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# An Interactive Perspective on Classroom Motivation: A Practitioner Research Study in a Taiwanese University Context

## by

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# Abstract

This thesis reports on a practitioner research study which adopts a social constructivist approach (Williams and Burden 1997) to the investigation of classroom motivation. The social constructivist approach to motivation shows its strength in taking into account both the internal and external factors of motivation influences. It places its emphasis on the effect of contextual factors on learner motivation and it considers motivation to be constructed through learners' interaction with the learning context. Taking into account the notion of social constructivism, this practitioner research study aims to explore how classroom motivation is co-constructed through the social interaction between teachers and learners.

The study took place in two English courses for non-English majors in a Taiwanese university for one semester (February 2008—June 2008). Classroom motivation is investigated through a variety of research methods. Both qualitative and quantitative research instruments—questionnaires, learner reflective diaries, post-class reflective writings, learner interviews and teaching journals—were used in an attempt to explore how classroom motivation develops in cycles, in which teachers and learners receive reciprocal effects from each other. The results of the study shed light on how different types of teacher and learner behaviours influence learner and teacher motivation respectively.

# Chapter One: Introduction

In this chapter, the purpose and methods of the present study will be introduced so as to provide a general background of the research. Before proceeding to the main chapters of the thesis, the organization of the thesis will also be outlined at the end of the chapter.

## 1.1 Research Aims

Over the past two decades, research in the realm of L2 motivation has been shifting its focus from individual cognition to the interplay between the individual and the social environment. It is believed that the construction of learning motivation is not merely a thinking process within the learner's mind. It is also subject to learners' interaction with the learning environment. Ushioda (2003:90) indicates that motivation is a 'socially mediated process' in which learner motivation is developed through the social-interactive processes between learners and others. This social-cognitive perspective toward the investigation of motivation integrates the traditional cognitive approach and Vygotsky's social interactionism according to which it is believed that one's social interaction with other individuals plays a crucial role in the development of one's higher psychological functions. (Vygotsky 1978:52-57). In an attempt to take into account the influences of learner cognition as well as the social context, Dörnyei (1994) and Williams and Burden (1997) generate two motivational frameworks to demonstrate how learner motivation may be influenced by various internal and external factors simultaneously.

However, in the frameworks of Dörnyei and Williams and Burden, teachers only serve as an external factor influencing the construction of learner

motivation. The issue of teacher motivation is not discussed. I consider teacher motivation to be an important element in the development of learner motivation because the teaching motivation of teachers may determine how the social interaction develops in the classroom, especially in the educational context of Taiwan where classroom interaction is usually, if not always, initiated and led by teachers. Thus, in the present study, I aim to generate a motivational framework which not only integrates the frameworks of Dörnyei and Williams and Burden but also incorporates the component of teacher motivation.

According to my past teaching experiences, university learners' de-motivation in learning English has been a popular issue discussed by Taiwanese teachers. I remembered that once in the staffroom, one of my colleagues talked about the learning motivation of his students and said, 'If you enjoy it, they enjoy it.' This notion is also discussed in the article of Csikszentmihalyi (1997), who indicates that teachers' enthusiasm in teaching may influence learners' commitment toward learning. It seems to be a common perception that motivated teachers are more likely to produce motivated learners. However, the mediating factors between teacher motivation and learner motivation still remain unknown. As an English teacher, I still cannot help wondering why the same group of learners may be motivated in class in certain lessons while not in others and why I tend to feel more motivated in certain classes while not in others. Does my teaching motivation really influence what I did in the classroom? What exactly have I done right and what exactly have I done wrong? These questions prompt me to conduct a research study to investigate the relationship between teacher motivation and learner motivation. I believe that learner motivation and teacher motivation may have reciprocal influences on each other. I aim to find out how the reciprocal influences between teacher motivation

and learner motivation are mediated by teacher-pupil interaction and how the co-construction of classroom motivation evolves in cycles. It is hoped that the results of the present study may not only help me to generate deeper understanding about my own practice but also raise Taiwanese teachers' awareness of how classroom motivation is co-constructed by teachers and learners through their social interaction, and provide teachers with ways to produce a motivating classroom environment for learners as well as for themselves.

## 1.2 An Overview of the Research Context and Research Methods

The research study takes place in a technological university in Taiwan, where English is taught in schools as a foreign language. According to the Ministry of Education in Taiwan, English is taught in schools as an obligatory subject since second grade. It means that every Taiwanese freshman will have learned English for at least ten years before starting their university education. Due to the swift development in computer technology and transportation, the globalization of economy and culture has made English an essential ability for the daily life of Taiwanese people. Numerous corporations and institutions in Taiwan have made English proficiency a required competence for new-comers. How to improve learners' English learning environment and learner motivation have also become issues widely discussed by the public.

Due to the complex essence of human motivation, traditional motivation research tends to adopt a quantitative measure in the investigation of motivation. Researchers usually examine the issue of motivation by isolating behaviour and manipulating variables. Although there is no denying that such methodological measurements show their strengths in investigating the construct of motivation systematically, they fall short of understanding and presenting the complex nature

of human behaviour. Wetherell et al. (1998) suggest that rather than repress the ambiguities and openness of social action, researchers in social psychology should look into the particular nature of social life, however complex it may be. Therefore, in the present study, I intend to investigate the issue of classroom motivation through a variety of research instruments. It is hoped that by integrating qualitative and quantitative methods, the present study may retain the systematic essence of traditional motivation research while, in the meantime, take into consideration the complex nature of human motivation by using 'softer' methods. Details of the methodological design will be illustrated further in chapter three.

## 1.3 The Structure of the Thesis

The thesis is organized into six chapters, namely *Introduction*, *Literature Review*, *Methodology*, *Findings*, *Discussion* and *Conclusion*. In the next chapter, a review of relevant literature in the field of L2 motivation will be presented. I will first make a comparison between the motivational frameworks of Dörnyei (1994) and Williams and Burden (1997). Then, a motivational framework stressing the interrelationship between teacher motivation and learner motivation will be produced basing on the frameworks of the above authors. Following the literature review, the methodological issues involved in this study will be discussed in chapter three, where I will illustrate the strengths and weaknesses of different research methods. The research limitations I encountered during the research process and how the study eventually switched from non-participatory research to practitioner research will also be discussed. Then, the results of the study will be presented in chapter four. In chapter five, I will set out to discuss the four research questions proposed in the present study. Findings presented in chapter four and

relevant literature in the field of motivation will be used to support the discussion. The motivational framework will also be modified according to the results of the study. Lastly, in chapter six, I will give a summary of the research findings along with the pedagogical implications for teachers and suggestions for future studies.

# Chapter Two: Literature Review

Anderson, Hamilton, and Hattie (2004: 211) indicate there are three main lines of motivation research, namely the *behavioural*, *cognitive*, and *social learning theoretical approach*. The *behavioural approach* focuses on the reward systems of desired behaviour. Human behaviour is viewed as a process of stimulus and response, a chain of cause and effect. On the other hand, the *cognitive approach* draws its attention to features within the individual rather than the environment. Considerable emphasis is placed on the 'choices' people make over their actions and the 'unobservable' thinking process in the human mind (Chambers 2001). More recently, the development of motivation research is moving toward a *social-cognitive perspective* which stresses the significant motivational effect of the social interaction between individuals and the social context. Since the aim of the present study is to explore how teachers and learners co-construct their motivation through teacher-pupil interaction in the classroom, the social-interactive perspective on classroom motivation is especially relevant to the investigation here.

In an attempt to learn more about how teachers, as one of the contextual influences, play a part in the construction of learner motivation through social interaction, Williams and Burden's (1997) social constructivist approach to language learning motivation will be elaborated in 2.1 and a comparison between theirs and Dörnyei's (1994) framework will be made to see how both frameworks place their emphases on the contextual influences on learner motivation. Then in 2.2, an interactive motivational framework will be generated on the basis of social constructivism. Rather than focusing solely on the influences of teachers on learner motivation, attention will be drawn to the interplay between teacher

motivation and learner motivation to see how their reciprocal influences on each other are mediated by their in-class behaviours.


**2.1 A Social Constructivist Approach to Language Learning Motivation**

Williams and Burden proposed a social constructivist approach to learning in 1997 which incorporated the traditional cognitive approach and social interactionism in their framework. They claim that the social constructivist approach is essentially cognitive but broadened to include influences that are not inside the learners, such as the influence from other people. As with the cognitive approach, social constructivists suggest that human beings play an active role in making choices. However, cognitive theorists mainly focus on the influence of individual thinking and overlook the potential effect of social context. In response to the limitation of the cognitive approach, social constructivists draw researchers' attention to the interplay between learners and social context. Their approach not only takes into account the active role the human mind plays in constructing learning and motivation but also highlights the substantial influences of the social environment. Vygotsky (1978), a social interactionist, claimed that cognitive development emerges from culturally organized, socially mediated practices. It is believed that through social interaction with more competent others, learners would be able to internalize higher-order cognitive functions. Since learning motivation has been highly related to learner cognition, such as goal-orientation, self-determination, attribution etc., Vygotsky's sociocultural perspective toward learning can be applied as well to the construction of motivation. Rueda and Moll (1994:131) indicate that the sociocultural perspective on motivation implies motivation to be socially negotiated, socially distributed and context specific. These claims all draw motivation researchers' attention to learners' social

interaction with teachers or peers; and imply the significant impact of these interactions on the construction of learning motivation.

The social constructivist approach to motivation shows its strength in taking into account both the internal and external factors of motivation influences. Dörnyei (2001a:19) indicates that social constructivists consider motivation to be a multi-dimensional mental force that cannot be simplified as something which is either internally or externally constructed. In order to provide an overview of the factors influencing motivation on the basis of social constructivism, Williams and Burden (1997) propose a framework of motivation factors which draws together theories from cognitive and social interactionist approaches. The influences are grouped into two categories—*internal* and *external factors* — which can be seen from the table below (see Table 2.1):

| Internal Factors | External Factors |
|---|---|
| ● Intrinsic interest of activity | ● Significant others |
| ● Perceived value of activity | ● The nature of interaction with significant others |
| ● Sense of agency | |
| ● Mastery | ● The learning environment |
| ● Self-concept | ● The broader context |
| ● Attitudes | |
| ● Other affective status | |
| ● Developmental age and stage | |
| ● Gender | |

**Table 2.1 Williams and Burden's framework of learning motivation (Reproduced from Williams and Burden 1997:138)**

In Williams and Burden's framework of motivation, internal factors and external factors are of the same importance. Internal factors place their focus on the internal mental process of learners; while external factors deal with learners' interaction with the learning environment. The framework raises researchers'

awareness of the multi-dimensional nature of motivation and provides a holistic picture of factors influencing learner motivation.

It is interesting to compare Williams and Burden's framework with Dörnyei's framework of language learning motivation in 1994. Dörnyei's emphasis on the situational components of motivation is partially in line with the underlying belief of social constructivism. The two frameworks differ in the way motivation components are categorized. William and Burden classify the motivation factors into two clusters—*internal* and *external factors* (see Table 2.1); while Dörnyei groups them into three—*language level*, *learner level* and *learning situation level* (see Table 2.2 overleaf). Moreover, the two frameworks are different in terms of the paradigm they are situated in. Williams and Burden's framework is mainly derived from mainstream motivational literature while Dörnyei further incorporates L2 motivational theories in his framework.

However, both frameworks synthesize lines of research and manage to incorporate internal influences of motivation with external ones. In terms of internal factors, the subcomponents in Dörnyei's *Learner Level* are similar to Williams and Burden's *mastery* and *self-concept* factors, in which both stress the influences of 'achievement' and 'self-concept' on learning motivation. Moreover, the subcomponents of *Language Level* is related to Williams and Burden's *attitudes* and *perceived value of activity* in that both frameworks include learners' attitudes toward the target language community and the pragmatic values learners associate with the language. As to external factors, both frameworks place substantial emphasis on the contextual influences on motivation. The contextual influences on L2 motivation are the most elaborated cluster in Dörnyei's framework. In his *Learning Situation Level*, contextual influences are further divided into three subcategories, namely *course-specific*, *teacher-specific* and

*group-specific motivational components*. These correspond to Williams and Burden's *significant others* and *the learning environment* in the sense that they all take into account the social influences of teachers, peers and the immediate learning environment.

| Language Level | • Integrative Motivational Subsystem<br>• Instrumental Motivational Subsystem |
|---|---|
| Learner Level | • Need for Achievement<br>• Self-Confidence |
| **Learning Situation Level**<br><br>*Course-Specific Motivational Components* | • Interest<br>• Relevance<br>• Expectancy<br>• Satisfaction |
| *Teacher-Specific Motivational Components* | • Affiliative Drive<br>• Authority Type<br>• Direct Socialization of Motivation |
| *Group-Specific Motivational Components* | • Goal-orientedness<br>• Norm & Reward System<br>• Group Cohesion<br>• Classroom Goal Structure |

**Table 2.2 Dörnyei's framework of L2 motivation
(Reproduced from Dörnyei 1994:280)**

The frameworks of Dörnyei and Williams and Burden analyse the issue of motivation from a social constructivist point of view and raise researchers' awareness of the interaction between learners and the social situations. Williams and Burden (1997: 121) indicate that

> …an individual's motivation is also subject to social and contextual influences. These will include the whole culture and context and the social situation, as well as significant other people and the individual's interaction with these people.

Dörnyei (1994:274) also asserts that

> …L2 learning is more complex than simply mastering new information and knowledge; in addition to the environmental and cognitive factors normally associated with learning in current educational psychology, it involves various personality traits and social components.

Rather than viewing language learning motivation as a stable, generalized construct, they prompt researchers to adopt a more situation-specific view and consider motivation as a dynamic factor which will evolve and change under the influence of various internal and external factors. By integrating some old elements with new ones, Dörnyei, Williams and Burden provide motivational researchers with an extended view of the L2 motivation construct and a holistic picture of the multi-dimensional influences on L2 motivation.

In the light of the concerns of social constructivists, the present study aims to focus on one of the most influential external factors in the language classrooms—teachers. It is hoped that the study may produce a framework which illustrates the social-interactive process between teacher motivation and learner motivation. Thus, in the next section, I will generate a motivational framework by integrating the frameworks of Dörnyei and Williams and Burden; and the components of teacher motivation will also be incorporated in the framework.

## 2.2 An Interactive Perspective on Classroom Motivation

Drawing on a social constructivist perspective, Ushioda (2003:90) indicates that motivation is a 'socially mediated process' in which the social interaction between learners and teachers plays a crucial role in the development of motivation. In this section, I will propose a motivational framework in an attempt to depict this 'socially mediated process' between teachers and learners.

As mentioned in the previous section, the underlying belief and subcomponents of my framework are mainly distilled from Dörnyei and Williams and Burden's motivational frameworks. Other cognitive or situation-specific variables from existing motivation literature are also added to the framework with the hope of making it more complete. I propose the framework in the belief that classroom motivation develops in cycles in which teachers and learners receive reciprocal effects from each other; and that motivation is co-constructed through the social interaction between teachers and learners. This interactive relationship is also suggested by Deci, Kasser and Ryan (1997:68) who claim that learners' motivation may be influenced by the motivation and behaviours of teachers and, in similar fashion, teachers' motivation may be influenced by those of learners. In an attempt to generate deeper understanding of this interactive relationship, I divide the cycle of my framework into four phases—*teacher motivation*, *teachers' in-class behaviour*, *learner motivation* and *learners' in-class behaviour*. A schematic representation of the framework can be seen in Figure 2.1 overleaf.

