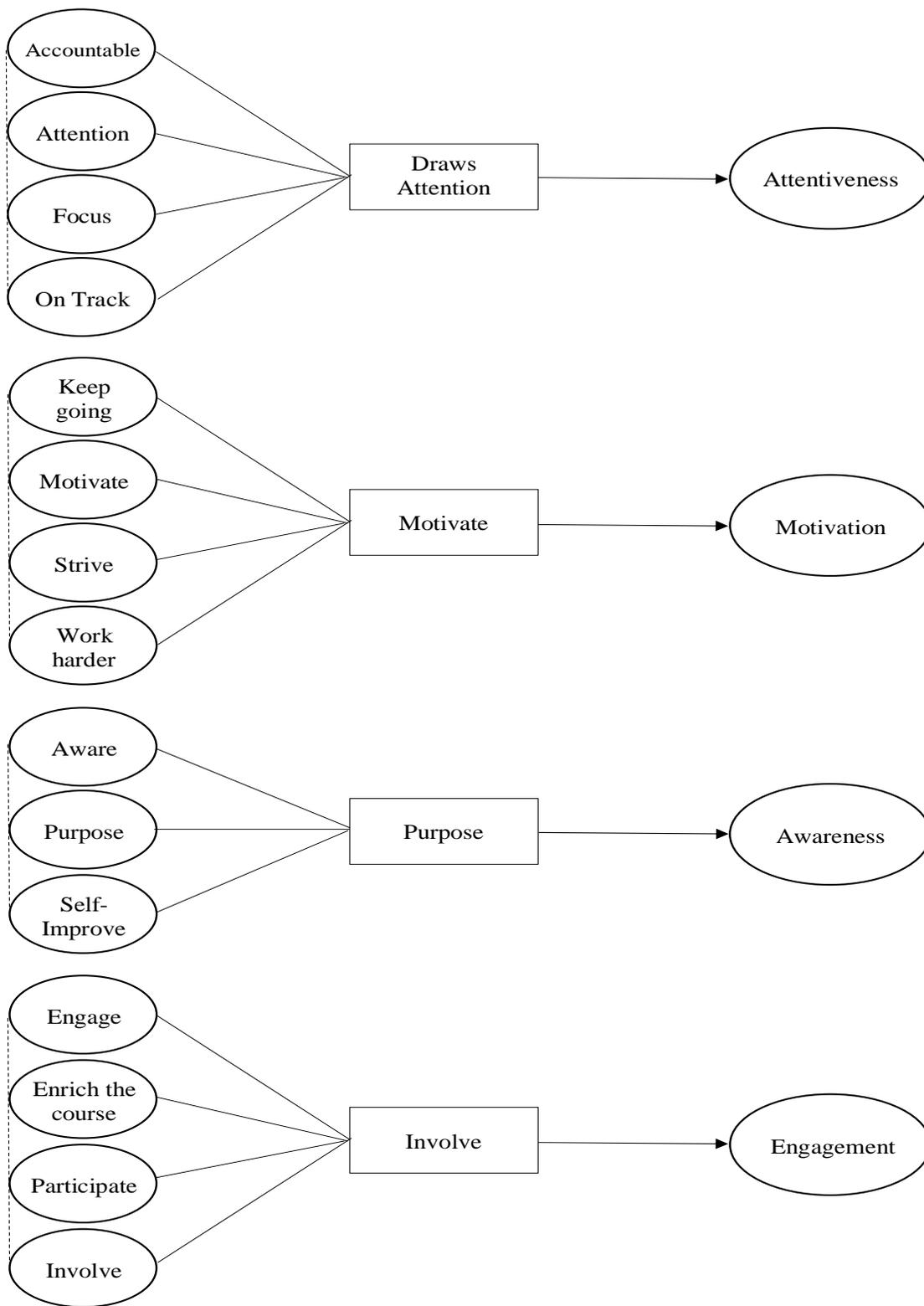


Figure 10. Qualitative coding process.

The second theme was that of *motivation*, which I refer to as inspiration or influence to accomplish a task. Students indicated that setting a goal helped them stay motivated throughout the course and overcome difficulties. Students said, “I liked setting a goal for my Spanish course, because when I got close to losing the goal, it helped me stay motivated and try harder” (Identifier PAv 4) and “I think it was very helpful to have a goal that I could work towards even when things got overwhelming” (MAv 24). Other students said that setting a goal gave them something extra to work towards instead of just participating in a class. One student said, “As opposed to just getting through the class and getting the credit I have something to strive for instead” (Identifier PAv 9) and another student said, “I thought it was a good idea to set a position that I want to be in at the end of the course and that it would motivate me to study more than for just the grade” (Identifier MAp 14).

For the third theme, students noted that goal setting brought about (*self*)-*awareness*, by which I define as the realization of purpose (language study, the course, or other reasons) throughout the course of the semester. Some students said that it helped give promise to the class saying, “I appreciated setting a goal for my Spanish course because it helped me stay organized and remember what I want to take away from this class” (Identifier MAp 19), and another said, “I thought [goal setting] helped give a purpose to the class” (Identifier MAv 26). Other students said that it helped them recognize what actually could be gained in a language class. One student said, “It kept me aware that it was not just another class but a mission of self-improvement” (Identifier MAp 70), and another student detailed her response by saying,

I think that setting the goal for my Spanish course helped me be able to realize my strengths and weaknesses in the class. I am very glad that I had a goal set for myself because it made me a better student and it helped me learn more and get more out of my Spanish course” (Identifier MAp 20).

The final theme was *engagement*. I define engagement as participation and involvement

in the Spanish course. Students reported that they felt more engaged in the classroom and enjoyed the course more because of goal setting. Students said, “[Goal setting] pushed me to study harder and enjoy the class more” (Identifier MAV 19) and “I thought that setting a goal for my Spanish course was a great way to keep me engaged throughout the semester and help me succeed in my Spanish course” (Identifier MAp 47).

Now, I will detail the results found in reference to students’ perceptions of the goal setting process on performance. Responses were first coded for general perceptions. Results show that 54.9% of participants displayed a positive response to the goal setting process on performance saying, “My goal played a huge role in my performance in class” (Identifier PAV 10). 12.7% of students said that the goal setting process was positive but with a caveat. For example, one student said, “It was helpful...however, I would have pushed basically as hard whether or not I had a goal set” (Identifier MAp 7). 18.6% of students reported a neutral outlook on the goal setting process stating, “I did not feel one way or another about setting a goal” (Identifier MAp 73). 6.9% of students reported a negative feeling towards the goal setting process specifying, “I don't feel as if it really [a]ffected my performance” (Identifier MAp 48). The remaining 6.9% of participants chose not to answer this question.

Analyzing these results further, 24.5% of student responses mentioned feedback as an explanation to their statement on the goal setting process. For example, one student said,

The goal setting process was great, I really liked that part. I really enjoyed getting my tests back and seeing what my strengths and weaknesses are and what I needed to spend more time on when I was studying for the tests. I noticed that I was more prepared and more confident for test time (Identifier MAp 20).

Only one student (Identifier PAV 9) had a negative opinion of feedback stating, “I liked setting the goal, but the feedback messed me up a little. It just messed with my self-confidence a little, and I stressed myself out.”

Further exploring the role of feedback, students were asked, “Did receiving feedback impact your dedication to your goal?” Students’ responses were coded using interpretive analysis. Results show that 60.2% of students responded positively to feedback. For example, one student said,

The feedback was a huge help. Each test I wanted the ‘list of things to work on’ to get smaller and smaller. I was very happy when I got my topics down to I think 2 that I needed to improve. The feedback did help me realize that maybe I didn't study enough or I'm not as good at Spanish as I thought I was and then I knew how much effort I needed to put towards pursuing my goal (Identifier MAp 20).

Other students specified that receiving feedback acted as a motivational tool saying, “[Receiving feedback] made me feel like they really cared about me getting better at Spanish, which is a big motivator” (Identifier MAp 22), while other students indicated that receiving feedback led them to self-regulate saying, “It's hard to know where I stood throughout the semester in many of my classes, but the feedback made it easy for me to understand where I was and what I needed to do to achieve my goal” (Identifier PAv 3). Lastly, some students indicated that feedback did not affect their approach to goals but acted as encouragement. For example,

The feedback did not affect how I approached my goals but did show me in what areas I needed to improve and encouraged me in areas that were going well. As I generally did not pay attention to my goals, the feedback concerning progress towards the goal did not affect how I approached these standards but rather served as constructive encouragement (Identifier MAp 3).

Some responses (17.5%) indicated that goal setting did not impact their dedication to their goal citing personal reasons or being unmotivated in the class as explanations. For example, students said, “[Receiving feedback did not impact my goal] because I never like listening to people” (Identifier MAp 15) or “Receiving feedback did not impact my dedication because I wasn't motivated enough” (Identifier MAV 12). Others indicated that outside feedback did not play a role in their performance in the class saying, “I am more self-motivated than motivated by

other's responses" (Identifier MAp 9). Further responses show that 5.8% of students were undecided about the role feedback had on their goal, and 16.5% of students did not answer the question.

4.8 Summary of Results

Overall, we can see that students tend to have mastery goal orientations and approach goal orientations when examining the main goal categories. When investigating the four goal subcategories, students generally had a mastery approach goal orientation followed by mastery avoidance, performance avoidance, and finally performance approach. The majority of students with a mastery approach goal orientation stated that their goals for the course had to do with communication and speaking whereas those with a mastery avoidance goal orientation stated that their goals for the course centered around grammar. Students with a performance approach goal orientation stated that their grade goal for the course was on average a 95.1% and those with a performance avoidance goal orientation indicated a grade goal of a 90.9% on average.

Results also indicate that students who identified, established, and maintained a goal for their course had statistically significantly higher final course grades. Further analysis revealed a significant difference between the control group and the approach orientation. No significant difference was found between goal setting and intercultural competence development. Significant interactions were found between goal setting and linguistic competence development, and after examining the main effects and post hoc analyses, a significant difference was found between the control group and avoidance orientation.

In terms of students' perceptions of goals and goal setting, students had an overall positive perception of the goal setting process and indicated that because of this process they had increased attentiveness, motivation, self-awareness, and engagement.

5. DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I will discuss the results found from this study. I will first begin by examining the types of goals students set generally, and then I will provide a more in-depth analysis. Next, I will share analysis as relevant to the development of achievement, which in this study is comprised of academic achievement, intercultural competence, and linguistic competence. I will then discuss students' perceptions of the goal setting process and the implications for the ACTFL Standards. Finally, I will introduce a new technique to aid in the goal setting process.

5.2 Types of Goals Present in the Spanish L2 Classroom

Upon investigating goal orientations present in the L2 classroom, the overwhelming majority (83.7%) of participants identified as having a mastery goal orientation. That is, participants indicated in the goal orientation survey that they were more concerned with mastering or understanding the material presented in the course more so than receiving a certain grade. These results are in line with previous research in that the majority of goal orientations in the language classroom has been found to be mastery goals (Tercanlioglu, 2004), as is the majority of goal orientations present across research in general (Wormington & Linnenbrink-Garcia, 2017). This is a positive finding as the literature has shown that mastery goal orientations have a positive effect on motivation and performance (Ames & Archer, 1988; Dishon-Berkovits, 2014; Elliot & McGregor, 2001; Fisher & Ford, 1998; Gehlbach, 2006; Harackiewicz et al., 1997; Harackiewicz & Elliot, 1993; Howell & Watson, 2007; Kim et al., 2012; Pintrich, 2000;

Porter & Latham, 2013; Tanaka et al., 2006; Wolters, 2004). This finding is particularly encouraging to see in the beginning level Spanish L2 classroom, where many students are enrolled simply to fulfill the university's language requirement, as it indicates that students are interested in actually learning the language and content of the course as compared to simply earning course credit.

Examining these results further, there is valuable insight that can be gained from the goal types present in the classroom. When looking at the 2 x 2 framework, mastery approach goals were, by far, the most common goal type. Similar to the mastery goal construct, students identifying as having a mastery approach orientation are implying that their primary purpose in the language classroom is to master the content. Looking at the written goals, students specified communication/speaking as the number one area that they wanted to master in their Spanish class. This was followed by grammar, listening comprehension, and fluency. The fact that students denoted communication/speaking as their primary goal shows that students realize that the purpose of language learning is communication.

While the mastery approach goal orientation represented the majority of students, there were other goal types in the classroom, and these should not be ignored. It could be said that since mastery approach goals represent the majority of student goals then the course should only focus on mastery approach goals; but, this is not the case. All goal types were present in this study reinforcing the individual differences and diversity that students have and bring to the classroom. This study shows that there is not a singular understanding of language learning and that every student has a different perspective and approach to learning. These differences may also be attributed to their stage of language learning. All students were in the same course but have different experiences preceding the course and different aspirations for after the course.

Including all goal orientations in the classroom gives students an individualized purpose and allows them to work towards that without detracting from the course objectives and the class as a whole.

While this study makes the case for incorporating all goal orientations in the language classroom, it is important to note that there is a difference in opinion over the inclusion of mastery avoidance goals in the literature. Some researchers have said that mastery avoidance goals “should be minimized in order to maximize performance improvement” (Van Yperen et al., 2009, p. 941) or “mastery avoidance goals represent a motivational force that should be avoided at school” (Sideridis, 2008, p. 67). Others say that mastery avoidance goals are salient and provide competence to the 2 x 2 framework (Baranik, Lau, Stanley, Barron & Lance, 2013; Elliot & McGregor, 2001). Due to the nature of mastery avoidance goals and the unique setting of a language classroom, they may be imperative language achievement. According to Elliot and Murayama (2008), mastery avoidance stems from a need for achievement coupled with the fear of failure. This is a common phenomenon in the language classroom. Students want to achieve in class, but they are also concerned with misunderstanding and/or miscommunicating, which is commonly referred to as communication apprehension (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986).¹⁵ While mastery avoidance goals may not be seen as relevant in other contexts, they may have a unique status in the language classroom.

