

STUDENT ENGAGEMENT AND
COLLEGE STUDENTS' FUTURE ASPIRATIONS

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Abstract: A large majority of research concerning student engagement focuses on the improvement of students' academic progress and success and increased student retention (Finn, 1989; Reschly & Christenson, 2012). A limited, almost non-existent research base exists on the importance of the less observable subtypes of student engagement such as student-teacher relationships, peer support at school and family support for learning and students' future aspirations; however, the research that has been conducted indicates their importance in understanding how students engage in learning environments. In this study, college students in the Midwest completed a 49 item online, questionnaire related to their perceived levels of student engagement and their future aspirations. The first objective was to identify the role of student engagement in predicting college students' future intrinsic versus extrinsic aspirations. Consistent with the study's hypothesis for research question one, two of three independent variables positively predicted college students' future aspirations and explained 5.8% of the variance in future intrinsic versus extrinsic aspirations, as measured by a RIEVO score. The second objective of this study was to test whether student generational status moderated the effects of student engagement in college students' future aspirations. Previous literature has suggested that generational status may determine college student success. These research results suggest that regardless of student generational status, the importance of the teacher-student relationship and family support for learning remain necessary components for all learners at university. Implications for teacher effectiveness and future research are discussed.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Historically, the student engagement construct focused on improving students' academic progress and success, with an emphasis on student retention and course completion (Appleton, Christenson, & Furlong, 2008; Fredericks, Blumenfeld, & Paris, 2004; Finn, 1989, 1993; Furlong & Christenson, 2008; National Research Council, 2004; Reschly & Christenson, 2012; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). Limited research existed on the importance of the subtypes of student engagement including student- teacher relationships, peer support at school, and family support for learning and how these aspects of student engagement affected first generation and non-first generation college students. However, the present research indicated their importance in understanding how students engage in college learning environments.

From a motivational perspective, self-determination theory (SDT) supported student engagement (Connell & Wellborn, 1991; Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000; Reeve, 2002; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). Niemiec and Ryan (2009) defined self-determination theory as “a macro-theory of human motivation, emotion, and development that takes interest in factors that either facilitate or forestall the assimilative and growth-oriented processes in people” (p. 134). Self-determination theory posited three basic psychological needs underlie human behavior, including autonomy, competence and relatedness (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Students in an academic environment displayed

autonomy when they willingly spend time and exerted energy toward learning, thus promoting student engagement (Niemic & Ryan, 2009). Therefore, an exclusive focus on noticeable student behaviors, such as academic performance, can limit faculty member's understanding of the reasons for how students engage at the university (Appleton, Christenson, Kim, & Reschly 2006; Fredericks et al., 2004; Grier-Reed, Appleton, Rodriguez, Ganuza, & Reschly, 2012).

This study examined a potential relationship between the psychological subtypes of student engagement, family support for learning, teacher student relationship and peer support at school, and their connection with college students' future aspirations. Based on the findings from this research, university faculty members may consider the benefits of facilitating classroom environments supportive in positive social-emotional functioning. These environments may lead to measured increases in the observable components of college student engagement resulting in increased college student success in degree completion (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). As noted in Skinner and Pitzer's (2012) model of motivational dynamics, when the cognitive and psychological components of student engagement connected, students' ability to develop healthy social and academic behaviors increased.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Motivation can refer to how individuals set goals and work toward them as well as the force that drives them to attain those goals (Schunk, Meece, & Pintrich, 2012). Schunk and colleagues (2012) and Skinner and Pitzer (2012) agreed motivation included energy, direction and persistence and overall consisted of a process individuals experienced in goal attainment.

Goal Orientation Theory

Different motivation theories have explained behaviors. One theory, goal-orientation theory, focused on children's behaviors, specifically in school settings. A unique factor to goal-orientation theory included identification of the reasons learners engaged in tasks, and showed different patterns and beliefs in their goal attainment (Ames, 1992; Pintrich, 2003; Schunk et al., 2012). To expand motivation theory, Ames (1992) offered the concept of mastery goal orientation. Students learned due to personal interests in a topic and from a desire to improve performance, thus creating learner autonomy (Ames, 1992; Dweck & Leggett, 1988, Schunk et al., 2012). Students who focused more on demonstrating competence or ability leaned toward a performance goal orientation (Ames, 1992; Dweck & Leggett, 1988, Schunk et al., 2012). As a best practice, faculty can remember individuals operate from both goal orientations at

different times, dependent on the tasks. The function of the goal orientation can be representative of how individuals viewed their ability (Ames, 1992; Dweck & Leggett, 1988, Schunk et al., 2012).

Self-Determination Theory

Self-determination theory, a contemporary motivational theory, posited individuals have three basic needs, autonomy, competency and relatedness (Niemi & Ryan, 2009). When individuals experienced autonomy in tasks, they willing spend time and energy directed toward pursuing those tasks (Niemi & Ryan, 2009). Learners who experienced autonomy in classroom environments showed increased classroom engagement, learning, enjoyment, persistence and achievement (Deci & Ryan, 2002; Hardre & Reeve, 2003; Vasalampi, Salmela-Aro, & Nurmi, (2009). Experiencing autonomy in learning environments can facilitate the opportunity for intrinsic motivation (Connell & Wellborn, 1991; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Dweck, 1991).

The second component of self-determination theory included competency. When students felt competent in their learning environments and situations, they felt more capable to meet the challenges of the task (Niemi & Ryan, 2009). How students perceived their competence, influenced their self-efficacy, ability, academic prowess and control, all of which can predict student engagement (Dweck, 1999; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012; Wigfield, Eccles, Schiefele, Roeser, & Davis-Kean, 2006).

The relatedness need defined the third component in self-determination theory. Relatedness consisted of the need to belong and to feel connected to other people. The relatedness need may underlie the processes of attachment (Ainsworth, 1979; Bowlby, 1969/1973; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). Additionally, relatedness can facilitate student

engagement in higher education learning environments.

Effective Teaching

Effective teaching stems from the research of Carol Ames (1992). Ames (1992) posited the structure of learning environments could affect learners' outcomes. Effective teaching practices for higher education included teaching related behaviors, subject matter expertise, relational expertise and personality (Calaguas, 2012). Teaching related behaviors included faculty members who believed in the potential of students. Faculty members who showed passion for teaching, who gave importance to discipline in the class and who attempted to know the concerns of misbehaving students exhibited effective teaching related behaviors (Calaguas, 2012). The second area of teacher effectiveness included subject matter expertise. Higher education faculty members who arrived prepared for class, who showed subject matter mastery and who possessed the ability to teach many academic subjects displayed their prowess in this area (Calaguas, 2012). The third category consisted of relational expertise. Examples included faculty members who showed kindness and respect for others. Faculty who thought thoroughly of decisions before making them and who accepted students displayed high levels of relational expertise. Faculty members who showed charisma, grace under pressure and consistency in how they treated students displayed the final dimension of teacher effectiveness for higher education faculty, personality (Calaguas, 2012). Additional factors contributing to effective teacher practices included faculty members who exhibited socially and emotionally competent relational practices.

Socially and emotionally competent faculty members recognized their emotions and their emotional patterns, while possessing high self-awareness. They also displayed

joy and enthusiasm for teaching and learning (Goddard, Hoy, & Hoy, 2004; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). The benefit of socially and emotionally competent faculty members can include an ability to develop strong and supportive relationships with students (Hargreaves, 1998; Jennings & Greenburn, 2009).

Student Engagement

Appleton and colleagues' (2006) defined student engagement as: (a) academic, (b) behavioral, (c) cognitive and (d) affective. The components of student engagement used in this review include affective and cognitive as academic and behavioral data is readily recorded by most schools' and colleges' data record systems (Check & Connect Student Engagement Intervention Model, n.d.). The three affective subcomponents of student engagement measured in the Student Engagement Instrument with college students included peer support at school, teacher-student relationships and family support for learning (Appleton et al., 2008).

Peer Support at School

Wentzel (1998) argued and Skinner and Pitzer (2012) agreed, peers played a critical role in affecting student motivation and student engagement. The positive impact of peer relationships in school could positively affect students' academic development, school motivation and achievement (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). Grier-Reed and colleagues (2012) found in their assessment of the SEI with college students that peer support at school corresponded with GPA. This finding connected with other research supporting the importance of peers in higher education settings. The research of Dennis, Phinney, and Chuateco (2005) and Kim (2009) posited the importance of peer support in college adjustment, academic adjustment and persistence as students begin college. Peer support

could benefit first-generation, minority and immigrant college students.

Teacher Student Relationships

How students engaged in learning processes could depend upon the relationships developed with teachers, parents and peers. In the research of Grier-Reed and colleagues (2012), the outcome of the teacher-student relationship scale predicted students' commitment anxiety and external conflict. Commitment anxiety indicated students' inability to commit to a specific career choice (Sampson, Peterson, Lenz, Reardon, & Saunders, 1999). External conflict resulted when students felt alone or blocked by others (Grier et. al., 2012). These findings supported the importance of developing emotionally supportive teacher-student relationships in education to support student engagement.

Relationships rich in emotional support exhibited faculty encouragement, acceptance, respect and trust of students. Faculty members who developed supportive relationships with students demonstrated care for the students' emotional well-being and communicated confidence in the students' ability to complete academic studies (Strati, Schmidt, & Maier, 2016).

Family Support for Learning

Students who entered college having experienced a loving, nurturing family support system showed a greater sense of self efficacy, student motivation and student engagement (Gonzalez-De Has, Willems, & Holbein 2005; Lyubomirsky, King, & Diener 2005). College students' self-esteem connected with positive family support as well as with academic success (Gonzalez-De Has et al., 2005). Alnabhan, Al-Zegoul, and Harwell (2001) also indicated that minimal family support may affect GPA scores at the university level.

As a result of increased stress levels in college students' lives, they needed a support system to navigate the college experience (Cutrona 2000; Dyson & Renk, 2006; Pinkerton & Dolan 2007). When college students possessed supportive family to turn to, family responses could be helpful and as a result "facilitate the student's coping and positive adjustment" (Cheng, Ickes, & Verhofstadt, 2012, p. 401; Stecker 2004). Family support may connect to college students' confidence in their ability to manage challenging academic tasks (Klink, Byars-Winston, & Bakken 2008). Students who experienced a strong family support system permitting active participation and exploration and experimentation in a wide range of life experiences tended to develop coping strategies, life management skills and self-confidence (Cutrona et al., 1994).

Aspirations

Simply explained, aspirations mirrored an individual's life goals (Kasser, n.d.). Aspirations, from a perspective of self-determination theory, can be divided into two categories, intrinsic and extrinsic (Kasser & Ryan, 1993). Intrinsic aspirations included the components of meaningful relationships, personal growth and community contributions while extrinsic aspirations included valuing wealth, fame and image (Kasser, n.d.) The value individuals placed on aspirations could influence their choices about the future.

Research indicated academic persistence and college students' future goals and aspirations shared a connection between student engagement and college students' self-efficacy in career decision-making (Finn & Owings, 2006; Grier-Reed, et al., 2012). Bandura's (1997) theory of self-efficacy may act as a pivotal framework for college students' beliefs in their ability to make career-related decisions. College students'

career decision self-efficacy and student engagement can show desired “behavioral and academic outcomes in educational settings” (Grier-Reed, et al., 2012, p.87).

Purpose of the Study

The psychological aspects of student engagement included teacher-student relationships, peer support at school and family support for learning. These aspects and the construct of students’ future intrinsic versus extrinsic aspirations warranted additional examination with first generation and non-first generation college students. Skinner and Pitzer’s (2012) model of motivational dynamics connected the cognitive and psychological components of student engagement with students’ ability to develop healthy social and academic behaviors. The intent of this research study was to examine a potential relationship between the psychological subtypes of student engagement and their connection with college students’ future aspirations. The research questions were:

Question 1: How well does peer support at school, family support for learning, and teacher-student relationships predict college students' relative intrinsic versus extrinsic aspirations?

H0: A statistically significant relationship exists between peer support at school, family support for learning and teacher-student relationships and college students’ intrinsic versus extrinsic aspirations.

HA: No relationship exists between peer support at school, family support for learning and teacher-student relationships and college students’ relative intrinsic versus extrinsic aspirations.

Question 2: How well does student generational status moderate the relationship between peer support at school, family support for learning, and teacher-student

relationships and first generation and non-first generation relative intrinsic versus extrinsic aspirations?

H0: Student generational status moderates the relationship between peer support at school, family support for learning and teacher-student relationships and college students' intrinsic versus extrinsic aspirations.

HA: Generational status does not moderate the relationship between peer support at school, family support for learning and teacher-student relationships and college students' relative intrinsic versus extrinsic aspirations.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The research examined the relationship between student engagement and college students' future internal versus external aspirations. This chapter provides methodology used to conduct the study. The organization of the chapter includes the instruments, the participants and the procedures involved in this study.

Instruments

The researcher administered a 49-item questionnaire online through a Qualtrics account. Qualtrics, an online survey instrument, recorded survey responses and computed statistical results (Appendix F). The survey included items related to the participants' perceived levels of student engagement and aspiration levels for their futures, measuring intrinsic and extrinsic aspirations. The survey also included a brief demographic questionnaire. Terminology adaptations for the Student Engagement Instrument replaced some original terms to adjust the language for higher education based on the recommendations of Grier-Reed et al., (2012). Appendix C contains a list of the terms and their definitions used in conjunction with the survey instruments.