According to the framework, it is believed that before teachers and learners enter the classroom settings, they have their original teaching or learning motivation which has been fostered according to their past experiences or attitudes associated with language teaching or learning. It is assumed that their motivation may influence the way they behave in the classroom and these in-class behaviours may in turn influence the motivation and behaviours of their counterparts. In this framework, the development of classroom motivation is considered to be a continuous process and it evolves through the interaction between teachers and learners. In this section, I will discuss the sub-components covered in each phase in further detail by drawing on literature from mainstream motivation and L2 motivation theory.
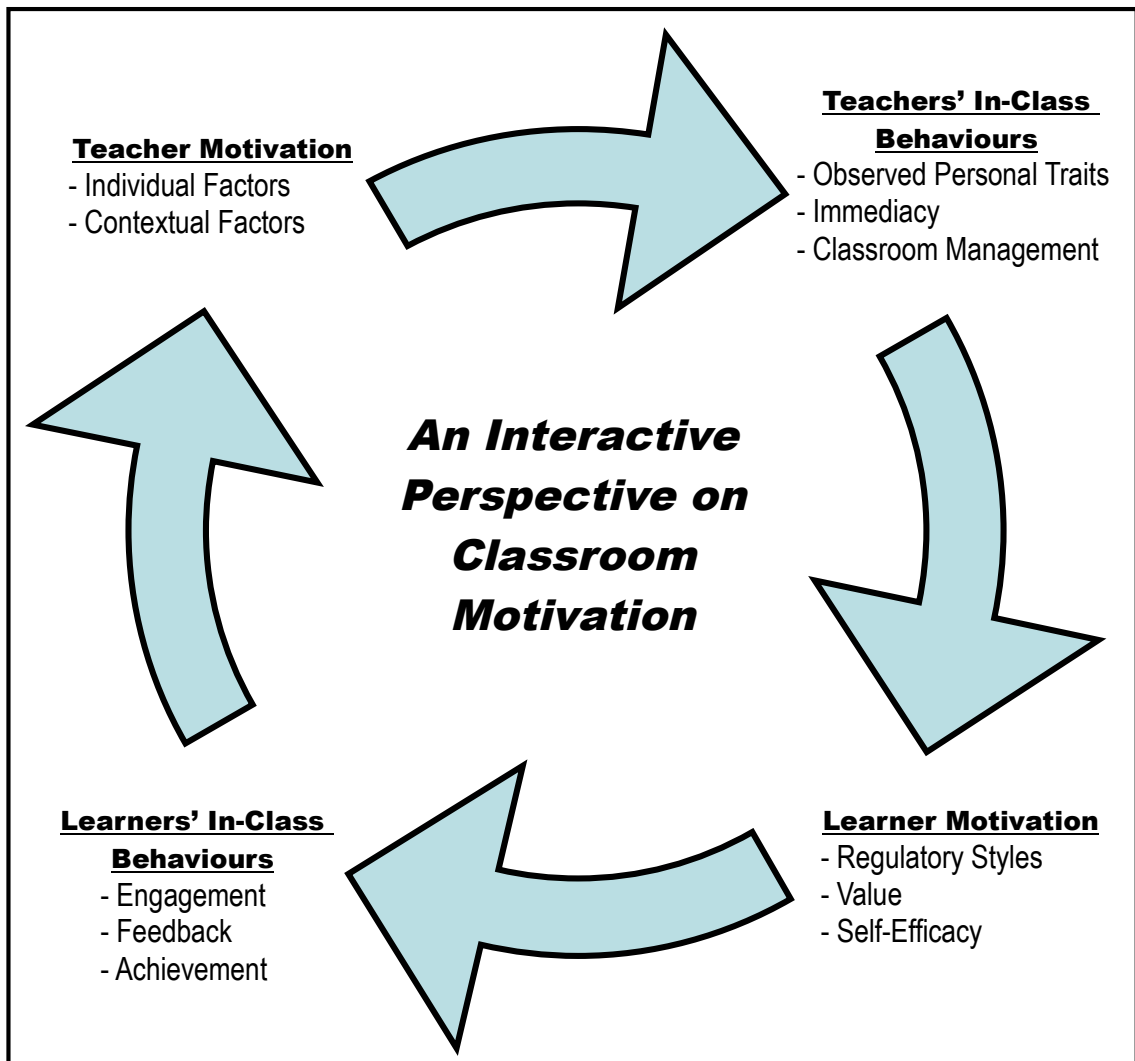
**Figure 2.1 An Interactive Perspective on Classroom Motivation**

*2.2.1 Teacher Motivation*

Dörnyei (2001b:50) describes teacher motivation to be 'infectious,' which indicates its substantial impact on learners. However, this issue has not received much attention from researchers until recently. Although literature on teacher motivation is fairly limited, it does provide a solid basis for future research. Most such literature investigates the issue in the light of cognitive theories of motivation or stresses the influences of contextual factors on the construct. In an attempt to understand how teachers develop their motivation to teach, I will discuss the formation of teacher motivation from two perspectives—*individual* and *contextual factors*.

*2.2.1.1 Individual Factors*

Individual factors here mainly refer to the internal elements that constitute teacher motivation such as the intrinsic component, self-efficacy, expectations and other affective factors. In terms of the intrinsic component, teachers' intrinsic motivation to teach is of particular importance for the development and maintenance of their motivation. When a teacher is intrinsically-motivated, the teaching experience per se is an end in itself and the engagement in the activity is rewarding and valuable. It does not need much research evidence to justify the fact that when people enjoy doing something, they will be more willing to persist in the activity. Csikszentmihalyi (1997:82) calls this experience *flow*, under which one will feel so immersed in the activity with little attention left to worry about the outcome. On the other hand, people who perform an activity because of extrinsic reasons may easily lose their motivation when they receive negative outcomes or when the external sources are withdrawn from the setting. This *flow* experience is also discussed in the study of Carbonneau et al. (2008:978) in which they found that teachers' harmonious passion[1] for teaching, which is considered to be associated with Csikszentmihalyi's *flow*, may lead to more job satisfaction and less burnout symptoms among teachers.

Csikszentmihalyi (1997:83) claims that the experience of *flow* will best occur when there is a balance of 'challenges' and 'skills'. When the challenge of a task is beyond one's competence, anxiety may occur. On the other hand, one may feel bored if one's capability outweighs the challenge. This balance is related to one's self-efficacy beliefs when involved in an activity, which is another major

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[1] According to the definition of Carbonneau et al. (2008:978), *harmonious passion* occurs when one autonomously internalizes an activity into one's identity, which implies that one freely attaches value to the activity. It is opposite to *obsessive passion* in which one internalizes an activity because one feels one *has* to do it.

individual factor in the formation of teacher motivation. Bandura (1986:391) defines self-efficacy as

> people's judgment of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances.

Bandura (1997:242) suggests that people who have a lower sense of self-efficacy tend to focus on their personal weaknesses rather than ways to perform tasks successfully. This implies that teachers who have low self-efficacy beliefs are more likely to lose confidence in their competence and they may also show lower problem-solving abilities in the face of obstacles. This may in turn generate failing teaching experiences and influence a teacher's involvement and persistence in teaching. This is in line with what Walker and Symons (1997) indicate. They claim successful teaching experiences to be crucial in the development of teacher motivation because they are closely associated with the formation of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs.

Another cognitive factor that can be associated with teacher motivation is teachers' expectations toward learners' performances and toward their own teaching ability. Dörnyei (2001c) indicates that the expectancy-value theories have been the most influential concept in motivational psychology during the past five decades. In the expectancy-value framework, it is suggested that people's motivation to perform a task is influenced by their *expectancy of success* in given tasks and the *value* they attach to the completion of the tasks. To look at the effect of expectations on learner motivation, Tollefson (2000) indicates that learners' willingness to expend effort on a task is closely related to whether or not they expect themselves to be able to perform the task successfully. If a learner expects to succeed in the task, he will be more likely to expend maximum effort on the

task. The same notion can be applied to teacher motivation. Gibson and Dembo (1984) and Tollefson (2000) indicate that throughout teachers' careers, they develop *outcome expectations* concerning their expectations about learners' learning outcome as well as *efficacy expectations* which are related to their beliefs about their ability to help students to learn. These expectations may play a part in teachers' willingness to expend effort on teaching.

In the light of the *Pygmalion Effect*, it is believed that teachers' expectations concerning learners' learning potential may play a part in teachers' in-class behaviours which may in turn affect learners' learning outcomes in a corresponding fashion. This notion is verified in a widely- discussed experiment conducted by Rosenthal and Jacobson (1992), in which they manipulated teachers' expectations for students by providing teachers with false results of the learners' intelligence test in order to make teachers believe some learners were about to bloom intellectually. However, as a matter of fact, these learners who were identified as intellectual bloomers were randomly selected. The result of their experiment reveals that, at the end of the school year, learners who were believed to be bloomers did show better performance. Rosenthal and Jacobson (ibid.:160) reason that it is possibly because the false information created differential teacher expectations toward the 'bloomers' and these expectations in turn influenced the way teachers treated these students which subsequently led to better performance of these learners. Good and Brophy (1984:104,112) further suggest that as positive expectations may lead to differential teacher behaviours which increase learner achievement, negative expectations may also lead to differential teacher treatment toward learners such as waiting less time for an answer or calling on particular learners less often, which may in turn reduce learner achievement in a similar fashion.

Lastly, affective factors are also indispensable in the understanding of teacher motivation. Graham (1991:16) indicates that it is crucial for researchers in the field of educational psychology to incorporate emotions in the investigation of motivation. After all, the classroom is a place where multiple feelings with motivational significance occur, including emotions generated by achievement or failure, as well as attitudes and values. Meyer and Turner (2006) also suggest that motivation researchers should consider motivation and emotion as integrated and simultaneous. The synthesis of motivation and affect is salient in Csikszentmihalyi (1997)'s *flow theory*, in which he claims that the experience of enjoyment, or *flow*, as he calls it, is closely related to one's intrinsic motivation. When experiencing *flow*, an individual will be highly involved and focused in an activity and the experience per se provides the intrinsic rewards that are needed in sustaining the motivation. If positive emotions are crucial in the generation and maintenance of teacher motivation, in the same respect, negative emotions may diminish a teacher's motivation to teach. Dörnyei (2001c:174) indicates that most teaching jobs have exceptionally high stress level. To look at the university English courses in Taiwan, teachers usually have to face a large number of students (approximately 40-60) all at the same time and most learners do not *choose* to take the courses. Rather, they attend the courses because it is obligatory for them to take English courses no matter what subjects they major in. It is difficult enough to control such a big class but teachers still have to *teach* students subjects that most of the latter are not interested in. Besides stress, other negative emotions such as boredom or anxiety are also common feelings among teachers, which are possibly generated by a lack of intellectual challenges or insufficient self-efficacy or competence (Csikszentmihalyi 1997; Dörnyei 2001c:167).

*2.2.1.2 Contextual Factors*

After looking at individual cognitive and affective factors, we will now move on to a discussion of contextual influences on teacher motivation which will be elaborated in the light of Dinham and Scott's (2000) three-domain model of teacher satisfaction. Dinham and Scott conducted a large-scale study by surveying 2000 teachers and school executives in England, New Zealand and Australia in an attempt to investigate teacher satisfaction and motivation. They offer research evidence to show that teacher career satisfaction can be influenced by three domains of factors—*societal-based factors, school-based factors* and *intrinsic factors*.

The *societal-based factors*, or *macrocontextual influences* in Dörnyei's term (2001c:161), are related to the broader societal context such as the government, parents or society over which the teachers and schools have little control. These factors are discussed in the study of Roth et al. (2007:771) who suggest that the educational policies such as the standardised testing for students mandated by the government may influence teachers' autonomous motivation for teaching. Especially in Taiwan, the educational culture is exam-oriented and teachers and schools are often evaluated on the basis of the exam results of students. It generates a competitive goal structure in which teachers and schools focus on relative ability because those who gain better results are rewarded, whereas those with worse results are punished. Concerning learner motivation, Dörnyei and Malderez (1997:74) indicate that there is consistent evidence showing that the competitive goal structure is less effective in promoting intrinsic motivation of learners, compared to the cooperative goal structure. This notion can also be applied to the development of teacher motivation. Roth et al. (2007:771) further suggest that teachers' autonomous motivation for teaching has

a positive relationship with their senses of personal accomplishment and a negative relationship with their emotional exhaustion. This implies that the societal-based factors may also indirectly play a part in teachers' occupational well-being.

As to the *school-based factors*, or *microcontextual influences*, as Dörnyei (2001c:161) calls these, they refer to the general climate and norms of the schools. Research reveals that school-based factors such as feedback (Walker and Symons 1997:6-7), the autonomy support from schools (Pelletier, Séguin-Lévesque and Legault 2002; Roth et al. 2007:771), and classroom structure (Csikszentmihalyi 1997) play a part in the development of teacher motivation. It is suggested that teacher motivation is more likely to develop under a teaching context which provides immediate feedback to teachers on their performance, gives them sufficient control over teaching, and is rewarding and manageable. Lastly, the *intrinsic factors* refer to the 'core business of teaching' such as the self-growth of teachers and student achievement. However, since this domain overlaps with the 'individual factors' discussed earlier and the 'achievement' component of learner behaviours which will be elaborated later in 2.2.4.3, this domain of factors will not be discussed further in this sub-component.

To sum up, in the motivational framework of the present study, teacher motivation is considered to be related to two clusters of factors. The first cluster, *individual factors*, comprises a number of cognitive and affective factors which constitute teacher motivation and which may vary from individual to individual. The second cluster, *contextual factors*, consists of microcontextual factors from schools and macrocontextual factors from the society. It is believed that these factors foster a teacher's motivation before he or she enters the classroom.

However, it does not suggest that a teacher's motivation will remain stable throughout his or her career. Due to the temporal dimension of motivation (Dörnyei 2001c), teachers may continuously modify their motivation through their interaction with the environment and their motivation may in turn influence how they behave in class. The relationship between teacher motivation and teacher behaviours was clearly reflected in Walker and Symons' study (1997) of two university teachers in which they suggest that a teacher's teaching motivation may influence the way they interact with the students, their willingness to try new teaching techniques, their problem-solving skills in the face of bad teaching experiences and even their voice and gestures in class. Pelletier, Séguin-Lévesque and Legault (2002) also discussed the influence of teacher motivation on teachers' controlling behaviours on learners in their study with 254 teachers. In an attempt to understand how teacher behaviours play a part in the construction of classroom motivation, in the next section, attention will be drawn to the different types of teacher behaviours in the classroom.

### 2.2.2 Teachers' In-class Behaviour

Since teachers are usually the interaction initiator and norm establisher in the classrooms, the way they construct the social experiences with their students may have a significant impact on learners. In the field of educational psychology, numerous research studies have been devoted to the investigation of teacher behaviours and their effects on learner motivation. In the motivational framework proposed in the present study, I have adapted Dörnyei's (2001c:35) classification of teachers' motivational influences on learners, synthesized different lines of motivation research and further divided teacher behaviours into three sub-categories, namely *observed personal traits*, *immediacy* and *classroom*

*management*.

### 2.2.2.1 Observed Personal Traits

In the present study, observed personal traits are defined as one's personal characteristics that are more intrinsic and not so much related to one's interpersonal skills. Some examples of this sub-category are teachers' observed enthusiasm, observed commitment, observed competence and personal charm. Csikszentmihalyi (1997) indicates that the most influential teachers are not necessarily those who are exceptionally intelligent or powerful. Rather, teachers who are remembered tend to be those who show their dedication and passion in what they do. The enthusiasm and commitment they reveal in the classroom is the most convincing argument for the value and worthiness of the knowledge. This notion is verified in the study conducted by Carbonneau et al. (2008) in which they found that teachers' passion for teaching may foster learners' adaptive behaviours in the classroom (e.g. cooperation and enthusiasm). However, the authors indicated that although the positive effect of passionate teachers on learners is widely accepted, the mediating factors between teachers' passion and positive learner behaviours still remain unknown. Thus, one purpose of the present study is to explore how the influence of teachers' observed enthusiasm on learner behaviours is mediated by learner motivation; and the present study further suggests that learner behaviours may in turn influence teacher motivation.

At this point, it is worth clarifying the difference between the 'observed enthusiasm and observed commitment' discussed here and the 'intrinsic motivation' mentioned in the previous section when discussing the individual factors of teacher motivation. Essentially, they both refer to a teacher's intrinsic desire and enjoyment in teaching. However, I intend to include this element in

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both phases of the motivational framework as teacher motivation as well as teacher behaviour because I believe one's motivation may sometimes differ from how one behaves. Although Csikszentmihalyi did not particularly distinguish the difference between one's perceived motivation and observed motivation in his article in 1997, which discusses the issue of teacher motivation, he did signal the potential differences between these two constructs in 1981 in his discussion of how leisure models such as rock singers, professional athletes, actors and so on try to convince the public that they enjoy what they do even when they do not.