Another occurrence important to note relevant to the goal orientations in this study is the manifestation of multiple goals. Twenty-eight students in this study had equal scores across two

¹⁵ For more information on communication apprehension see: Horwitz (1986); Liu and Jackson (2008); Matsuda and Gobel (2004); Oxford (1999); Park (2014); Rafek, Ramli, Iksan, Harith, and Abas (2014); Shahbaz, Khan, Khan, and Mustafa (2016); Young (1991).

or more goal orientations. In general, research on multiple goal orientations is limited, but it is known that students do pursue multiple goals (Barron & Harackiewicz, 2001; Boekaerts, 2002; Harackiewicz et al., 2002; Koul et al., 2009; Linnenbrink, 2005; Senko, Hulleman, & Harackiewicz, 2011; Tempelaar et al., 2013), in line with the present study. However, the best combinations of goals and other factors is unknown, but there is a call for future research in this area. Boekaerts (2009) says, “It is essential that motivation researchers recognize the need to focus explicitly on the multiple goals that students bring into the classroom and on how these goals interact” (p. 106).

Lastly, goal change is another area of interest. The idea of goal orientation as dynamic was not a primary research question of this study, but it is a common question that arises in studies that take place over time. Goals, in their nature, are dynamic and will evolve and change; however, the present study is cross-sectional and measured students’ goals at one point. This is important to note as it provides insight into what students’ expectations were at the beginning of the semester before starting the course. When analyzing the qualitative portion of students’ goal commitment surveys, the only notable change in goals was at the end of the semester when students were acutely aware of their final course grades, and students noted a change in focus.

5.3 Implications for Achievement

This next section explores the implications that goals and goal setting has on achievement. First, I will discuss academic achievement. This will be followed by a discussion on intercultural competence development, and then I will consider linguistic achievement. Next, I will discuss the implications for achievement as they relate to the four psychological tenets mentioned in the literature review. Finally, I will conclude this section with a discussion on the implications for achievement in the language classroom.

5.3.1 Academic achievement. The first part of achievement that this study examined was academic in nature, which was measured by analyzing students' final course grades. The results showed that the students in the experimental group who identified, established, and maintained an achievement goal had significantly higher final course grades as compared to the control group. This indicates that following the goal setting process (identifying, establishing, and maintaining and achievement goal) led to higher final course grades.

Examining the goal types more closely, there was no difference between final course grade and the different goal types. At this level, this suggests that it did not necessarily matter what goal orientation a student had. Following the goal setting process is what had a significant impact on students' final course grades. It is interesting to note, however, that when comparing goal orientations to the control group, students who were approach-oriented had statistically significantly higher final course grades indicating that the approach goal orientation had a more positive impact on grades as compared to not setting a goal. The fact that the approach goal orientation had significantly higher final course grades supports previous research that states that approach goals lead to higher academic achievement (Darnon et al., 2007; Elliot & Church, 1997; Harackiewicz et al., 1997; Skaalvik, 1997). Similarly, students who were mastery oriented had final course grades that were approaching significance, which indicates that mastery orientations may be more conducive to higher final course grades as compared to not setting a goal. However, more research is needed to verify this statement.

This study found that goal setting had a positive effect on final course grades, which is supported by the general supposition that all goal orientations (with the exception of the performance avoidance goal orientation) lean towards a positive outcome of achievement (Darnon et al., 2009; Elliot & McGregor, 2001; Gaudreau, 2012; Harackiewicz et al., 1997;

Senko & Hulleman, 2013). The results from this study directly align with previous research that has found that mastery approach goal orientations have positive effects on academic grade or task outcome (Darnon et. al, 2007; Dishon-Berkovits, 2014; Elliot & Church, 1997; Gaudreau, 2012; Gehlbach, 2006; Harackiewicz, 1997; Porter & Latham, 2013; Skaalvik, 1997; Tanaka et al., 2006).

It is important to note that the mastery goal orientation, approach goal orientation, and the mastery approach goal orientation all had the largest number of participants. Once the goal types were split from the macro level (experimental) to the micro level (mastery, performance, approach, avoidance) and then once again to the sub-categorical level (mastery approach, mastery avoidance, performance approach, performance avoidance), the numbers reduced each time. This makes it difficult to determine what is occurring at each of these levels, and future research would need to include more participants at each level to make further determinations. Furthermore, there may be other consequences associated with certain goal types that may cause negative effects, such as heightened anxiety and stress levels, that would also merit further investigation.

5.3.2 Intercultural competence. The second part of achievement that this study examined was intercultural competence, which was measured by analyzing students' pre- and posttest scores on the AIC. When comparing the control to the experimental group, the results showed that there was no significant interaction between goal setting and intercultural competence scores indicating that goal setting did not positively or negatively influence students' intercultural competence development. Examining the main effects showed no significant effect of group, which is expected as the group mean change score did not vary by much. The main effect of time also showed no difference from pre- and posttest for either the experimental or

control group. These results suggest that intercultural competence scores were not affected by goal setting nor did they increase significantly by being in a Spanish L2 class.

Examining the goal types more closely, no interaction was found between the control group, mastery goal orientations, or performance goal orientations. Similarly, no interaction was found between the control group, approach goal orientations, or avoidance goal orientations; and, no interaction was found between the control group and the subcategories. These results indicate that goal orientation did not positively or negatively affect intercultural competence. The main effect of group was approaching significance, and a significant difference at the posttest was found. A post hoc analysis revealed a difference that was approaching significance between the control and mastery groups. The main effect of time also showed no difference from pre- and posttest scores for any of the combinations (control vs. mastery vs. performance; control vs. approach vs. performance; control vs. subcategories). Therefore, intercultural competence scores were not affected by goal type or no goal.

The results indicate that students' intercultural competence scores did not significantly change over the semester. It did not matter if students were in the experimental or control group or what type of goal orientations they had. Simply put, results indicate that students did not develop intercultural. This could be because culture is not at the forefront of students minds especially since students did not mention culture as part of their goals, which is discussed in a future section that relates goals to the ACTFL Standards. Another possible reason is that culture was not an explicit part of the course. In the post-study perceptions survey, students were asked "How much do you think your course focused on Hispanic cultural aspects?" Students rated this question on a scale of "None at all" to "A little" to "A moderate amount" to "A lot" to "A great deal." These answers were converted to a numerical scale of 1 to 5. On average, students

assessed this question as a 2.65, which is below average. When students were asked why they responded this way, 96.2% of students said that culture was not covered in the course. One student said, “I did not really learn anything spectacular about the Spanish culture this past semester. There were some times that we learned some culture but nothing to an extent that I would retain to remember” (Identifier MAp 2). Another student confirmed this perspective saying that “the point of the class was to learn the language [...] not the culture” (Identifier PAp 10). This also validates the argument that students do not seem to recognize that intercultural competence is part of language learning. Furthering this, one student did say

We watched a few videos on Hispanic culture and researched Spanish speaking countries a little but overall we stuck to our native culture. I don't think we ignored other cultures and I certainly was exposed to more cultures than I normally am, but the focus was on learning Spanish and not about specific cultures (Identifier MAp 46).

Again, this student confirms that the focus of the class was on learning Spanish, which, in their opinion, did not include cultural learning.

The lack of cultural content could be due to the nature of the specific course itself. As previously mentioned, participants were enrolled in SP 103, which is a fast-paced course that covers two beginning semesters of Spanish in one semester. Because of this condensed timeframe, and the fact that students are never explicitly assessed on cultural aspects, the focus of the course becomes the vocabulary and the grammatical structures, and the cultural sections are often overlooked. This point was verified by the instructors. Each week, instructors completed a survey about what they covered in class that week. Specific questions about grammar and cultural content were asked and assessed. Both instructors indicated that grammar was the main focus every week. Only 29% of the time during the semester did instructors indicate that they covered an explicit cultural aspect in the course, and admittedly, 71% of the course was devoted to grammar. This separation of grammar and culture mirrors the current

curriculum in which grammar is the curricular organizer for courses and syllabi (Martel, 2013). Garrett-Rucks (2016) says that “[foreign language] educators have come to accept that language and culture are inextricably intertwined” (p. 8), but reports indicate that “foreign language educators are often confused and anxious about the implementation and assessment of meaningful culture learning in [foreign language] instruction” (Garrett-Rucks, 2016, p. 2).

The instructors, undoubtedly for multiple reasons, focused on the linguistic features of the language, which is also what students were expected to know for the course quizzes, and the students were not tested on any cultural aspects. This dichotomy of language versus culture present in this course may have contributed to students’ perceptions that the focus of the course was solely on linguistic competence with no cultural component. Furthermore, these students are beginning level language learners, and previous research has found that many students at the beginning level of language learning are not ready or equipped to study culture (Drewelow, 2012; Smith, 2000).

Students may also have a different definition or perception of culture or what it means to learn culture. Drewelow (2012) found that students really did not have a clear of the components that make up culture and discovered that students focused on products, defined as “books, tools, foods, laws, music, games” (Cutshall, 2012b, p. 33) and practices, which are “patterns of social interaction,” (Cutshall, 2012b, p. 33) as the main components of cultural study. The current study indicates that students were not considering culture as a goal of learning a language, and this further confirms the fact that learners do not “perceive that the very act of learning a foreign language [is] a cultural event in and of itself because cultural meanings, perceptions of reality, and social practices of the target culture are expressed through language” (Drewelow, 2012, p. 297).

Regardless of the possible explanation, it is evident that there is still a misconception of what language learning entails. Here it was shown that students clearly did not acknowledge that culture is a necessary component of mastering a language.

5.3.3 Linguistic competence. The third part of achievement that this study examined was linguistic competence, which was measured by analyzing students' pre- and posttest scores on the DELE. The results showed that there was a significant interaction between the group and time on linguistic competence scores indicating that goal setting may influence students' linguistic competence development. Examining the main effects showed no significant effect for group meaning that there was no difference between the control and experimental group. The main effect of time did show significance in the control group between the pre- and posttest indicating that the control group significantly decreased in scores. These results suggest that because there is an interaction something is occurring between the experimental and control groups, but it may not be an effect of goal setting. Further research is needed to examine this interaction.

Examining the goal types more closely, an interaction approaching significance was found between the control group, mastery goal orientations, and performance goal orientations. Similarly, a significant interaction was found between the control group, approach goal orientations, and avoidance goal orientations; and, a significant interaction was found between the control group and the subcategories. Since interactions were found, the main effects were examined to provide more information. There was statistical significance in the effect for time for the control group and the avoidance group. These results indicate that linguistic scores were affected by these goal types. This is expected as the avoidance group increased the most in pre- and posttest scores, and the control group decreased the most.

The results indicate that, overall, students' linguistic competence scores did not significantly change over the semester. In fact, the control group decreased in proficiency, but the avoidance goal orientations did have significant changes in linguistic competence scores over the semester. These results could be due to a number of reasons. First, it is possible that the use of the DELE as the language proficiency measure is not fine-tuned enough to catch the differences at this beginning level of Spanish. Furthermore, the level this study examined is an intensive review class in which it is supposed that students have already learned most of the content in a previous course. As such, the students are not learning new concepts, and so, students' language proficiency levels would not be expected to increase especially using a measurement such as the DELE, which only accounts for grammar and vocabulary. Additionally, many students enroll in this course to fulfill the university's core requirements and view the class as a means to an end. With this in mind, it would be fruitful to look at the goal setting process in intermediate or upper level classes when students have declared majors or minors in the language and are not enrolled in the class to simply fulfill a core requirement.

While the results show that the control group decreased in proficiency, this does not indicate that if students do not follow the goal setting process then they will decrease in proficiency. Rather, it provides insight into the language learning process at this particular level. For example, the control group decreased in proficiency, which could show that this group lost certain concepts or features of the language. Similarly, the experimental group most likely did learn or further expand upon certain content but then lost the same concepts or features as the

control group. This pattern could be indicative of U-shaped learning,¹⁶ which is a non-linear concept of language learning in which learners produce a linguistic feature that is close to the target-like norms. Then learners lose that linguistic feature only to produce it correctly again at a later point in time. Figure 11 illustrates this process. The results of this study are indicating that the control group decreased significantly, and the experimental group increased, albeit not significantly, in linguistic proficiency scores. This data could suggest that students are on the U-shaped learning trajectory and are at different points on the curve. This is shown in Figure 12 where students in the control group are at a more negative slope on the U-shape, and students in the experimental group are at a more positive slope. More research is needed to verify this hypothesis, but a possible supposition is that students in the experimental group who actively followed the goal setting process may have been able to progress faster on the U-shaped curve as compared to the control group indicating that the goal setting process may help students move beyond the “speed bump” of regression that occurs in language learning. If this proposition is proven, there may be further benefits of the goal setting process in that it may help move students beyond the foreign language requirements because they are not getting stopped at that “speed bump.” In turn, if students are passing that “speed bump” at a faster rate, they may be more motivated to continue language learning, or they may not be as frustrated when on the negative slope of the U-shaped language learning curve.

¹⁶ For more information on U-shaped learning, see Abrahamsson (2003); Bowerman (1982); Carlucci, Jain, Kimber, and Stephen (2005); Gershkoff-Stowe and Thelen (2004); Lightbown (1983); Marcus et. al, (1992); Pearson-Evans (2006).