Student Engagement Instrument

The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between the psychological aspects of student engagement and college students' intrinsic versus extrinsic aspirations. The instrument selected to test student engagement was the Student

Engagement Instrument (SEI). The SEI, created by Appleton and colleagues (2006), was developed by reviewing the literature of relevant databases (Appleton et al., 2006). Originally, researchers piloted the SEI with 31 ethnically diverse randomly selected eighth grade students (Appleton et al., 2006). The next tests of the SEI included validity and reliability with 1,931 ninth grades from a diverse urban school in the Midwest, wherein exploratory factor analysis (EFAs) identified factor structures (Appleton et al., 2006). Overall results indicated the “best empirical fit” of six factors, which correlated with “expected educational outcomes” (Appleton, et al., 2006, p. 427). In this model, the results displayed an adequate fit or best empirical fit with six factors: Teacher–Student Relationships, Control and Relevance of Schoolwork, Peer Support for Learning, Future Aspirations and Goals, Family Support for Learning and Extrinsic Motivation (Appleton, et al., 2006). Appleton and colleagues (2006) presented reliability findings for each factor and their label:

Factor 1 (Teacher–Student Relationships, $r_a = .88$)

Factor 2 (Control and Relevance of School Work, $r_a = .80$)

Factor 3 (Peer Support for Learning, $r_a = .82$)

Factor 4 (Future Aspirations and Goals, $r_a = .78$)

Factor 5 (Family Support for Learning, $r_a = .76$)

Factor 6 (Extrinsic Motivation, $r_a = .72$). (p. 438)

Continued examination of the instrument indicated the terminology, Peer Support at School, (PPS) more accurately described the initial factor label of Peer Support for Learning (PSL) (Grier-Reed et al., 2012).

In another sample, the participant base increased from one grade, ninth, to 6 – 12

and the number of participants increased to 2,146 (Betts, Appleton, Reschly, Christenson, & Huebner, 2010). Internal consistency reliability estimates across five factors in the normative high school sample ranged from .76 to .88 (Appleton et al., 2006). The results of this research supported previous findings of the SEI and successfully extended the results of the initial study of the SEI as an appropriate fit for measuring student engagement across middle school and high school (Betts, et al., 2010). The subscales of the SEI correlated with student academic performance and student behaviors, as was hypothesized (Grier-Reed et al., 2012).

Researchers Grier-Reed and colleagues (2012) examined the reliability and validity of a modified SEI with 122 students in higher education. In support of validating the SEI with college students, Betts and colleagues (2010) stated the SEI used in this pilot with 122 college students included a total of 33 items measuring the cognitive and affective engagement of students in school with the tested reliability of the following five factors:

Teacher-Student Relationships (TSR – 9 items)

Control and Relevance of School Work (CRSW – 9 items)

Peer Support at School (PSS – 6 items)

Future Aspirations and Goals (FG – 5 items)

Family Support for Learning (FSL – 4 items)

Grier-Reed and colleagues' (2012) modified the original wording of the SEI with college students. Changes included “the phrase ‘school’ or ‘high school’ was replaced with the words ‘college/university’, and ‘adults’ and ‘teachers’ were replaced by ‘faculty and staff’ or ‘professors’ across 13 items” (p. 88).

This pilot study tested the instruments' relationship with students' career perceptions, using the Career Decision Self-Efficacy Scale-Short Form (CDSE-SF). The CDSE-SF, a validated and authentic measurement for use with college students to assess college student's self-assurance to engage in career choice and educational outcomes (Grier-Reed et al., 2012). The CDSE-SF's validity arrived from a sample of 1,832 college students with CDSE-FE subscales ranging from .78-.87. Total scale estimates ranged from .94 - .94 (Grier-Reed et al., 2012).

The second measurement used in conjunction with the SCSE-SF to validate the SEI with college students included the Career Thoughts Inventory (CTI). The CTI measured dysfunctional thoughts that can interfere with students' effective career decision-making and problem-solving (Grier-Reed et al., 2012). The reliability of the CTI derived from a normative college sample of 595 diverse students (Grier-Reed et al., 2012). The test-retest reliability for the CTI total score reported as .86 across a 4-week interval (Grier-Reed et al., 2012).

Zero-order correlations were to obtain an initial perspective of relationships between the SEI and career perception variables, with alpha coefficients "calculated to estimate internal consistency reliability for the SEI" (Grier-Reed et al., 2012). The researchers used confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to provide valid "construct-related evidence regarding the factor structure of a measure" (Grier-Reed et al., (2012). Using MANOVA, Grier-Reed and colleagues (2012) checked for mean differences on the five SEI subscales. Differences checked included gender or race/ethnicity. Grier-Reed and colleagues (2012) used Pillai's Trace with the multivariate tests results indicating no significant main effect for "gender $F(5, 111) = 1.96, p = .09, \eta^2 = .08$, or race/ethnicity

$F(5, 111) = 1.47, p = .20, \eta^2 = .06$, or their interaction $F(5, 111) = 1.32, p = .26, \eta^2 = .06$.” (p. 89). Using zero-order correlations, Grier-Reed and colleagues (2012) computed five subscales of the adapted SEI, CDSE-SF and three subscales of the CTI. The within-SEI correlations (.23 to .58) showed to be stronger than those between the SEI and other measures (.08 to .38) (Grier-Reed et al., 2012, p. 89).

The findings of Grier-Reed and colleagues (2012) indicated “SEI subscales produced positive Pearson r values with every other SEI subscale” (p. 89). Additionally, Grier-Reed and colleagues (2012) found Pearson r values of the SEI and the CDSE-SF in the negative direction and Pearson r values of the SEI with the CTI in a positive direction. The findings show an internal consistency reliability for the five SEI subscales (TSR $\alpha = .85$, CRSW $\alpha = .78$, PSS $\alpha = .82$, FG $\alpha = .79$, and FSL $\alpha = .79$) and for the SEI total scale score ($\alpha = .91$) (Grier-Reed et al., 2012).

The 5-factor CFA model was found to not be in the acceptable-fit range with the CFI = .893 and the RMSEA = .117, indicating the CRSW of the SEI has “uniformly lower factor loadings” (p. 89). An analysis of these results indicated a four factor model, based on the exclusion of the CRSW have statistics in the acceptable fit range with CFI = .944 and RMSEA = .094 (Grier-Reed et al., 2012). Limitations of these findings could be a result of the small sample size or that CRSW were less meaningful, overall, to college students (Grier-Reed et al., 2012).

The results indicated the SEI’s validity and reliability in higher education was based on four structures tested with 33 items, resulting in 24 valid items (Grier-Reed et al., 2012). The results indicated good reliability and validity, thus supporting a good fit between the 4-factor structure of teacher-student relationships, peer support at school,

future aspirations and goals, and family support for learning (Grier-Reed et al., 2012).

Aspirations Index

Participants completed the Aspirations Index (AI), a survey instrument that examined students' future aspirations. Kasser and Ryan (1993) tested the validity and reliability with three studies. The findings of all three studies showed a relationship between the participants' aspirations and their psychological well-being. In study 1, positive intercorrelations between financial success and affiliation were ($r = .21, p < .05$) while negative intercorrelations between financial success and community feeling were ($r = -.22, p < .05$) (Kasser & Ryan, 1993). In study 2, the results indicated when the participants practiced self-acceptance they increased self-actualization due to a decrease in anxiety and depression (Kasser & Ryan, 1993). Study 3 results indicated that when the opportunities for self-acceptance rose above those opportunities for financial success, individuals exhibited increased global functioning and limited behavior disorders (Kasser & Ryan, 1993).

Scoring the Aspirations Index

To score the Aspirations Index, a RIEVO score was calculated. A RIEVO score, or a *relative intrinsic versus extrinsic value orientation* score was computed by subtracting total extrinsic value scores from total intrinsic value scores (T. Kasser, personal communication, April 29, 2016). To compute the RIEVO score, participants' responses to the AI were categorized to assess intrinsic aspirations ("self-acceptance," "affiliation," "community feeling," and "health") and extrinsic aspirations ("image," "financial success," and "popularity") (T. Kasser, personal communication, April 29, 2016). Individuals with an intrinsic value orientation placed more importance on self-

acceptance, community feeling, affiliation and health, thus having higher, positive scores on RIEVO. Individuals showing a more extrinsic value orientation indicated a greater importance toward personal financial success, image and popularity and can have lower to negative scores on RIEVO. Scores hovering near zero, no specific numbers have been used to quantify, indicated intrinsic and extrinsic values were equal (T. Kasser, personal communication, Sept. 13, 2016).

Based on a personal communication with the creator of the AI, Dr. Tim Kasser, the researcher learned that items on the AI were rated from “not at all important” to “extremely important.” At Dr. Kasser's instruction via email and phone conversations, the computations included computing a raw subscale score for all seven variables and computing mean centered scores from the raw subscale scores (T. Kasser, personal communication, April 29, 2016). To achieve a RIEVO score, mean centered scores were added together for all intrinsic items and all extrinsic items (T. Kasser, personal communication, April 29, 2016). The final step included subtracting the total mean centered score for the extrinsic items from the mean centered score of the intrinsic items for each participant to attain a difference score and to provide a measure of RIEVO.

Participants

The SEI and the AI total responses (N=1249) resulted in 86% of valid responses of those who completed the survey instruments (N = 1081). The sample was comprised of 77% female (N = 837) and 22% male (N = 235) with .8 (N = 9) preferring not to answer. Participant ethnicities were 8.3% African-American (N = 90), 6% Asian/Pacific Islander (N = 65), 6.3% Hispanic (N = 68), 8.2% Native American (N = 89), 65.5% White (N = 708), 3.3% non-listed (N = 36), and 2.3% preferred not to respond (N = 25).

The participants identified whether they were first generation or non-first generation college students. 42.3% (N = 457) were first generation and 57.5% (N = 624) were non-first generation college students. Of the students participating, 26.8% (N = 290) were ages 18 - 19, 31% (N = 335) were 20 - 21, 19.4% (N = 210) were ages 22-24, and 22.6% (N = 244) were 25 and above. See Table 1, Demographic data about research participants.

Demographic Questionnaire

This questionnaire asked participants to provide their demographic information. Information determined to pertain to this research included gender, generational student status, race/ethnicity, college/university attending, class status, degree they were seeking and age. Participants needed to be 18 years old to participate and could refrain from answering questions based on their personal preferences.

Procedures

The researcher used a quasi-experimental research design wherein a sample of subjects participated from several comprehensive colleges and universities and a community college within about a 150-mile radius in a south-central state (Appendix G). In this type of research, there is no control group and no random assignment (Glatthorn & Joyner, 2005). The researcher contacted each university by telephone or email to determine the information each university required for research participation. The Institutional Review Board (IRB) Director of Compliance for each university received a copy of these suggested items: an approved IRB application, approval letter, protocol, consent form and survey instrument (see Appendix D for Request for Agency Participation). Participants received an electronic invitation to complete the Student

Engagement Instrument (SEI) and the Aspirations Index (AI) (see Appendix E for the Protocol Script). The survey invitations arrived by the mid-point of the spring semester, allowing time for students to have formed relationships with professors and peers in the classroom setting. Once participants began the survey, they had the opportunity to review the informed consent statement and to continue only if they were 18 years of age or older. The researcher offered an incentive in the form of a \$50 Amazon gift card. Participants could choose to enter their name in a raffle for a chance to win the card. Upon receiving the results from the participants, statistical analysis of the interaction effects between the psychological sub-types of student engagement and the components of college students' future aspirations was determined using hierarchical multiple regression analysis, using SPSS version 22.0.

Data Analysis

Initially, a sample size of 103 was determined to be adequate for seven predictors. Using G-Power analysis an effect size of .15, with α err prob. at .05 and power at .80 with seven predictors indicated a sample size of 103 with $F = 2.107(7, 95)$ (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Prior to conducting a hierarchical multiple regression analysis, the relevant assumptions were tested. An analysis of standard residuals was carried out, which showed that the data contained no outliers (Std. Residual Min = -3.217, Std. Residual Max = 2.938). Tests to see if the data met the assumptions of collinearity indicated that multicollinearity was not a concern (TotfamC, tolerance = .840, VIF = 1.190; TotTsrC, tolerance = .668, VIF = 1.497; TotPslC, tolerance = .651, VIF = 1.535). The histogram of standardized residuals (Figure 1), indicated that the data contained a normal distribution as was also seen in, the normal P-P plot (Figure

2) of standardized residuals and the scatterplot (Figure 3).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The following research questions and hypotheses framed the research for this study. An analysis of the results follows the questions and explains the results. Included for additional explanation is Table 3, Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting College Students' future aspirations from Student Engagement and Table 2, Means and Standard Deviations of the Predictors and RIEVO. Table 4, College Students and Future Aspirations Correlations Table, provides further information of coefficient alpha and the difference score used to predict RIEVO.

Research Questions

Question 1: How well does peer support at school, family support for learning, and teacher-student relationships predict college students' relative intrinsic versus extrinsic aspirations?

H0: A statistically significant relationship exists between peer support at school, family support for learning, and teacher-student relationships and college students' intrinsic versus extrinsic aspirations.

HA: No relationship exists between peer support at school, family support for learning, and teacher-student relationships and college students' relative intrinsic versus extrinsic aspirations.

Question 2: How well does student generational status moderate the relationship between peer support at school, family support for learning, and teacher-student relationships and first generation and non-first generation relative intrinsic versus extrinsic aspirations?

H0: Student generational status moderates the relationship between peer support at school, family support for learning, and teacher-student relationships and college students' intrinsic versus extrinsic aspirations.

HA: Generational status does not moderate the relationship between peer support at school, family support for learning, and teacher-student relationships and college students' relative intrinsic versus extrinsic aspirations.

Analysis

To test the hypothesis of whether first generation student status and non-first generation student status moderated the relationship between the independent variables of family support for learning (TotfamC), peer support at school (TotPslC) and teacher-student relationship (TotTsrC), and the dependent variables, college students' future intrinsic vs extrinsic aspirations (RIEVO), a hierarchical multiple regression was performed. The independent variables, family support for learning (TotfamC), teacher-student relationship (TotTsrC) and peer support at school (TotPslC) were entered first. Secondly, student generational status (Gen) was entered. This refers to whether students were first generation or non-first generation college attendees. Thirdly, the interaction terms, GxFS, (generation status x family support for learning) GxPS, (generational status

x peer support at school) and GxTS (generational status x teacher-student relationship) were entered.