> In effect the models are paid to make teenagers feel that life has meaning, even though the models themselves usually do not believe any such thing. (p.337)

This indicates that some teachers can also 'pretend' they enjoy teaching even if they are not really that motivated in their careers. In the same respect, it is also likely that some teachers may look less motivated than they really are due to other factors such as personality, self-efficacy etc.

Other observed personal traits such as observed competence are also considered to be influential to learner motivation. The influences of observed teacher competence on learner motivation were partially verified in the study of teacher credibility[2], in which 'competence' is one of its three dimensions. Knight (2006) defines 'competence' as a teacher's knowledge of the subject as well as his or her ability to teach in a way that is of value to the students. In other words, competent teachers are those who have expertise in the subjects they teach as well as talent for teaching. The observed competence of a teacher may determine a learner's perceived 'worth' of the teacher as well as his or her attitudes toward the

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[2] According to Banfield, Richmond and McCroskey (2006), teacher credibility is the degree to which a student perceives a teacher to be believable. Knight (2006) suggests that, historically, it usually consists of three dimensions—competence, trustworthiness and dynamism.

teacher. Especially in the educational context of Taiwan, teachers are considered to be the authorities on the subjects and most language classes are teacher-centred. Teachers' observed competence may be one of the major factors influencing how much Taiwanese learners value their teachers. The effect of teacher competence on learner motivation is verified in a study conducted by Banfield, Richmond and McCroskey (2006) which aims to investigate the effect of teacher misbehaviour on student affect. They find incompetent teachers, i.e. teachers who lack knowledge in the subject matter and basic teaching skills, negatively influence learner affect for the teacher and learners also claim that teacher incompetence may reduce their willingness to take a class with the teacher. Other than learners' attitudes toward the teacher and the class, Gläser-Zikuda and Fuß (2008) also claimed that observed teacher competence may influence learners' well-being and anxiety. In their study investigating the influences of teacher competence on learner emotions in physics instruction, they found that teachers' competence to motivate learners and their clarity of instruction are positively associated with learners' positive emotions; and teachers' lack of clarity in instruction may lead to learner uncertainty which may consequently increase learner anxiety.

Lastly, personal charm is also considered in the proposed motivational framework as teachers' observed personal traits that play a part in the construction of learner motivation. In the study of nonverbal communication (Knapp and Hall 2006), physical characteristics such as dress, general attractiveness, hair and skin colour are also considered to be a nonverbal behaviour which may constantly give signals about our attitudes, feelings and personality. Research shows that one's physical attractiveness may play a part during job interviews or when persuading others to agree with you or do something for you. People tend to respond more favourably to those who are considered to be physically attractive to them and

vice versa. In this case, a teacher's physical appearance may also influence the way learners react in the classroom as well as their attitudes toward the teacher.

*2.2.2.2 Immediacy*

Mehrabian (1972:31) indicates that immediacy refers to a type of communicative behaviour which increases a perception of physical and psychological closeness between the communicator and the addressee. According to Mehrabian (ibid.), immediacy can be non-verbal such as touching, closer position, eye contact, and so on; or verbal such as speech rate, speech volume, positive verbal content which indicates a positive feeling to the addressee, etc. It is worth noting that some researchers seem to define verbal immediacy differently in that they consider vocal variety to be non-verbal (Allen, Witt and Wheeless 2006; Rocca 2007). Since my focus here is on the concept of immediacy and its effect on learner motivation rather than the distinction between verbal and non-verbal immediacy, I will not further discuss the discrepancies here. To apply the concept of immediacy to teaching, teachers' immediacy behaviours can include moving around the classroom, looking at the students rather than the textbooks or boards, calling on students by name, asking learners how they feel, using humour, including personal stories, etc. (Dörnyei 2001c; Rocca 2007). The effect of teacher immediacy on learners is verified in numerous research studies. For example, in the studies of McCroskey, Richmond and Bennett (2006), and Pogue and AhYun (2006), they stress the positive influences of teacher immediacy on learner motivation and affective learning. In the study of Allen, Witt, and Wheeless (2006), they also find that teacher immediacy is not only beneficial in the development of learner motivation but also their cognitive learning.

Despite the importance of teacher immediacy to learners, immediacy

seems to be a communicative behaviour traditional Taiwanese teachers hardly adopt in the classroom. This is partially related to the teacher-pupil power hierarchies in the Taiwanese educational context in which teachers are believed to be the authority figures and knowledge-presenters in the classroom. In this case, the immediacy behaviours may contradict Taiwanese teachers' core teaching beliefs and values. Moreover, since Taiwanese teachers tend to focus on learners' academic outcomes rather than the learning process (Cheng and Dörnyei 2007) and are inclined to adopt grammar-based teaching in the language classroom for its effectiveness and convenience (Wang 2002:138), lectures on intensive course content tend to occupy most of the class time. It is unknown whether teachers' immediacy behaviours are a culture-independent construct which has more motivational effect in certain contexts rather than others. Given that teacher immediacy is such an important communicative behaviour in western contexts yet a neglected communicative behaviour in traditional language classrooms in Taiwan, it seems to be worthwhile to include this teacher behaviour in the investigation of learner motivation and probe into its effect on Taiwanese learners.

*2.2.2.3 Classroom Management*

It is fairly clear that a well-managed class is beneficial for learners' cognitive and affective learning. Dörnyei (2001c:36) indicates that teachers' classroom management practices are closely related to learners' well-being in the classroom and this may consequently enhance their motivation in learning. Hence, in the proposed motivational framework, teachers' classroom management behaviour is considered to be one of the major influences on learner motivation. In the present study, classroom management mainly refers to teachers' authority type and their ability to set and maintain group norms (Dörnyei ibid.:37).

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Research reveals that teachers' authority types, whether autonomy-supportive or controlling, are influential to learner motivation. Ryan and Deci (2003:263) suggest that autonomous forms of motivation will be more likely to develop under conditions where autonomy is supported. This notion is verified in the studies of Pelletier, Séguin-Lévesque and Legault (2002) and Roth et al. (2007:768) which found a positive relationship between teachers' autonomy-supportive behaviours and learners' autonomous motivation in learning. As discussed in 2.2.1.2, teachers' autonomy-supportive behaviours are related to the autonomy support they receive from the schools (Pelletier, Séguin-Lévesque and Legault 2002 and Roth et al. 2007). It is suggested that the more control teachers perceive from the higher authorities, the less self-determined they are in teaching. This decrease in self-determination may in turn lead teachers to be more controlling towards learners. To put it together, research evidence suggests that the degree of control from the teaching context may influence teacher motivation and this motivation may in turn influence their authority types in the classroom which subsequently play a part in learners' development of autonomous motivation. The relationships among teacher motivation, teacher behaviours and learner motivation correspond to the motivational framework in which it is believed that teacher motivation may influence their in-class behaviours and these behaviours may in turn influence learner motivation.

However, although autonomy has been a widely discussed concept in language learning since the 1980s, most research has been conducted in western contexts. In the past decade, researchers started to raise questions about the viability of autonomous teaching in East Asian contexts where teachers are expected to exercise authority and take charge of the teaching/learning process. In a study conducted with Hong Kong tertiary students, Spratt, Humphreys and Chan

(2002:251) found that their respondents considered teachers to be more responsible for the decision-making in the classroom and 'any teacher handing over responsibility for methodological areas would be "lazy" or even "crazy".' A similar result was found in Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) study in Taiwan, in which they found that Taiwanese teachers regarded 'promoting learner autonomy' to be an *unimportant* strategy in motivating language learners. The results of these studies suggest that the definition of autonomy in western contexts may need to be negotiated in order to match the educational culture of eastern contexts. This plea is reflected in Littlewood's (1999) categorization of 'proactive autonomy' and 'reactive autonomy' in which he claims that the former refers to the western form of autonomy in which learners are able to take full responsibility for their learning while the latter refers to a type of autonomy that is more suitable to East Asian contexts in which learners engage autonomously in the agenda set by their teachers. Since Taiwan is situated in East Asia and its educational culture is also teacher-centred, the concept of 'reactive autonomy' may also apply to Taiwan.

In terms of group norms, Ehrman and Dörnyei (1998:130) define them as 'the rules that govern behaviour within any community.' In classroom settings, norms may determine the way learners define achievement in the classroom, the effort they expend on a task as well as the efficiency and quality of their works. For example, the achievement goal structure in the classroom is an issue that has received considerable attention from motivational scholars. It is believed that the achievement goal structures learners perceive in the classroom are related to their personal achievement goals, academic efficacy as well as their in-school behaviours (Roeser, Midgley and Urdan 1996). Ames (1992) indicates that there are mainly two achievement goal constructs, namely *mastery goal* and *performance goal*. Central to a mastery goal is a belief that effort leads to success

and it focuses on the intrinsic value of learning. By contrast, a performance goal draws attention to one's sense of self-worth and ability to perform better than others. A study conducted by Midgley, Anderman and Hicks (1995) found that teachers who emphasize task goals in their instructional practices, or mastery goals in Ames's term, will help to promote learners' personal task goal orientation, which may in turn positively influence learners' self-efficacy.

Moreover, norms are also related to order in the class. Teachers' ability to maintain classroom order may not only influence learners' motivation in class but also their affect toward the teacher. McPherson and Liang (2007:28) studied how teachers manage students who talk far above the norm in class and found that teachers' management behaviours influence learners' affect toward them. They suggest that learners' favourite teachers are those who manage them in a prosocial manner, which is reward-based and their least favourite teachers are those who show no management behaviours at all. The relationship between teachers' ability to maintain class order and learners' affective learning is also reflected in the study of McCroskey, Richmond and Bennett (2006) in which they found that teachers' assertiveness, i.e. their leadership character and their ability to maintain appropriate control in the classroom, is positively associated with learners' affect for the teachers, affect for the courses and their end-of-class motivation.

Instead of investigating how teachers' norm-setting and norm-maintenance influence individual motivation, Dörnyei and Murphey (2003) discuss the issue from the perspective of group motivation in which it is believed that individual members behave differently in groups and outside the groups. It is suggested that if group norms are well-internalized by group members, the socionormative influences of group pressure may substantially influence learner behaviours within groups (Dörnyei 2001c:38; Dörnyei and Murphey 2003:40). For example,

when an individual group member violates the norms, other group members may directly or indirectly express their disagreement with the deviant member. However, the efficiency of group norms on learner behaviours depends on teachers' attitudes toward the norms. Dörnyei and Murphey (2003:41) indicate that teachers approach learners as group leaders and the way they set and maintain group norms determines the groups' disposition and commitment to the group goals and norms. They claim that it is crucial for teachers to enforce the established norms consistently and never let any group members violate the norms unnoticed. Otherwise, learners may consider it to be acceptable to break the rules and this may reduce their commitment to keep them.

In a nutshell, in the proposed motivational framework, teachers' in-class behaviours are classified into three categories—*observed personal traits*, *immediacy* and *classroom management*. *Observed personal traits* refer to a teacher's individual traits such as a teacher's observed enthusiasm, observed competence or personal charm. On the other hand, *immediacy* and *classroom management* are more social in their essence. *Immediacy* focuses on a teacher's interpersonal skills which influence the closeness between teachers and their learners; while *classroom management* is related to a teacher's leadership and managerial styles which determine the norms of a learner group as well as the degree of control learners perceive from the learning environment. In this section, I discussed how different teacher behaviours influence learners' general motivation in learning. In an attempt to generate deeper understanding of how teacher behaviours play a part in the construction of learner motivation, in the following section attention will be drawn to different components which constitute learner motivation such as regulatory styles, value, self-efficacy, and so on.

*2.2.3 Learner Motivation*

There has been a wide range of research devoted to the issue of learner motivation in classroom practices. Many of the leading theories in this area are developed in the light of mainstream psychology, which seeks to explain motivation and behaviours from an affective or cognitive perspective; or social psychology, which stresses the influences of social contexts on individual thought, emotion and behaviour. In this section, I attempt to integrate key motivation theories in these two research traditions and discuss how *regulatory styles*, *value*, and *self-efficacy* have been incorporated in the investigation of second/foreign language learning motivation.

*2.2.3.1 Regulatory Styles*

Learners' regulatory style in second/foreign language learning is an issue that has been widely studied in the field of educational psychology. Most research concerning regulatory styles has been based on Deci and Ryan's *self-determination theory* (2000:54) in which it is believed that learners may not only vary in their motivation *levels* but also in their motivation *orientations*. According to *self-determination theory*, there are mainly two orientations of motivation, namely intrinsic and extrinsic motivation which are distinguished by an individual's reasons or goals in initiating an action. These two types of motivation are not categorically different. Rather, they lie along a continuum ranging from a self-determined or self-regulated form of motivation (intrinsic motivation) to a controlled form of motivation (extrinsic motivation), depending on the extent to which an individual has 'internalized' the regulation into their self-concept.

Ryan and Deci (2003) further divide extrinsic motivation into four levels,

namely *external regulation*, *introjected regulation*, *identified regulation* and *integrated regulation*. Among the four levels, e*xternal regulation* is considered to be the least self-determined level in which actions are initiated due to external sources such as pursuit of rewards or avoidance of punishment. *Introjected regulation* is slightly more internalized than *external regulation* in which actions are carried out because one has internalized the regulation as a norm and thus engages in the activity because of some type of pressure or anxiety. As to *identified regulation*, it occurs when one has identified with the action and performs the activity because one attaches value to it. Lastly, *integrated regulation* is the most autonomous form of extrinsic motivation in Ryan and Deci's classification. It is suggested that people with *integrated regulation* have fully internalized the regulation with their senses of self and the activities are assimilated to their other identities or values. However, this level of extrinsic motivation is usually not included in motivation studies in education (Vallerand et al. 1992; Vallerand, et al. 1993; Noels, Pelletier, Clément and Vallerand 2000) because there have been difficulties in distinguishing the construct of *identified* and *integrated regulation*. Vallerand et al. 1992 suggest that one possible reason for the difficulty may be that young adults are too young to have developed a sense of integration with regard to school activities. Since the focus of the present study is not on the distinction between these two constructs and the participants are also young adults who are in their first-year study in the university, *integrated regulation* will not be examined in the present study.

Self-determined forms of motivation have long been considered a better form of motivation because considerable research evidence indicates that autonomously motivated behaviours tend to be more persistent and involve higher-quality functioning. Black and Deci (2000) conducted a study in a

chemistry course and found autonomous learners are less likely to drop out of the course and more likely to gain enjoyment and better course performances. A similar result was found in Asian contexts where Tanaka and Yamauchi (2000) found that Japanese learners' autonomous form of motivation in learning English is positively related to their academic performances. That is why in the realm of educational psychology, motivational researchers endeavour to find ways to enhance learners' autonomous motivation. This relates to what has been discussed in 2.2.2.2, in which I talked about how autonomous motivation will be best developed when teachers are autonomy-supportive. At this point, the relationships among teacher behaviour, learner motivation and learner behaviour become evident, in that teachers' autonomy supportive behaviours are likely to increase learner autonomous motivation which may in turn result in better achievement or persistent behaviours. These relationships are also discussed in Williams et al.'s study in 1996 in which they investigated 128 patients who were involved in a weight-loss program. They found that autonomy-supportive staff behaviours are positively related to patients' intrinsic motivation which predicts regular attendance and better weight-loss results.

*2.2.3.2 Value*

Individuals' value systems are closely related to their motivation in engaging in different types of activities. The more value individuals attach to a task, the higher motivation they have in initiating and sustaining their effort in accomplishing it. In Tremblay and Gardner's (1995) motivational model, they incorporate the concept of value under the 'valence' component, which is defined as the subjective value an individual attaches to the outcome of an act. Tremblay and Gardner (ibid.:508) suggest that a valence component of language learning

motivation can be measured by individuals' 'desire to learn a language' and 'attitudes toward a language.' They conducted a study with 75 learners who enrolled in French language courses and found that learners who valued language learning more also showed higher levels of motivational behaviours, i.e. more effort, persistence and attention.