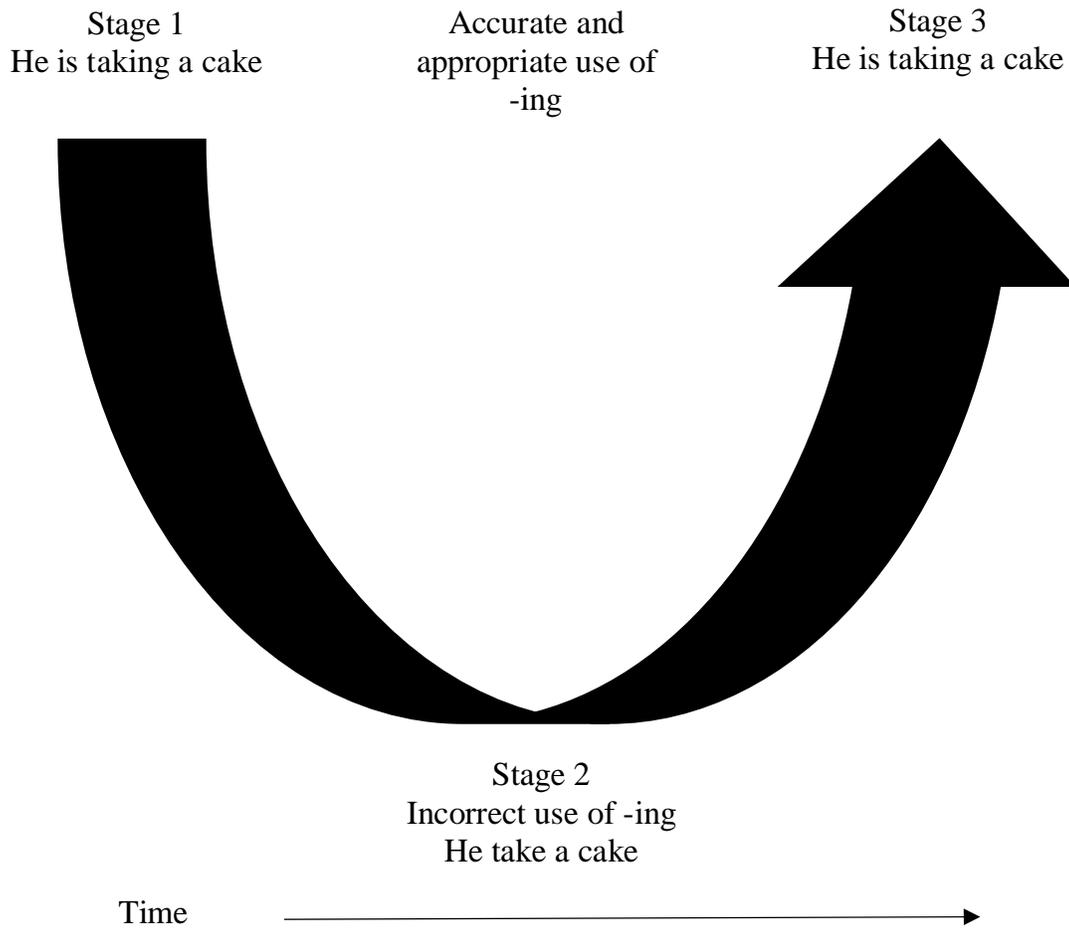


Figure 11. The U-shaped learning process as illustrated by Gass (2013).

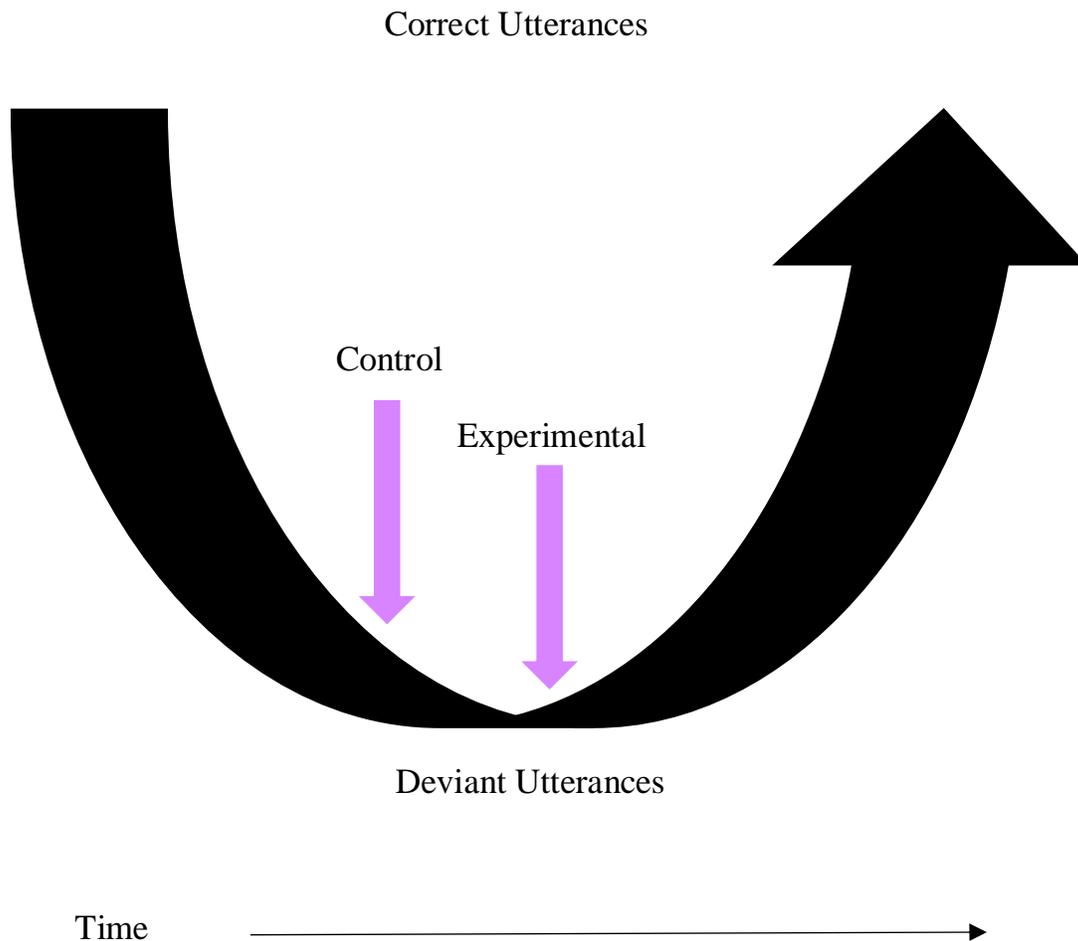


Figure 12. Possible U-shaped trajectory of students in control versus experimental groups in the current study.

Another explanation to explain the decrease in proficiency scores in the control group and the slight increase in scores in the experimental could be due to a change or development of interlanguage. Selinker (1972) found that students learning an L2 will create a system of language, known as interlanguage, that has elements from the native language and the target language. Cook (2008) describes this process as the following:

L2 learners do indeed speak interlanguages that do not correspond to established languages such as Spanish or English, with unique grammars, phonologies, and so on. These are not just 'partial' grammars of the L2 any more than the three-year-old child's

L1 grammar is a partial grammar; rather, they are grammars with their own properties, created by the learners out of their own internal processes in response to the L2 data they receive (pg. 17).

Students' interlanguage and interlanguage development is an important factor to consider in the language learning process and is not a feature measured by the DELE.

Additionally, the control group could have been less motivated than the experimental group contributing to the decrease in proficiency scores. There were also relatively low numbers in some of the goal orientations, which could explain some of the vague results.

In general, since there is an interaction occurring in each of the analyses for linguistic development, it appears that there is some sort of effect between goal setting and linguistic proficiency, but it is unclear as to what this entails. This vagueness can be attributed to any of the aforementioned explanations or a combination of those factors. It does show that language proficiency and goal setting is a combination that is worthy of future research.

5.3.4 Achievement and the psychological tenets. Relating the results to the four psychological tenets of language learning mentioned in the literature review, we can see that students mentioned motivation, self-efficacy, self-regulation, and language learner autonomy in their open-ended responses in relation to their performance in the class. First, students mentioned motivation, which research has shown has a positive association with academic performance (Ariani, 2016; Kursurkar et al., 2013; Zimmerman, et al., 1992) and with foreign language achievement (Dashtizadeh & Farvardin, 2016; Wen, 1997). This study confirms this in that the majority of students said that the goal setting process increased their motivation, and, in turn, students who set goals had higher final course grades, and certain goal orientations had greater linguistic achievement.

Next, students stated that the goal setting process helped them self-regulate by helping them focus and stay on track throughout the course. Previous research has shown that self-

regulation improves classroom performance and positively influences academic achievement (Ariani, 2016; Erdogan, 2017; Mega et al., 2014; Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990; Zheng & Li, 2016) and linguistic development (Tilfarlioglu & Delbesoglugil, 2014). In this study, self-regulation was enhanced by the two types of feedback that students received, which were internal and external feedback. It is interesting to note that students specified these particular words and phrases in their written responses and could see the benefits of a process that aided in self-regulation.

Self-efficacy was also indicated in students' responses about their progress in the course. For example, one student said, "Over the course of the semester, I believe that my Spanish has significantly improved. I have become more comfortable participating in class. I also believe I understand [my professor] when she speaks in Spanish" (Identifier MAV 3). Another student said, "I still think I have a long way to go as far as taking tests, but I know that I can and will improve. My goal will help me do better on tests and then in the future being fluent" (Identifier MAp 30). We can see that students used the words "believe" and "I know" in these two examples indicating they had increased self-confidence. Research shows that self-efficacy is a predictor of final course grades and linguistic development (Choi, 2005; Chularut & DeBacker, 2003; Hsieh & Schallert, 2008; Kim & Cha, 2017; Mills et al., 2007; Pérez et al., 2010), and the fact that students say that their self-efficacy was positively impacted by goal setting is a step in the right direction. This direct relationship of self-efficacy, goal setting, and the L2 classroom merits further investigation.

Finally, language learner autonomy has been linked to academic achievement (Afshar et al., 2014; Tilfarlioglu & Ciftci, 2011; Yen & Liu) and linguistic proficiency (Dafei, 2007; Liu, 2015), and we can see the development of learner autonomy through students' responses. One

student said, “With my goal of making a 90+, that means I have to talk more and study before classes to be ready for class discussions” (Identifier PAv 1). Another student said, “I should be doing better, and I’m going to find better ways to study” (PAp 8). These students are recognizing what they need to do to improve their learning and are taking it upon themselves to do so. Others are on their way towards autonomous learning and are using their goals as a stepping stone towards it. For example, one student said, “I think my goal encourages me to participate because speaking practice is what I need” (Identifier MAp 31) whereas another said

I think I am making progress, but there is definitely a lot more to study and know better. My goal motivates me to strive for the best on our quizzes and assignments and make sure I understand all of the concepts (Identifier MAV 73).

We can see that students are identifying that there is room for improvement, and they state that their goal is what is driving them to improve. This partially meets Thanasaoulas’s (2000) statement that says, “the autonomous learner takes a (pro-) active role in the learning process, generating ideas and availing himself of learner opportunities, rather than simply reacting to various stimuli of the teacher” (para. 2). Students, at this stage, are still reacting to a stimulus – the goal – rather than taking full ownership of the learning process. These results are still encouraging to language educators as the goal setting process seems to aid in the development of language learner autonomy.

This study indicates that the goal setting process can lead to motivation, which leads to self-efficacy and self-regulation, which then leads to learner autonomy. As such, the goal setting process has many benefits to L2 learners.

5.3.5 Achievement in the language classroom. As is evident through the results and the discussion of the results, there are very different results within the broad category of achievement, and it is appropriate to divide achievement into further subcategories. In the

literature review, I posited that achievement in the language classroom is three-fold and should be measured through final course grades, intercultural competence development, and linguistic competence development. This definition still holds true; however, based on the results, I argue that linguistic competence needs to be further divided, and other areas of achievement within this subcategory should be explored. First of all, as mentioned above, the DELE is not a fitting measurement for this beginning level of language learning. Furthermore, it only looks at two components of a language: grammar and vocabulary. Staying within linguistics, by which I mean we are only looking at linguistic components of a language and not the cultural nuances, it is known that there are many other factors that are part of linguistic proficiency, such as phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics. Also, written assessments lack an understanding of how all these variables are at play in speaking and listening. Future studies should make use of a wider range of proficiency measurements in order to obtain a more accurate view of language learners' development.

To test this briefly, I looked at students' writing sections on the first and last quizzes. There were two open-ended writing sections. The first section asked a question, and the students responded to that question. The second section consisted of three pictures and a word bank. Students wrote responses or dialogues based on the pictures. The scores on these two sections were analyzed holistically, where students received points for grammar and vocabulary, but also general meaning and communicative ability. Means (out of 100) and standard deviations for the control and experimental group appear in Table 25.

The control group increased by less than one point between the first and last quiz, whereas the experimental group increased by over four points. A two-way mixed-design ANOVA was run with time (writing score 1 and writing score 2) as the within-subjects variable

and group (experimental and control) as the between-subjects variable. Writing scores were the dependent variable. No significant interaction between group and time on writing scores was found, $F(1, 137) = 2.062, p = .153, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .015$. There was no significant main effect for group, $F(1, 137) = .872, p = .352, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .006$. There was a significant main effect for time, $F(1, 137) = 4.258, p = .041, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .030$. There was no statistically significant difference between writing score 1 and writing score 2 in the control group, $F(1, 45) = .206, p = .652, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .005$. There was a significant difference between writing score 1 and writing score 2 in the experimental group, $F(1, 92) = 8.117, p = .005, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .081$. These results indicate that those in the experimental group had a significant change in writing scores from the first quiz to the last quiz whereas those in the control group did not have a significant difference in scores from the first quiz to the last quiz.

Table 25. *Writing analysis*

<u>Group</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Writing Score 1</u> <u>(SD)</u>	<u>Writing Score 2</u> <u>(SD)</u>	<u>Mean Change</u> <u>(SD)</u>
Control	46	85.2 (16.1)	86.1 (13.7)	+0.83 (12.4)
Experimental	93	80.6 (20.0)	85.2 (18.0)	+4.64 (15.7)

These results show that while there is ambiguity from the results of the proficiency exam, the writing results clearly show a significant increase in scores in the experimental group. As such, additional measures of proficiency should be used in future research, and linguistic achievement should be examined with different lenses as language proficiency is multidimensional.

5.4 Students' Perceptions of Goal Setting

This section explores student's perceptions of goal setting. First, I will discuss the overall

consensus before moving on to three specific subset of questions that examine goal achievement, the process of goal setting, and feedback. Lastly, I will conclude this section by discussing students' "buy-in" to goal setting.

The last research question explored students' perceptions of goal setting. Participants, in general, had a positive perception of goal setting and specifically said that they felt a relatively strong connection to their goal and what they did in class. This is interesting to note because the course was not altered in any way to accommodate students' goals, which suggests that goal setting can be seamlessly added to the classroom while maintaining the integrity of course design. Students also said that they were likely to continue setting goals in future courses, which indicates that they were able to see the benefits of goal setting; and these benefits were substantial enough to continue setting goals in the future.