In step one of the hierarchical regression, the findings showed a statistically significant relationship existed between family support for learning and teacher-student relationships and college students' intrinsic versus extrinsic aspirations" ($R^2 = .058$, $F(3, 1077) = 22.056$, $p < .001$). For research question two, "Student generational status moderates the relationship between peer support at school, family support for learning, and teacher-student relationships and college students' intrinsic vs. extrinsic aspirations", the regression analysis findings showed a lack of statistically significant results, thus the decision was to fail to reject the null hypothesis ($R^2 = .060$, adjusted $R^2 = .056$, change in $R^2 = .002$, $F(1, 1076) = 2.250$, $p = .134$).

The findings in the first step of the hierarchical regression analysis indicated statistically significant results for two predictors, family support for learning (TotfamC) ($p < .05$) and teacher-student relationship (TotTsrC) ($p < .001$), thus explaining 5.8% of variance. The independent variables family support for learning (TotfamC) and teacher-student relationship (TotTsrC) significantly predicted college students' future intrinsic versus extrinsic aspirations for the whole group of participants $F(3, 1077) = .058$. The results are presented in Appendix K. The independent variable peer support at school (TotPslC) was found to not significantly predict college students' future intrinsic versus extrinsic aspirations ($p = .500$). The results of the inclusion of the moderator, student generation status, provided no main effect, showing no statistically significant results for either first generation or non-first generation students separately being influenced by the independent variables family support for learning, peer support at school and student-

teacher relationship ($F(1, 1076) = 2.250$, change in $R^2 = .002$, $p = .134$). The third step of including the interaction terms showed no statistically significant results ($F(3, 1073) = 1.468$, change in $R^2 = .004$, $p = .222$).

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

While the results of generational status as a moderator lacking significance are surprising, the results indicating the significance of the teacher-student relationship and family support for learning are not. The independent variables teacher-student relationship and family support for learning and their prediction of college students' future intrinsic versus extrinsic aspirations is strong enough to promote renewed awareness of pro-social classrooms and the benefits of emotionally healthy interactions between faculty members and students.

Teacher- Student Relationship

The research results offer the independent variables, teacher-student relationship and family support for learning, support the concept that relationships matter with college students and their intrinsic versus extrinsic future aspirations. Relationships developed with faculty, formed and developed in learning environments supportive of academic challenge, yet rich in structure promoting student acceptance and freedom to learn can provide the foundation for increased student motivation. The contemporary motivational theory, self-determination theory, provides evidence that when an individual's needs are met in the areas of relatedness, competency and autonomy, they engage in learning and when these needs are unmet, they can withdraw or seek escape from the environment. When university faculty members facilitate classrooms meeting the needs identified in

self-determination theory, student motivation can increase and as a result, students' future aspirations can become more intrinsically focused versus extrinsically focused. Faculty members who share interests with students, show compassion and exhibit concern and empathy create safe learning environments welcoming to students, thus fostering student engagement and motivation.

The results of this study indicate the importance of the teacher-student relationship to motivation as the results predicted college students' future intrinsic versus extrinsic aspirations. Students' motivation can stem from the relationship dynamics formed in the classroom. From a motivational theory perspective, faculty members can promote or hinder student motivation. Experiences with faculty members, as shown in self-determination theory, specifically the relatedness component, can indicate how connected students feel in the classroom setting and to the university. The relatedness of teachers with students to be accepting of differences and of struggles can allow students to accept the struggles in learning and in the process, either develop a mastery goal orientation or a performance goal orientation. If faculty members lead classrooms with a focus on performance, judgment and rigidity and exclusionary practices, students can break under the stress, become anxious and develop a performance goal orientation focused on performance outcomes. If faculty members create an environment rich in acceptance, valuing differences, showing support for students, and even reaching out to mentor students, students can thrive and develop healthy associations with the university experience, thus finding value in their effort. The overall result, from a motivational perspective, can be faculty members who help students grow personally and professionally. Such a result has the potential to influence students' futures in positive

ways and to facilitate a mastery goal orientation. As seen from the literature review and in the review of the research instruments, individuals who persevere in the face of challenges develop inner strength and resolve, thus allowing those individuals to develop effective problem solving skills. Additionally, those individuals who operate from a mindset that allows them to see beyond their challenges and to value their effort as they learn and progress tend to develop intrinsic aspirations versus extrinsic ones. Helping students see the value in self-acceptance and community feeling and health over image, financial success and popularity can help create a society rich in emotional health. The research results of the predictor teacher-student relationship with college students' future intrinsic versus extrinsic aspirations can remind university faculty of the benefit of creating and orchestrating classroom environments where students know they are valued by the professor. Classrooms where faculty members fulfill the components of teacher effectiveness IE: showing a passion for teaching, subject matter expertise, relational expertise and personality (Calaguas, 2013) while promoting positive faculty - student interactions, can facilitate student motivation that influences students to become more intrinsically motivated.

Family Support for Learning

The importance of the results of family support for learning predicting college students' future intrinsic versus extrinsic aspirations shows how the importance of the role of family remains important as students transition to higher education. Family support for learning is important from a motivational perspective. The manner in which a family frames students' attitudes toward learning and toward higher education can determine how students approach their learning environments. Students can struggle

when faced with challenges in learning how to operate in a college setting. Examples included deciphering new procedures for enrollment, course attendance and managing study time and assignments' due dates. Students who have family support for learning can display increased motivation to persevere in the face of challenges and the unknown. Having a strong support system, can create a safe haven when one feels lost, and the family has the opportunity to fulfill this role for students in higher education if they support them in their learning goals. A lack of family support for learning can leave students feeling lost in the system, particularly if there is a lack of a positive student-teacher relationship. A lack of both of these relationships, family and teacher support can be the reasons some students fail to succeed in college.

Student Generational Status

As a researcher, I expected that generational status would influence college student success and thus correlate with college students' future aspirations. Students, whether they are first generation college attendees or non-first generation college attendees all need a strong support system to manage the workings of the college system. For first generation students, the teacher-student relationship would seem to be more critical in navigating the academic process; however, it is still the family support for learning that can facilitate the students' willingness to seek help. Examples include using resources available at higher education facilities such as researching in the library or in navigating financial aid. For non-first generation students, family support for learning can be present in helping the students know where to go to receive assistance for tutoring, enrollment guidance, or financial aid, thus continuing to facilitate the role of the teacher-student relationship in higher education. These research results indicate family support

for learning combined with the teacher-student relationship, predict college students' future intrinsic versus extrinsic aspirations and have the potential to increase student motivation.

The results of this study indicate the teacher-student relationship and family support for learning matter for all students, and they matter when considering their impact and ability to predict college students' future intrinsic versus extrinsic aspirations. The relevance of the research lies in how faculty choose to motivate their students in their learning environments and in how families value or support a degree in higher education. How faculty and families support learning in college students can result in learners who are more intrinsically versus extrinsically motivated.

Limitations

The significant results for research question one indicated two of the three variables predicted college students' future aspirations. The teacher – student relationship and family support for learning showed significance, where peer support at school did not. The unexpected finding of peer support at school lacking significance, offers an opportunity for further research into the role peers play in an academic setting at the university level. This finding also can also present a limitation of the results because it lacks support in the literature (Appleton et al., 2006, 2008). An additional limitation results from the amount of variance explained by the variables teacher – student relationship and family support for learning. The small amount of variance, only 5.8%, explained by the sub-types of student engagement, the teacher-student relationship and family support for learning, in predicting college students' future intrinsic versus extrinsic aspirations, creates an opportunity for other possibilities to be considered other

than student engagement in predicting college students' future aspirations.

Based on the literature review, I expected generational status to function as a moderator in predicting college students' future aspirations. With generational status not moderating the results, a limitation exists concerning the outcome. The expected outcome was first generation college students would show a greater need for a strong teacher-student relationship, family support for learning, and even peer support at school. A review of the literature indicated that first generation college students live off campus, work more hours and mistrust faculty members, thus resulting in a potential limitation of the college students' connection and involvement with the university (Carnevale & Fry, 2000). With generational status lacking significance as a moderator, the limitation of the results can be a reminder of the need for strong relationships for students from all generations.

Future Directions and Conclusion

In this study, I hypothesized that the independent variables would predict outcomes based on generational status. The results indicate that all students benefit and need family support for learning as well as the positive influence of the teacher-student relationship. This need is not moderated by generational status, as was potentially indicated it would be in the literature.

Prior to this study, research indicated that faculty members and universities should focus more effort on meeting the academic and social needs of first generation college students by focusing on prosocial classroom environments, effective teaching strategies and a positive teacher-student relationship (Tinto, 2006 – 2007; Upcraft & Gardner, 1989). My research indicates all students benefit from prosocial classrooms

taught by socially and emotionally competent faculty.

Considering the importance of the teacher-student relationship at the university level, and the need for family support for learning, this study highlights the need for educators to be present in the classroom, academically and relationally (Hargreaves, 1998; Wentzel, 2002; Goddard et al., 2004; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). Faculty members have the potential to create learning environments to help mediate the needs of all learners, regardless of their generational status. By exhibiting characteristics of effective teaching and by promoting classroom environments facilitating a mastery goal orientation over a performance goal orientation, faculty can create these environments focused on acknowledging student effort in classrooms managed by effective teaching practices defined by research.

One opportunity for future research in the area of student engagement and college students' future aspirations can be the way college housing and housing locations for all students impact college students' motivation as well as student engagement. While the predictor peer support at school was found to be not significant in this study, future researchers could examine how peers take on the role of family members. Genetic researchers from universities on the east and west coasts have indicated in their research that their participants choose friends with similar genetic makeup of fourth cousins, thus supporting the concept that friends are family we choose (Christakis & Fowler, 2014). Future research with peer support at school as a predictor is worth examining with the caveats added in to consider the peers students live with as family members. The potential for the future research to add to the literature is how the results can begin to frame how universities assign housing and how universities organize housing

communities.

Other areas for research include examining further, how effective teaching practices are implemented and implemented consistently in the university classroom. Future researchers could focus on university professors and instructors whose primary teaching focus is with incoming freshman (Upcraft & Gardner, 1989; Terenzini, Rendon, Upcraft, Millar, Allison, Gregg, & Jalomo, 1994). Examining the course completion rates of freshman with faculty who utilize effective teaching practices cited in this research at the freshman year can add to the literature by offering additional support for effective teaching practices in the critical year for student retention. With the potential for pro-social classroom and effective teaching practices to be exhibited by university faculty to impact college students' future intrinsic versus extrinsic aspirations, more research is needed to determine how this need with students of all generational status and all levels of classification are being met.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Tables and Figures

Table 1
Demographic data about research participants (n = 1081)

	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
Male	235	21.7
Female	837	77.4
Prefer not to Respond	9	.8
Race/Ethnicity		
African American/Black	90	8.3
Asian/Pacific Islander	65	6.0
Hispanic/Latino	68	6.3
Native American/American Indian	89	8.2
White/Caucasian	708	65.5
Not listed/please specify	36	3.3
Prefer not to respond	25	2.3
Student Status		
Non-first generation student	624	57.7
First generation student	457	42.3
Age		
Under 18	2	.2
18-19	290	26.8
20-21	335	31.0
22-24	210	19.4
25 and above	244	22.6
First Generation College Student	624	57.7

Table 2**Means and Standard Deviations of Predictors and RIEVO**

Predictors x First Generation Status (standard deviation in parenthesis) n = 1081

	Yes	No	Overall
Family Support for Learning (.571)	3.36 (.627)	3.55 (.512)	3.47
Teacher Student Relationship (.412)	3.17 (.420)	3.18 (.416)	3.17
Peer Support at School (.465)	3.05 (.461)	3.13 (.465)	3.10

Aspirations x First Generation Status (standard deviation in parenthesis)

<u>Intrinsic</u>	Yes	No	Overall
Self-Actualization	37.05 (3.53)	36.58 (3.86)	36.77 (3.73)
Affiliation	29.98 (3.53)	30.11 (3.84)	30.06 (3.71)
Community Feeling	18.54 (2.21)	18.10 (2.48)	18.29 (2.38)
Health	22.66 (3.23)	22.41 (3.37)	22.52 (3.31)
<u>Extrinsic</u>			
Money	19.24 (4.13)	19.17 (4.37)	19.20 (4.27)
Image	20.03 (5.39)	19.85 (5.79)	19.93 (5.62)
Popularity	13.28 (3.40)	13.27 (3.36)	13.27 (3.38)
RIEVO	55.65 (12.01)	54.91 (12.95)	55.23 (12.56)

Table 3**Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting College Students' future aspirations from Student Engagement**

Predictor	RIEVO	
	ΔR^2	β
Step 1	.058 ^t	
Peer Support at School (C)		.025
Family Support for Learning (C)		.077
Teacher Student Relationship (C)		.187
Step 2 ^a	.002*	
GenS		.045
Step 3 ^b	.004**	
GenS x FS		-.031
GenS x TS		-.068
GenS x PS		-.001
Total R ²	.064	
	(.058 from Step 1)	
n	1081	

^aGenS includes students' identification as first or non-first generation student status. ^bPredictors included generational status x family support for learning, generational status x teacher – student relationship, generational status x peer support at school. (C) = centered variables. ^tF(3, 1077) = 22.056, p < .001. ^{*}F(1, 1076) = 2.250, p = .134. ^{**}F(3, 1073) = 1.468, p = .222.

Table 4**College Students and Future Aspirations Correlations Table**

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. RIEVO	.816							
2. TotFamC ^a	.153**	.811						
3. TotTsrC ^b	.228**	.337**	.865					
4. TotPslC ^c	.163**	.365**	.561**	.838				
5. GenS	.024	-.167**	-.009	-.087**	--			
6. GenS x FS	.073*	.736**	.184**	.228**	-.131**	--		
7. GenS x TS	.110**	.201**	.664**	.342**	-.008	.277**	--	
8. GenS x PS	.079**	.254**	.350**	.653**	-.077**	.343**	.527	--

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). ^aTotFamC = Family Support for Learning (centered). ^bTotTsrC = Teacher-Student Relationship (centered). ^cTotPslC = Peer Support at School (centered). Coefficient alpha for centered scores on the diagonal except for RIEVO, which is the reliability of the difference score.