Dörnyei (2001a:51) further divided value into three dimensions, namely *intrinsic*, *integrative* and *instrumental value*. The intrinsic value refers to the interesting or challenging aspect of an activity which arouses learners' attention and curiosity in engaging in it. One way to increase learners' perceptions of intrinsic value is to associate language learning with things they already find interesting. For example, Cheung (2001) indicates that we can constantly find learners who are capable of reciting the lyrics of popular songs but have difficulties memorizing poems or mathematical formula. Cheung argues that popular culture such as songs or movies serves as an effective stimulus to motivate students to learn English in the classroom because popular culture appeals to learners.

As to the integrative value, it mainly derives from Gardner's (1983:222) 'integrativeness', in which it is believed that language learners' motivation in learning a second/foreign language is associated with their attitudes toward the target language community. However, the definition of 'integrative' used here is slightly different from Gardner's. Due to the globalization of English, English is turning into an international language which is associated with the global community rather than specific groups of speakers, such as the British or American speakers. In this respect, Ushioda (2006:150) argues that it is worth rethinking whether it is meaningful to define 'integrativeness' in relation to language learners' willingness to integrate with an 'external' reference group or to

conceptualize it as 'part of one's internal representation of oneself as a *de facto* member of that global community.' This re-conceptualization of 'integrativeness' was proposed in a longitudinal survey investigating learners' language-related attitudes and motivation, in which Dörnyei and Csizér (2002:453) prompted researchers to view the notion of 'integrativeness' as an '*identification process within the individual's self-concept.*' In response to the plea, Dörnyei (2009:29) proposed the concepts of the *ideal L2 self* and the *ought-to L2 self* to reinterpret Gardner's 'integrativeness' in that the *ideal L2 self* refers to the L2 self that one would ideally want to become, while the *ought-to L2 self* concerns the L2 self that one considers one ought to become in an attempt to prevent the occurrence of negative outcomes. In his theory of the *L2 motivational self system*, learners whose ideal selves are to be proficient L2 speakers are considered to be those who have an 'integrative disposition' in Gardner's term. By re-theorizing the concept of 'integrativeness' from a self perspective, Dörnyei broadens the meaning of the term by taking into account the lingua franca role of English without contradicting the original Gardnerian concept. The *L2 motivational self system* is logically linked to L2 learners' value systems. To take the integrative value for example, one will attach integrative value to L2 learning if one's ideal L2 self is to be a proficient L2 speaker. Dörnyei (2001a:55) suggests that, in an attempt to increase learners' integrative value, teachers can incorporate sociocultural components in the language courses, introduce learners to the interesting dimensions of the L2 culture—or the global culture, given the globalization of English—or share their own positive experiences relating to the L2 in class.

Lastly, the instrumental value is related to the pragmatic benefits which may come along with the mastery of a language such as enrolling in a better school, finding a better job or gaining respect from others. Earlier, I have raised an

example to show how the integrative value can be related to Dörnyei's (2009) *ideal L2 self*. As to the instrumental value, it can be linked to both Dörnyei's *ideal self* and *ought-to L2 self*. For example, a learner whose *ideal L2 self* is to be professionally successful with good command of English would attach high instrumental value to L2 learning and this type of instrumental motive in learning is more internalized. On the other hand, learners who believe they *ought to* learn the L2 in order to meet the expectations or requirement of others would also attach high instrumental value to learning. Yet, this type of instrumental motive is related to their *ought-to L2 selves* and it is more extrinsic in its essence. The influence of instrumental value on learner motivation is verified in Tabachnick, Miller and Relyea's (2008) study in which they find learners' perceptions of how instrumental academic tasks are to their future may influence their self-regulation in accomplishing the tasks. Dörnyei (2001a:57) indicates that to increase learners' perception of the instrumental value of language learning, teachers can regularly stress the importance of language learning in achieving learners' valued goals or highlight the usefulness of the target language in the world.

In this section, examples from a range of literature were drawn to show how teachers may influence the value and self systems of learners; and how these systems constitute learner motivation and influence their behaviours. However, it is worth noting that, before learners enter the classroom, they may have established their own value and self systems which are based on their background and past learning experiences (Dörnyei 2001a:51; William and Burden 1997:125). In this case, it is crucial for teachers to find out what learners value so as to make language learning worthwhile and relevant to learners.

In 2.2.2.1, I have elaborated the influences of self-efficacy, a component of teacher motivation, on teachers' in-class behaviours. Likewise, learners' self-efficacy beliefs may also influence their motivational behaviours in various ways. Since the concept of self-efficacy has been discussed earlier, in this section, I will not elaborate the definition and the general effects of self-efficacy on human behaviours further. Rather, attention will focus on how learners' efficacy beliefs motivate them to learn in the classroom.

Research reveals that students' self-efficacy beliefs are closely related to their academic performance and affect. The relationship between learners' self-efficacy and their academic performance was found in Chemers, Hu and Garcia's (2001) longitudinal study of university freshmen, in which they find that students who enter university with higher self-efficacy beliefs perform significantly better than their counterparts who have lower self-efficacy beliefs. They indicate that such students have higher expectancy of success toward their university study and they tend to view the demands of college life as a challenge rather than a threat. This challenge orientation in turn prompts these learners to be less stressed and better adjusted to university life.

It is believed that learners' self-efficacy beliefs are significantly related to their past learning experiences. However, research suggests that teachers' in-class behaviours also play a part in the construction of learners' self-efficacy. The influence of teachers' in-class behaviours on learners' self-efficacy has been discussed earlier in 2.2.2.2, in which we looked at how teachers' stress on task goals increases learner efficacy. This relationship is also discussed in Patrick, Ryan and Kaplan's (2007) study in which they found that certain teacher behaviours (teacher emotional support and promotion of task-related interaction)

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may enhance learners' academic efficacy and this may in turn facilitate learners' engagement in learning. They conclude that the classroom social environment is related to learners' classroom engagement and this relationship is mediated by their motivational beliefs. The finding of their study depicts the relationships among teacher behaviours, learner motivation and learner behaviours, which correspond to my underlying beliefs in the proposed motivational framework.

To sum up, in this section, I have discussed three major components of learner motivation—*regulatory styles*, *value* and *self-efficacy*. Learners' *regulatory styles* are determined by their reasons or goals in learning and can range from a more controlled regulatory style (extrinsic motivation) to a more autonomous regulatory style (intrinsic motivation). As to *value*, the present study adopts a more general definition of the concept, in which I intend to incorporate the *intrinsic value*, *integrative value* and *instrumental value* learners attach to language learning. Lastly, learners' *self-efficacy beliefs* are also taken into account in the motivational framework. In this section, I have drawn on research studies to show how these motivational components relate to teacher behaviours as well as learner behaviours. It is worth noting that each motivational component may also influence the other. For example, learners who attach high instrumental value to language learning may be more likely to have higher identified regulation, or learners' intrinsic motivation may be a result of their high self-efficacy in learning. In the next section, attention will be drawn to different types of learner behaviours in the classroom and how they subsequently influence the development of teacher motivation.

### 2.2.4 Learners' In-class Behaviour

Deci, Kasser and Ryan (1997:67) indicate that learner behaviour is a factor that has substantial influence on teacher motivation. Teachers, like learners, may constantly modify their teaching motivation according to their interaction with other participants, i.e. learners in this case, in the classroom. In an attempt to understand how learner behaviour plays a part in the construction of teacher motivation, in this section, I will discuss learner behaviours from three dimensions—*engagement*, *feedback* and *achievement* and see how these behaviours are related to different components of teacher motivation such as self-efficacy, expectations and emotion.

### 2.2.4.1 Engagement

Engagement in the proposed motivational framework mainly refers to learners' behavioural and emotional engagement. According to Skinner and Belmont (1993:572), individuals who are engaged show persistent behavioural involvement in given tasks and positive emotion during ongoing action. In other words, in the classroom settings, engaged learners are those who exert intense effort and attention in relation to classroom tasks; initiate action when given the chances; and demonstrate enthusiasm and interest when engaging in class-related activities. In the previous section, I have drawn on research evidence to show how individuals' motivation (regulatory styles, value and self-efficacy) influence their engagement such as effort, persistence, attention and enjoyment in an activity (Black and Deci 2000; Patrick, Ryan and Kaplan 2007; Tremblay and Gardner 1995). In this section, attention will be drawn to how these learner behaviours subsequently influence teachers' in-class motivation.

Research evidence reveals that learner engagement is closely related to

teachers' self-efficacy. For example, Martin (2006) surveyed 1019 teachers in Australia and found that students' persistent behaviours in learning strongly correlated to teachers' confidence in teaching. Similarly, Pelletier, Séguin-Lévesque and Legault (2002) also suggest that learners' negative engagement in the classroom may make teachers feel incompetent or disliked by the students and this may in turn influence teachers' engagement in their work. Tollefson (2000) further explains why teachers tend to be reluctant to expend effort on uninterested learners. He claims that teachers who perceive their learners to be reluctant to engage in learning may lower their expectations of such learners in an attempt to protect their teaching efficacy. It is more comforting for teachers to attribute learners' poor engagement to learners' personal problems rather than their poor teaching skills. It is worth noting that Tollefson not only stresses the influence of learner engagement on teachers' self-efficacy but also signals the interplay between different components of teacher motivation (self-efficacy and expectancies toward learners). This corresponds to the previous section in which I talked about how different components of learner motivation may also influence one another.

Other than self-efficacy, some research studies also indicate the relationship between learner engagement and teachers' autonomy support. Skinner and Belmont (1993) found students who show higher behavioural engagement elicit positive teacher behaviours such as more autonomy support and more involvement. The result of their study is in line with Pelletier, Séguin-Lévesque and Legault's (2002) study in which they also indicate that teachers tend to be more autonomy-supportive to learners who are self-determined in learning. Nevertheless, Pelletier, Séguin-Lévesque and Legault (ibid.) indicate that in the study of Skinner and Belmont (1993), they did not include a measure of teacher

motivation. They further suggest that the relationship between learners' intrinsic motivation and teachers' controlling behaviours is not direct but is mediated by teachers' motivation (see Figure 2.2 below).
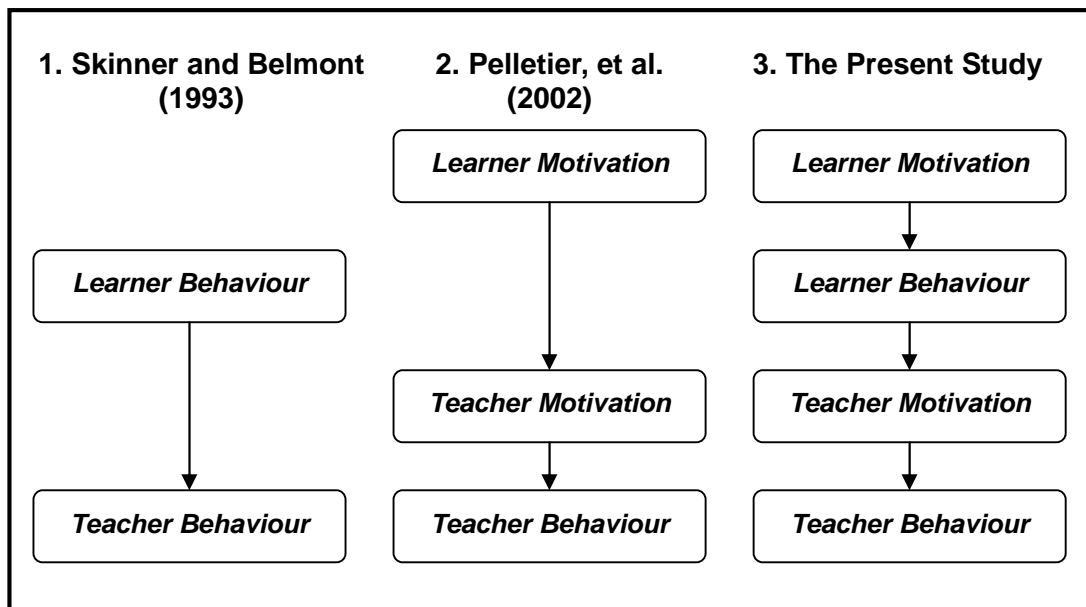


**Figure 2.2 A Comparison Among Three Studies**

However, it is worth noting that in Pelletier, Séguin-Lévesque and Legault's study, learner motivation were measured by teachers rather than by learners themselves. This indicates that, in their study, learner motivation was judged by teachers' observation of 'learner behaviour' which may not necessarily represent their real motivation level. Since learners' positive engagement was considered to be equivalent to learners' intrinsic motivation in their study, they incorporated learner behaviour and learner motivation as one construct. However, I believe that learner motivation and learner behaviour should be separated as two constructs, just as researchers, including Pelletier, Séguin-Lévesque and Legault, separate teacher motivation and teacher behaviour. The main reason is that, as discussed in 2.2.2.1, there might be potential discrepancies between individuals' motivation and their behaviours. Learners who are self-determined in learning

may not necessarily show their self-determined behaviours overtly in class. Furthermore, learner motivation and teacher motivation are both mental processes which have their unobservable nature. Their reciprocal influences on each other need to be mediated by behaviours. That is why in the present study, I further divide learner motivation into two constructs in an attempt to take into account learner behaviour as an important mediating factor between teacher and learner motivation.

### 2.2.4.2 Feedback

The feedback here refers to learners' evaluation provided to teachers concerning their performance on teaching. In a study of work motivation, Hackman (1979:407) asserts that work will be more motivating and satisfying if it is meaningful, supports autonomy and provides feedback. It is suggested that people's knowledge of the results of their performance is critical in influencing their level of effort and persistence in performing well in the future.

The effect of feedback on motivation has received attention in the realm of behaviouristic, cognitive and affective psychology. From a behaviourist point of view, behaviourists define motivation as an anticipation of *reinforcement* and believe that positive feedback may *reinforce* behaviour (Williams and Burden 1997). From a cognitive perspective, feedback is considered to relate to one's self-efficacy and goal setting. Locke and Latham (1990) indicate that feedback may provide people with chances to experience success in an activity and increase their self-efficacy in performing it. This may in turn prompt them to be more committed to the activity. They also stress that improved performance and motivation is a result of joint influences from feedback and goals. This corresponds to a field study conducted by Becker (1978), in which he found

feedback to serve as a facilitating motivational effect on people's pursuit of goals. He concluded that, in order to have improved performance, feedback and goal setting need to work together. This implies that goals alone are not sufficient in motivating teachers. To enhance and sustain teacher motivation, feedback must be given to teachers on a fairly regular basis so as to provide teachers with the knowledge of how effective they are in their teaching jobs. Lastly, from an affective perspective, Csikszentmihalyi (1997:84) also stressed the importance of feedback on teacher motivation in his *flow theory* (see 2.2.1.1), in which he indicates that teaching without feedback from students is 'dry and mechanical'.

However, in reality, college teachers have limited opportunities to receive feedback from learners. To look at the context of the present study, a university in Taiwan, the feedback teachers receive most often comes from learners' midterm and end-of-term course evaluations, i.e. only twice in 20 weeks. These evaluations are usually, if not always, conducted in the form of questionnaires in which learners will be asked to answer a list of Likert-scale questions which are the same across all courses. As a consequence, the result of the evaluations is usually fairly general. Walker and Symons (1997:8) suggest that these types of evaluations are not sufficient in prompting teacher motivation because, for feedback to be most effective, it has to be 'specific, un-ambiguous and *continuous*.' Thus in the present study, a number of approaches will be adopted to obtain feedback from the target learners on a regular basis. The learners will be given chances to give in-depth feedback to me through their weekly reflective diaries, anonymous feedback through post-class reflections and quantitative feedback through questionnaires (more details about the instruments will be discussed in chapter three). It is hoped that these approaches will allow me to receive more specific, continuous feedback from the learners which is considered to be beneficial to the development of

teacher motivation.

*2.2.4.3 Achievement*

In the proposed motivational framework, achievement mainly refers to learners' academic performances in class. In 2.2.3, I discussed how learners' autonomous motivation (Black and Deci 2000; Tanaka and Yamauchi 2000) and self-efficacy (Chemers, Hu and Garcia 2001) may play a part in learners' academic performance. In this section, attention will be drawn to how learners' in-class achievement may in turn influence teacher motivation.