Looking more specifically at these questions, students were asked to give their perception of goal achievement. Perception of goal achievement was a question purposely asked as mastery goals are difficult to measure on a scale. Therefore, goal achievement for mastery goal orientations is based on personal perceptions. Performance goals, however, can be measured easily since it is related to a numerical value. The majority of students said that they either had partial goal achievement or full goal achievement. When dividing the groups by categories (mastery vs. performance and approach vs. avoidance) and subcategories (mastery approach, mastery avoidance, performance approach, and performance avoidance), we can see that students in most orientations were positive in their responses when asked about goal achievement; however, students with performance avoidance goal orientations indicated a low perception of goal achievement. Since participants with performance avoidance goal orientations indicated low goal achievement, I compared participants' final course grades with their grade goal. This

comparison showed that 40% of participants with performance avoidance goal orientations achieved their goal, but for some reason, the majority of these participants felt like they did not achieve their goal. Looking at the participants in the performance approach goal orientation subcategory, only 27% of participants actually achieved their goal, yet the majority of them said that they felt like they did achieve their goal. This is a noteworthy dichotomy as it can provide further insight into these types of goal orientations. The fact that performance approach-oriented participants felt like they had achieved their goal when in actuality goal achievement was relatively low shows the benefits of this orientation as it is focused on more constructive aspects of learning like developing competency and using complex learning strategies. This could also be the manifestation of the behavior behind this goal orientation in that performance approach-oriented individuals seek positive judgments of competence, and so they overcompensate in their perception of goal achievement. Contrastingly, the characteristics that are typically associated with performance avoidance goal orientations, such as low competence expectancies and low self-determination, paired with their negative perception of goal achievement seem to overpower the fact that more of these students actually achieved their goal. This information confirms previous studies that have found these typicalities for each goal orientation, and further confirms the self-handicapping effects that performance avoidance goal orientations may have (Midgley et al., 2001).

This dichotomy – in which performance avoidance goal orientations perceived no goal achievement when in actuality there was goal achievement, and the performance approach goal orientations perceived goal achievement when there was low goal achievement – could be connected to Dornyei’s (2005) L2 Motivational Self System. Specifically, this could relate to the *Ought-to L2 Self*, which is defined as the “attributes that one believes one ought to possess in

order to avoid possible negative outcomes” (Dornyei, 2005, p. 106). It is possible that students in the performance avoidance goal orientation category believe that they do not yet possess the attributes needed to avoid negative outcomes, which is then manifested in their perception of goal achievement. This potential connection between goal orientations and the L2 Self warrants further investigation.

Moving on to the perceptions of the full goal setting process, participants again had an overall positive opinion. In students’ open-ended responses, four distinct categories were mentioned: attentiveness, motivation, (self)-awareness, and engagement. Students were simply asked for their opinions on the goal setting process and were not prompted to respond in a certain way, and yet, these themes emerged. These are all positives to see in the L2 classroom as each of these categories has been shown to aid in the learning process. Further investigation into these areas is warranted as previous research has shown a positive relationship between achievement goals and classroom attentiveness, which can lead to deep learning or the use of deep learning strategies (Lau, Niem & Nie, 2008). Deep learning has been said to be “internally motivated and is associated with an intention to understand, rather than to simply pass an assessment task” (Marton and Saljo, 1997, as cited in Warburton, 2003, p. 46). Furthermore, attention is important for implicit learning (Hartman, Knopman & Nissen, 1989), which is defined as “the process by which knowledge about the rules-governed complexities of the stimulus environment is acquired independently of conscious attempts to do so” (Reber, 1989, p. 219). Additionally, motivation is a widely-studied factor of language learning; (self)-awareness could be a factor of significance; and, engagement has been shown to influence critical thinking and academic achievement and motivation (Carini, Kuh & Klein, 2006; Dornyei & Ushioda, 2013; Platt & Brooks, 2002; Skinner & Belmont, 1993).

Similarly, students had a positive response to feedback, an important part of the goal process, saying that it acted as a motivational tool or encouragement and led to self-regulation. This confirms previous research that says that regular feedback is a necessary tool as it provides a measurement for students to use as a monitor, which can lead to self-regulation (Zimmerman, 1990), motivation (Burger et al., 2015; DePasque & Tricomi, 2015), engagement (Butler & Winne, 1995), and deep learning (Erhel & Jamet, 2013).

Finally, students indicated with strong emphasis that they want to extend the goal setting process to other courses. Not only did students have a positive perception about goal setting, but they can also see the tangible benefits that it can have. This outcome not only speaks to the legitimacy of this process, but it also shows student approval. It makes the case that much stronger for the inclusion of goal setting in the language classroom. If instructors already have the student buy-in to the goal setting process then half the battle is won.

5.5 Implications for the ACTFL Standards

After exploring students' goal orientations, the effects of goal setting on achievement, and students' perceptions of goal setting, I thought it pertinent to include a discussion on what this information means in comparison to the ACTFL Standards especially since many researchers have questioned either the effectiveness of the Standards at a postsecondary level and/ or what the goals of language learning should be (Byrnes, 2012; Kearney, 2015; Kramcsh, 2014; Leung & Scarino, 2016; Magnan, 2008; Paesani & Allen, 2012). As the Standards represent the governing language body's position on classroom goals, I think it is relevant to show what the Standards signal as important and compare that to the student perspective. As such, this section will explore the implications for the ACTFL Standards.

When examining the specific mastery goals that students set and comparing those to the ACTFL 5 Cs, interesting findings arose. Students with either mastery approach or mastery avoidance goal orientations indicated that an important goal was communication/speaking, which falls in line with previous research that states that communication is one of the main motivations of language study (Alalou, 2001; Magnan, Murphy, Sahakyan & Kim, 2012; White, 2016). It is also represented by the *Communication* Standard presented by ACTFL. This Standard is broad in nature as many different components are needed in order to reach the desired outcome, which is to “communicate effectively in more than one language in order to function in a variety of situations and for multiple purposes” (ACTFL, 2015). The *Communication* Standard (and, in all actuality, none of the 5 Cs) does not mention the particular components, such as grammar and vocabulary, that are needed to communicate effectively; but, the participants of this study make clear divisions between communication/speaking, grammar, and vocabulary, stating each as three distinct goals. These aspects of language are still seen as separate entities in language study according to students’ perspectives. This finding is in line with previous research that has shown students to be mainly concerned with the linguistic component of language learning (Drewelow, 2012; Mantle-Bromley, 1995). Moreover, such a division goes against Cutshall (2012a) who says that students “probably won’t mention [...] conjugating verbs or memorizing discrete grammar points” (p. 34) as goals for language learning.

Moving to the next of the 5 Cs, *Cultures*, only 2% of participants mentioned culture in their goal statements revealing that students are more concerned with the linguistic part of language acquisition and perhaps do not recognize that intercultural competence is an integral part of language learning. The belief that foreign language learning is mainly about

communication, grammar, and vocabulary with culture sitting on the back burner is in line with findings by Mantle-Bromley (1995) and Drewelow (2012) both of whom found that culture is not at the forefront of students' minds in terms of language acquisition. In fact, this is exemplified in one student's comment: "I still think I have a long way to go as far as taking tests, but I know that I can and will improve. My goal will help me do better on tests and then in the future being fluent" (Identifier MAp 30). This statement indicates that this student's focus is on doing well on the test, which suggests that accuracy and linguistic competence are the components that will lead to fluency in this student's opinion. While these aspects certainly do play a role in fluency, they are not the only factors that are necessary to truly become fluent in another language. This example along with the result that only 2% of participants wrote about culture as a goal further supports the claim that "language learning is often a misunderstood phenomenon" (Horwitz, 1985, p. 337). There is a need to not only effectively merge culture and linguistics in foreign language courses but to also make clear to students that language and culture are not mutually exclusive (Byrd, Hlas, Watzke & Valencia, 2011; Chavez, 2005; Magnan, 2008); and in order to learn the language, one must also learn the culture.

Continuing with the remaining three standards, *Comparisons* was not mentioned in the goal statements. Furthermore, students only mentioned *Connections* (1%) and *Communities* (2%) as an explanation to their stated goal. For example, in reference to the *Connections* statement, students saw the importance of Spanish in relation to their futures, especially their future careers, saying the following:

I would want to become bilingual. I know it would definitely take a lot of work and accountability, but I do enjoy speaking Spanish with others. It would be very helpful with my career. The main concept though would be to correlate coherent sentences/ conversations with others in Spanish (Identifier MAp 53).

A goal that I have had for a while is to double major in finance and Spanish. However, I am unsure if I am able/ capable of fluently speaking Spanish. Spanish has always come relatively easy to me, however, there are times I find myself lost. A major in Spanish would help me significantly later on in life (Identifier MAp 64).

Furthering their rationale to their goal, students mentioned *Communities* in the following ways:

In this Spanish class I want to be able to go downtown in San Antonio and hold conversations with people. I can hold small basic conversations and I want to be able to go past the point of saying how are you and where are you from. I know I will not know everything but to be able to have conversations or at least help understand what others are saying would be a huge accomplishment. I want to be able to also hold conversations with my grandmother who is Hispanic. That is my #1 goal out of everything. To just speak to her casually in Spanish (Identifier MAp 2).

I would like to eventually become fluent in Spanish. Being from Arizona, Spanish is very common and my entire family is fluent. By the end of the semester I would like to know when to use the different tenses (Identifier MAp 15).

Growing up Hispanic, I have heard Spanish my entire life. But growing up with slang Spanish makes learning Spanish more challenging. My goal is to make proper Spanish more of a second nature and be more confident in my own speaking. I tend to get extremely nervous and shy when speaking Spanish because I am scared to mess up (MAp 18).

I live in a majorly Hispanic city, which is why it's important to me to grasp the concepts in this Spanish class so that I will have an easier time communicating with the people around me. My goal is to be able to have a simplistic conversation about anything with someone who can only speak Spanish because that's basically what I've needed to do times before but couldn't because my Spanish is not the best (Identifier MAp 22).

Overall, this study shows discrepancies between what the ACTFL Standards say should be goals in the foreign language classroom and what students say their personal goals are for foreign language learning. The results support the notion that there are clear misconceptions about language learning, and perhaps a redesign of curriculum is needed (Henning, 1993), a reordering of the 5 Cs is required (Magnan, 2008), or a combination of the two is essential for further advancement and understanding in the foreign language classroom. As Glisan (2012) says, there is a need for Standards-focused studies in order

to determine if the Standards realistically represent what learners can achieve in specific contexts, where the Standards might need to be modified or further elaborated, and how they can best be translated into classroom practice that results in positive outcomes for language learning” (p. 523).

5.6 Implications for the Classroom

5.6.1 The goal setting process. In order to maximize the results that can be obtained from following the goal setting process, I have a suggested process that can be implemented in the classroom that encourages goals and goal setting from the bottom up or from the student’s perspective. Instead of telling students what their goals should be, this process allows students to play an active role in their language learning.

There are many steps throughout the process of goal setting and goal achievement, but one way to systematize the process is to use the technique that I call the 5 As. They are Articulation, Action, Assessment, Adherence, and Achievement. I will give further detail of each step below. A visual representation can be seen in Figure 13.

5.6.1.1 The 5 As – Articulation. This is the first step that students need to take in the goal setting process. During the articulation phase, students take the goal orientation survey, a main component of AGT, in order to determine their innate perception towards achievement. Using the information gleaned from this survey, students are then guided to set their own difficult but realistic goal. This approach gives attention to the student perspective while making goal setting explicit. It also follows the Center on Education Policy’s goal conditions stated below and combines AGT and GST.

Whatever the specific goal, it is more likely to be motivating if it has the following characteristics:

- The goal is realistic and attainable, yet challenging. The goal is desirable and education dependent.
- The goal is suggested, or at least embraced, by the student, and the student can see a clear path for attaining it. It also helps if the goal is supported by people important to the student.
- Goals can be tailored to recognize that different students may need different types

- of goals, based on their mindsets and motivational styles.
- Mastery-based goals, which involve demonstrating increased understanding, skills, and content knowledge, are preferable to performance-based goals, which involve reaching a pre-defined level of performance or outperforming others (Usher & Kober, 2012, p. 16).

5.6.1.2 The 5 As – Action. This second step involves the necessary actions to accomplish one's goal. In the classroom, action takes form in different aspects. There are the course requirements, which in the specific course in this study were homework, quizzes, projects, attendance, and participation. All of these entail multiple actions such as doing homework, studying, attending class, participating in class, researching information for projects, etc. The extent to which these actions are completed play a role in goal achievement.

5.6.1.3 The 5 As – Assessment. The third step in the goal setting process is assessment, which comes in the form of feedback. Following Black and Wiliam's (1998) definition, feedback is "any information that is provided to the performer of any action about that performance" (p. 53), and feedback can be internal or external. To glean the most from feedback, students need to receive a combination of both internal and external feedback. First, students will receive external feedback from the researcher on the progress towards their goal. Again, the type of feedback is based on students' goal orientations. Mastery goal-oriented individuals receive informational feedback based on their effort and ability towards their mastery goal, and performance goal-oriented individuals receive competence and controlling feedback based on their progress and their classmates' progress in the course (as defined by Dornyei, 1994). Students also evaluate their own progress in the class about their progression towards their goal, which falls under the internal feedback category. In summary, students are receiving two types of feedback, both external and internal, and are able to use this information to compare towards

their goal achievement (see Ilies & Judge, 2005; Locke & Latham, 1990; Terpstra & Rozell, 1994; West et al., 2001 for more information).

5.6.1.4 The 5 As – Adherence. This fourth step refers to students’ goal commitment, which is measured by a goal commitment survey. In this study, feedback and the goal commitment survey were given at the same time to simplify the process, but these could be given at different points across the course. Adherence to the goal is an important part of the goal process as it “indicates the degree to which an individual is attached to a goal and is determined to reach it” (Latham & Locke, 1991, as cited in Martin & Manning, 1995, p. 69).

It is important to note that steps 2-4, action, assessment, and adherence, represent a cyclical, repeatable cycle until the end of the course or attainment of the goal.

5.6.1.5 The 5 As – Achievement. The final step in this process is ultimately goal achievement. Depending on the goal, it may take different amounts of time and repetition of steps 2-4 to reach this level.