Figure 1. The histogram of standardized residuals, indicating the data contained a normal distribution.

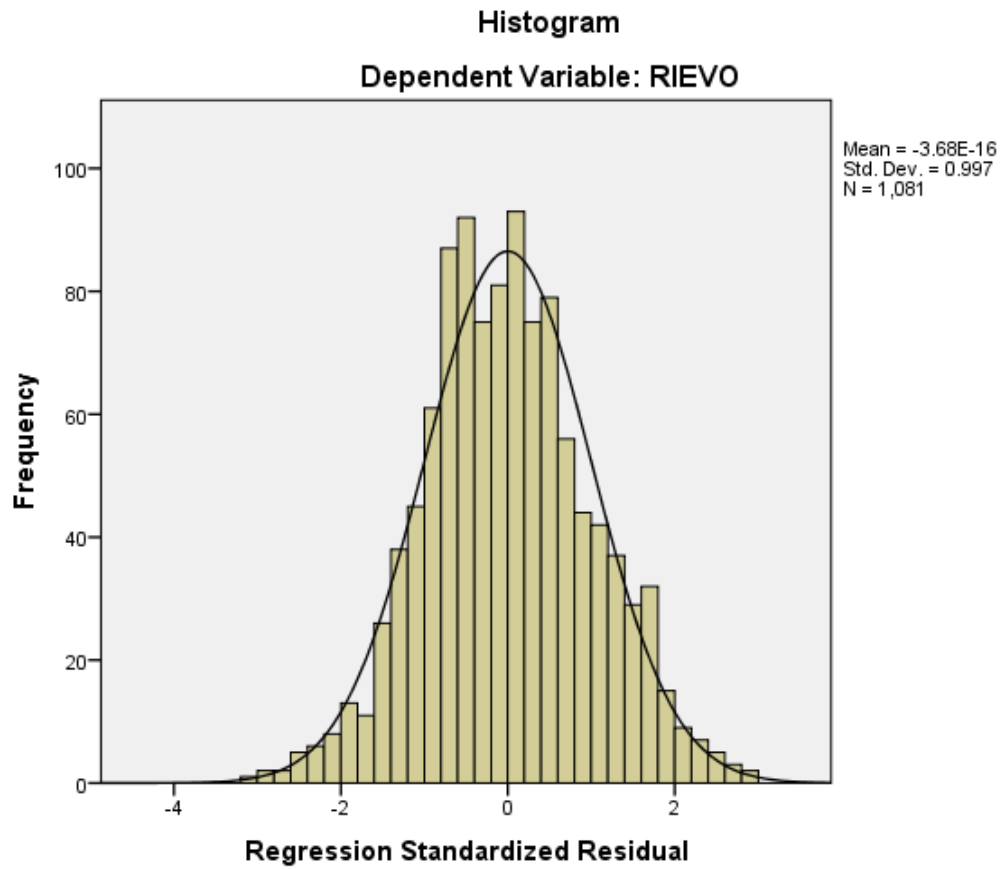
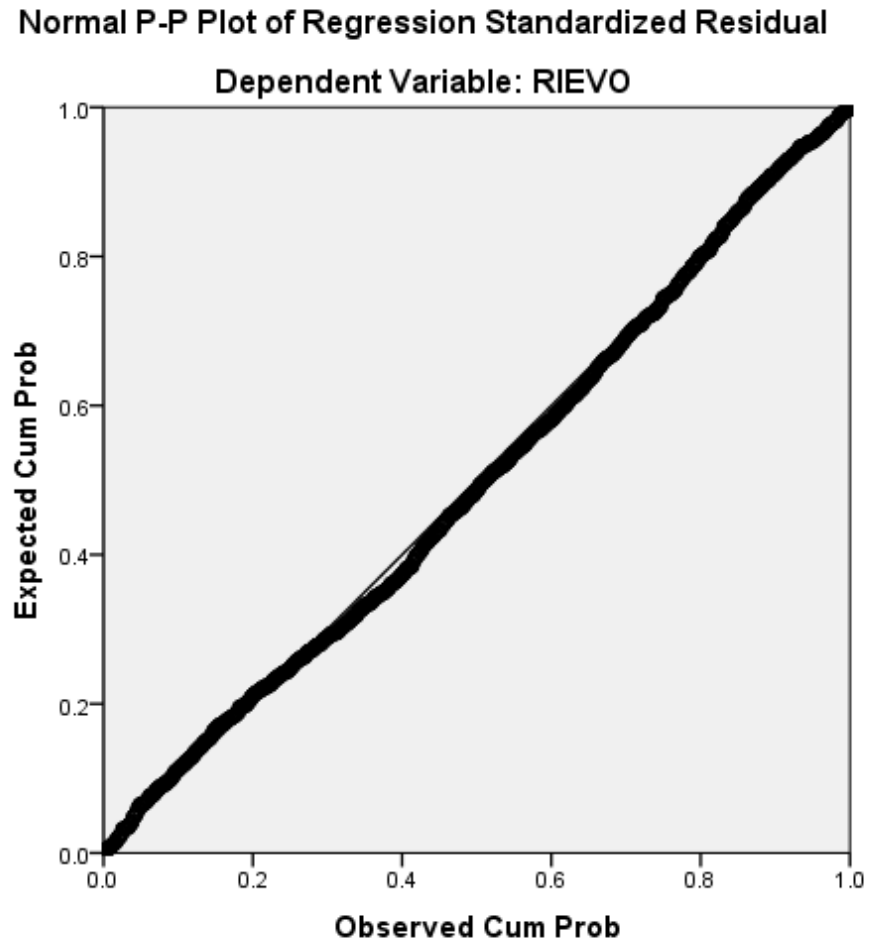
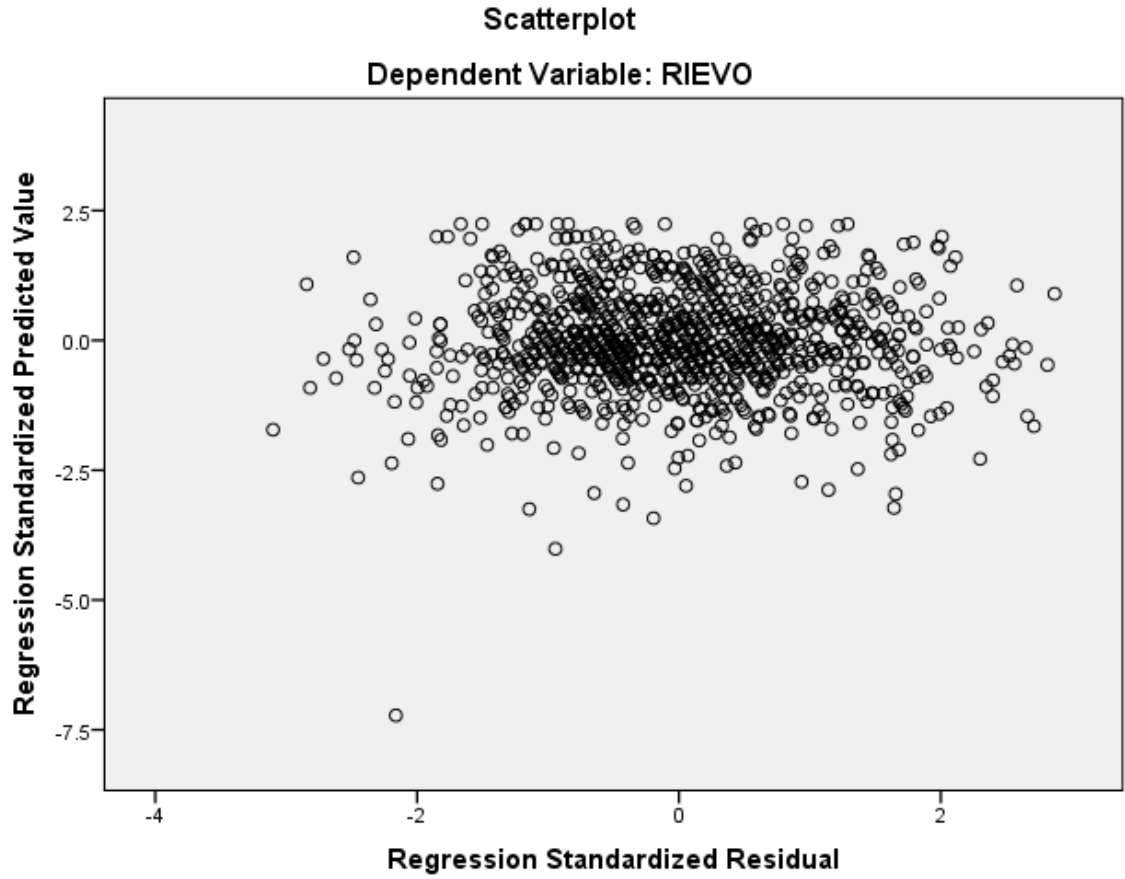


Figure 2. Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residuals.



Most points were on the line and if not completely on the line, they were close, indicating the data contained a normal distribution.

Figure 3. Scatterplot standardized residuals.



The scatterplot showed that the data met the assumptions of homogeneity of variance and linearity.

APPENDIX B: Extended Review of the Literature

Background

Student engagement can be described as a “meta-construct” (Fredricks et al., 2004). Researchers Skinner, Kindermann, Connell, and Wellborn (2009) indicated engagement stems from motivation by exhibiting the energy, effort, and enthusiasm students showed in learning. Deci (1992) as well as Skinner and Pitzer (2012) claimed motivation can relate to engagement as motivation appears in the learners’ purpose, interest and focus in a learning environment.

Finn (1989) revealed the concept of student engagement originally consisted of behavior engagement and affective engagement. Behavior engagement meant class and school participation and affective engagement meant how students identified with the school, whether they belonged or not and to what degree they valued learning (Appleton et al., 2006). Research by Connell, (1990) supported by Fredericks and colleagues (2004), about student engagement showed the concept evolved to include three components: behavior, cognitive and emotional/affective.

Behavior referred to students’ positive conduct, their effort and their participation (Connell, Klem, Lacher, Leiderman, & Moore, 2009; Fredericks et al., (2004). Cognitive indicators included students’ self-regulation, their learning goals and how vested they were in the learning process. Emotional/affective suggested students’ interests, students’ belonging to the institution and students’ positive attitude about learning (Connell, 1990; Fredericks et al., 2004). The most current definition of student engagement contains four subsets including: academic, behavioral, cognitive and psychological (Appleton et al., 2006).

Current research indicates the student engagement construct can help explain student academic success, positive student socialization and student emotional health in academic settings (Fredricks et al., 2004; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). Finn (1989) claimed that student engagement can facilitate understanding of student retention and function as a mediator between the outside contexts of family and peer relationships between the outcomes of grades, social awareness and self-awareness.

Presently, the majority of research on student engagement focuses on the academic and behavioral subtypes, looking at the observable performance outcomes of student engagement such as grades, attendance and behavior. Minimal research existed on the importance of the less observable cognitive and psychological subtypes. Recent research indicated the importance of the less recognized subsets of student engagement, the cognitive and psychological components. These components can facilitate students' self-regulation, the relevance of academia to future goals, goal setting, belonging, identifications with the school and fidelity to the university (Appleton et al., 2006; Appleton et al., 2008).

Ames (1992) and Deci (1999) learned in their research respectively, that a focus on academic and behavioral performance in a school setting could influence students to develop a performance goal orientation, thus ignoring the need for positive affective relationships in the classroom setting. Additional research can increase understanding of the less observable student engagement subtypes, cognitive engagement and psychological engagement (Appleton, et al., 2006; Fredricks et al., 2004). Included in this chapter is an explanation of each of the following corpuses: motivation, effective teaching, student engagement, college attendees and aspirations.

Motivation

Definition

The concept of motivation can be explained in different ways. Schunk and colleagues (2012) claimed motivation referred to how goals were set, worked toward, obtained and maintained. Another view referred to motivation as a force that kept people moving and that helped them achieve goals (Schunk et al., 2012). Deci (1992), Schunk and colleagues (2012) and Skinner and Pitzer (2012) agreed motivation can include energy, direction and persistence and was a process through which goal attainment occurred. Motivation cannot be seen directly, but the process of motivation can be observed and the quality of the motivation can be separated from the learners' quantity, level or amount of motivation displayed (Schunk et al., 2012; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012; Vansteenkiste, Lens, & Deci, 2006).

What is known about motivation has been learned from peoples' persistence as they face challenges in pursuit of long-term goals. Strategies, beliefs and emotions are the motivational processes individuals utilize to overcome challenges and difficulties and to achieve goal attainment (Schunk et al., 2012). Understanding motivation allows for an increased awareness of the contemporary theory of motivation, goal-orientation theory.

Goal-Orientation Theory

Goal-orientation theory represented a paradigm shift in motivational theory, focusing specifically on children's behavior, learning experiences and academic performances in school (Schunk et al., 2012). Goal-theories identified the reasons students engaged in particular tasks and achievement situations and the different patterns and beliefs learners used for goal attainment (Ames, 1992; Pintrich, 2003; Schunk et al.,

2012) The standard by which individuals judge themselves indicates their current goal-orientation. Learners' goal-orientation can orchestrate the beliefs and patterns that influence their tasks' navigation (Ames, 1992; Schunk et al., 2012). Two primary goal-orientations, mastery goal-orientation and performance goal-orientation comprise goal orientation theory.