Compared to research investigating the influence of teacher motivation on learner achievement, research exploring the influence of learner achievement on teacher motivation is fairly limited. The effect of learner achievement on teachers is discussed in an article by Tollefson (2000), in which she stresses the influence of learner achievement on teacher behaviour. She suggests that how teachers respond to learners' poor achievement outcomes depends on how teachers attribute learners' failure in learning. For example, learners whose poor academic performance is attributed to low ability will be more likely to receive more help from teachers while those whose failure in learning is attributed to lack of effort will lead teachers to express anger and withhold help from them. Due to the Confucian culture which values learners' effort in the learning process, this is especially true in the educational context of Taiwan. This implies that under the condition that learners have poor academic achievement, learners' low expenditure of effort is more likely than low ability to decrease teachers' willingness to help and generate negative feelings.

Other than teacher behaviours, the present study speculates that learners' in-class performance may also have a direct effect on certain components of

teacher motivation such as expectations and self-efficacy. Good and Brophy (1984:110) indicate that learners' past learning achievement or grades may prompt teachers to create expectations toward them. This notion is verified in Rosenthal and Jacobson's (1992:vii,160) experiment on the effect of self-fulfilling prophecies in the classroom (see 2.2.1.1 for a review of the experiment). Although the aim of the experiment was to investigate how teacher expectations play a part in learner achievement rather than the other way around, the result of the study reveals that the target teachers form expectations toward their learners' learning potential according to the results of the learners' intelligence test. This implies that learners' academic performance is closely related to the way teachers form their expectations toward them. Although the above researchers are referring to teacher expectations 'before' they see the learners and learner achievement 'before' they enrol in a class, it is worth noting that teachers' expectations toward learners are ongoing processes which will continuously change according to teachers' appraisal of learners' achievement.

In terms of teachers' self-efficacy, for teachers who have to be responsible for learners' academic performance, learners' in-class achievement is how they are evaluated by the higher authorities and, under such circumstances, learner achievement is usually, if not always, associated with teachers' teaching abilities. Especially in the educational context of Taiwan, schools tend to pay substantial attention to learners' learning outcomes. From time to time, teachers are required to help learners to achieve high scores on their college entrance exams or to pass certain language proficiency tests, such as IETLS, TOEFL or GEPT[3]. Thus, the present study speculates that learners' achievement may be especially influential

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[3] GEPT denotes *General English Proficiency Test* which is a test of English language proficiency managed by the Ministry of Education in Taiwan.

to the teaching motivation of Taiwanese teachers. Furthermore, as mentioned in 2.2.1.1, self-efficacy is defined as individuals' judgement about their capabilities in conducting an activity (Bandura 1986:391) and this judgment is closely related to their past experiences concerning the activity (Walker and Symons 1997). To sum up, it can be inferred that learner achievement is related to teachers' self-efficacy because learners' good academic performance implies a teacher's effectiveness and success in teaching which may subsequently play a part in the formation of the teacher's efficacy beliefs. It is assumed that these relationships are especially evident in contexts like Taiwan where the higher authorities require teachers to help learners to perform to specific standards or where the classroom goal structure is more performance-oriented.[4]

In a nutshell, three types of learner behaviours, namely *engagement*, *feedback* and *achievement*, have been discussed in this section. In the proposed motivational framework, *engagement* includes learners' behavioural and emotional engagement. Thus, in the present study, engaged learners are defined as learners who show persistent behavioural involvement and positive emotion when engaging in given tasks. As to *feedback*, it refers to the information provided by learners to teachers concerning teachers' performances. Literature from behaviourist, cognitive and affective psychology was reviewed to show how feedback plays a part in the development of teacher motivation. Lastly, the effect of learner *achievement*, which is defined as learners' academic performance here, on teacher's expectations, self-efficacy and behaviours has also been discussed. As Deci, Kasser and Ryan (1997:68) indicate, the relationship between teacher

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[4] Performance goal structure focuses on the success and outcome of an activity which draws a contrast to mastery goal structure which stresses the intrinsic value of learning. See 2.2.2.3 for a review.

motivation and learner motivation is an interactive one and it can 'be either positively or negatively synergistic.' In the motivational framework of the present study, it is suggested that this motivation cycle will move on as a class proceeds, and that classroom participants will continuously modify their motivation and behaviours through their interaction with other participants in the classroom.

**2.3 The Role of the Proposed Motivational Framework in the Present Study**

In an attempt to investigate the interplay between teacher motivation and learner motivation and explore how the motivation cycle evolves through teacher-pupil interaction in the classroom, the present study was conducted on the basis of the proposed motivational framework. Based on this motivational framework, the present research aims to answer four research questions:

*1. How does teacher motivation influence a teacher's in-class behaviour?*

*2. How does a teacher's in-class behaviour influence learner motivation?*

*3. How does learner motivation influence a learner's in-class behaviour?*

*4. How does learners' in-class behaviour influence teacher motivation?*

It is hoped that by answering these questions, I will be able to generate deeper understanding about how classroom motivation is co-constructed by teachers and learners in the classroom. What types of teacher behaviours and learner behaviours are especially motivating or de-motivating to learners and teachers respectively in the educational context of Taiwan? Does classroom motivation evolve in cycles as is speculated in the present study? If not, what may be the reasons to cause the cycle to break down or under what condition may the cycle best circulate?

Due to the complexity of motivation, the proposed motivational framework allows me to investigate the multi-dimensional influences on

motivation in a more systematic fashion. However, the motivational framework also has its inherent limitation. Although in the present study I intend to divide the teacher-pupil motivation cycle into four phases, it is worth noting that the construction of classroom motivation is a multi-dimensional process and the four phases do not function in a sequential fashion. Rather, the four phases usually happen simultaneously in the classroom and they may overlap with each other from time to time. That is why the distinctions between different phases are not always clear-cut. This possibly explains why Dörnyei (2001c:13) considers the 'parallel multiplicity' of motivation one of the biggest challenges of motivation research.

Moreover, the motivational framework does not function in a deductive way in which the framework serves as a hypothesis and the aim of the study is to 'test' the validity of the hypothesis. Rather, the framework serves as 'guidance' which helps me to analyse and understand the classroom data. It means the framework may continuously expand or change as the research progresses. In an attempt to keep an open mind during the investigation, I will start the data collection process with a pre-course questionnaire consisting of open-ended questions which aim to include any possible influences on learner motivation without limiting learners' responses to the predetermined framework. The semi-structured interviews and the post-course questionnaire that follow are designed on the basis of both the motivational framework and the results of the pre-course questionnaire for the same reason. Furthermore, learners' reflective diaries and post-class reflections also help me to remain open to any changes to the predetermined framework because learners will be encouraged to reflect on any aspect of learning which they consider important. In the next chapter details of the methodological design will be elaborated further.

# Chapter Three: Methodology

As mentioned in the previous chapter, the research study proposed here adopts a social constructivist approach to the investigation of classroom motivation which highlights the effect of social context on the construction of motivation. The aim of the study is to explore how classroom motivation is co-constructed through the social interaction between teachers and learners by means of both qualitative and quantitative research instruments. The methodologies applied in the present study are mainly designed on the basis of the motivational framework (see Figure 2.1) I proposed earlier in the literature review in an attempt to understand how classroom motivation develops in cycles.

In this chapter, I shall set out to discuss the methodological issues involved in this study. In 3.1, attention will be drawn to the research approach adopted in the investigation. The discussion begins with an overview of typical approaches used by L2 motivational researchers and the methodological changes in the field will also be elaborated. Then, in 3.1.2, I shall frame the overall design of the present study by outlining the general research plan. After an overview of the research plan, in 3.1.3, focus will be narrowed down to the methodological design of the present study. The reasons underlying the methodological decisions will be illustrated further so as to present a link between the research instruments and the research questions advanced in this study. Lastly, in 3.1.4, relevant triangulation issues of the study will be discussed so as to illustrate how the use of both qualitative and quantitative research instruments may be of help to the reliability and validity of the research findings.

After discussing relevant issues of the research approach, in 3.2, attention will be drawn to the context of the research project where information about the

national and local context will be presented. Then, in 3.3 and 3.4, details of the data collection process in the pilot and main study will be elaborated further. More contextual information about the research sites, definitions and rationale of each research method and data collection procedures will be illustrated so as to justify the methodological decisions in the present study. The chapter will end with a section which explains my approach to analysis by giving illustrative examples of the data coding procedures in 3.5.

## 3.1 Research Approach

In this section, I shall begin the discussion of the research approach adopted in the present study by outlining relevant methodological issues in L2 motivation research. Then, attention will be drawn to the overall research plan and methodological design in this study so as to link the research instruments to the research aims. The section will conclude with relevant triangulation issues relating to the present study so as to justify the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods in this research project.

### 3.1.1 Typical Research Approaches in L2 Motivation Research

Since the 1990s, L2 motivation research has been dominated by a social psychological approach largely influenced by the work of Robert Gardner, Wallace Lambert, Richard Clément and their associates (Dörnyei 1998: 117). Robert Gardner and Richard Lalonde (1985:1) proposed a socio-educational model of second language learning at the Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, which greatly influenced the development of L2 motivation research. Gardner and Lalonde claimed that

[a] socio-educational model of second language learning suggests that the learning of a second language involves both an ability and a motivational component and that the major basis of this motivation is best viewed from a social psychological perspective.

The socio-educational model implies that second language learning involves acquiring behaviour patterns and characteristics of a different ethnolinguistic community. As a consequence, it should not only be investigated in an educational perspective like other school subjects but also in a social psychological perspective which takes into account learners' ability and willingness to identify with another cultural group. The socially-bound, context-specific nature of second language learning is one of the leading reasons why L2 motivation research is positioned within the tradition of social psychology.

Since human behaviour is a domain possessing a highly complex nature, social psychological researchers tend to investigate the questions which are of interest to them by systemizing the big picture of social actions into measurable variables. The quantitative nature of social psychology is evident in the research repertoire of L2 motivation which, according to Dörnyei (2001: 215), mainly consists of four types—*survey studies*, *factor analytical studies*, *correlational studies*, and *studies using structural equation modelling*. However, in the past four decades, researchers began to raise questions about the hypothetic-deductive basis underlying traditional L2 motivation research and prompted a paradigmatic shift from the quantitative end to the qualitative end of the research continuum (Crookes and Schmidt 1991, Dörnyei 2001, Syed 2001 and Ushioda 2001). Ushioda (ibid.: 95), one of the advocates of the use of qualitative approaches to the investigation of L2 motivation, indicates that a qualitative approach may complement the typical quantitative tradition of L2 motivation research. Rather than defining motivation in terms of observable and measurable activities, a

qualitative approach allows researchers to explore the underlying thinking patterns and belief of learners.

As a consequence, in the present study, a variety of research instruments was used to investigate the relationship between classroom interaction and motivation. Both qualitative and quantitative methods were adopted in an attempt to take into account the ambiguity and openness of learner and teacher behaviour using 'softer' methods while, in the meantime, retaining the essence of social psychology by using more statistical, objective data. It was hoped that the combination of both approaches could allow me to view classroom behaviour from different angles and depict a more complete picture of classroom motivation. In order to illustrate how qualitative and quantitative research methods were integrated in the present study, in the following sections the plan of the study and the methodological design will be elaborated in more detail.

### 3.1.2 Research Plan

The data collection process of the present study took one academic year, i.e. two semesters in the educational system of Taiwan. In order to gain insights into the interplay between teacher motivation and learner motivation in classroom interaction, I planned to conduct the research study in the English classes of two teachers, who used to be my colleagues in a technological university in Taiwan in 2006. Before entering the field, I obtained permission from one of them who gave consent to my pilot study conducted in her class and, meanwhile, I was negotiating entry with the other teacher for the conduct of my main study. Since I had encountered difficulties in getting access to teacher participants for the pilot study, I was aware of the potential research limitation I might face in obtaining permission from teachers in the main study. Therefore, I devised two research

plans before the fieldwork started in an attempt to cope with potential problems which might occur as the study carried on. In the first plan, which was referred to as *Plan A*, I assumed that the negotiation of entry might be successful and thus both the pilot and the main study would be conducted in other teachers' classes. However, if I failed to gain access to the other teacher's class, I would adopt *Plan B* in which the main study would take place in my own class.

In the first semester, the pilot study took place in the English class taught by the teacher who gave permission for my researching in her class. My role in the pilot study was as a non-participatory researcher who aimed to gain insights into the construction of classroom motivation which I considered to be mediated by teacher-pupil interaction in the classroom. The purpose of the pilot study was to pilot research tools and to gain a preliminary understanding of classroom life. Data were collected by means of interviews with the teacher and students; questionnaires before and after the course; and three in-class observations.

However, as the pilot study proceeded, the teacher who agreed to participate in the main study informed me that she would leave the school in the coming semester due to personal reasons. Since other teachers I approached were concerned about the in-class observations, there was difficulty in following *Plan A*. Richards (2003: 107) indicates that there is the potential difficulty of getting access to observations in educational contexts due to the uneasiness observations might bring to the observed. Especially in the education culture of Taiwan, observations are easily associated with evaluation which may generate stress and discomfort to the teachers. As a consequence, I eventually switched to *Plan B* and opted for practitioner research in the main study. Due to the changes in research approach and identities of participants, the research methodologies in the main study were modified accordingly. While the learner interviews and questionnaires

remained similar, the observations were replaced by in-class recordings with a supplementary teaching journal kept by me. Since I was the teacher as well as the researcher in the target classes, different from the pilot study, I had more control over the classroom tasks. Thus, in the main study I further incorporated learner reflective diaries and post-class reflective writing in the classroom in the hope of gaining deeper understanding of the target groups of learners and involving learners in the understanding of their own learning. The constraints and implications of the methodological change from non-participatory research to practitioner research will be discussed further in 3.4.

### 3.1.3 Linking Methodological Design to Research Questions

This research study aimed to answer four research questions which were advanced on the basis of the motivational framework (see Figure 2.1) proposed in the previous chapter. The four research questions are as follows:

**1. How does teacher motivation influence a teacher's in-class behaviour?**

Teacher motivation may be influenced by individual and contextual factors. The research question aimed to explore how these factors may influence a teacher's behaviour and decision-making in the classroom.

**2. How does a teacher's in-class behaviour influence learner motivation?**

A teacher's in-class behaviour can be explored through his/her observed personal traits, communication traits and classroom management styles. These components of teacher behaviour shape the patterns of teacher-pupil interaction in the classroom. The purpose of the research question was to find out how these components played a part in the construction of learner motivation through in-class interaction.

### 3. How does learner motivation influence a learner's in-class behaviour?

Parallel to research question 1, learner motivation can also influence a learner's in-class behaviour. Synthesizing theories from the field of L2 motivation and mainstream motivation, I concluded with three major influences of learner motivation namely regulatory styles, value and self-efficacy. The research question here aimed to investigate how these factors, or other factors not included on the list, may influence the way a learner behaves and performs in class.

### 4. How does learners' in-class behaviour influence teacher motivation?

In an attempt to complete the motivation cycle in the classroom, this research question aimed to see how learners' in-class behaviour may in turn influence a teacher's motivation in teaching. In the light of the aim, learner behaviour would be investigated in terms of engagement, feedback and achievement to see how these factors played a part in influencing teacher motivation.

The methodological design of the study evolved on the basis of the four research questions. In an attempt to answer research question one and four, I intended to keep a teaching journal so as to note down my personal feelings and reflection on my teaching as a teacher; and my observation about learner behaviour as a researcher. Although the reflection of a practitioner-researcher is a vital element in practitioner research, I was aware that my dual role as a teacher-researcher raised issues of bias which might fall short of answering research question one and four fully. In order not to reply solely on self-referencing data, I intended to draw together the teaching journals in the main study with the teacher interviews and non-participatory observations conducted in other teacher's class in the pilot study in an attempt to increase the objectivity of

the data and to generate more reliable answers to the research questions.