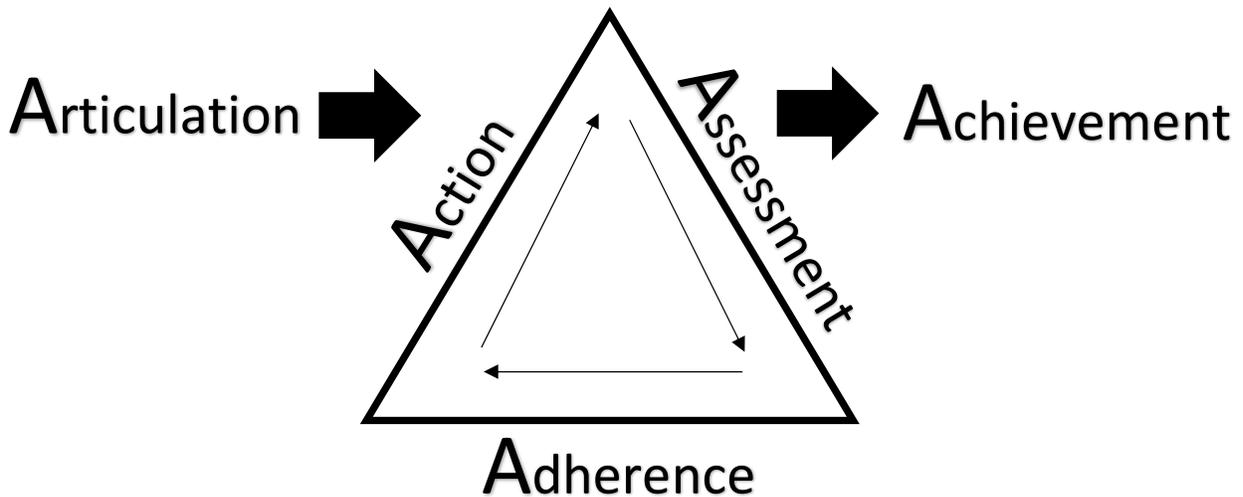


Figure 13. The goal setting process.

6. CONCLUSION

6.1 Overview of the Present Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the types of goals that learners set and the effect that goals and the goal setting process has on achievement, which this study defined as being three-fold and comprised of final course grade, intercultural competence, and linguistic development. To do so, I implemented students' personal goals and the goal setting process into a beginning level, intensive review Spanish course. My objective was to give voice to the students in order to discover the types of goals they set and to determine how goals can help students learn a language.

To the author's knowledge, this study is the first to examine the full goal setting process, which includes identifying, establishing, and maintaining an achievement goal, in a beginning level Spanish course. Previous research examines students goal orientations in the language classroom but does not include the establishment or maintenance of the goal (Pérez et al., 2010; Tercanlioglu, 2004). Furthermore, these studies assess final course grade and do not look at other measurements to consider language and cultural development. The present study incorporates three measurements of achievement to gain a well-rounded perspective of the impacts of goals and goal setting on language learning.

The results of the goal orientation survey showed that all goal types were present across the sample. The highest number of goal orientations was mastery goals and approach goals as divided by the main goal categories. These results confirm previous research that says that

mastery goals are the most common (Wormington & Linnenbrink-Garcia, 2017). When examining goal orientations using the 2 x 2 approach, the highest goal orientations were mastery approach, followed by mastery avoidance, performance avoidance, and finally, performance approach. Further examining the mastery goals, students with a mastery approach goal orientation indicated that communication/speaking, grammar, listening comprehension, and fluency were the main concepts to master. Students with mastery avoidance goal orientations specified grammar, communication/speaking, listening comprehension, vocabulary, and the need to study more to avoid misunderstanding concepts as the most important areas. When comparing this information to the ACTFL 5 Cs, it is clear that there is a divide between what students want to master and what ACTFL says students should master. This fact is supported by previous research that shows that students have a general misconception of the components that make up learning a language (Drewelow, 2012; Mantle-Bromley, 1995), and it indicates a need for the restructuring and amending of the ACTFL Standards.

The next several research questions examined the impact of the goal setting process on students' academic achievement, intercultural competence, and linguistic competence. In relation to the effect of goals and final course grade, students who actively set goals had a statistically significantly higher final course grade as compared to those who did not set goals. Further examination showed a significant difference between the control group and the approach group. This supports previous research that shows the benefits of mastery, performance, mastery approach, mastery avoidance, and performance approach goals especially related to academic achievement but differs from research on performance avoidance goals (Darnon et. al, 2007; Dishon-Berkovits, 2014; Elliot & Church, 1997; Elliot & McGregor, 2001; Gehlbach, 2006; Harackiewicz, 1997; Pérez et al., 2010; Porter & Latham, 2013; Skaalvik, 1997; Tanaka et al.,

2006; Tercanlioglu, 2004). It also confirms research that states that approach goals lead to higher academic achievement (Darnon et al., 2007; Elliot & Church, 1997; Harackiewicz et al., 1997; Skaalvik, 1997). Therefore, this study indicates that the goal orientation may not be as important as simply setting a goal in terms of higher final course grade in the language classroom. Furthering this, if the goal that is set happens to be an approach goal, there is indication of higher academic achievement.

In terms of intercultural competence development, no significant difference was found between the experimental and control group, which could be due to culture not being at the forefront of students' minds when compared to grammar and vocabulary.

As for linguistic competence development, the results were not as clear. There were significant interactions for some combinations of goal orientations and the control group, but the main effects and post hoc analyses only indicate a significant difference between the pre- and posttest scores in the control group and the avoidance group. These results suggest that students in the control group decreased in linguistic proficiency over the semester, whereas students in the avoidance group increased in proficiency over the semester. Nonetheless, further research is necessary.

Students also had an overall positive perception of the goal setting process and indicated with strong emphasis that they wanted to extend goal setting to other classes. Similarly, students' perceptions of feedback were positive, and this study has shown that students who are actively intertwined in the goal setting process capitalize on many returns such as attentiveness, awareness, engagement, language learner autonomy, motivation, self-efficacy, and self-regulation.

6.2 Future Directions

6.2.1 Pedagogy. What does goal setting mean for the L2 classroom? Due to the nature of goal setting itself and the evidence of the present study, the goal setting process can be implemented in various levels throughout different language programs. Not only can it be applied on the individual section level, as it was in this study, but it could also be employed on the course level and/or the program level. Similarly, goal setting could easily be added to either secondary education language programs from grades 6-12 or university level language study. That way all students studying a foreign language are able to glean the benefits that goal setting has according to this study.

One way to facilitate and encourage the process of setting goals in the language classroom would be to incorporate them into course learning objectives. By including goal setting as part of the learning objectives, both students and instructors will be held accountable. Sample learning objectives are listed in Table 26.

Table 26. *Possible Classroom Learning Objectives*

Students will be able to:

- Identify their personal goal orientation
- Set a difficult but realistic goal for the course
- Progress towards their goal over the duration of the course
- Evaluate their own progress towards their personal goal

After the course, students will be able to:

- Employ the goal setting process in future courses and tasks

Furthermore, this process could be added to course textbooks. A chapter at the beginning of the textbook would explain this process and the benefits. It would then walk students and teachers through the process of goal setting and help students set a goal for their course. Throughout the textbook, there would be sections that ask students to self-evaluate their

progress. The instructor version of the textbook would also have sections that help them give their students feedback about their goal in the course.

This study also sheds light on some discrepancies in the L2 classroom and gives a possible solution of implementing the goal setting process as a means to aid L2 learners. Goal setting, however, is not a cure-all, and there is still research to be done. Nevertheless, there are pedagogical implications that can be made from the present study.

This study highlights the need to bring intercultural competence to the forefront of language courses. To do so, more emphasis needs to be added to the 5 Cs, and one way to accomplish that is through the goal setting process. When implementing goal setting in the classroom, more scaffolding during the goal choice process would help push students towards the 5 Cs. For example, students could be given options of goal statements directly related to the Standards. Or, perhaps more in line with the current research, students could be given a list of “areas to master” within language learning, and this list would include the 5 Cs and other related material. Students would then choose the area(s) in which they were interested and that would become their goal. By following this scaffolded approach, students would be more aware, even if inadvertently, of the 5 Cs, and perhaps there would be more consistency between student goals and the ACTFL Standards. This approach also allows for the exploration of multiple goals, which is a concept on which this study did not focus.

Teacher education is another tool to give culture a prominent place in the classroom. As mentioned before and worthy of restatement, Garrett-Rucks (2016) states that “foreign language educators are often confused and anxious about the implementation and assessment of meaningful culture learning in [foreign language] instruction” (p. 2). It is clear that teachers are not confident about how to implement culture into the classroom in an effective manner, and this

could be due to a lack or need of operational teacher training (Allen & Negueruela-Azarola, 2010; Byrnes, 2001; Fox & Diaz-Greenburg, 2006; Garrett-Rucks, 2016; Hoyt & Garrett-Rucks, 2014; Kinginger, 1996). Garrett-Rucks (2016) suggests that

[Foreign language] educators need explicit training in their professional development to design and implement learning experiences that cultivate meaningful comparisons of cultural perspectives. To do so, teacher preparation programs and continuing education workshops might start with a reflection component on the instructor's own beliefs about optimal cultural instruction...Such an experiential approach might start with language-instructors-in-training first *noticing the gap* between their own instruction compared to practices supported by [intercultural competence] theories, then *focusing on the form* of a meaningful cultural lesson and the inclusion of the cultural perspectives...and the *Comparisons Standard 4.2* in lessons about target culture products and practices (p. 134).

It is interesting to note that the *Comparisons Standard* is suggested as a technique for teacher education as I would also argue the use of a similar strategy for teaching culture in the classroom. Comparing and contrasting the L2 culture with the native culture is an easy and effective way to incorporate culture into the classroom with the added benefit of covering two of the 5 Cs – *Comparisons* and *Cultures* – at once. And, this can be incorporated at the beginning levels. For example, when discussing time in a Spanish speaking country, students could first write out their schedule for a typical day. Then, students could compare their schedule with other students to come up with a typical day for their class as a whole. Then, the teacher could ask questions in Spanish such as “What time do you normally eat lunch?” or “What time do you normally eat dinner?” Students would then be practicing the time structures in the target language. Then, the teacher could ask students to come up with a schedule for a typical day in a Spanish speaking country. This could be country-specific or more general. Students could then compare the two schedules and decide if they think the schedules are similar or different before comparing to the schedule provided by the teacher. This could then lead into a discussion about the differences between the native culture and the target culture allowing students to recognize cultural values in both through the examination of time and schedules. It is important to make

explicit cultural connections as students seem to be unaware of the different components that make up the definitions of culture and intercultural competence.

6.2.2 Research. There are many avenues that future research could and should take. I will name a few that I believe would be beneficial to the field of SLA. To begin, future research should relate to ACTFL's new Can-Do Statements (2017) that now explicitly incorporate intercultural competence. The data collection phase of this study was completed before these new statements were released and as such did not include them in the current project. However, based on the results of this study, there are already insights that show that goal setting can inform us about these new statements. Particularly, as was shown in this study, just because there are statements or standards that dictate what students' goals should be in the language classroom that does not mean that those statements are in line with what students' goals actually are. And, as this study showed, culture was not at the forefront of students' minds or mentioned in their goals. In order for these new statements to be effective, they must be used and practiced in the classroom.

Continuing with the ACTFL Standards, future research should also explore the role of Dornyei's (2005) L2 Motivational Self System and how the *Ideal L2 Self* or *Ought-to L2 Self* affects the goals that learners set. This could also provide an explanation as to why students did not see culture as important. Perhaps the majority of students saw themselves as the *Ought-to L2 Self* in that they were learning the language for instrumental purposes and did not have the goal to be members of the L2 community. Furthermore, it appears that goals, goal setting, and possible selves are closely related. However, current research does not seem to link them in the most appropriate manner. For example, Dornyei (2009) says the following:

Reading the possible selves literature I have found it remarkable how most authors seem to ignore this crucial distinction between goals and future self-guides...Pizzolato (2006),

for example, is quite right when she states that ‘Unlike goal theory, possible selves are explicitly related to long-term developmental goal involving goal setting, volition (via adherence to associated schemas), and goal achievement, but are larger than any one or combination of these constructs’ (p. 58), but she could have gone one step further to state that it is the experiential element that makes possible selves ‘larger’ than any combinations of goal-related constructs. Similarly, Miller and Brickman (2004) state that possible selves are examples of long-term, future goals and define these as ‘self-relevant, self-defining goals that provide incentive for action,’ regulating behavior ‘through self-identification with the goals or the integration of the goals into the system of self-determined goals.’ Yet, they seem to overlook the key element, namely that possible selves are ‘self states’ that people experience as reality (pp. 15-16).

Clearly, there is still much room for growth in this area, but it does seem like there is a way to connect goal theories to the possible selves literature. Combining the goal setting process described in the current study with the possible selves in a way that accounts for the experiential element of the possible selves or the self states that people experience as reality could provide new insight to the L2 possible selves phenomenon.

Future research should also investigate other measurements of intercultural and linguistic competence. For the purposes of this study, I used a specific lens to examine each of the competencies, and as previous research has shown, there are multiple ways to measure both intercultural and linguistic competence. Furthermore, the Douglas Fir Group (2016) recently proposed a reimagined SLA in which one of the fundamental themes states “a new, reimagined SLA...necessitates a reconceptualized understanding of linguistic competence: One that is complex, dynamic and holistic” (p. 26). This reimagined understanding of linguistic competence yields a well-rounded view of language learners as individuals and multilingual speakers. In fact, the Douglas Fir Group (2016) continues by saying that “the competence of multilingual speakers is the holistic sum of their multiple-language capacities” (p. 26), and as such, linguistic competence measurements, in particular, need to be expanded. Furthermore, the reimagined SLA is a new framework that needs more exploration, and goals and the goal setting process may play an integral role in this new call for transdisciplinarity.

The present study also viewed feedback from a perspective that differs from the current theories and methodologies in the field of SLA. Current theories on feedback pay particular attention to error correction, corrective feedback, or internal versus external feedback to name a few. The type of feedback in this study taps into both internal and external feedback but also provides a more holistic view of students' progress in the course and towards their goal. This type of feedback can enhance the current methodologies, and future research should examine the type of feedback utilized in the present study and how it relates to SLA. Similarly, this study gave feedback after each chapter quiz in the course. Future research should investigate the frequency of feedback to determine how much feedback is too much or too little.

As goals are dynamic and fluctuate over time, future research should consider case studies and/ or longitudinal studies that follow students throughout the course of their L2 learning. This type of research would provide insight into goal change specific to the L2 classroom as well as offer new evidence on the attributes of the different goal orientations. Similarly, goal commitment was a factor in the goal setting process, but the current study did not examine it beyond the surface level. Future research should explore the role of goal commitment and follow students' goal commitment over the semester or longer as this may provide insight into U-shaped learning and/or give new understanding of the trajectory of students' goals.

Finally, this study only focused on English learners of Spanish, and future research should expand upon the languages in question. While it is hypothesized that the goal setting process could be integrated into any language course, research still needs to verify this proposition.