Mastery and Performance Goal-Orientation Theories

How students function at university, both academically and socially, ties to personal motivation impetus. Ames (1992) posited personal mastery goal orientation can indicate one's desired motivation orientation for effective student learning. In mastery goal orientation, students learn due to personal interest in the topic and from a desire to improve performance. Mastery goal orientation appears to be a predictor for achievement and is the most beneficial motivation pattern for long-term and high quality involvement in learning (Ames, 1992; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Schunk et al., 2012). Having a mastery goal orientation indicated students focused on their effort not their ability. Students using the approach of a mastery goal, focused on learning, self-improvement and attempting challenging tasks (Ames, 1992; Pintrich, 2000; Schunk et al., 2012).

Alternatively, students can exhibit a performance goal orientation. One with a performance goal orientation focused on demonstrating competence or ability and was more concerned with how he or she will be judged in comparison with others (Ames, 1992; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Pintrich, 2000; Schunk et al., 2012). When students focused on outperforming others, being the best in the group or avoiding judgment, they exhibited a performance goal orientation (Dweck & Legget, 1988; Schunk et al., 2012).

Individuals can operate from both goal orientations at different times depending on the tasks. How individuals' goal-orientations function can be an extension of their view of their ability (Ames, 1992; Pintrich, 2003; Schunk et al., 2012).

Self-Determination Theory

Self-determination theory (SDT) has been a contemporary motivational theory that supports student engagement (Connell & Wellborn, 1991; Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000; Reeve, 2002; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). At the center of SDT is the idea that “people are innately curious, interested creatures who possess a natural love of learning and who desire to internalize the knowledge, customs, and values that surround them” (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009, p. 133). Meeting these needs allowed people to engage in learning; when these needs were unmet; people withdrew, escaped or acted out (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). Niemiec and Ryan (2009) defined self-determination theory as “a macro-theory of human motivation, emotion, and development that takes interest in factors that either facilitate or forestall the assimilative and growth-oriented processes in people” (p. 134). Self-determination theory posited three basic psychological needs underlie human behavior. These needs included autonomy, competence and relatedness (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Autonomy

Students in an academic environment displayed autonomy when they willingly spent time and exerted energy toward learning (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009). When individuals had the freedom to make decisions about their learning activities, they possessed power over their autonomy needs. Self-determination theory posited autonomy underlies the processes of individual's self-determination (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Self-

system processes for autonomy referred to goal orientations and referred to whether individuals were motivated intrinsically or extrinsically (Connell & Wellborn, 1991; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Dweck, 1991). Students who felt they had autonomy in academic settings showed increased classroom engagement, learning, enjoyment, persistence and achievement (Deci & Ryan 2002; Hardre & Reeve, 2003; Vasalampi, Salmela-Aro, & Nurmi, 2009).

Competence

Students exhibited competence in learning situations when they felt capable and able to meet the challenges of a task (Niemic & Ryan, 2009). The need of competence was met when students experienced themselves as effective in the interactions they had in social and physical environments (Elliot & Dweck, 2005; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). Competence manifested in learning environments as a perception of control (Dweck, 1991; Skinner, 1996). How students perceived their self-efficacy, ability, academic competence and control were considered authentic predictors of student engagement which can predict continued learning, academic performance and achievement (Dweck, 1999; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012; Wigfield et al., 2006).

Relatedness

The need of relatedness indicated a need to belong and to feel connected to other people and it was suggested to underlie the processes of attachment (Ainsworth, 1979; Bowlby 1969/1973; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). Recent research indicated a connection between a sense of belonging in school and indicators of motivation, engagement and adjustment (Furrer & Skinner, 2003; Wentzel, 1997, 1998, 1999).

Effective Teaching

Ames (1992) posited the structure of the learning environment impacted students' motivation. Students respond to the learning environments structured by teachers; therefore, effective teaching can motivate student engagement (Ames, 1992; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). Ames' (1992) model of effective teaching included tasks that matched students' levels of competence and attracted the students' interests. Ames' (1992) posited tasks that incorporated metacognition helped the students to think about their own learning processes. Ames' (1992) research, supported by additional research of Bergsmann, Luftenegger, Jostl, Schober, and Spiel (2013b) offered effective teaching incorporated a shared authority or autonomy between the students and the teacher in the decision making process. When teachers involved students in the decision making process, students could develop and gain confidence in their decision-making skills (Ames, 1992; Bergsmann, et al., 2013b). Teacher effectiveness was also defined as "the collection of characteristics, competencies, and behaviors of teachers at all educational levels that enable students to reach desired outcomes" (Hunt, 2009, p. 1). When describing a teacher's or faculty member's performance, the term effectiveness also meant "knowledge, attitudes, and performance" (Awofala, 2012; Hunt, 2009, p. 30). Identifying teacher characteristics can increase teachers' and faculty's overall effectiveness (Anderson, 2004; Pagani & Seghieri, 2002). Teacher characteristics have been defined as "stable traits that are related to influence the way teachers practice their profession (Anderson, 2004, p. 20).

When faculty members facilitated effective classrooms, the learning environments contained "specific learning objectives as well as broader goals such as being able to solve problems, think critically, work collaboratively, and become effective citizens"

(Hunt, 2009, p. 1). As a motivational and real world connection, effective faculty member's impact can reach beyond the university and can help students develop a love of learning and self-confidence (Calaguas, 2012). According to the Teacher Effectiveness Scale in Higher Education (TESHE) (Calaguas, 2012), these four dimensions reflect teacher, faculty, effectiveness in higher education. They included: teaching related behaviors, subject matter expertise, relational expertise and personality (Calaguas, 2012).

Effective teaching practices for higher education were categorized as teaching related behaviors, subject matter expertise, relational expertise and personality (Calaguas, 2012).

Teaching related behaviors included faculty members who believe in the potential of students. Faculty members who showed passion for teaching, who gave importance to discipline in the class and who attempted to know the concerns of misbehaving students exhibit effective teaching related behaviors (Calaguas, 2012).

The second area of teacher effectiveness included subject matter expertise. Higher education faculty members who prepared for class, showed subject matter mastery and possessed the ability to teach many academic subjects displayed their prowess in this area (Calaguas, 2012).

The third category was relational expertise. Examples included faculty members who showed kindness and respect for others. Faculty who thought thoroughly of decisions before making them and who accepted students displayed high levels of relational expertise. The final dimension of teacher effectiveness for higher education faculty, personality, can be seen when faculty members show charisma, grace under pressure and are consistent in how they treat students (Calaguas, 2012). Additional

factors contributing to effective teacher practices were faculty members who were socially and emotionally competent.

Classroom Structure

Classroom structure, developed by Carol Ames, (1992) contained what was considered to be the core aspect of effective teaching quality. Ames (1990, 1992, 1992b) defined the classroom structure aspects to include task, authority, evaluation and recognition. When faculty followed Ames' (1992) four elements of classroom structure, students reported higher academic functioning and higher social functioning, the two overarching components in student engagement (Appleton et al., 2006; 2008).

The research findings of Bergsmann, Van de Schoot, Finsterwald, and Spiel (2013a) supported this assertion. Their findings, when researching the impact of aggression and physical violence, indicated a positive association between perceived classroom structure and personal mastery approach goal orientation, metacognitive learning strategies and perceived classroom climate.

Ames (1992) posited effective classroom structure helps create an atmosphere of trust and respect in the classroom, which can reflect high quality teaching, thus enhancing and influencing student engagement (Bergsmann, et al., 2013a; Bergsman, et al., 2013b; Luftenegger, Schober, van de Schoot, Wagner, Finsterwald, & Spiel, 2012; Van de Grift, 2007).

Van de Grift's (2007) review of the literature indicated consistently that teaching quality was described as high if faculty offered efficient classroom management, a safe and stimulating learning climate (Ames, 1992), clear instruction (Ames, 1992; Schunk, Meece, & Pintrich, 2012), the explicit implementation of learning strategies (Ames,

1992), differentiation and if the faculty members fostered students' involvement (Ames, 1992).

An effective student evaluation of the classroom structure corresponded to positive student evaluations of the classroom climate, which precipitated a higher mastery approach goal orientation that in turn can create increased student engagement (Bergsmann, 2013b; Chinoh & Fraser, 2009; Luftenegger et al., 2012).

Classroom structure in common education and in higher education can affect students' social functioning. Bergsmann (2013b) indicated the tone defined in student-teacher relationships fostered either positive or negative student to student relationships within the classroom. Ames' (1992) research and Bergsmann's and colleagues supporting research (2013a) found positive classroom structure can reduce negative student behavior. Verbal aggression was reduced when Ames (1992) classroom structure was used (Bergsmann et al., 2013a). Furrer and Skinner (2003) claimed teacher care, warmth, support and involvement highlight an effective classroom environment and resulted in an absence of conflict and in open communication in common education and in higher education settings.

Connecting with Deci and Ryan's (2000) research in self-determination theory (SDT), teacher involvement met the need for relatedness and could lead to positive student outcomes (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Wentzel (2002) provided a model of nurturing and supportive parental relationships. In these relationships, children most likely internalized the loving and nurturing characteristics of their parents. Wentzel (2002) hypothetically applied this theory to the social relationship between students and faculty. Wentzel (2002) and Deci (1992) indicated that interpersonal relationships provided

students with a sense of belonging that can be a powerful motivator of students' school related interest. Appleton and colleagues (2006) found in their research with middle school students, that contributors to positive learning experiences included the quality of classroom management, positive teacher-student relationships and effective teacher social and emotional competence (SEC). All of these contributors can mediate positive academic, social and emotional outcomes (Appleton, et al., 2006).

Classroom Management

Classroom management has been described to include monitoring student behavior as well as establishing positive student faculty relationships (Appleton et al., 2006; Nie & Lau, 2009; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). Nie and Lau (2009) offered that classroom management can create supporting environments when teachers respond to students' needs for love, respect and sense of belonging to the school, all of which represented the components of SDT.

Skinner and Pitzer (2012) reminded the readers of their research that the most common approach to classroom management was rooted in behaviorism and in controlling student misconduct. Nicholls and Houghton (1995) stated control can reduce misbehavior and increase desirable behavior while researchers Deci, Koestner, and Ryan (1999) and Lews, Romi, Katz, and Qui (2008) indicated control undermined intrinsic motivation and produced passivity. Dweck (1999) claimed external control was expected to undermine students' sense of autonomy and intrinsic motivation. Taylor and Ntoumanis (2007) found a relationship existed between structure and positive student outcomes mediated by students' perceptions of autonomy and competence. Skinner, Furrer, Marchand, and Kindermann (2008) found that how faculty structured a classroom

and fostered autonomy support, positively related to engaged behavior and emotion and negatively related to unengaged behavior and emotion. Skinner et al. (2008) also found that the role of actual teacher support toward students “is more important to behavioral engagement and disaffection than to its emotional counterparts” (p. 777). Teacher support combined with student perception showed an outcome where students’ self-perceptions were that of being competent, autonomous and related to teachers in the research of Skinner and colleagues (2008).

According to the research of Skinner and Pitzer (2012) and supported by the research of Mitchell and Bradshaw (2013), when students participated in well organized and prosocial classroom settings, students behaved better, which can promote positive feelings between the students and the teacher. Wentzel (2002) offered prosocial behavior reflects actions indicating helping, sharing and cooperating with others. Wentzel (2002) also offered that socially responsible behavior took the form of adherence to rules and norms for behavior.

The findings of the research of Mitchell and Bradshaw (2013) offered the use of exclusionary or assertive discipline strategies can promote negative feelings between faculty and students in the classroom. When faculty members implemented a prosocial classroom structure, student’s perceptions of school climate could increase positively, resulting in a reduced rate of behavioral referrals and reprimands and in an increase in academic performance, which was an outcome of student engagement (Bradshaw, Zmuda, Kellam, & Ialongo, 2009; Mitchell & Bradshaw 2013; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012).

Effective teachers utilized differentiated evaluation. Ames (1992) and Bergsmann (2013b) indicated from their research that teachers who recognize student effort,

acknowledged it and offered feedback for growth opportunities in weaker areas, met the requirement of differentiated evaluation for effective teaching. When teachers differentiated evaluation, they met one of the elements of Ames (1992) classroom structure, thus promoting effective teaching.

Characteristics of Socially and Emotionally Competent teachers

Jennings and Greenberg (2009) proposes socially emotionally competent (SEC) teachers possessed a high self-awareness. Goddard and colleagues (2004) and Jennings and Greenberg (2009) offered research showing effective SEC teachers recognized their emotions, their emotional patterns and knew how to generate emotions such as joy and enthusiasm to motivate learning for themselves and for others. Socially emotionally competent teachers understood the emotions of others and could build strong and supportive relationships with students through mutual understanding and cooperation (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). Wentzel (2002) indicated effective SEC teachers have pro-social values and behaviors whose actions indicate helping, sharing and cooperating with others. The research of Hargreaves (1998) supported by the research of Jennings and Greenberg (2009) showed socially and emotionally competent teachers made responsible decisions based on an assessment of factors including how the decision will impact them and others. Socially emotionally competent teachers were comfortable with ambiguity and letting learners struggle to problem solve for themselves (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). Jennings and Greenberg's (2009) model proposes that supportive teacher-student relationships, effective classroom management and successful social and emotional learning program implementation can contribute to creating a classroom climate that was more conducive to learning and that promoted positive developmental

outcomes among students.

Healthy Teacher Student Relationships

Healthy teacher student relationships effectively managed and engaged students in the classroom experience. Marzano, Marzano, and Pickering (2003) found that teachers with high quality teacher student relationships have 31% fewer behavior problems over the course of the academic year than those who did not. Children who possessed healthy attachments tended to be more secure and thus were freer to explore novel situations and learn (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). Attachment theory supported the importance of healthy student teacher relationships, indicating a relationship between effective student-teacher relationships and student engagement (Bandura, 1997; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009).