In answering research question two, data from learner reflective diaries and post-class reflective writings were collected in an attempt to see how learners interpreted what happened in class and how these influenced their learning motivation. I also conducted 12 interviews in the main study to investigate the target learners' attitude and motivation in English learning and to gain insights into their perceptions and evaluation about my in-class behaviour. Since only 23 out of 108 participants participated in the interviews, I felt there was a need to compare the findings of the interviews among the sample as a whole. That was why I administered a post-course questionnaire to investigate the same topics with all of the participants in the hope of increasing the reliability of the data. It is worth noting that I was aware that my dual-role as a teacher-researcher may influence how the learners commented on my in-class behaviours. How I deal with this potential problem will be discussed further in 3.4.1.

Lastly, research question three was investigated by means of interviews, questionnaires and teaching journals. I intended to use the pre-course questionnaires and learner interviews to find out the target groups of learners' motivation and attitudes in learning; while the use of teaching journals served as an observation tool helping me to keep track of my perceptions about learners' in-class behaviour. The data collected from the interviews, questionnaires and the teaching journals would later be compared to see if there was any interrelationship between learner motivation and their perceived behaviour in class.

I intended to investigate the four research questions in an attempt to explore how classroom motivation develops in cycles in which teachers and learners receive reciprocal effects from each other. The methodology was designed in the hope of gaining insights into how teaching motivation and

learning motivation are co-constructed through the social interaction between teachers and learners. In terms of validity and reliability of the research study, I also integrated both qualitative and quantitative methods in the methodological design in an attempt to triangulate the data collected. More issues of triangulation relating to the study will be discussed in the next section.

### 3.1.4 Triangulation

There were mainly two types of triangulation in the present study—*methodological triangulation* and *data triangulation* (Denscombe 2007: 135). Building on the work of Denzin (1989), Denscombe (ibid.: 135) distinguishes the difference between the two where the former features a contrast of findings between 'methods' while the latter refers to a contrast between 'sources of information.'

As mentioned in 3.1.1, the present study uses both qualitative and quantitative methods in the investigation, in another word, it involves *methodological triangulation*. Qualitative research instruments such as interviews, observations and diaries were used to gain in-depth understanding about learner motivation and the mental processes underlying in-class behaviour. On the other hand, quantitative measurement, i.e. questionnaires in the present study, explored general learner motivation among the sample as a whole. Since motivation is such a complex construct with its multifaceted nature, I felt it was crucial to investigate the issues from different methodological perspectives. Flick (2002: 265) suggests that

> …the different methodological perspectives complement each other in the study of an issue and this is conceived as the complementary compensation of the weaknesses and blind spots of each single method.

In this respect, the objective nature of quantitative data may compensate for the subjective weakness of qualitative data; whereas the openness of qualitative instruments may complement the closed nature of quantitative instruments. Moreover, Denscombe (2007:110) also claims that using different methods to investigate the same subject helps researchers to gain a more complete picture of the area being researched. Therefore, in the present study, I was hoping that the use of questionnaires might help me to elicit the overall opinions of the participants; the use of interviews and diaries might allow me to probe into patterns of thinking behind behaviour; whereas the use of observations might give me direct access to the in-class behaviour. Different methods were thus used in the present study in the hope of providing different or overlapping pieces of information which helped me to depict a fuller picture of classroom motivation.

In terms of *data triangulation*, the present study managed to contrast sources of information from different informants (informant triangulation) and different times (time triangulation) (ibid.: 136). In the main study, both the target learners and I kept a reflective diary reflecting on the lessons of the week. This 'informant triangulation' provided an interesting contrast and comparison between students' interpretations and mine which might be beneficial in increasing the validity of the findings and might also generate a more complete picture of the motivation cycle in the classroom. As to 'time triangulation', learners were required to keep a weekly reflective diary retrospectively and, sometimes, they were also asked to reflect on their learning on the spot. The reflective writing in class served as a supplement to the reflective diary kept at home and prompted learners to reflect at a different time in a different way.

**3.2 Research Context**

In this section, I shall describe the context where this research was conducted. In 3.2.1, the education system of Taiwan will be illustrated so as to provide information about the broader context. Then in 3.2.2, attention will be drawn to the local context of the study in which relevant school regulations and backgrounds of the participants will be explained in detail.

*3.2.1 National Context*

The study was conducted in a technological university in Taiwan where the higher education system can be divided into two tiers—comprehensive universities and technological universities. In comprehensive universities, students mainly consist of graduates from ordinary high schools and the length of study is usually four years. On the other hand, the technological universities offer four-year programmes for vocational-high-school graduates and two-year programmes for five-year-junior college graduates.

The knowledge and skills possessed by the students from comprehensive universities and technological universities are slightly different. Most comprehensive-university students have attended ordinary high schools where general learning of all subjects are required such as Chinese, English, math, etc. As to universities of technology, students mainly consist of graduates from vocational high schools where practical skills and expertise in specific areas are the primary focus of the curricula, whereas general subjects are only of secondary importance. As a consequence, freshmen from technological universities tend to be more acquainted with their area of specialty than those from comprehensive universities. However, they tend to be less proficient in their knowledge of general subjects such as English. This learner difference was partially verified in Ou's

research in 1997 in which he analysed the TOEFL scores of 514 seniors at two technological universities and two comprehensive universities in Taiwan. Ou found the vocabulary and reading comprehension scores of technological-university students were much lower than those of comprehensive-university students. From the result of the study, it can be assumed that the general English ability of the target learners in the present study was lower than their contemporaries from comprehensive universities.

### 3.2.2 Local Context

The present study took place in a private technological university—Southern Taiwan University of Technology (STUT). In Taiwan, private universities are not subsidized by government and tend to have fewer academic resources than national universities.  Moreover, although technological universities were established for students from vocational high schools or five-year junior colleges, in STUT, there are programmes designed especially for students from ordinary high schools. Nevertheless, students enrolling in these programmes still remain the minority in the present school.

In STUT, all non-English majors are required to take English classes from freshmen to juniors. According to the school regulations in 2007, freshmen have to take English classes for four hours weekly, sophomores for three hours and juniors for two hours. Before freshmen enrol in the English classes, they are divided into three sub-groups—band A, B and C. The placement is based on their English sub-scores in the university entrance exam. Learners whose scores rank in the first one-third of their class are placed into band A, the second one-third into band-B and the last one-third into band-C. The school would later put together three sub-groups of students from the same band in one English class. For

example, in a band-A English class, there will be three sub-groups of band-A students from different groups. In a band-B class, there will be three sub-groups of band-B students from different groups and the same rule is applied to a band-C class. The purpose of the placement is to ensure every English class is composed of students with similar English proficiency. However, the placement of English courses is only applied to day-time students who graduated from vocational high schools. Evening students and students from ordinary high schools do not have to go through the placement procedures.

It is worth noting that the placement has its influences on classroom dynamics. Since it is very likely that the three sub-groups of learners in one English class come from different departments and they only meet four hours a week in the English classes, each sub-group may not be acquainted with each other.

## 3.3 Pilot Study (September 2007—January 2008)

In this section, I shall set out to explain the rationale behind the decision-making and data collection process in the pilot study which followed my original research plan—*Plan A*. According to *Plan A*, my role in the pilot study was as a non-participatory researcher and the purpose of the pilot study was to generate a preliminary understanding of classroom life in the target context and to confirm the adequacy of the research instruments which would be used in the main study. In this section, methodological issues in the pilot study such as contextual information of the research site, rationale behind the design of each research instrument and relevant research procedures will be discussed in more detail.

### 3.3.1 Contextual Information

The pilot study was conducted in an Applied English class for evening students in STUT. The participants consisted of 48 students and a part-time lecturer who used to be one of my colleagues in STUT. The lecturer started her teaching career in February 2006 and had been teaching in STUT for one and a half years, i.e. three semesters. She was, at the time when this study took place, a full-time lecturer in another technological university and only visited STUT to teach the present class two hours weekly. The target students were a combination of two groups from the Department of Electronic Engineering—31 sophomores from the two-year programme and 10 juniors from the four-year programme. There were also 7 students from other departments who were retaking the course.

Since most of the students were under full-time or part-time employment in the morning, the aim of this obligatory course was to train students in the four skills in English so as to equip them for future or current careers. The class met once a week for two hours and the main language used in the classroom was the native language of the participants—Chinese. The primary material used in this class was a textbook written by David Nunan in 2005—*Go for it! Book 2*, which is a task-based English learning textbook designed for young learners with intermediate level. Occasionally, the teacher might use supplementary materials, such as the introduction of specific writing skills, if it was requested by students. The main pedagogy in the classroom was the lecture of the teacher with some discussions as a class about definitions of vocabulary and grammar rules. Learners were sometimes asked to listen to audio exercises from the textbook or complete grammatical or vocabulary exercises individually.

### 3.3.2 Research Methods

#### 3.3.2.1 Semi-structured Observations

During the course of the pilot study, access to three classroom observations was gained. The purpose of the observations was to generate understanding of the particular classroom life through direct access; and to enrich the data collected from the interviews and questionnaires. In the present study, I intended to use observations to help me *see* what actually happens in the classroom rather than depending solely on the accounts from learners gathered from interviews and questionnaires.

The nature of the observations in this pilot study was situated in the middle of a continuum between structured and unstructured observations; and my role in the observations was non-participatory. I decided to use semi-structured observations in an attempt to measure particular in-class behaviour using codes and scales; and meanwhile, to record any observed incidents in the setting. Moyles (2007: 247) indicates that semi-structured observations are especially helpful to observers who may need to scale behaviours using high-inference measures. Since such scaling relies heavily on the subjective judgment of the observer, objective description about what happens may be needed to increase the validity of the data and the reliability of the measurement.

All of the observations were audio-recorded and notes were taken with the help of an observation scheme (see Appendix 1) which contained six columns as follows:

- Time
- Non-verbal Feedback
- Verbal Feedback
- Off Task / On Task
- General Motivation

- In-Class Behaviour

The observation scheme consisted of quantitative as well as qualitative data. The first column, *Time*, tracked the recording time on the audio-recorder so as to assist my later analysis of data. In the columns of *Non-verbal Feedback* and *Verbal Feedback*, numbers and types of responses from the target learners to the teacher were measured and categorized. Responses could be given as a group, coded as 'G', or by individual, coded as 'I'. The measurement aimed to investigate the frequency and types of interaction between the teacher and the students. This part of the observation adopted low-inference coding and was more objective in its nature while the next two columns might require more subjective judgment from me. In the *Off Task / On Task* column, I would record the number of students who were off or on task relying on my perceptions. According to my interpretation, learners who were sleeping, chatting or reading irrelevant books from the course were considered to be off task. On the other hand, learners who were looking at the course materials or the teacher were considered to be on task. As to *General Motivation*, the observed motivation of learners was scaled using slashes—one slash indicated low motivation; while four slashes indicated high motivation. According to my interpretation, when learners were actively participating in class such as verbally interacting with the teacher; or non-verbally reacting to the course content such as laughing, giving eye-contact, or writing notes, they were considered to be motivated. It is worth noting that these two columns were just general descriptions about the 'atmosphere' in the classroom which might not necessarily represent the accurate number of students who were on task or the true level of learner motivation. Since this part of the observation was more subjective, I left a column for me to note down more objective descriptions of learner behaviour. I intended to use the observation scheme to help me record my

observation in the classroom and most important of all, to visualize the setting for my later analysis with the audio-recording. After each observation, I would note down my general feelings about the observation in the research journal.

Nevertheless, it is worth noting that observations also have their limitations. Gillham (2005) claims that human eyes are not cameras which simply record everything presented when observing others. From time to time, we select what we want to remember and what we want to interpret according to our past experiences and personal beliefs. In an attempt to compensate for the limitations of observations, I decided to integrate interviews in the present study in order to investigate teacher and learner motivation from a different methodological perspective.

### *3.3.2.2 Interviews*

Interviews have been a research methodology widely used in social science research due to their strength in in-depth investigation, which is especially essential to research dealing with complex human behaviour. It also allows researchers to obtain deeper understanding about how participants construct their knowledge and the underlying reasons behind people's behaviour that other methods such as observations and questionnaires cannot provide. Interviews help researchers to fill in the gaps—gaps between minds which cannot be observed or illustrated with multiple choices; and gaps in time or events in which researchers could not or did not participate.

In this pilot study, there were mainly three types of interviews conducted—semi-structured individual interviews, focus group interviews and informal interviews. All interviews were conducted in the native language of the participants—Chinese—so as to reduce the effect of language on their responses.

First of all, two semi-structured individual interviews—one pre-course and one post-course interview—were conducted with the target teacher. A semi-structured interview is defined as a type of interview with its main questions predetermined while, in the meantime, it also allows the interviewee sufficient freedom to shape the flow of the talk (Wilkinson and Birmingham 2003). In the pre-course interview, seven main topics were predetermined (see Appendix 2):

- Intrinsic Components
- Self-efficacy
- Expectation
- Other Affective Factors
- Microcontextual Influences
- Macrocontextual Influences.

I intended to use the pre-course interview to find out the target teacher's general motivation in teaching and her expectation about the target group. As to the post-course interview, focuses were drawn to four topics (see Appendix 3):

- Learner Behaviour vs. Teaching Motivation
- About Teaching
- Lesson Preparation
- Coping with Frustration

The post-course interview was conducted in an attempt to investigate the teacher's perceptions about the target group of learners and to discuss interesting issues emerging from the study. The predetermined topics in both the pre-course and post-course interviews were supplemented by subsidiary topics in order to narrow down the focus and probe detailed descriptions about the respondent's perspectives and feelings.

One focus group interview was conducted with five students who voluntarily participated in the interview. According to the definition of Stewart and Shamdasani (1990:10), a focus group interview is an interview which

involves a number of interacting individuals

> …who discuss a particular topic under the direction of a moderator who promotes interaction and assures that the discussion remains on the topic of interest.

One of the reasons why the focus group interview was chosen here was that this was the choice of the participants. To the target participants, a group interview generated a secure atmosphere which allowed them to talk about their feelings freely. I was aware that the interview is a method which works closely with people and it was crucial for me to be very sensitive about how participants felt during the interview. That was why a group interview was chosen according to the preference of participants so as to maintain a comfortable interview environment. The other reason for choosing a focus group interview was because the learner interview here was more exploratory in its essence and focus group interviews are particularly useful for exploring new areas of research (Denscombe 2007: 180). Although three main topics—*Attitudes to and Reasons for Learning English*; *Performance in English*; and *About the Teacher*—were predetermined to investigate learners' learning motivation and their evaluation of the target teacher, I intended to retain the openness of the interview in case other interesting issues might be excluded. Marshall and Rossman (1995:84) claim that the focus group interview 'allows the facilitator the flexibility to explore unanticipated issues as they arise in the discussion.' This type of interview is socially-oriented and the format creates a natural, real-life atmosphere. Participants get to listen to others' perceptions about a topic and, in turn, form their own interpretation. Therefore, I decided to conduct a focus group interview in the pilot study in the hope that the dynamics in the group might inspire more discussion than an individual interview does.

Last but not least, three informal interviews were conducted with the target teacher before or after the classroom observations. Different from the previous interviews, these informal interviews were unstructured and not audio-recorded. However, notes were taken afterwards in the research journal in order to track down new clues or new dimensions of a topic that emerged from the talk. The respondent was free to talk about things that were of central significance to her within the research framework. The function of these informal interviews was more like a preliminary interview in which, according to Bell (2005:161), the aim was to find out which topics needed to be explored further, and which needed to be excluded.

However, I was aware that responses gathered from interviews do not necessarily represent the reality. Baker (2004:163) stresses that interview data should not be treated as descriptions of facts. Rather, it should be treated as a talk constructed by the respondents according to their interpretation of the world. That was why I intended to integrate observations in the present study in an attempt to verify what the respondents said in the interviews. Moreover, there were only 5 learners participating in the interviews. I was aware that the small number of participants might raise issues of reliability in the data. It could be argued that the data gathered from the interviews were merely individual cases which did not represent the opinions of the sample as a whole. I thus decided to incorporate a quantitative research instrument in the investigation in the hope of increasing the reliability of the interview data, which bring us to the last type of research instruments in the present study—questionnaires.