6.2.3 Technology. Many different suggestions and ideas have been given about how to implement the goal setting process and the results from the current study into the classroom.

Perhaps the most advantageous option would be by incorporating language learning and technology. I am currently in the process of developing a software tool that can be downloaded as an “app” that will help both teachers and students implement the goal setting process. Students would take the goal orientation survey on the app, and the app would calculate the goal orientation based on the information entered. Students would then be guided through the process of choosing and setting a goal for their course. The teacher’s app would link to the students’ information, so that the teacher could see the goals that students were setting for the course. The teacher would be able to give feedback based on the goal type and would be able to incorporate the course components, assignments, the ACTFL Standards, etc. into the feedback as programmable options. Based on how often the teacher wanted feedback to be given, the app would send notifications to the students when it was time to take the goal commitment survey and reflect on their current progress in the course. The app would be used from the beginning to the end of the semester to aid students in their language learning process.

Incorporating goal setting into a mobile application allows the process to be added to any course, any language, and at any level regardless of the textbook that is being used in the class. An app also helps to streamline the process so that teachers do not feel overwhelmed by giving a different type of feedback multiple times throughout the semester. The app would walk both students and teachers through the 5 As and would closely mirror the current study’s methodology. By integrating technology, we are appealing to students’ comfort zones in that they are already very accustomed to a tech-savvy world, and we are simplifying the process for both students and teachers. Furthermore, an app makes goal setting accessible and adaptable to all language learners and teachers.

6.3 Final Thoughts

Over the years, there has been much debate on the best type of goal to set, and this study shows that following the goal setting process may be more conducive to language achievement as compared to not setting a goal at all. Therefore, to take advantage of these gains, educators and those responsible for L2 education should incorporate goals and the goal setting process into the standards and curricula. Then, students become an active part of the learning process; teachers are better able to guide their students; and most importantly, language, in all its components and complexities, is being learned.

“The real value of setting goals is not the recognition or reward. It’s the person we become by finding the discipline, courage, and commitment to achieve them.” Unknown

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8. APPENDICES

Appendix A: Division of Studies by Goal Type

Types of Goals	Author(s)	Year	Title
Dichotomous Design (Mastery vs. Performance)	Ames	1992	Classrooms: Goals, Structures, and Student Motivation
Dichotomous Design	Ames & Archer	1988	Achievement Goals in the Classroom: Students' Learning Strategies and Motivation Process
Dichotomous Design	Boekaerts	2002	Motivation to Learn
Dichotomous Design	Chen & Mathieu	2008	Goal Orientation Dispositions and Performance Trajectories: The Roles of Supplementary and Complementary Situational Inducements
Dichotomous Design	Cianci, Klein, & Seijts	2010	The Effect of Negative Feedback on Tension and Subsequent Performance: The Main and Interactive Effects of Goal Content and Conscientiousness
Dichotomous Design	Cianci, Schaubroeck, & McGill	2010	Achievement Goals, Feedback, and Task Performance
Dichotomous Design	Colquitt & Simmering	1998	Conscientiousness, Goal Orientation, and Motivation to Learn During the Learning Process: A Longitudinal Study
Dichotomous Design	Dweck	1991	Self-Theories and Goals: Their Role in Motivation, Personality, and Development
Dichotomous Design	Fisher & Ford	1998	Differential Effects of Learner Effort and Goal Orientation on Two Learning Outcomes
Dichotomous Design	Gehlbach	2006	How Changes in Students' Goal Orientations Relate to Outcomes in Social Studies

Dichotomous Design	Gerhardt & Brown	2006	Individual Differences in Self-Efficacy Development: The Effects of Goal Orientation and Affectivity
Dichotomous Design	Harackiewicz, Barron, Carter, Lehto, & Elliot	1997	Predictors and Consequences of Achievement Goals in the College Classroom: Maintaining Interest and Making the Grade
Dichotomous Design	Harackiewicz & Elliot	1993	Achievement Goals and Intrinsic Motivation
Dichotomous Design	Harackiewicz & Elliot	1998	The Joint Effects of Target and Purpose Goals on Intrinsic Motivation: A Mediation Analysis
Dichotomous Design	Kozlowski & Bell	2006	Disentangling Achievement Orientation and Goal Setting: Effects on Self-Regulatory Processes
Dichotomous Design	Kristiansen, Halvari, & Roberts	2012	Organizational and Media Stress Among Professional Football Players: Testing an Achievement Goal Theory
Dichotomous Design	Latham, Seijts, & Crim	2008	The Effects of Learning Goal Difficulty Level and Cognitive Ability on Performance
Dichotomous Design	Maehr & Midgley	1991	Enhancing Student Motivation: A Schoolwide Approach
Dichotomous Design	Meece, Blumenfeld, & Hoyle	1988	Students' Goal Orientations and Cognitive Engagement in Classroom Activities
Dichotomous Design	Nicholls	1984	Achievement Motivation: Conceptions of Ability, Subjective Experience, Task Choice, and Performance
Dichotomous Design	Plante, O'Keefe, & Théorêt	2013	The Relation Between Achievement Goal and Expectancy-Value Theories in Predicting Achievement-Related Outcomes: A Test of Four Theoretical Components
Dichotomous Design	Polychroni, Hatzichristou, & Sideris	2012	The Role of Goal Orientations and Goal Structures in Explaining Classroom Social and Affective Characteristics
Dichotomous Design	Porter & Latham	2013	The Effect of Employee Learning Goals and Goal Commitment on Departmental Performance
Dichotomous Design	Ryan & Pintrich	1997	"Should I Ask for Help?" The Role of Motivation and Attitudes in Adolescents' Help Seeking in Math Class
Dichotomous Design	Schunk	1996	Goal and Self-Evaluative Influences During Children's Cognitive Skill Learning

Dichotomous Design	Seijts & Crim	2009	The Combined Effects of Goal Type and Cognitive Ability on Performance
Dichotomous Design	Seijts, Latham, Tasa, & Latham	2004	Goal Setting and Goal Orientation: An Integration of Two Different Yet Related Literatures
Dichotomous Design	Senko & Miles	2008	Pursuing Their Own Learning Agenda: How Mastery-Oriented Students Jeopardize Their Class Performance
Dichotomous Design	Shim, Cho, & Wang	2013	Classroom Goal Structures, Social Achievement Goals, and Adjustment in Middle School
Dichotomous Design	Skaalvik	1997	Self-Enhancing and Self-Defeating Ego Orientation: Relations with Task and Avoidance Orientation, Achievement, Self-Perceptions, and Anxiety
Dichotomous Design	Smith, Smoll, & Cumming	2009	Motivational Climate and Changes in Young Athletes' Achievement Goal Orientations
Dichotomous Design	Tasa, Celani, & Bell	2013	Goal in Negotiation Revisited: The Impact of Goal Setting and Implicit Negotiation Beliefs
Dichotomous Design	Winters & Latham	1996	The Effect of Learning Versus Outcome Goals on a Simple Versus a Complex Task
Trichotomous Design (Mastery vs. Performance Approach vs. Performance Avoidance)	Barker, Dowson, & Institute	2002	Performance Approach, Performance Avoidance and Depth of Information Processing: A Fresh Look at Relations Between Students' Academic Motivation and Cognition
Trichotomous Design	DeShon & Gillespie	2005	A Motivated Action Theory Account of Goal Orientation
Trichotomous Design	Dishon-Berkovits	2014	A Study of Motivational Influences on Academic Achievement
Trichotomous Design	Elliot & Church	1997	A Hierarchical Model of Approach and Avoidance Achievement Motivation
Trichotomous Design	Elliot & Harackiewicz	1996	Approach and Avoidance Achievement Goals and Intrinsic Motivation: A Mediational Analysis
Trichotomous Design	Elliot & Thrash	2002	Approach-Avoidance Motivation in Personality: Approach and Avoidance Temperaments and Goals
Trichotomous Design	Eren	2009	Exploring the Relationships Among Mirror Neurons, Theory of Mind and Achievement Goals: Towards a Model of Achievement Goal Contagion in Educational Settings

Trichotomous Design	Gerhardt & Luzadis	2009	The Importance of Perceived Task Difficulty in Goal Orientation – Assigned Goal Alignment
Trichotomous Design	Lou & Noels	2016	Changing Language Mindsets: Implications for Goal Orientations and Responses to Failure in and Outside the Second Language Classroom
Trichotomous Design	Midgley, Kaplan, & Middleton	2001	Performance-Approach Goals: Good For What, For Whom, Under What Circumstances, and At What Cost?
Trichotomous Design	Midgley, Kaplan, Middleton, Maehr, Urdan, Hicks Anderman, Anderman, & Roeser	1998	The Development and Validation of Scales Assessing Students' Achievement Goal Orientations
Trichotomous Design	Midgley, Maehr, Hruda, Anderman, Anderman, Freeman, Gheen, Kaplan, Kumar, Middleton, Nelson, Roeser, & Urdan	2000	Manual for the Patterns of Adaptive Learning Scales
Trichotomous Design	Middleton & Midgley	1997	Avoiding the Demonstration of Lack of Ability: An Underexplored Aspect of Goal Theory
Trichotomous Design	Mouratidis, Michou, Demircioglu, & Sayil	2018	Different Goals, Different Pathways to Success: Performance-Approach as Direct and Mastery-Approach as Indirect Predictors of Grades in Mathematics
Trichotomous Design	Muis, Ranellucci, Franco, & Crippen	2013	The Interactive Effects of Personal Achievement Goals and Performance Feedback in an Undergraduate Science Class
Trichotomous Design	Murayama & Elliot	2009	The Joint Influence of Personal Achievement Goals and Classroom Goal Structures on Achievement-Relevant Outcomes
Trichotomous Design	Payne, Youngcourt, & Beaubien	2007	A Meta-Analytic Examination of the Goal Orientation Nomological Net
Trichotomous Design	Pekrun, Cusack, Murayama, Elliot, & Thomas	2014	The Power of Anticipated Feedback: Effects on Students' Achievement Goals and Achievement Emotions
Trichotomous Design	Pintrich	2000	Multiple Goals, Multiple Pathways: The Role of Goal Orientation in Learning and Achievement

Trichotomous Design	Schwinger & Stiensmeier-Pelster	2011	Performance-Approach and Performance-Avoidance Classroom Goals and the Adoption of Personal Achievement Goals
Trichotomous Design	Shih	2005	Role of Achievement Goals in Children's Learning in Taiwan
Trichotomous Design	Shim, Cho, & Cassady	2013	Goal Structures: The Role of Teachers' Achievement Goals and Theories of Intelligence
Trichotomous Design	Tanaka, Takehara, & Yamauchi	2006	Achievement Goals in a Presentation Task: Performance Expectancy, Achievement Goals, State Anxiety, and Task Performance
Trichotomous Design	VandeWalle, Cron, & Slocum	2001	The Role of Goal Orientation Following Feedback
Trichotomous Design	Wolters	2004	Advancing Achievement Goal Theory: Using Goal Structures and Goal Orientations to Predict Students' Motivation, Cognition, and Achievement
2 x 2 Design (Mastery Approach vs. Mastery Avoidance vs. Performance Approach vs. Performance Avoidance)	Wood, Whelan, Sojo, & Wong	2013	Goals, Goal Orientations, Strategies, and Performance
2 x 2 Design	Almagro, Sáenz-López, Moreno-Murcia, & Spray	2015	Motivational Factors in Young Spanish Athletes: A Qualitative Focus Drawing from Self-Determination Theory and Achievement Goal Perspectives
2 x 2 Design	Belenky & Nokes-Malach	2012	Motivation and Transfer: The Role of Mastery-Approach Goals in Preparation for Future Learning
2 x 2 Design	Belenky & Nokes-Malach	2013	Mastery-Approach Goals and Knowledge Transfer: An Investigation into the Effects of Task Structure and Framing Instructions
2 x 2 Design	Cheng & Lam	2013	The Interaction Between Social Goals and Self-Construal on Achievement Motivation
2 x 2 Design	Cury, Elliot, Da Fonseca, & Moller	2006	The Social-Cognitive Model of Achievement Motivation and the 2 x 2 Achievement Goal Framework

2 x 2 Design	Darnon, Jury, & Aelenei	2017	Who Benefits from Mastery-Approach and Performance-Approach Goals in College? Students' Social Class as a Moderator of the Link Between Goals and Grade
2 x 2 Design	Duijnhouwer, Prins, & Stokking	2010	Progress Feedback Effects on Students' Writing Mastery Goal, Self-Efficacy Beliefs, and Performance
2 x 2 Design	Elliot, Aldhobaiban, Kobeisy, Murayama, Gocłowska, Lichtenfeld, & Khayat	2016	Linking Social Interdependence Preferences to Achievement Goal Adoption
2 x 2 Design	Elliot & McGregor	2001	A 2 x 2 Achievement Goal Framework
2 x 2 Design	Elliot & Murayama	2008	On the Measurement of Achievement Goals: Critique, Illustration, and Application
2 x 2 Design	Howell & Watson	2006	Procrastination: Associations with Achievement Goal Orientation and Learning Strategies
2 x 2 Design	Karabenick	2004	Perceived Achievement Goal Structure and College Student Help Seeking
2 x 2 Design	Law, Elliot, & Murayama	2012	Perceived Competence Moderates the Relation Between Performance-Approach and Performance-Avoidance Goals
2 x 2 Design	Linnenbrink & Pintrich	2002	Achievement Goal Theory and Affect: An Asymmetrical Bidirectional Model
2 x 2 Design	Murayama, Elliot, & Yamagata	2011	Separation of Performance-Approach and Performance-Avoidance Achievement Goals: A Broader Analysis
2 x 2 Design	Nie & Liem	2013	Extending Antecedents of Achievement Goals: The Double-Edged Sword Effect of Social-Oriented Achievement Motive and Gender Differences
2 x 2 Design	Rakoczy, Harks, Klieme, Blum, & Hochweber	2013	Written Feedback in Mathematics: Mediated by Students' Perception, Moderated by Goal Orientation
2 x 2 Design	Senko, Hama, & Belmonte	2013	Achievement Goals, Study Strategies, and Achievement: A Test of the "Learning Agenda" Framework
2 x 2 Design	Sideridis	2007	The Regulation of Affect, Anxiety, and Stressful Arousal from Adopting Mastery-Avoidance Goal Orientations
	Van Yperen, Elliot, & Anseel	2009	The Influence of Mastery-Avoidance Goals on Performance Improvement

Appendix B: Assessment of Intercultural Competence (AIC) Questionnaire

Directions: Choose the answer that best represents your opinion about the statements. Note: If you have not been in a situation presented, please choose the answer that you believe would represent your opinion.