Student Engagement

Background

Appleton and colleagues (2008) identified in their review of the literature that student engagement has been studied for 22 years. Mosher and MacGowan's (1985) review of the literature claimed that at that time of their review, there were only two references to the term "engagement." Engagement was first mentioned in the literature by Natriello (1984), from John Hopkins University. Natriello's (1984) review used the terms student "engagement" and "disengagement." Natriello (1984) claimed "engagement exists when students are participating in the activities offered as part of the school program . . . disengagement maybe defined as the extent to which students refrain from participating in the activities offered as part of the school program" (p. 14). Natriello (1984) shared disengagement manifested itself in three challenges in secondary schools,

including absenteeism, low-level participation in school and delinquency.

The second reference to engagement in Mosher and MacGowen's (1985) review of the literature was by Rumberger (1983) of Stanford. Rumberger (1983) suggested family background, including factors of parents' education levels, family income level, and a functionality of the family influenced student engagement. Rumberger's (1983) second quality to measure student engagement was psychological factors. Rumberger (1983) suggested adolescent's self-confidence and educational and occupational aspirations correlated to dropout rates. The third faction Rumberger (1983) presented was school and out-of-school behavior. The connection between students' achievement and involvement in school often correlated with preventing student dropout rates. The foundational research of Natriello (1984) and Rumberger (1983) defined the current research and terminology concerning the concept of student engagement.

The various aspects of the engagement construct combined to describe student engagement as a "meta-construct" (Fredricks et al., 2004). There can be inconsistencies in the terminology used to explain student engagement with some using the term to examine "disengagement" (Appleton et al., 2008). Nevertheless, there is one consistent view of student engagement and that is the construct is multidimensional (Appleton et al., 2008).

Currently, engagement can be defined as an outward manifestation of motivation (Skinner et al., 2009). Engagement manifests the energy of motivation in the effort, enthusiasm and intensity shown in learning. Skinner and Pitzer (2012), in addition to Deci (1992), claimed motivation appears in the purpose or direction by the interest and focus of learners and durability and is seen in how learners absorb the material and in the

determination and persistence seen in their learning. Skinner and Pitzer (2012) argued every current motivation model shares an action component with engagement.

Student engagement initially consisted of two types of engagement, behavioral (class and school participation) and affective (school identification, belonging, valuing learning) (Appleton, et al., 2006; Finn, 1989). As research on student engagement has progressed, Connell (1990) revealed three main components emerged behavior (positive conduct, effort, participation), cognitive, (self-regulation, learning goals, invested in learning) and affective (interest, belonging, positive attitude about learning).

Four components of student engagement have emerged (Appleton, et al., 2006). These components included academic, behavioral, cognitive and affective. The components of student engagement used in this review include affective as academic and behavioral data is readily recorded by most schools' and colleges' data record systems (Check and Connect Student Engagement Intervention Model, n.d.). The affective and cognitive components are measured exclusively by the *Student Engagement Instrument* (SEI) which will be the instrument used to measure the subsequent research.

Engagement as a Predictor

Skinner and Pitzer's (2012) research showed when children engage in early elementary school, there was a high correlation with their engagement in middle school and high school.

Overall student engagement can decline as students progress through the school years, yet individual student stability can vary (Wigfield's et al., 2006). Skinner and Pitzer (2012) offered in their review of the literature that how engaged students were at the beginning of the school year correlated highly with their engagement at the

conclusion of the school year and how engaged students were in one grade indicated the level of student engagement in upcoming grades. Skinner and Pitzer (2012) posited the one constant in student engagement was each student's "interindividual stability seems to increase as students move through junior high and high school" (p. 31).

Factors affecting student engagement included teachers, peers, parents, academic work, students' self-perceptions and their performances (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). How students respond to challenging tasks, setbacks and failures is termed "academic buoyancy" defined by Martin and Marsh (2008) as "students' ability to successfully deal with academic setbacks and challenges that are typical of the ordinary course of school life" (p. 72). Engagement was affected based on how resilient one was and this resilience was influenced by what are termed "interpersonal resources" such as teacher warmth, peer engagement, and personal resources, all connected to the cognitive and psychological subtypes of student engagement. Deci and Ryan (2000) claimed personal resources included a sense of competence, relatedness and autonomy. How these three psychological needs were met in an academic setting can impact the overall learners' resiliency and engagement.

Model of Motivational Dynamics

Skinner and Pitzer (2012) offered in their motivational model the importance of focusing on both learning and engagement. Learning cannot be at the cost of student engagement as undermining engagement increased student dissatisfaction. Behavior engagement played a part in academic performance; however, it was the emotional engagement that drove the behavior and the cognitive engagement that facilitated high-quality learning (Skinner et al., 2008). Historically, adults, faculty, and parents, focused

on what they could control, and the focus shifted to a behavioral approach of monitoring task behavior.

Skinner and Pitzer's (2012) model of motivational dynamics focused on "positive youth development and resilience" (p. 22). The model of motivational dynamics offered four levels of engagement with benefits associated with each. At the initial level was interaction or engagement with prosocial institutions. These institutions included church, community organizations such as 4-H or the YMCA, school and family (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). Morrison, Robertson, Lauire and Kelly (2002) in addition to Skinner and Pitzer (2012) claimed engagement at this level offered positive development and protected against risky behavior and delinquency.

At the second level was engagement with the school and school activities. Skinner and Pitzer, (2012) indicated students who played sports, were involved in clubs, were active in the classroom and student government had increased school retention and completion rates.

At the third level was classroom engagement. This level was typically, where most education researchers showed interest. Students engaged academically focused on school learning opportunities, experienced greater achievement and protected against academic failure (Connell & Wellborn, 1991; Deci, 2009; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012).

The fourth level of the model of motivational dynamics included engagement with learning activities and nested in the third level in conjunction with curriculum (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). The fourth level played a necessary role in student success. Engagement at the fourth level of the model of motivation dynamics was critical for learning and long-term achievement. Engagement helped to mold or influence students'

everyday experiences at school, both academically and socially. When students felt more connected, they tended to feel more competent academically. Students who felt competent academically gained access to peers in similarly engaged groups. When students showed disengagement, they could begin to associate with disengaged peers resulting in students feeling isolated, resentful and performing poorly in school (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012).

Student engagement contributed to students' academic development, allowing for increased resiliency and coping with daily stressors. Being actively engaged helped students when faced with challenging academic tasks, allowing them to develop an autonomous learning style or mastery goal orientation, positive academic identity, and ideally, ownership of their own progress in school (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012).

Affective Aspects of Student Engagement

How students fit into the social context at school influenced student engagement. Within the motivational model offered by Skinner and Pitzer (2012), the three basic psychological needs of SDT, relatedness, competence and autonomy, were met with the following three qualities of student-teacher relationships. Skinner and Pitzer (2012), based on the research of Wentzel (1998) and Wigfield and colleagues (2006) shared the following student-teacher interactions of pedagogical caring, which supported the relatedness need, optimal structure, which met the competence need and autonomy support, which supported the overall premise of the motivational theory of self-determination. Ames (1992) model of effective teaching, which included tasks, authority, evaluation and recognition, supported meeting the three basic psychological needs of SDT, which can support increases in student motivation. The contributions of

Skinner and Belmont (1993) claimed teacher support, warmth, classroom structure and autonomy support were predictors of students' positive self-perceptions and classroom engagement. The three affective subcomponents of student engagement measured in the *Student Engagement Instrument* with college students included peer support at school, teacher-student relationships and family support for learning (Appleton et al., 2008).

Peer Support for School

Wentzel (1998) claimed and Skinner and Pitzer (2012) agreed, peers play a critical role in affecting student motivation and student engagement. The positive impact of peer relationships in school positively affected students' academic development, school motivation and achievement (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012).

Selection effects occurred when children chose peer groups and were preferred for peer groups based on their levels of engagement. Skinner and Pitzer (2012) defined "selection effects" as "how children enter and leave friendship and peer relationships" (p. 30). Kindermann and Skinner (2012) offered students' ability to navigate peer relationships indicated students gravitate to peers who were equally engaged in the learning process. The more disengaged the students are, the more they seek disengaged peers.

The positive impact of peer relationships in school has been found to positively affect students' academic development, school motivation and achievement (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). Grier and colleagues (2012) found in their assessment of the SEI with college students that peer support at school corresponded with GPA. This finding connects with other research supporting the importance of peers in higher education settings. The research of Dennis and colleagues (2005) and Kim (2009) suggest the

importance of peer support in college adjustment, academic adjustment and persistence as students begin college. Peer support has been suggested to benefit first-generation, minority and immigrant college students.

Teacher Student Relationships

How students engaged influenced the relationships they have with teachers, parents, and peers. Two observational studies, one conducted by Altermatt, Jovanovic, and Perry (1998) of middle school students and one conducted by Fiedler (1975) of junior high and high school students indicated the more student participation increased the greater teacher responsiveness. Ladd, Birch, and Buhs (1999) offered from their study with elementary school students when students were more engaged emotionally at the beginning of the year, teachers granted increased student autonomy over the course of the year.

How students engaged in learning processes can be influenced by the relationships developed with teachers, parents and peers. In the research of Grier and colleagues (2012), the outcome of the teacher-student relationship scale “significantly predicted commitment anxiety and external conflict” (p. 93). Commitment anxiety means “an inability to make a commitment to a specific career choice” (Sampson, et al., 1999, p. 4). External conflict results from “students’ perceptions of feeling blocked or unsupported by others” (Grier et. al., 2012, p. 93). These findings support the importance of developing emotionally supportive teacher-student relationships in education to support student engagement.

Relationships rich in emotional support exhibit faculty encouragement, acceptance, respect and trust of students. Faculty members who develop supportive

relationships with students demonstrate care for the students' emotional well-being and communicate confidence in the students' ability to complete academic studies (Strati, Schmidt, & Maier, 2016).

Family Support for Learning

College students who entered college having experienced a loving, nurturing family support system had a greater sense of self-efficacy, student motivation and student engagement (Gonzalez-De Has, et al., 2005; Lyubomirsky, et al., 2005). Gonzalez-De Has and colleagues (2005) claimed in their research findings, with Roman, Cuestas, and Fenollar (2008) supported the claim that college students' self-esteem has been found to significantly be associated with positive family support as well as with academic success. Additionally, Alnabhan and colleagues (2001) indicated that minimal family support can affect GPA scores at the university level.

As a result of increased stress levels in college students' lives, they needed a support system to navigate the college experience (Cutrona 2000; Dyson & Renk, 2006; Pinkerton & Dolan 2007). When college students had a supportive family to turn to, family responses can be helpful and as a result "facilitate the student's coping and positive adjustment" (Cheng, et al., 2012, p. 401). College students reported that regular contact with their family was their primary support system when faced with academic challenges (Stecker 2004). Family support has been related to college students' confidence in their ability to manage challenging academic tasks (Klink, Byars-Winston, & Bakken 2008).

Another benefit for college students who grow up in supportive families included high levels of self-efficacy, academic self-efficacy and a broader range of coping skills in

the academic realm (Gonzalez-De Has et al., 2005). Cutrona, Cole, Colangelo, Assouline, and Russell (1994) offered from their review of the literature that the secure family system operates as a “safety net” that permitted active participation and exploration (p. 369). A result from such a supportive family system was experimentation in a wide range of life experiences, resulting in the acquisition of coping strategies, skills, and self-confidence

Future Aspirations and Goals

Relevance of school work to future aspirations can promote an outcome of increased social awareness and relationship skill with peers and adults (Appleton et al., 2006). The determinants of engagement and motivation were the academic activities and tasks in which students participated in the classroom (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). To have students engaged with the learning activities, the activities needed to be “hands-on, heads-on, project-based, relevant, progressive, and integrated across subject matter” (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012, p. 28). Engaging work indicated work that intrinsically motivated learners and that had an authentic connection to the world outside of the classroom experience, increasing student motivation and facilitating mastery goal orientation and future aspirations and goals.

A review of the literature showed academic persistence and college students’ future goals and aspirations shared a connection between student engagement and college students’ self-efficacy in career decision making (Finn & Owings, 2006; Grier-Reed, et al., 2012). Grier-Reed and colleagues (2012) offered from their review of the literature, Bandura’s (1982) theory of self-efficacy supported college students’ beliefs in their ability to make career-related decisions. College students’ career decision self-efficacy

and student engagement showed desired “behavioral and academic outcomes in educational settings” (Grier-Reed, et al., 2012, p.87).

College Attendees

A college diploma, the baccalaureate degree, can create a venue of upward social and financial mobility. Callan (2000) claimed earning a college degree was almost mandatory for any kind of economic security. Callan’s (2000) research indicated that many of the 10 million jobs that will be created in the next decades would require skills and competencies beyond those acquired in high school. Earning a four-year degree can result in an educational outcome of increased financial benefits (Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991).

First Generation and Non First Generation

Tinto (2006-2007) stated in his analysis of student retention in higher education, historically, students were held responsible for failing to complete college. The reasons given were being “less able, less motivated, and less willing to defer the benefits that college graduation was believed to bestow” (p. 2). After 40 years of this view point, the perspective changed to one that examines how the environment, IE: the university, impacts student decisions of college completion (Tinto 2006-2007).

College students’ success was largely dependent on their experiences during their first year of college (Upcraft & Gardner, 1989). The first year played a major role in the success of first-generation college students who experienced varying challenges as they made the transition from high school graduate to college attendee (Terenzini, Rendon, Upcraft, Millar, Allison, Gregg, & Jalomo, 1994).

A “first-generation college student” defined for this review as a “student from a

family where no parent or guardian has earned a baccalaureate degree (Pike & Kuh, 2005, p. 277). The term “non-first generation college student” defined as “students whose parents or guardians earned at least one baccalaureate degree” (Pike & Kuh, 2005, p. 277).