Use the following scale for each statement:

Strongly Disagree Disagree Neither Agree nor Disagree Agree Strongly Agree

1. I can cite a definition of culture and describe its components and complexities.
2. I know the essential norms and taboos of Hispanic culture (e.g., greetings, dress, behaviors, etc.).
3. I can contrast important aspects of Hispanic language and culture with my own.
4. I recognize signs of culture stress and know some strategies for overcoming them.
5. I know some techniques to aid my learning of Hispanic language and culture.
6. I can contrast my own behaviors with those of Hispanics in important areas (e.g., social interactions, basic routines, time orientation, etc.).
7. I can cite important historical and socio-political factors that shape my own culture and Hispanic culture.
8. I can describe a model of cross-cultural adjustment.
9. I can cite various learning processes and strategies for learning about and adjusting to Hispanic culture.
10. I can describe interactional behaviors common among Hispanics in social and professional areas (e.g., family roles, team work, problem solving, etc.).
11. I can discuss and contrast various behavioral patterns in my own culture with those in Hispanic cultures.
12. I demonstrate willingness to interact with Hispanics.

13. I demonstrate willingness to learn from Hispanics, their language, and their culture.
14. I demonstrate willingness to try to communicate in Spanish and behave in “appropriate” ways, as judged by Hispanics.
15. I demonstrate willingness to deal with my emotions and frustrations with the Hispanic culture (in addition to the pleasures it offers).
16. I demonstrate willingness to show interest in new cultural aspects (e.g., to understand the values, history, traditions, etc.).
17. I demonstrate willingness to try to understand differences in the behaviors, values, attitudes and styles of Hispanics.
18. I demonstrate willingness to deal with different ways of perceiving, expressing, interacting and behaving.
19. I demonstrate willingness to interact in alternative ways, even when quite different from those to which I am accustomed and prefer.
20. I demonstrate willingness to deal with the ethical implications of my choices (in terms of decisions, consequences, results, etc.).
21. I demonstrate willingness to suspend judgment and appreciate the complexities of communicating and interacting interculturally.
22. I demonstrate flexibility when interacting with persons from the Hispanic culture.
23. I am able to contrast Hispanic culture with my own.
24. I use strategies for learning the Spanish language and about the Hispanic culture.
25. I demonstrate a capacity to interact appropriately in a variety of different social situations in Hispanic culture.
26. I use appropriate strategies for adapting to the Hispanic culture.
27. I use models, strategies, and techniques that aid in my learning of the Spanish language and culture.
28. I use culture-specific information to improve my style and professional interaction with Hispanics.
29. I help resolve cross-cultural conflicts and misunderstandings when they arise.

30. I realize the importance of differences and similarities across my own language and culture and the Spanish language and culture.
31. I realize the importance of my negative reactions to these differences (e.g., fear, ridicule, disgust, superiority, etc.).
32. I realize the importance of how varied situations in the Hispanic culture require modifying my interactions with others.
33. I realize the importance of myself as a “culturally conditioned” person with personal habits and preferences.
34. I realize the importance of the dangers of generalizing individual behaviors as representative of the whole culture.
35. I realize the importance of my personal values that affect my approach to ethical dilemmas and their resolution.
36. I realize the importance of how my values and ethics are reflected in specific situations.
37. I realize the importance of varying cultural styles and language use and their effect in social and working situations.
38. I realize the importance of my own level of intercultural development.
39. I realize the importance of the level of intercultural development of those I work with.
40. I realize the importance of how I perceive myself as a communicator, facilitator, and mediator in an intercultural situation.
41. I realize the importance of how others perceive me as a communicator, facilitator, and mediator in an intercultural situation.

Appendix C: Diploma de español como lengua extranjera (DELE)

Part 1.

Directions: Choose the answer that best represents your opinion.

1. Al oír del accidente de su buen amigo, Paco se puso_____.

<input type="radio"/> alegre	<input type="radio"/> hambriento
<input type="radio"/> fatigado	<input type="radio"/> desconsolado

2. No puedo comprarlo porque me_____ dinero.

<input type="radio"/> falta	<input type="radio"/> presta
<input type="radio"/> dan	<input type="radio"/> regalan

3. Tuvo que guardar cama por estar_____.

<input type="radio"/> enfermo	<input type="radio"/> ocupado
<input type="radio"/> vestido	<input type="radio"/> parado

4. Aquí está tu café, Juanito. No te quemes, que está muy_____.

<input type="radio"/> dulce	<input type="radio"/> agrio
<input type="radio"/> amargo	<input type="radio"/> caliente

5. Al romper los anteojos, Juan se asustó porque no podía_____ sin ellos.

<input type="radio"/> discurrir	<input type="radio"/> ver
<input type="radio"/> oír	<input type="radio"/> entender

6. ¡Pobrecita! Está resfriada y no puede_____.

<input type="radio"/> salir de casa	<input type="radio"/> respirar con pena
<input type="radio"/> recibir cartas	<input type="radio"/> leer las noticias

7. Era una noche oscura sin_____.
- estrellas
 - camas
 - lágrimas
 - nubes
8. Cuando don Carlos salió de su casa, saludó a un amigo suyo, <<Buenos días, _____>>.
- ¿Qué va?
 - ¿Cómo es?
 - ¿Quién es?
 - ¿Qué tal?
9. ¡Qué ruido había con los gritos de los niños y el _____de los perros!
- olor
 - sueño
 - hambre
 - ladrar
10. Para saber la hora, don Juan miró el_____.
- calendario
 - bolsillo
 - estante
 - despertador
11. Yo, que comprendo poco de mecánica, sé que el auto no puede funcionar sin _____.
- permiso
 - comer
 - aceite
 - bocina
12. Nos dijo mama que era hora de comer y por eso_____.
- fuimos a nadar
 - tomamos asiento
 - comenzamos a fumar
 - nos acostamos pronto
13. ¡Cuidado con ese cuchillo o vas a_____ el dedo!
- cortarte
 - torcerte
 - comerte
 - quemarte

14. Tuvo tanto miedo de caerse que se negó a _____ con nosotros.
- almorzar
 - cantar
 - charlar
 - patinar
15. Abrió la ventana y miró: en efecto, grandes lenguas de _____ salió llameando de las casas.
- zorros
 - cuero
 - serpientes
 - fuego
16. Compró ejemplares de todos los diarios pero en vano. No halló_____.
- los diez centavos
 - la noticia que deseaba
 - el periódico perdido
 - los ejemplos
17. Por varias semanas acudieron colegas del difunto profesor a_____ el dolor de la viuda.
- aliviar
 - embromar
 - dulcificar
 - estorbar
18. Sus amigos pudieron haberlo salvado pero lo dejaron_____ .
- ganar
 - perecer
 - parecer
 - acabar
19. Al salir de la misa me sentía tan caritativo que no pude menos que _____ a un pobre mendigo que había allí sentado.
- pegarle
 - echar una mirada
 - darle una limosna
 - maldecir
20. Al lado de la Plaza de Armas había dos limosneros pidiendo_____ .
- pedazos
 - monedas
 - paz
 - escopetas

21. Siempre maltratado por los niños, el perro no podía acostumbrarse a _____ de sus nuevos amos.
- las caricias
 - los engaños
 - las locuras
 - los golpes
22. ¿Dónde estará mi cartera? La dejé aquí mismo hace poco y parece que el necio de mi hermano ha vuelto a _____ .
- dejármela
 - deshacérmela
 - escondérmela
 - acabármela
23. Permaneció un gran rato abstraído, los ojos clavados en el fogón y el pensamiento _____.
- en el bosillo
 - en el fuego
 - lleno de alboroto
 - Dios sabe dónde
24. En vez de dirigir el tráfico estabas charlando, así que tú mismo _____ del choque.
- sabes la gravedad
 - eres testigo
 - tuviste la culpa
 - conociste a las víctimas
25. Posee esta tierra un clima tan propo para la agricultura como para _____ .
- la construcción de trampas
 - el fomento de motines
 - el costo de vida
 - la cría de reses
26. Aficionado leal de obras teatrales, Juan se entristeció al saber _____ del gran actor.
- del fallecimiento
 - del éxito
 - de la buena suerte
 - de la albanaza
27. Se reunieron a menudo para efectuar un tratado pero no pudieron _____ .
- desavenirse
 - echarlo a un lado
 - rechazarlo
 - llevarlo a cabo

28. Se negaron a embarcarse porque tenían miedo de_____ .

- los peces
- los naufragios
- los faros
- las playas

29. La mujer no aprobó el cambio de domicilio pues no les gustaba_____ .

- el callejeo
- el puente
- esa estación
- aquel barrio

30. Era el único que tenía algo que comer pero se negó a_____ .

- hojearlo
- ponérselo
- conservarlo
- repartirlo

Part 2.

Directions: Choose the answer that best fits each blank.

El sueño de Joan Miró

Hoy se inaugura en Palma de Mallorca la Fundación de Joan Miró, en el mismo lugar en donde el artista vivió sus últimos treinta y cinco años. El sueño de Joan Miró se ha 1._____. Los fondos donados a la ciudad por el pintor y su esposa en 1981 permitieron que el sueño se 2._____ ; más tarde, en 1986 el Ayuntamiento de Palma de Mallorca decidió 3._____ al arquitecto Rafael Moneo un edificio que 4._____ a la vez como sede de la entidad y como museo moderno.

1.

- cumplido
- completado
- terminado

3.

- encargar
- pedir
- mandar

2.

- inició
- iniciara
- iniciaba

4.

- hubiera servido
- hay servido
- sirviera

El proyecto ha tenido que 5. _____ múltiples obstáculos de carácter administrativo. Miró, coincidiendo 6. _____ los deseos de toda su familia, quiso que su obra no quedara expuesta en ampulosos panteones de arte o en 7. _____ de coleccionistas acaudalados; por ello, en 1981, creó la fundación mallorquina. Y cuando estaba 8. _____ punto de morir, donó terrenos y edificios, así como las obras de arte que en ellos 9. _____.

5.

- superar
- enfrentarse
- acabar

8.

- al
- en
- a

6.

- por
- en
- con

9.

- habría
- había
- hubo

7.

- voluntad
- poder
- favor

El edificio que ha construido Rafael Moneo se enmarca en 10. _____ se denomina «Territorio Miró», espacio en el que se han 11. _____ de situar los distintos edificios que constituyen la herencia del pintor.

10.

- que
- el que
- lo que

11.

- pretendido
- tratado
- intentado

El acceso a los mismos 12. _____ quedará para evitar el deterioro de las obras. Por otra parte, se 13. _____, en los talleres de grabado y litografía, cursos 14. _____ las distintas técnicas de estampación. Estos talleres también se cederán periódicamente a distintos artistas contemporáneos, 15. _____ se busca que el «Territorio Miró» 16. _____ un centro vivo de creación y difusión del arte a todos los 17. _____.

12.

- disminuido
- escaso
- restringido

14.

- sobre
- en
- para

13.

- darán
- enseñarán
- dirán

15.

- ya
- así
- para

16.

- será
- sea
- es

17.

- casos
- aspectos
- niveles

La entrada costará 500 pesetas y las previsiones dadas a conocer ayer aspiran

18. _____ que el centro acoga a unos 150.000 visitantes al año. Los responsables esperan que la institución funcione a 19. _____ rendimiento a principios de la

20. _____ semana, si bien el catálogo completo de las obras de la Fundación Pilar y Joan Miró no estará listo hasta dentro de dos años.

18.

- a
- de
- para

20.

- siguiente
- próxima
- pasada

19.

- total
- pleno
- entero

Appendix D: Goal Orientation Survey

Directions: Choose the answer that best represents your opinion about the statements.

Use the following scale for each statement:

Strongly Disagree Disagree Neither Agree nor Disagree Agree Strongly Agree

1. Understanding the concepts presented in this course is important to me.
2. It's important to me that my teacher doesn't think that I know less than others in class.
3. I hope to not misunderstand the concepts that are presented in this class.
4. The best way to succeed in this class is to get a good grade.
5. My goal is to learn as much as I can in this course.
6. I would feel really good if I were the only one who could answer the teacher's questions in class.
7. I am often concerned that I may not understand the concepts in this course as thoroughly as I'd like.
8. I just want to avoid doing poorly in this class.
9. I hope to have gained a deeper knowledge of the concepts presented in this course when I am done with this class.
10. My goal in this class is to get a better grade than most of the students.
11. It's very important to me that I don't look stupid in my class.
12. My goal is to avoid being incompetent about the concepts presented in this class.
13. I desire to completely master the concepts presented in this class.
14. I'd like to show my teacher that I'm smarter than the other students in my class.
15. One of my goals is to keep others from thinking I'm not smart in class.
16. I just hope I am able to maintain enough knowledge of the concepts so that I am competent in this class.

17. I worry about the possibility of getting a bad grade in this class.
18. It is important to me that I thoroughly understand the concepts presented in this class.
19. It is important for me to do well compared to others in this class.
20. My goal is to avoid misunderstanding the concepts in this class.

Appendix E: Goal Choice Survey – Performance Approach

1. What is your name (First and Last Name)? _____

2. Please circle the ONE (1) NUMBER which best matches a difficult, but realistic goal for you in your Spanish class.

My goal in my Spanish class is to receive a/an

<u>A+</u>	<u>A</u>	<u>A-</u>	<u>B+</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>B-</u>	<u>C+</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>C-</u>	<u>D+</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>D-</u>	<u>F</u>
100	96	93	89	86	83	79	76	73	69	66	63	50-59
99	95	92	88	85	82	78	75	72	68	65	62	40-49
98	94	91	87	84	81	77	74	71	67	64	61	30-39
97		90			80			70			60	0-20

3. Please take a few minutes to write down your thoughts about your goals.

Appendix F: Goal Choice Survey – Performance Avoid

1. What is your name (First and Last Name)? _____

2. Please circle the ONE (1) NUMBER which best matches a difficult, but realistic goal for you in your Spanish class.

My goal in my Spanish class is to not receive a grade below a/an

<u>A+</u>	<u>A</u>	<u>A-</u>	<u>B+</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>B-</u>	<u>C+</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>C-</u>	<u>D+</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>D-</u>	<u>F</u>
100	96	93	89	86	83	79	76	73	69	66	63	50-59
99	95	92	88	85	82	78	75	72	68	65	62	40-49
98	94	91	87	84	81	77	74	71	67	64	61	30-39
97		90			80			70			60	0-20

3. Please take a few minutes to write down your thoughts about your goals.

Appendix I: Control Goal Choice Survey and Feedback Form

Directions: Please rate the following statements based on your current progress in the course.