A review of the literature showed characteristics of first-generation college students included their inclination to live off campus, their struggle to connect with faculty members, and their negative perceptions of faculty members about the students’ academic development (Carnevale & Fry, 2000; Terenzini, Springer, Yeager, Pascarella, & Nora, 1996). Also, first-generation college students were more likely to work more hours off campus (Richardson & Skinner, 1992; Terenzini et al., 1996). Pike and Kuh (2005) stated from their review of the literature that in the area of relationships, first-generation students “are also less likely to develop strong relationships with other students and are less likely to become involved in campus clubs and organizations” (p. 277). First-generation students' had lower persistence and graduation rates, reflecting lower retention rates (Tinto, 2006 -2007) while having lower scores on standardized tests (Pike & Kuh (2005). Additionally, first-generation students tended to come from families with lower incomes and lower levels of engagement in high school (Terenzini et al., 1996).

Backgrounds may differ between first-generation and non-first generation college attendees; however, researchers Billson and Terry (1982) offered first-generation college students shared similar academic and educational goals with second-generation students. However, Terenzini et al. (1996), indicated first-generation students may have lower educational aspirations than non-first generation college attendees.

Aspirations

Definition

Aspirations, commonly known as life's goals, have the potential "to organize and direct behavior over extended periods of time" (Niemic, Ryan, & Deci, 2009, p. 291). Kasser and Ryan (1996), in their research specific to future aspirations, identified seven life goals which are divided into two categories, intrinsic and extrinsic.

The two categories, intrinsic aspirations and extrinsic aspirations showed when individuals focused on either intrinsic or extrinsic aspirations, their goal attainment positively increased in that area (Niemic et al., 2009). Ryan and colleagues (1996) offered the ways in which intrinsic and extrinsic aspirations relate to psychological health stems from their connection to humans' basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness. Self-determination theory posited these three needs are foundational for psychological health (Niemic et al., 2009; Ryan et al. 1996).

Intrinsic Aspirations

Intrinsic aspirations included personal growth, meaningful relationships, community involvement and physical health (Niemic et al., 2009; Schmuck, Kasser, & Ryan, 2000). Intrinsic aspirations indicated individual's goals which reflected a desire for personal growth and which met humans' basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness, the three needs identified in SDT (Niemic et al., 2009; Ryan et al. 1996).

Kasser and Ryan (1993, 1996) learned from their research, when individuals place more importance on intrinsic aspirations, an overall positive association with mental health indicators increased. Mental health indicators included overall well-being,

positive affect, vitality and self-actualization (Kasser & Ryan 1993; Kasser & Ryan 1996; Niemiec et al., 2009; Sheldon & Kasser 1998). Individuals whose goals were intrinsic had shown negative indicators of depression, anxiety and negative physical symptoms (Niemiec et al. 2009; Ryan et al., 1999; Schmuck et al., 2000; Vansteenkiste et al., 2006).

Extrinsic Aspirations

Extrinsic aspirations included wealth, fame and image (Kasser & Ryan, 1996, Niemiec et al., 2009; Schmuck, et al., 2000). A desire for money, fame and image, indicated individuals actively pursue these goals as a means to an end separate from one's basic psychological needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness (Niemiec et al., 2009). A review of the literature revealed having strong aspirations for extrinsic outcomes was negatively associated with positive mental health indicators (Kassar & Ryan, 1996; Niemiec et al., 2009; Schmuck, et al., 2000). When individuals strove to reach extrinsic goals, little to no benefit was found in enhancing personal well-being (Kasser & Ryan 1996).

Individuals seeking extrinsic goals often showed insecurity in his or her person (Kasser, Ryan, Zax, & Sameroff, 1995). Characteristics of those with an extrinsic goal orientation included people who sought stressful situations with ego involvement and controlling behaviors which failed to meet their needs (Kasser & Ryan, 1996; Sheldon & Kasser, 1995). As a result of seeking extrinsic goals, these individuals ignored their own needs for well-being and participated in activities which were counterproductive to health and well-being (Niemiec et al., 2009; Ryan, Chirkov, Little, Sheldon, Timoshina, & Deci, 1999).

Summary

The student engagement construct encompassed student academic success, positive student socialization and student emotional health in school settings (Appleton, et al., 2006; Fredricks, et al., 2004; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). Student engagement can function as a mediator between the outside contexts of family, peers and school and the outcomes of grades, social awareness and self-awareness (Appleton, et al., 2006). Student engagement has been termed a “meta-construct” with various definitions associated to the construct (Fredricks et al., 2004). A focus on academic and behavioral performance in school settings can influence students to develop a performance goal orientation, ignoring the need for positive affective relationships in the classroom setting. Teachers’ motivational strategies, classroom structure methods and classroom management styles can influence students’ goal orientation and thus influence student engagement. How students’ cognitive and psychological needs are met in the student engagement construct can predict student engagement. More research is needed to understand the relationship between the student engagement construct and how this construct impacts college students’ future aspirations.

APPENDIX C: Definition of Terms

Aspirations Index: The Aspirations Index (AI), created by Kasser and Ryan (1993) tests four areas of students' aspirations. The four areas of the AI include the participant's self-awareness, the affiliations participants have in their lives, the connection to the community the participants have, and the participants' desired financial success.

Academic Aspect of Student Engagement: This is one of four components used to define student engagement and is also an easily observable aspect. Academic examples can be school tasks completion, graduation, and class participation (Appleton et al., 2006).

Behavioral Aspect of Student Engagement: An observable component of student engagement, the behavioral aspect may include consistent attendance, extra-curricular involvement, or choosing to complete extra-credit assignments when the opportunity occurs (Appleton et al., 2006).

Cognitive Aspect of Student Engagement: A less observable component of student engagement, the cognitive aspect refers to how students self-regulate in the face of challenges, how relevant school work is to the students' future goals, the students' value of learning, and their autonomy (Appleton et al., 2006).

Future Extrinsic Aspirations: In the AI, participants respond to questions assessing their future extrinsic aspirations toward their desire for wealth, their quest for fame, and the importance of image (Kasser, n.d.).

Future Intrinsic Aspirations: The AI asks participants to identify their intrinsic

aspirations with examples possibly including participants' perceptions of personal growth, their affiliations, and how they define their community feeling (Kasser, n.d.).

Psychological Aspect of Student Engagement: A less observable component of student engagement, the psychological aspect refers to the feelings students have of belonging or identifying with the school or class culture and the kinds of relationships they have with their teachers or professors (Appleton et al., 2006; Connell, 1990; Fredericks et al., 2004; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012).

Student Engagement: A multifaceted construct combined of four subsets to explain how students are involved in learning environments. The four components include academic, behavioral, cognitive, and psychological (Appleton et al., 2006).

Student Engagement Instrument: Appleton and Christenson (as cited in Appleton et al., 2006) created the Student Engagement Instrument (SEI) to measure the less observable components of student engagement, the cognitive and psychological components.

APPENDIX D: Request for Agency Participation

Dear IRB Director of Compliance,

I am writing to you to request permission for the undergraduate students at your university to participate in data collection for dissertation research. As a PhD candidate with Oklahoma State University, I am seeking responses from undergraduate students in all majors. Desired data collection is to be administered and completed in three time frames: by the midpoint of the Spring 2016 semester, by the end of the Spring 2016 semester, and by the midterm point in the Fall Semester of 2016. I will send reminder emails to increase participation as needed bi-weekly.

Enclosed with the invitation is an approved IRB application, an approval letter, protocol, and consent form, in addition to the survey instruments. Upon receiving permission from your University to participate, I will send the electronic survey to the necessary department for distribution to the students.

I appreciate your consideration in offering your undergraduate students the opportunity to participate in research that has the potential to increase the college experience for them and for future students.

Please contact me at your earliest convenience to discuss the possibility of conducting research with your University.

All the Best,

Jennifer Callaway, MHR, NBCT
jennifer.callaway@okstate.edu
918-284-2844

APPENDIX E: Protocol Script

Desired data collection is to be administered and completed in three time frames: by the midpoint of the Spring 2016 semester, by the end of the Spring 2016 semester, and by the midterm point in the Fall Semester of 2016. At these times participants will be encouraged via email to complete the survey. I will send reminder emails to increase participation as needed bi-weekly.

Thank you for your interest to complete this survey. Participation is voluntary and you must be 18 years old to continue. If you are not 18, please check the box below and you will be exited from the survey. You will need about 30 minutes to answer the questions and if at any time you wish to take a break and return to the survey later, please do so. By participating, you have the opportunity to offer your opinion about student engagement and its relationship with college students' future aspirations for dissertation research. You will also be entered into a drawing for four \$50 Amazon gift cards. A drawing for two \$50 gift cards will occur at the end of each semester of the study. The records of this study will be kept private. Any written results will discuss group findings and will not include information that will identify you. Research records will be stored securely, electronically, for 3 years and only researchers and individuals responsible for research oversight will have access to the records. It is possible that the consent process and data collection will be observed by research oversight staff responsible for safeguarding the rights and well-being of people who participate in research. If you have questions about your rights as a research volunteer, you may contact the primary investigator, Jenniffer Callaway at jennifercallaway@okstate.edu or Dr. Hugh Crethar at

crethar@okstate.edu. You may also contact the IRB Office at 223 Scott Hall, Stillwater, OK 74078, 405-744-3377 or irb@okstate.edu. Participation is voluntary and you can discontinue the research activity at any time without reprisal or penalty. By continuing to complete the survey, you indicate you have read and fully understand the consent form and you participate voluntarily. Please check the appropriate box below to continue and thank you for helping me collect data for my dissertation, Student Engagement and College Students' Future Aspirations.

APPENDIX F: Research Survey

Thank you for your interest to complete this survey. Participation is voluntary and you must be 18 years old to continue. If you are not 18, please check the box below and you will be exited from the survey. You will need about 30 minutes to answer the questions and if at any time you wish to take a break and return to the survey later, please do so. By participating, you have the opportunity to offer your opinion about student engagement and its relationship with college students' future aspirations for dissertation research. You will also be entered into a drawing for four \$50 Amazon gift cards. A drawing for two \$50 gift cards will occur at the end of each semester of the study. The records of this study will be kept private. Any written results will discuss group findings and will not include information that will identify you. Research records will be stored securely, electronically, for 3 years and only researchers and individuals responsible for research oversight will have access to the records. If you have questions about your rights as a research volunteer, you may contact the primary investigator, Jenniffer Callaway at jennifercallaway@okstate.edu or Dr. Hugh Crethar at crethar@okstate.edu. You may also contact the IRB Office at 223 Scott Hall, Stillwater, OK 74078, 405-744-3377 or irb@okstate.edu. Participation is voluntary and you can discontinue the research activity at any time without reprisal or penalty. By continuing to complete the survey, you indicate you have read and fully understand the consent form and you participate voluntarily. Please check the appropriate box below to continue and thank you for helping me collect data for my dissertation, Student Engagement and College Students' Future Aspirations.

- I am not 18 or I do not wish to participate (4)
- I am happy to participate (5)

If I am not 18 or I do not wish to participate... Is Selected, Then Skip To Please choose the best answer for the...

Please choose the best answer for the following demographic questions.

Q1 Gender

- Male (1)
- Female (2)
- Prefer not to respond (3)

Q2 Which best describes your student status?

- First Generation college attendee. This means a student from a family where no parent or guardian has earned a baccalaureate (four year) degree. (1)
- Non-first generation college attendee. This means a student whose parents or guardians earned at least one baccalaureate (four-year) degree. (2)

Q3 Race/Ethnicity:

- African American/Black (1)
- Asian/Pacific Island (2)
- Hispanic/Latino (3)
- Native American/American Indian (4)
- White/Caucasian (5)
- Not Listed/Please specify (6) _____
- Prefer not to respond (7)

Q4 College/University Attending If attending more than one college or university, please

choose the college/university that sent this survey.

- Cameron University (1)
- Langston University (2)
- Northeastern State University (3)
- Oklahoma City Community College (4)
- Oklahoma State University (5)
- Rogers State University (6)
- Tulsa Community College (7)
- Tulsa University (8)
- University of Central Oklahoma (9)
- University of Oklahoma (10)
- Not listed. Please specify. (11) _____

Q5 Class Status

- Freshman (1)
- Sophomore (2)
- Junior (3)
- Senior (4)
- 5th Year Senior (5)
- Continuing Education (6)

Q6 Which best describes the degree you are seeking?

- Associate's Degree (1)
- Bachelor's Degree (2)
- Certificate (3)
- Other (4) _____

Q7 Age:

- Under 18 (1)
- 18-19 (2)
- 20-21 (3)
- 22-24 (4)
- 25 and above (5)

Q8 Do you live on or off campus?

- Campus Housing (1)
- Greek Housing (2)
- Off Campus with parents (3)
- Off campus with friends (4)
- Off campus with spouse (5)
- Off campus alone (6)
- Other (7) _____

The following statements inquire about your thoughts and feelings in a variety of situations. For each item, indicate how strongly you agree or disagree by choosing the appropriate number on the scale: 1, 2, 3, or 4. When you have decided on your answer, choose the number on the screen indicating your choice. **READ EACH ITEM CAREFULLY BEFORE RESPONDING.** Answer as honestly as you can. Thank you.

Q1. My family/guardians are there for me when I need them.

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Agree (3)
- Strongly Agree (4)

Q2 My professors are there for me when I need them.

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Agree (3)
- Strongly Agree (4)

Q3 Other students here like me the way I am.

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Agree (3)
- Strongly Agree (4)

Q4 Professors at my college listen to the students.

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Agree (3)
- Strongly Agree (4)

Q5 Other students at college care about me.

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Agree (3)
- Strongly Agree (4)

Q6 Students at my college are there for me when I need them.

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Agree (3)
- Strongly Agree (4)

Q7 The university's rules are fair.

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Agree (3)
- Strongly Agree (4)

Q8 . When something good happens at college my family/guardian(s) want to know

about it.

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Agree (3)
- Strongly Agree (4)

Q9 Most professors at my college are interested in me as a person, not just as a student.

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Agree (3)
- Strongly Agree (4)

Q10 Students here respect what I have to say.

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Agree (3)
- Strongly Agree (4)

Q11 Overall, my professors are open and honest with me.

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Agree (3)
- Strongly Agree (4)

Q12 When I have problems at college my family/guardian(s) are willing to help me.

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Agree (3)
- Strongly Agree (4)

Q13 Overall, professors at my college treat students fairly.

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Agree (3)
- Strongly Agree (4)

Q14 I enjoy talking to the professors here.

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Agree (3)
- Strongly Agree (4)

Q15 I enjoy talking to the students here.

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Agree (3)
- Strongly Agree (4)

Q16 I have some friends at college.

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Agree (3)
- Strongly Agree (4)

Q17 I feel safe at college.

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Agree (3)
- Strongly Agree (4)

Q18 My family/guardian(s) want me to keep trying when things are tough at

college.

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Agree (3)
- Strongly Agree (4)

Q19 At my college, professors care about students.

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Agree (3)
- Strongly Agree (4)

This set of questions asks you about goals you may have for the future. Rate each item by choosing how important each goal is to you.

Q20 My image will be one other's find appealing.

- Not at all Important (1)
- Very Unimportant (2)
- Somewhat Unimportant (3)
- Neither Important nor Unimportant (4)
- Somewhat Important (5)
- Very Important (6)
- Extremely Important (7)

Q21 I will assist people who need it, asking nothing in return.

- Not at all Important (1)
- Very Unimportant (2)
- Somewhat Unimportant (3)
- Neither Important nor Unimportant (4)
- Somewhat Important (5)
- Very Important (6)
- Extremely Important (7)

Q22 I will choose what I do, instead of being pushed along by life.

- Not at all Important (1)
- Very Unimportant (2)
- Somewhat Unimportant (3)
- Neither Important nor Unimportant (4)
- Somewhat Important (5)
- Very Important (6)
- Extremely Important (7)

Q23 People will show affection to me, and I will to them.

- Not at all Important (1)
- Very Unimportant (2)
- Somewhat Unimportant (3)
- Neither Important nor Unimportant (4)
- Somewhat Important (5)
- Very Important (6)
- Extremely Important (7)

Q24 I will have many expensive possessions.

- Not at all Important (1)
- Very Unimportant (2)
- Somewhat Unimportant (3)
- Neither Important nor Unimportant (4)
- Somewhat Important (5)
- Very Important (6)
- Extremely Important (7)

Q25 I will achieve the "look" I've been after.

- Not at all Important (1)
- Very Unimportant (2)
- Somewhat Unimportant (3)
- Neither Important nor Unimportant (4)
- Somewhat Important (5)
- Very Important (6)
- Extremely Important (7)

Q26 I will be admired by many people.

- Not at all Important (1)
- Very Unimportant (2)
- Somewhat Unimportant (3)
- Neither Important nor Unimportant (4)
- Somewhat Important (5)
- Very Important (6)
- Extremely Important (7)

Q27 I will feel that there are people who really love me.

- Not at all Important (1)
- Very Unimportant (2)
- Somewhat Unimportant (3)
- Neither Important nor Unimportant (4)
- Somewhat Important (5)
- Very Important (6)
- Extremely Important (7)

Q28 I will feel free.

- Not at all Important (1)
- Very Unimportant (2)
- Somewhat Unimportant (3)
- Neither Important nor Unimportant (4)
- Somewhat Important (5)
- Very Important (6)
- Extremely Important (7)

Q29 The things I do will make other people's lives better.

- Not at all Important (1)
- Very Unimportant (2)
- Somewhat Unimportant (3)
- Neither Important nor Unimportant (4)
- Somewhat Important (5)
- Very Important (6)
- Extremely Important (7)

Q30 My name will be known by many different people.

- Not at all Important (1)
- Very Unimportant (2)
- Somewhat Unimportant (3)
- Neither Important nor Unimportant (4)
- Somewhat Important (5)
- Very Important (6)
- Extremely Important (7)

Q31 I will be in good physical shape.

- Not at all Important (1)
- Very Unimportant (2)
- Somewhat Unimportant (3)
- Neither Important nor Unimportant (4)
- Somewhat Important (5)
- Very Important (6)
- Extremely Important (7)

Q32 Someone in my life will accept me as I am, no matter what.

- Not at all Important (1)
- Very Unimportant (2)
- Somewhat Unimportant (3)
- Neither Important nor Unimportant (4)
- Somewhat Important (5)
- Very Important (6)
- Extremely Important (7)

Q33 I will deal effectively with problems in my life.

- Not at all Important (1)
- Very Unimportant (2)
- Somewhat Unimportant (3)
- Neither Important nor Unimportant (4)
- Somewhat Important (5)
- Very Important (6)
- Extremely Important (7)

Q34 People will often comment about how attractive I look.

- Not at all Important (1)
- Very Unimportant (2)
- Somewhat Unimportant (3)
- Neither Important nor Unimportant (4)
- Somewhat Important (5)
- Very Important (6)
- Extremely Important (7)

Q35 I will feel good about my level of physical fitness.

- Not at all Important (1)
- Very Unimportant (2)
- Somewhat Unimportant (3)
- Neither Important nor Unimportant (4)
- Somewhat Important (5)
- Very Important (6)
- Extremely Important (7)

Q36 I will be financially successful.

- Not at all Important (1)
- Very Unimportant (2)
- Somewhat Unimportant (3)
- Neither Important nor Unimportant (4)
- Somewhat Important (5)
- Very Important (6)
- Extremely Important (7)

Q37 Most everyone who knows me will like me.

- Not at all Important (1)
- Very Unimportant (2)
- Somewhat Unimportant (3)
- Neither Important nor Unimportant (4)
- Somewhat Important (5)
- Very Important (6)
- Extremely Important (7)

Q38 I will feel good about my abilities.

- Not at all Important (1)
- Very Unimportant (2)
- Somewhat Unimportant (3)
- Neither Important nor Unimportant (4)
- Somewhat Important (5)
- Very Important (6)
- Extremely Important (7)

Q39 I will successfully hide the signs of aging.

- Not at all Important (1)
- Very Unimportant (2)
- Somewhat Unimportant (3)
- Neither Important nor Unimportant (4)
- Somewhat Important (5)
- Very Important (6)
- Extremely Important (7)

Q40 I will be relatively free from sickness.

- Not at all Important (1)
- Very Unimportant (2)
- Somewhat Unimportant (3)
- Neither Important nor Unimportant (4)
- Somewhat Important (5)
- Very Important (6)
- Extremely Important (7)

Q41 I will have enough money to buy everything I want.

- Not at all Important (1)
- Very Unimportant (2)
- Somewhat Unimportant (3)
- Neither Important nor Unimportant (4)
- Somewhat Important (5)
- Very Important (6)
- Extremely Important (7)

Q42 I will express my love for special people.

- Not at all Important (1)
- Very Unimportant (2)
- Somewhat Unimportant (3)
- Neither Important nor Unimportant (4)
- Somewhat Important (5)
- Very Important (6)
- Extremely Important (7)

Q43 I will overcome the challenges that life presents me.

- Not at all Important (1)
- Very Unimportant (2)
- Somewhat Unimportant (3)
- Neither Important nor Unimportant (4)
- Somewhat Important (5)
- Very Important (6)
- Extremely Important (7)

Q44 I will have insight into why I do the things I do.

- Not at all Important (1)
- Very Unimportant (2)
- Somewhat Unimportant (3)
- Neither Important nor Unimportant (4)
- Somewhat Important (5)
- Very Important (6)
- Extremely Important (7)

Q45 I will help the world become a better place.

- Not at all Important (1)
- Very Unimportant (2)
- Somewhat Unimportant (3)
- Neither Important nor Unimportant (4)
- Somewhat Important (5)
- Very Important (6)
- Extremely Important (7)

Q46 I will have a committed, intimate relationship.

- Not at all Important (1)
- Very Unimportant (2)
- Somewhat Unimportant (3)
- Neither Important nor Unimportant (4)
- Somewhat Important (5)
- Very Important (6)
- Extremely Important (7)

Q47 I will have a job that pays well.

- Not at all Important (1)
- Very Unimportant (2)
- Somewhat Unimportant (3)
- Neither Important nor Unimportant (4)
- Somewhat Important (5)
- Very Important (6)
- Extremely Important (7)

Q48 I will be physically healthy.

- Not at all Important (1)
- Very Unimportant (2)
- Somewhat Unimportant (3)
- Neither Important nor Unimportant (4)
- Somewhat Important (5)
- Very Important (6)
- Extremely Important (7)

Q49 I will keep up with fashions in clothing and hair.

- Not at all Important (1)
- Very Unimportant (2)
- Somewhat Unimportant (3)
- Neither Important nor Unimportant (4)
- Somewhat Important (5)
- Very Important (6)
- Extremely Important (7)

Q62 Would you like to be entered into the raffle for the \$50 Amazon gift card?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Demographic Questionnaire

Please choose the best answer for the following demographic questions.

Q1 Gender

- Male (1)
- Female (2)
- Prefer not to respond (3)

Q2 Which best describes your student status?

- First Generation college attendee. This means a student from a family where no parent or guardian has earned a baccalaureate (four year) degree. (1)
- Non-first generation college attendee. This means a student whose parents or guardians earned at least one baccalaureate (four-year) degree. (2)

Q3 Race/Ethnicity:

- African American/Black (1)
- Asian/Pacific Island (2)
- Hispanic/Latino (3)
- Native American/American Indian (4)
- White/Caucasian (5)
- Not Listed/Please specify (6) _____
- Prefer not to respond (7)

Q4 College/University Attending. If attending more than one college or university, please choose the college/university that sent this survey.

- Cameron University (1)
- Langston University (2)
- Northeastern State University (3)
- Oklahoma City Community College (4)
- Oklahoma State University (5)
- Rogers State University (6)
- Tulsa Community College (7)
- Tulsa University (8)
- University of Central Oklahoma (9)
- University of Oklahoma (10)
- Not listed. Please specify. (11) _____

Q5 Class Status

- Freshman (1)
- Sophomore (2)
- Junior (3)
- Senior (4)
- 5th Year Senior (5)
- Continuing Education (6)

Q6 Which best describes the degree you are seeking?

- Associate's Degree (1)
- Bachelor's Degree (2)
- Certificate (3)
- Other (4) _____

Q7 Age:

- Under 18 (1)
- 18-19 (2)
- 20-21 (3)
- 22-24 (4)
- 25 and above (5)

Q8 Do you live on or off campus?

- Campus Housing (1)
- Greek Housing (2)
- Off Campus with parents (3)
- Off campus with friends (4)
- Off campus with spouse (5)
- Off campus alone (6)
- Other (7) _____

APPENDIX G: Recruitment and Follow-Up Scripts

Dear Students,

Thank you for your interest to complete this survey. Participation is voluntary and you must be 18 years old to continue. You will need about 10 minutes to answer the questions and if at any time you wish to take a break and return to the survey later, please do so. By participating, you have the opportunity to offer your opinion about student engagement and its relationship with college students' future aspirations for dissertation research. You will also be entered into a drawing for four **\$50 Amazon gift cards**. A drawing for **two** \$50 gift cards will occur at the end of **each semester** of the study. The records of this study will be kept private. Any written results will discuss group findings and will not include information that will identify you. If you have questions about your rights as a research volunteer, you may contact the primary investigator, Jenniffer Callaway at jennifercallaway@okstate.edu or Dr. Hugh Crethar at crethar@okstate.edu. You may also contact the IRB Office at 223 Scott Hall, Stillwater, OK 74078, 405-744-3377 or irb@okstate.edu. Participation is voluntary and you can discontinue the research activity at any time without reprisal or penalty. Thank you for helping me collect data for my dissertation, Student Engagement and College Students' Future Aspirations.

All the best,

Jenniffer Callaway

Hi! Just a friendly reminder you can participate in sharing your perception about student engagement and its relationship with college students' future aspirations for dissertation research. You will also be entered into a drawing for four \$50 Amazon gift cards. A drawing for two \$50 gift cards will occur at the end of each semester of the study. The records of this study will be kept private. Any written results will discuss group findings and will not include information that will identify you. Research records will be stored securely, electronically, for 3 years and only researchers and individuals responsible for research oversight will have access to the records. It is possible that the consent process and data collection will be observed by research oversight staff responsible for safeguarding the rights and well-being of people who participate in research. If you have questions about your rights as a research volunteer, you may contact the primary investigator, Jenniffer Callaway at jennifercallaway@okstate.edu or Dr. Hugh Crethar at crethar@okstate.edu. You may also contact the IRB Office at 223 Scott Hall, Stillwater, OK 74078, 405-744-3377 or irb@okstate.edu. Participation is voluntary and you can discontinue the research activity at any time without reprisal or penalty. By continuing to complete the survey, you indicate you have read and fully understand the consent form and you participate voluntarily. Please check the appropriate box below to continue and thank you for helping me collect data for my dissertation, Student Engagement and College Students' Future Aspirations.

VITA

Jenniffer Delane Callaway

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy/Education

Thesis: STUDENT ENGAGEMENT AND COLLEGE STUDENTS' FUTURE
ASPIRATIONS

Major Field: Educational Psychology

Education:

Completed the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy/Education in Educational Psychology at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma in December, 2016.

Completed the requirements for the Master of Human Relations in Counseling at Oklahoma University, Norman, Oklahoma, USA, in May 2013.

Completed the requirements for the Bachelor of Science in English Education at Cameron University, Lawton, Oklahoma, USA, in 1992.

Experience:

Adjunct Faculty
Tulsa Community College
August 2016 – Present
Tulsa, OK 74133

Teacher
Epic Charter School
July 2016 – Present
Tulsa, OK 74146

Teacher
Jenks Alternative Center
March 2009 – May 2016
Jenks, Oklahoma 74037

Adjunct Faculty
University of Phoenix
June 2006 – May 2011
University of Phoenix

Professional Memberships:

Kappa Delta Phi International Honor Society
Phi Kappa Phi Honor Society
Educational Psychology Student Association Member, Officer