1. I can communicate and exchange information about familiar topics in Spanish using phrases and simple sentences, sometimes supported by memorized language.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Neither Agree nor Disagree Agree Strongly Agree

2. I can usually handle short social interactions in everyday situations by asking and answering simple questions in Spanish.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Neither Agree nor Disagree Agree Strongly Agree

3. I can present basic information on familiar topics in Spanish using language I have practiced using phrases and simple sentences.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Neither Agree nor Disagree Agree Strongly Agree

4. I can write short messages and notes on familiar topics in Spanish related to everyday life.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Neither Agree nor Disagree Agree Strongly Agree

5. I can often understand words, phrases, and simple sentences in Spanish related to everyday life.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Neither Agree nor Disagree Agree Strongly Agree

6. I can recognize pieces of information and sometimes understand the main topic of what is being said in Spanish.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Neither Agree nor Disagree Agree Strongly Agree

7. I can understand familiar words, phrases and sentences within short and simple texts in Spanish related to everyday life.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Neither Agree nor Disagree Agree Strongly Agree

8. I can sometimes understand the main idea of what I have read in Spanish.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Neither Agree nor Disagree Agree Strongly Agree

Appendix J: Feedback Form – Performance Approach

Dear _____,

Thank you for choosing to participate in this study.

Your performance on your Spanish Prueba is Above Average/Average/Below Average.

Your grade on the prueba was a _____%. The average prueba grade was a _____%.

That means you are currently _____% above average/average/below average.

Grade	Above Average	Average	Below Average
Number of Students			

Your performance in your Spanish course is Above Average/Average/Below Average.

Your grade goal at the beginning of the semester was a _____%. Your current grade in the course is a _____%. That means you are currently _____% above/below your grade goal.

The average grade in the class is _____%. That means you are currently _____% above average/average/below average.

Grade	Above Average	Average	Below Average
Number of Students			

Thank you,
Alyssia Miller

Appendix K: Feedback Form – Performance Avoid

Dear _____,

Thank you for choosing to participate in this study.

Your performance on your Spanish Prueba is Above Average/Average/Below Average.

Your grade on the prueba was a _____%. The average prueba grade was a _____%. That means you are currently _____% above average/average/below average.

Grade	Above Average	Average	Below Average
Number of Students			

Your performance in your Spanish course is Above Average/Average/Below Average.

Your grade goal at the beginning of the semester was to not receive a grade below a/an _____%. Your current grade in the course is a _____%. That means you are currently _____% above/below your grade goal.

The average grade in the class is _____%. That means you are currently _____% above average/average/below average.

Grade	Above Average	Average	Below Average
Number of Students			

Thank you,
Alyssia Miller

Appendix L: Feedback Form – Mastery

Dear _____,

Remember that your goal in the course is **STATE GOAL**.

Based on your performance on your Spanish Prueba, we can state that you are doing well in the following areas:

List areas

In order to **RESTATE GOAL**, you could improve in the following areas:

List areas

One way to work on these areas is **STATE WAYS TO IMPROVE**.

Every learner has strengths and weaknesses. On the next Prueba, you can continue progressing towards your goal if you consider these tips.

Based on your performance in your Spanish course, we can state that you are doing well at achieving your goal in the following areas:

List areas

In order to achieve your goal, you could improve in the following areas:

List areas

Every learner has strengths and weaknesses. You can achieve your goals if you keep up the hard work!

Thank you,
Alyssia Miller

Appendix M: Goal Commitment Survey

Directions: Choose the answer that best represents your opinion about the following statements.

1. It's hard to take this goal seriously.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Neither Agree nor Disagree Agree Strongly Agree

2. It's unrealistic for me to expect to reach this goal.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Neither Agree nor Disagree Agree Strongly Agree

3. It is quite likely that this goal may need to be revised depending on how things go.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Neither Agree nor Disagree Agree Strongly Agree

4. Quite frankly, I don't care if I achieve this goal or not.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Neither Agree nor Disagree Agree Strongly Agree

5. I am strongly committed to pursuing this goal.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Neither Agree nor Disagree Agree Strongly Agree

6. It wouldn't take much to make me abandon this goal.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Neither Agree nor Disagree Agree Strongly Agree

7. I think this is a good goal to shoot for.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Neither Agree nor Disagree Agree Strongly Agree

8. I am willing to put forth a great deal of effort beyond what I'd normally do to achieve this goal.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Neither Agree nor Disagree Agree Strongly Agree

Appendix N: Perceptions Survey

1. What is your name? _____

2. What did you think of setting a goal for your Spanish course? _____

3. How much did you about or pay attention to your goal?

- A great deal
- A lot
- A moderate amount
- A little
- None at all

4. Why did you choose that option? _____

5. Did you feel a connection between your goal and what you actually learned/did in the class?

- Definitely yes
- Probably yes
- Might or might not
- Probably not
- Definitely not

6. Why did you choose that option? _____

7. How much do you think the course focused on Hispanic cultural aspects?

- A great deal
- A lot
- A moderate amount
- A little
- None at all

8. Why did you choose that option? _____

9. How much do you think the course focused on linguistic aspects (vocabulary, grammar, etc.)?

- A great deal
- A lot
- A moderate amount
- A little
- None at all

10. Why did you choose that option? _____

11. How much of an effect do you think the goal setting process in general (setting a goal and receiving feedback about the goal) had on your performance in the class?

- A great deal
- A lot
- A moderate amount
- A little
- None at all

12. Why did you choose that option? _____

13. Did receiving feedback impact your dedication to achieve your goal?

- A great deal
- A lot
- A moderate amount
- A little
- None at all

14. Why did you choose that option? _____

15. How likely are you to continue setting goals for your courses?

- Extremely likely
- Likely
- Neither likely nor unlikely
- Unlikely
- Extremely unlikely

16. Do you feel like you achieved your goal? How? Why? _____

Appendix O: Weekly Instructor Survey

Please write a few sentences about your class instruction for the week. Consider the following:

- Did anything out of the ordinary happen? No
- Did you particularly emphasize grammar? No
- Did you especially highlight any cultural aspects? No
- Did you basically follow the activities outlined in the textbook? No

Appendix P: Additional Analyses on Writing

Means (out of 100) and standard deviations for the control, mastery, and performance groups appear in Table 27. The control group increased by less than one point between the first and last quiz, whereas the approach and avoidance groups increased by over four points. A two-way mixed-design ANOVA was run with time (writing score 1 and writing score 2) as the within-subjects variable and group (control, mastery, performance) as the between-subjects variable. Writing scores were the dependent variable. No significant interaction between group and time on writing scores was found, $F(1, 136) = 1.027, p = .313$, partial $\eta^2 = .015$. There was no significant main effect for group, $F(1, 136) = .445, p = .506$, partial $\eta^2 = .006$. There was a significant main effect for time, $F(1, 136) = 5.737, p = .018$, partial $\eta^2 = .040$. There was no statistically significant difference between writing score 1 and writing score 2 in the control group, $F(1, 45) = .206, p = .652$, partial $\eta^2 = .005$. There was a significant difference between writing score 1 and writing score 2 in the mastery group, $F(1, 69) = 6.357, p = .014$, partial $\eta^2 = .084$. There was not a significant difference between writing score 1 and writing score 2 in the performance group, $F(1, 21) = 1.699, p = .207$, partial $\eta^2 = .072$. This indicates that those in the mastery group had a significant change in writing scores from the first quiz to the last quiz whereas those in the control and performance groups did not have a significant different in scores from the first quiz to the last quiz.

Table 27. *Writing analysis between control, mastery, and performance*

<u>Group</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Writing Score 1</u> <i>(SD)</i>	<u>Writing Score 2</u> <i>(SD)</i>	<u>Mean Change</u> <i>(SD)</i>
Control	46	85.2 <i>(16.1)</i>	86.1 <i>(13.7)</i>	+0.83 <i>(12.4)</i>
Mastery	70	80.7 <i>(18.0)</i>	85.4 <i>(16.9)</i>	+4.71 <i>(15.6)</i>
Performance	23	80.3 <i>(25.6)</i>	84.7 <i>(16.6)</i>	+4.43 <i>(16.3)</i>

Means (out of 100) and standard deviations for the control, approach, and avoidance groups appear in Table 28. The control group increased by less than one point between the first and last quiz, whereas the experimental group increased by over four points. A two-way mixed-design ANOVA was run with time (writing score 1 and writing score 2) as the within-subjects variable and group (control, approach, avoidance) as the between-subjects variable. Writing scores were the dependent variable. No significant interaction between group and time on writing scores was found, $F(1, 136) = 1.039, p = .310, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .015$. There was no significant main effect for group, $F(1, 136) = 1.113, p = .293, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .016$. There was a significant main effect for time, $F(1, 136) = 6.151, p = .014, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .043$. There was no statistically significant difference between writing score 1 and writing score 2 in the control group, $F(1, 45) = .206, p = .652, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .005$. There was a significant difference between writing score 1 and writing score 2 in the mastery group, $F(1, 64) = 6.164, p = .016, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .088$. There was not a significant difference between writing score 1 and writing score 2 in the performance group, $F(1, 27) = 1.925, p = .177, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .067$. This indicates that those in the approach group had a significant change in writing scores from the first quiz to the last quiz whereas those in the control and avoidance groups did not have a significant different in scores from the first quiz to the last quiz.

Table 28. *Writing analysis between control, approach, and avoidance*

<u>Group</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Writing Score 1</u> <i>(SD)</i>	<u>Writing Score 2</u> <i>(SD)</i>	<u>Mean Change</u> <i>(SD)</i>
Control	46	85.2 <i>(16.1)</i>	86.1 <i>(13.7)</i>	+0.83 <i>(12.4)</i>
Approach	65	81.8 <i>(18.4)</i>	86.6 <i>(15.3)</i>	+4.81 <i>(15.6)</i>
Avoidance	28	77.8 <i>(23.7)</i>	82.1 <i>(23.0)</i>	+4.23 <i>(16.2)</i>

Means (out of 100) and standard deviations for the control, mastery approach, mastery avoidance, performance approach, and performance avoidance groups appear in Table 29. The control group increased by less than one point between the first and last quiz, whereas the performance avoidance group increased by over 6 points, and the mastery approach group increased by over four points. The mastery avoidance and performance approach groups increased by over two points and one point, respectively. A two-way mixed-design ANOVA was run with time (writing score 1 and writing score 2) as the within-subjects variable and group (control, mastery approach, mastery avoidance, performance approach, and performance avoidance) as the between-subjects variable. Writing scores were the dependent variable. No significant interaction between group and time on writing scores was found, $F(1, 134) = .817, p = .368, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .024$. There was no significant main effect for group, $F(1, 134) = .794, p = .374, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .023$. There was a significant main effect for time, $F(1, 134) = 4.432, p = .037, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .032$. There was no statistically significant difference between writing score 1 and writing score 2 in the control group, $F(1, 45) = .206, p = .652, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .005$. There was a significant difference between writing score 1 and writing score 2 in the mastery approach group, $F(1, 54) = 6.229, p = .016, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .103$. There was not a significant difference between writing score 1 and writing score 2 in the mastery avoidance group, $F(1, 14) = .350, p = .564,$

partial $\eta^2 = .024$. There was not a significant difference between writing score 1 and writing score 2 in the performance approach group, $F(1, 9) = .140, p = .717$, partial $\eta^2 = .015$. There was not a significant difference between writing score 1 and writing score 2 in the performance avoidance group, $F(1, 12) = 1.670, p = .221$, partial $\eta^2 = .122$. This indicates that those in the mastery approach group had a significant change in writing scores from the first quiz to the last quiz whereas those in the control, performance approach, and performance avoidance groups did not have a significant different in scores from the first quiz to the last quiz. Now, it is important to note the low numbers in the mastery avoidance, performance approach, and performance avoidance categories. With more participants, these results may differ.

Table 29. *Writing analysis between control and the subcategories*

<u>Group</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Writing Score 1</u> <i>(SD)</i>	<u>Writing Score 2</u> <i>(SD)</i>	<u>Mean Change</u> <i>(SD)</i>
Control	46	85.2 <i>(16.1)</i>	86.1 <i>(13.7)</i>	+0.83 <i>(12.4)</i>
Mastery Approach	55	80.8 <i>(17.9)</i>	86.2 <i>(15.8)</i>	+5.40 <i>(16.1)</i>
Mastery Avoidance	15	80.4 <i>(19.4)</i>	82.6 <i>(21.0)</i>	+2.16 <i>(14.1)</i>
Performance Approach	10	87.3 <i>(21.0)</i>	88.9 <i>(12.6)</i>	+1.57 <i>(13.3)</i>
Performance Avoidance	13	74.8 <i>(28.3)</i>	81.5 <i>(26.0)</i>	+6.63 <i>(18.5)</i>

Appendix Q: IRB Certification

ALABAMA

Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects

July 29, 2016

Alyssia Miller
Department of Modern Languages & Classics
College of Arts & Sciences
The University of Alabama
Box 870246

Re: IRB # 15-OR-275-R1 "Goal Setting in the Spanish L(2) Classroom"

Dear Ms. Miller:

The University of Alabama Institutional Review Board has granted approval for your renewal application.

Your renewal application has been given expedited approval according to 45 CFR part 46. You have also been granted the requested waiver of one element of informed consent. Approval has been given under expedited review category 7 as outlined below:

(7) Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies.

Your application will expire on July 28, 2017. If your research will continue beyond this date, complete the relevant portions of the IRB Renewal Application. If you wish to modify the application, complete the Modification of an Approved Protocol Form. Changes in this study cannot be initiated without IRB approval, except when necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to participants. When the study closes, complete the appropriate portions of the IRB Study Closure Form.

Should you need to submit any further correspondence regarding this proposal, please include the above application number.

Good luck with your research.

Sincerely,

Carpanito T. Myles, MSM, CIM, NIP
Director & Research Compliance Officer
Office of Research Compliance