### 3.3.2.3 Questionnaires

Two anonymous questionnaires were administered in Chinese with the

target group of learners during the pilot study—a pre-course questionnaire and a post-course questionnaire. The two questionnaires served different functions in which the former aimed to explore the issue being investigated while the latter aimed to complement other methodological perspectives. In order to meet these purposes, the design of the two questionnaires differed in terms of their question types.

In the pre-course questionnaire (see Appendix 4 for a translated version), more open questions were used to allow respondents the opportunity to express their perceptions on topics being researched (Bell 2005: 137). These questions might be helpful in uncovering which aspects were of particular importance to the participants and provided clues for areas that needed to be investigated further. In this respect, the nature of the pre-course questionnaire is more qualitative and exploratory. The pre-course questionnaire consisted of three sections. The first section aimed to gain factual information from the respondents such as gender, student status, and the length of English learning history. The second drew attention to respondents' attitude concerning English learning and the target course. Four-point Likert scales were used in this section to discover strength of opinions or feelings toward given statements. Four-point instead of five-point scales were used here in order to avoid the neutral central point and to force respondents to express a preference. The third section, which is also the most important section of the pre-course questionnaire, consisted of four open-ended questions exploring participants' reasons for learning English; expectation about the course; English learning history; and their definitions of motivating teachers. At the end of the questionnaire, I also used this opportunity to invite the respondents to participate in the coming interviews. They could choose to leave their personal information in the questionnaire if they were willing to participate

further, or leave blanks to indicate they did not want to be interviewed afterwards.

The pre-course questionnaire was administered at the beginning of the course, whereas at the end of the course, a post-course questionnaire was administered. As mentioned earlier, the purpose of this post-course questionnaire was to supplement the data collected from classroom observations and interviews. It was hoped that the objectivity of the questionnaires might complement the subjective nature of classroom observations. The larger number of participants involved in the questionnaires might also make up the deficiency of the limited number of participants in the interviews. It is hoped that the administering of questionnaires may help me see if the accounts gained from interviews were generally true to the rest of the participants in this target group.

As a consequence, the questions in the post-course questionnaire (see Appendix 5 for a translated version) were designed according to the data collected from the pre-course questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations. The questionnaire could be divided into five sections:

- Attitudes Toward Language Learning
- Reasons for Learning English
- Perceived Personal English Ability
- My Evaluation of This English Class
- Elements of Learning Motivation

Five-point Likert scales were used to investigate the above topics and one open question was added in the end of each section to allow respondents to share other dimensions of the topic which were not included in the questions. It is worth noting that there was a transition from four-point to five-point Likert scales from pre-course to post-course questionnaire. After the pre-course questionnaire, a few respondents suggested it was sometimes difficult to complete four-point Likert scales because they constantly found their opinions to be situated somewhere in

the middle. Considering their suggestions, I realized that, from time to time, our opinions or feelings toward an issue or event may remain neutral and it was not reasonable to exclude the neutral middle point. That was why the Likert scales were changed into five points so as to make it easier for the respondents to complete the questionnaire.

It is worth noting that questionnaires also have their limitations in research. The use of questionnaires is open to challenge that whether complex, multi-layered human behaviour could be investigated by having participants tick boxes. King (2004) indicates that quantitative data does not 'give us the flavour of the whole.' Some other important aspects in the psychological life of an individual such as spontaneity, and the embeddedness of a phenomenon are neglected in multiple-choice questions and Likert scales. That was why in the present study, I intended to integrate both qualitative and quantitative research instruments in the hope of compensating for the weakness of each research instrument and increasing the validity and reliability of the findings gathered from different research methods.

### 3.3.3 Data Collection Procedures

The data collection process took place from September 2007 to January 2008. Before the data collection process started, I made contact with a few teachers to negotiate entry to their classes. One of them, who used to be my colleague in STUT in 2006, gave consent to my researching in her class. I explained to her that the research project was part of my thesis for the award of an Ed.D, which aimed to investigate classroom motivation in English language classes in Taiwan. I also informed her that the research procedures included two questionnaires, two teacher interviews, three classroom observations and a few

informal teacher interviews. The teacher understood that, as part of this study, I might need to audio-record her while she participated in the classroom observations and interviews; but any information that was obtained in connection with this study and that could be identified with her would remain confidential and would be disclosed only with her permission. After explaining relevant research purposes and procedures, the teacher agreed to participate in the study and gave me the permission to audio-record her interviews and classes.

During the course of the pilot study, six interviews, three classroom observations, and two questionnaires were conducted (see Figure 3.1).

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● Pilot Study (September 2007—January 2008):

┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│              Negotiation of Entry             │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                        ↓
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│          1 Pre-Course Teacher Interview       │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                        ↓
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Pre-course Learner Questionnaire & Invitation for Interviews │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                        ↓
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│ 3 Classroom Observations & 3 Informal Teacher Interviews │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                        ↓
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│            1 Learner Group Interview          │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                        ↓
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│        Post-Course Learner Questionnaire      │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                        ↓
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│         1 Post-course Teacher Interview       │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
```
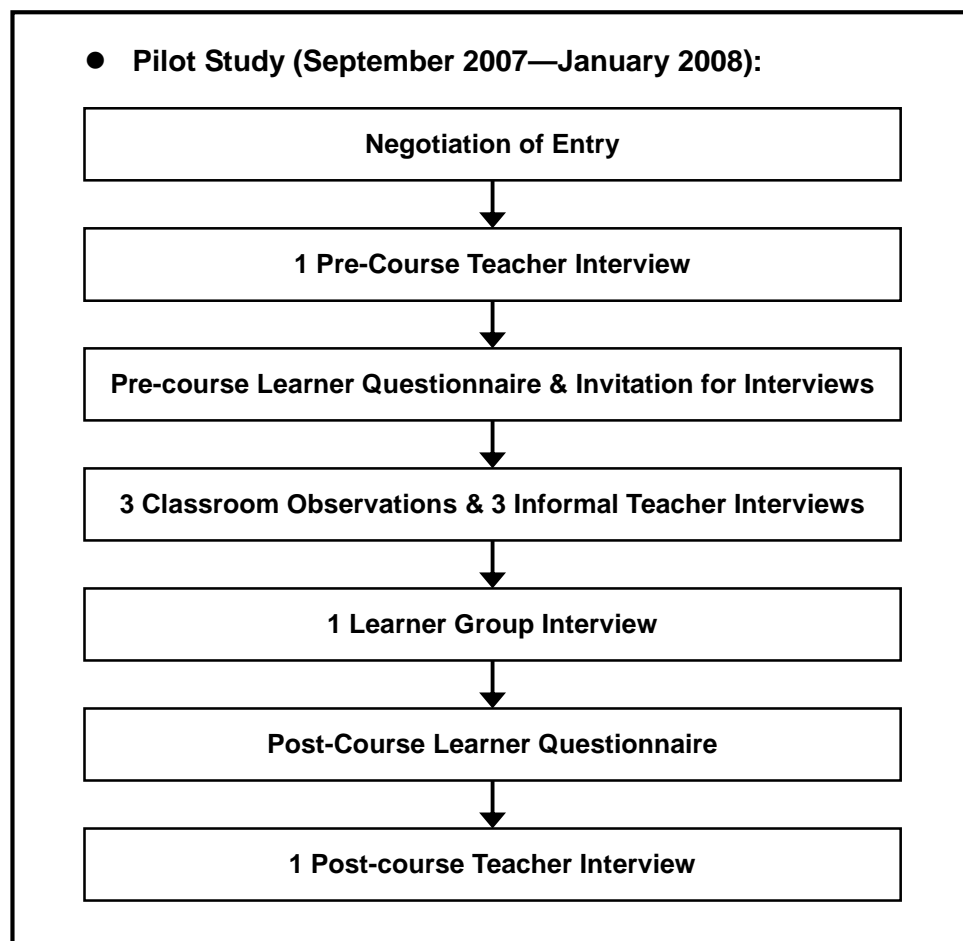
**Figure 3.1 Data Collection Procedures of the Pilot Study**

At the outset of the pilot study, I realized it to be fairly tricky for me to handle my

identity in the research site. Since the learners were aware that I was a teacher in STUT and more importantly, a friend of their teacher, I was concerned my superior status and relationship with the teacher might influence the way learners participated in the study. In order to reduce the effect of the unequal power relationship between the target learners and me, I intended to approach the learners as a 'more competent friend' who could give them advice on learning and, in the meantime, be approachable. However, I later realized my attempt to get closer to the students might affect the relationship between the target teacher and the students. Since I was also a teacher in the school, the learners inevitably drew a comparison between their course teacher and me. They occasionally came to me for language learning inquiries instead of asking for help from the course teacher. Richards (2003:125) suggests that it is crucial for researchers to be aware of how participants are responding to your presence because this may bring great influence into the way they react in your research. I did not want the target teacher to feel that I was taking over her place in the classroom. Thus, in order to not to make the research process unpleasant to the target teacher, I intended to keep a comfortable distance with the learners in class in the rest of the semester. However, this research limitation made it difficult for me to establish and maintain relationships with the learners.

Before the target course started, the pre-course interview was conducted with the target teacher in an attempt to find out the teacher's general motivation about teaching and her expectation about the course. At the first class, the pre-course questionnaire was distributed to the learners in order to investigate their learning motivation, evaluation of their English ability, expectation about the class, and past learning experiences. I also used the chance to explain the nature of the study, obtain consent from the participants (see Appendix 6 for a translated version of

the consent form) and invite them to participate in the coming interviews. I informed the learners that they would need to complete two anonymous questionnaires and that three of their classes would be recorded if they gave consent to the study. Moreover, they could also voluntarily participate in the follow-up interviews. I also explained that participation was not compulsory; and refusing to take part in the project would not influence their academic achievement or their relationship with the target teacher. As a result, 38 out of 48 participants agreed to participate in the study and seven students showed their interest in the follow-up interviews. Although I tried to contact the participants who did not agree to participate in the study through the help of the teacher, due to my limited access to the classroom and the constant absence of those students, I was not able to gain consent from every student in the class.

Throughout the semester, the course was observed and audio-recorded three times. During the observation, I would make observation notes at the back of the classroom using the observation scheme I proposed in 3.3.2.1. Before or after each observation, an informal teacher interview was conducted to allow the target teacher to talk about any aspect of the class. After the observations and informal interviews, I would record my general feelings about the observations and issues that emerged in the informal teacher interviews in the research journal.

In the last few weeks of the semester, I sent an e-mail to arrange the interview time with the seven students who showed their interest in the follow-up interviews in the pre-course questionnaire. However, one of them lost contact and two indicated that they did not want to be interviewed anymore. I ended up having only four students remaining for the interviews. This unexpected incident raised my awareness of the problem in my administration of interviews and was later modified in the main study, which will be discussed further in 3.4.4.3.

Fortunately, the remaining four students were very excited about the interviews and they managed to persuade one more participant to join in. Thus eventually, the interview took place with five students a few weeks later in a coffee shop on campus. The purpose of the interview was to investigate their English learning history; English learning motivation; and attitudes toward the course and teacher. As mentioned in 3.3.2.2, the group interview was the choice of the respondents because they felt more comfortable to talk as a group. The interviews lasted one hour and forty-five minutes. I spent some time at the outset to explain the purpose and procedures of the interview; and establish relationship with the respondents through casual talks. Due to the research limitation I mentioned earlier in this section, I was concerned that my identity as a teacher in STUT and my distant relationship with them might influence the way they respond to the questions. Adler and Adler (2003) suggest that one of the ways to establish a relationship with respondents is to equalize the power inequality between interviewers and respondents. That was why I tried to involve the respondents in casual talks in the hope that this equalization in power and status might create a secure climate and generate a sense of rapport which allowed respondents to talk about their experiences and feelings comfortably (Kvale 1996). I also intended to choose the coffee shop, which features a place for casual talks, as the interview site in an attempt to generate a relaxing environment for respondents to share their feelings.

Before the pilot study ended, the open-ended questions in the pre-course questionnaires and the group interview were preliminarily analysed. Throughout the analysis process, I looked for themes and patterns that arose from the data and used the findings and the predetermined motivational framework as bases for the design of the post-course questionnaires. Some interesting but unexpected issues

such as the influence of peers, instructors' personal charm and output (chances to speak or write in class) arose from the data and were considered in the design of the post-course questionnaires. Then, in the last class, the post-course questionnaire was distributed to the target group of learners to confirm the findings emerging from the pre-course questionnaires, observations and interviews. I also used the opportunity to express appreciation for their participation. The pilot study ended with a post-course interview with the target teacher which aimed to probe further the teacher's feelings about the class and discuss interesting issues emerging from the pilot study.

After the collection of data, the interviews were transcribed in Chinese, the language used in the interviews; and the post-course questionnaire were preliminarily analysed. Although I understood my limited access to the classroom, distant relationship with the student participants and my seemingly superior but powerless status in the research site were the research limitations I would have to face and resigned myself to as a non-participatory researcher, I still felt I could have done better if certain research procedures and instruments were modified. I thus made some modifications to the administration of interviews and the design of research instruments such as the redundancy of questions and the length and layout of the questionnaires. More details of the revisions will be discussed in the next section and the methodological design of the main study will also be illustrated further.

## 3.4 Main Study (February 2008—June 2008)

In this section, I shall set out to explain the rationale behind the decision-making and data collection process in the main study. As mentioned earlier, the nature of the main study had changed to practitioner research due to

certain research limitations. Therefore, before I move on to the illustration of research instruments in the main study, attention will be drawn to the limitations and benefits of the methodological change. Exploratory Practice, a form of practitioner research, will also be discussed so as to illustrate how its principles were applied to the present study. Then, attention will be drawn to the methodological issues in the main study such as contextual information of the research site, methodological revisions made from the pilot study, rationale behind the design of each research instrument and relevant research procedures.

### 3.4.1 Limitations and Benefits of the Methodological Changes

Li (2006: 439) proposes a notion of 'balanced research' in which researchers have to move back and forwards between pre-determined plans and improvised decisions. It implies that the research process does not always go in the way researchers expected. From time to time, researchers have to learn to deal with the unexpected at the research sites and engage themselves in a serial of compromises and decision-making between plans and changes. In line with Li's idea about 'balanced research,' the present study had also undergone a number of changes due to the limitation in getting access to teacher participants. As mentioned in 3.1.2, at the outset of the fieldwork, the research study was conducted following my original *Plan A* in which both the pilot and main study were carried out in other teachers' classes. However, the unexpected withdrawal of the teacher who agreed to participate in the main study forced me to compromise my original plan and opt for *Plan B*, in which the main study was conducted in my own class.

I was aware of the potential problems and pitfalls of investigating classroom motivation through practitioner research. Since part of my research

focus was on teacher motivation, I understood that studying my own teaching motivation might raise issues of bias. In order to reduce the effect of the problem, I planned to integrate data collected from the pilot study with those from the main study. I was hoping that by drawing together the accounts from another teacher and my reflections in my own class, I might be more objective in understanding the construction of teacher motivation in the classroom. Furthermore, motivation has its unobservable nature which means my investigation of learner motivation would rely heavily on learners' accounts. Due to my dual-role as a teacher-researcher, I was aware that the learners' intention to please me might influence the reliability of their responses. I thus decided to make the purpose of the study explicit to the learners at the outset of the main study. I intended to let my students understand that the aim of the study was to help them and me understand classroom motivation and their comments on the course or on me would not be related to their course results. I also showed my enthusiasm in receiving both positive and negative evaluations in an attempt to encourage them to participate fully in the research study without worrying about my impression about them. Other than this, I also gave learners some opportunities to express their thoughts anonymously during the semester in the hope of generating a sense of security which allowed them to give their opinions freely.

Although practitioner research had its limitations in the present study, I also found it beneficial in a number of ways. The most beneficial of all was that it allowed me to have more access to the target classrooms. As mentioned in 3.3.3, one of the limitations in the pilot study was my limited access to the research site as a non-participatory researcher. This limitation made it difficult for me to establish relationships with the student participants and restricted my understanding about the target classroom life. In contrast, practitioner research

allowed me to have extended exposure to the field. Since I was also the course teacher, I was entitled to immerse myself in the research sites. I was hoping that this extended immersion could deepen my understanding of the cultures of the target classes; and help me interpret classroom interaction and learner behaviour from an insider's perspective. Moreover, by having more access to the research sites, I might also have more chances to establish relationships with the participants and to acquaint them with the research procedures. I was hoping that these might prompt better cooperation of participants during the research process and help me to involve more student participants in the present study.

Other than more access to the research sites and better cooperation of the student participants, conducting the study in my own class also allowed me to use a greater variety of research instruments. Since I had more control over the class content, I was able to implement tasks that were less likely to be implemented in other teachers' classes such as learner reflective diaries and post-class learner reflections. Approaching the research site as a non-participatory researcher, as I did in the pilot study, I had no authority to decide class content and tasks. Therefore, I had to limit my research methods to add-on extras in the class procedures such as questionnaires and interviews. However, if the study was conducted in my own class, some research instruments could be integrated as part of the course. That was why I added learner reflections to the practitioner research in my main study in an attempt to help learners understand their own learning and also to help me explore classroom motivation from different perspectives.

Last but not least, practitioner research also served as a means for my professional development. I was hoping that by drawing together pedagogy and research, I might have chances to explore areas that were more relevant to my professional practice. I intended to use practitioner research to deepen my

understanding about classroom life in my own context and prompt me to reflect on my own teaching. Richards and Nunan (1990:201) indicate that

> experience alone is insufficient for professional growth, and that experience coupled with reflection is a much more powerful impetus for development.

I consider reflection to be a vital skill to teachers because it helps them to see their weakness and strength in teaching. Since the practitioner's capacity to reflect is an indispensable element in practitioner research, I was hoping that by conducting practitioner research in my own teaching context, I could cultivate my reflecting skills which might continuously benefit my future professional development.

### 3.4.2 Integrating the Principles of Exploratory Practice

After evaluating the limitations and benefits of the pre-determined plans and improvised decisions, I decided to redirect the nature of my study to practitioner research. Among different types of practitioner research, I found the principles underlying Exploratory Practice (EP) to suit the purpose of my study. According to Allwright (2005a: 360), a leading advocate of EP, there are six principles plus two practical suggestions for the adoption of EP.

| | |
|---|---|
| Principle 1: | Put 'quality of life' first. |
| Principle 2: | Work primarily to understand language classroom life. |
| Principle 3: | Involve everybody. |
| Principle 4: | Work to bring people together. |
| Principle 5: | Work also for mutual development. |
| Principle 6: | Make the work a continuous enterprise. |
| Suggestion 1: | Minimize the extra effort of all sorts for all concerned. |
| Suggestion 2: | Integrate the 'work for understanding' into the existing working life of the classroom. |

Allwright produced the set of principles and suggestions on the basis of the

epistemological and ethical concerns in the field of classroom language teaching and learning. In order to justify the adoption of EP principles in the present study, I shall discuss why I considered my study to fit in the framework of EP from epistemological and ethical perspectives.

To look at the present study from the epistemological perspective, the aim of this research project was to *understand* classroom life and how it influenced teacher and learner motivation. I did not intend to use any specific strategy or technique in order to increase motivation. Rather, I was hoping that by involving students in the process of understanding, by having in-depth communication between the students and me, and by constantly reflecting on my personal insights, *we*—the students and I—might develop mutual understanding of *our* classroom motivation which might help us to improve the quality of language teaching and learning in our context. This ultimate aim of the present study was in line with Allwright's principle 1 and 2 of Exploratory Practice—'put "quality of life" first' and 'work primarily to understand language classroom life.' Allwright (2005a: 358; 2005b: 26) suggests that other forms of practitioner research have been working under the technicist framework which places their emphasis on solving technical problems in the classroom. However, from time to time, practitioner-researchers may find that

> 'Problems' worth investigating soon turn up aspects of classroom life that themselves need greater understanding, and whose understanding leads to a more satisfactory situation without necessitating any other 'solution.' (Allwright 2005a: 358)

Allwright (2003: 126; 2005a: 360) claims that this does not mean EP is 'against changes.' Rather, EP places its focus on *understanding* as a primary concern of practitioner research and this concern must precede any potential personal or

collective moves. The notion of prioritizing understanding in EP was parallel to the purpose of the present study which focuses on the understanding of classroom motivation rather than seeking the solution to particular classroom problems.

To look at the present study from the ethical perspective, I intended to involve students in the study in the hope of prompting mutual development. I consider it a pity if the teacher is the only person who benefits from a practitioner research study. At the planning stage of the main study, I constantly found it difficult to justify my reason to conduct a research project in my classes. I could not help considering myself as 'using' my students in order to collect data for my research or 'using' them in order to develop my professional practice. As a teacher, I hoped the practitioner research could generate a learning environment which prompted mutual development rather than merely my own development. I hoped my students could benefit from the study and learn something by participating in my study. EP's notion of involving all participants shed light on my ethical dilemma. Allwright (2005a: 356-7) indicates that EP highlights the importance of allowing all persons involved in the practice the right to develop their own understandings. This notion is reflected in EP's principle 3, 4 and 5 mentioned above which stress the importance of 'involving everybody,' 'working to bring people together' and 'working also for mutual development'. In the light of my intention to involve learners in the development, I decided to regard learners as 'participants' rather than 'objects' in my study. It was hoped that by involving them as 'participants', we could both contribute to the understanding of our classroom motivation and improve the quality of our language teaching or learning from the understanding.

Moreover, I was aware that my expenditure of time and effort on the research project might influence the quality of my regular lesson preparation.

Conducting practitioner research is a fairly time-consuming process and it inevitably takes up part of the class time. However, if the practitioner research can be integrated as part of the lesson procedure, I could minimize the extra effort I need to spend on research-related tasks and reduce the possibility of sacrificing learners' right to learn in the classroom. My concern shared similar ground with Exploratory Practice in which Allwright (2005a: 360) suggests that practitioner researchers should 'minimize the extra effort of all sorts for all concerned' and 'integrate the "work for understanding" into the existing working life of the classroom.' I was hoping by making some of the research instruments part of the pedagogy, the time and energy commitment I made in administering the research tools would benefit both the research study and the lesson content.

To be coherent with EP's epistemological and ethical concerns, EP stresses the importance of collegiality between teachers and students. I considered this notion to be parallel with my belief about how practitioner research should be conducted. I believe every lesson is co-constructed by both teachers and learners. Thus, if the ultimate aim of practitioner research is to improve the quality of classroom life or to solve a pedagogic problem in class, the understanding or the solution should be developed collectively by all participants in the classroom rather by teachers alone. However, in other forms of practitioner research, the teacher is usually the only participant who plans for the changes, who observes the changes and who reflects on the changes. In this respect, EP shows its strength in bringing learners in the process of observing, reflecting, understanding and even planning. EP's notion of collegiality is well described by Allwright (2005a: 357) who indicates that practitioner research is a 'first person plural.' Rather than '*I* research *your* teaching' as in conventional academic research or '*I* research *my* teaching' as in most forms of practitioner research, Exploratory Practice proposes

the notion of '*We* research *our* practice.' I considered this collegiality to be especially important in the present study of classroom motivation. Since motivation has its unobservable nature and my judgment about what motivates learners may constantly be discrepant with learners' interpretation, it becomes crucial for me to take into account learners' interpretation and opinions when investigating the issue of classroom motivation. EP shows its strength in producing profound understanding of the quality of life in the language classrooms as a whole. That was why I intended to integrate the present study with the principles of EP in an attempt to embrace the openness of social actions in the classroom and to take into account the epistemological and ethical concerns in practitioner research.

### 3.4.3 Contextual Information

The main study took place in two of my Freshman English classes in STUT—Group A and Group B. It was my second year teaching in STUT as a part-time lecturer. Before entering STUT, I had been a part-time lecturer in two other technological universities for one year, which means, by the time the main study was conducted, it was my third year teaching in technological universities. Participants from Group A were a combination of three band-A sub-groups from the department of mechanical engineering. The 59 students here were all graduates from vocational high schools and their English sub-scores in the university entrance exam fell in band A of the course placement (detailed placement rules were illustrated in 3.2.2). Although the three sub-groups of students were from the same department, each sub-group was not acquainted with each other because they took their main modules separately. On the other hand, Group B consisted of 49 students majoring in electrical engineering. Since the

students from Group B were graduates from ordinary high school, they did not have to go through placement procedures. This implied that members from Group B were more acquainted with each other because they took their main modules together most of the time. According to the school regulation of STUT, freshmen graduated from ordinary high schools were reckoned as band-A students because they were considered to have better English proficiency.

By the time the main study started, I had been teaching Group A and Group B for one semester. Since the purpose of the present study was to generate understanding rather than measuring learners' motivation before and after the course, my previous relationship with the students was not so much an issue in the investigation. The aim of the Freshmen English courses was to train freshmen in the four skills in English so as to equip them for future careers, study or daily uses. The classes met for two hours twice weekly and the main language used in the classroom was Chinese. Since both Group A and Group B consisted of band-A students, the materials used in both groups were the same. Usually, in the first two hours of the lesson, students would learn from the listening and speaking materials designed by me such as news, movies, sitcoms or songs. In the beginning of the semester, I asked learners about their preferred language learning materials and incorporated their suggestions in the design of the course materials. During the first two hours, learners would have listening practices from a variety of authentic materials, listen to my explanation about the listening materials, or discuss comprehension questions in pairs, in small groups or as a class. In the middle of the semester, they were also asked to practise giving a group presentation in English presenting topics that were interesting to them. On the other hand, in the last two hours of the lesson, the students learned from a textbook assigned by the school—*Extending Reading Keys* written by Miles

Craven in 2003, which aims to provide learners with a flexible approach to effective reading. The main pedagogy in the last two hours was my lecture with some discussions as a class about definitions of vocabulary and grammar rules. Occasionally, learners would be asked to discuss the meaning of the textbook articles in groups before they listened to my lecture or complete grammatical or vocabulary exercises in pairs or individually. It is worth noting that the content of the textbook would be incorporated in their midterm and final exam; while the materials designed by me would not.

Throughout the course, learners were asked to make a learning portfolio which includes their weekly reflective diaries, assignments, the exam papers and the handouts given to them in class (mainly consist of my self-designed materials). The portfolios were collected four times in the semester for checking and correction; and feedback or comments were either given individually in their portfolios or discussed as a class. During the main study, the learners would be given plenty of chances to give their suggestions concerning the course to me through their weekly reflective diaries and the anonymous post-class reflective writings. The course content such as the selection of materials or lesson procedures would be modified according to the learners' needs if necessary.

### 3.4.4 Research Methods

#### 3.4.4.1 Participant Observations, Research Journal and Teaching Journal

In the main study, the nature of the observations transferred from semi-structured observations to participant observations. Comparing to the limited observations conducted in the pilot study, participant observations allowed me to have maximum exposure to the classroom which helped to yield a great quantity of valuable data. Furthermore, May (1993: 112) argues that cultures and

environment are firmly embedded in human actions. I was hoping by having long-term immersion in the lives of the participants, I would be able to deepen my understanding of the cultures and environment in the target context and to interpret the behaviour of the participants from an emic view. However, I was also aware of the problems and pitfalls of being an insider. Richards (2003: 128) indicates that the problem of being a teacher-researcher is the difficulty of overcoming the taken-for-grantedness. I understood that my dual role as the researcher and a member of the researched might make it hard for me to maintain a cool detachment during my observation. In an attempt to overcome this problem, I kept a research journal in the hope of maintaining my researcher's detachment. I intended to involve myself in constant reflection on the data collection process in the hope of reminding myself of my research interest and prompting myself to stand back when looking at what had happened in class as a researcher. Furthermore, I also audio-recorded all lessons during the main study. It is hoped that the in-class recordings may help me to detach myself from my role as a participant and view the lessons from the perspective of a non-participatory observer.

My role in these participant observations was as a participant researcher who employed an 'overt' role to fully engage in the activities of the group so as to generate understanding (Whyte 1984: 30). Throughout the semester, all lessons were audio-recorded under the consent of the participants and a teaching journal was kept after every lesson. Since my role had changed from a non-participatory observer to a participatory observer in the main study, I modified the observation scheme in the pilot study and integrated them in the teaching journal so that I could keep the observation notes *after* each lesson rather than *during* each lesson. The purpose of the teaching journal was to record critical moments in the

classroom, to note down my interpretation on different dimensions of classroom life and to 'visualize' general atmosphere in the classroom. The function of the teaching journal was more than an observation log. More importantly, it served as a tool for me to reflect on my teaching which is essential in practitioner research. In this respect, the teaching journal was different from the research journal. The teaching journal was more practice-oriented in which I placed my focus on my teaching and feelings as a teacher and some on-the-spot observation as a researcher. On the other hand, the research journal was more theory-oriented in which I reflected on the data collection process and attempted to link theories with what I observed in class as a researcher.

In order to 'visualize' the audio-recording, some measures were also included in the teaching journal to keep track of general classroom atmosphere and particular in-class behaviour. Some measures adopted low-inference coding, such as the number of students who were sleeping, chatting, distracted, or actively interacting with me; whereas some required high-inference scaling, such as the proportion of off-task students to on-task students and the observed motivation of learners (see Appendix 7). My measurement of learners' on-task behaviour and motivation was similar to that in the pilot observation scheme. As mentioned earlier, the measurement in the observations was merely a general description about the 'atmosphere' in the classroom. Since learners' thinking and motivation were unobservable, the measurement did not necessarily represent reality. Although this part of the observation was fairly subjective and mainly based on my personal perceptions, it had its value in the present study because my perceptions about what happened in class played an indispensable role in influencing my teaching motivation in class.

### 3.4.4.2 Diaries and Reflective Writings

Morrison (2007: 300) indicates that personal diaries or logs allow researchers to gain access to the informants' interpretation about their environment that is not visible or available to researchers. In order to yield a wider and deeper picture of how learners construct meanings in the classroom, students in Group A and Group B were asked to keep a weekly learner reflective diary in English (see Appendix 8). The learner diary was not only a data collection instrument but also a pedagogic tool which prompted learners to raise their awareness of their English learning.

Bell (2005:182) reminds researchers who are adopting diaries in their research to make instructions precise because it is crucial for the diarists to be clear what they are asked to do. Thus, before learners started to keep the diary, I explained that the purpose of the reflective diaries was to help them to be responsible for their English learning. It served as a tool for them to reflect on their learning and also a means to communicate with me. It means they could also make inquiries, suggestions or feedback relating to their own learning or the course in the diaries. I also gave learners a hard copy of a 'diary reminder' which restated the aims of the diaries and included a list of questions they might consider when reflecting on their learning:

1. *What happened in class this week?*
2. *What do I like or dislike about the class this week?*
3. *What have I learned this week?*
4. *How do I learn? How do I prefer to learn?*
5. *How can I learn better?*
6. *Do I have any thoughts, worries, feelings about this stage of learning?*

The first and the third question helped learners to recall what had happened in

class so as to assist them in the reflection process. Question two was more related to their preference in learning. Since the reflective diaries also served as a channel of communication between the learners and me, I was hoping that by thinking about this question, learners could share with me what motivated and de-motivated them in English learning. Question five and four prompted learners to think about their needs and problems in learning and also helped me to understand how I could help them as a teacher. In order to assist them more in writing the reflective diaries, I also asked permission from certain learners who wrote good reflective diaries and posted their diaries on the internet where all class members would be able to download and read them. The action served two purposes. Firstly, this encouraged learners who were on-task to keep up the good work. Secondly, this provided the off-task learners with samples to follow when writing their next reflective diaries.

It is worth noting that learners were asked to keep the diaries in English instead of their native language. Although I was aware that language problems might obstruct learners from expressing themselves properly, I understood that the target groups of learners were non-English majors and English was only a small part of their curriculum. Even though they were conscious of the importance of English for their future, on account of the heavy workload from their main modules, they were reluctant to make too much effort on their English learning. That was why if a task was to be assigned in this course, it had to be considered meaningful and worthwhile to learners (Morrison 2007:301). By asking learners to keep a reflective diary in English rather than in their mother tongue, they would not only have chances to reflect on their English learning but also be able to practise writing in English. The meaningful and challenging nature of the English diaries could serve as an incentive to prompt learners to write. Some of the target

students' comments about the diaries proved the decision to be effective:

> 'This is my first time to write diary in English. That is fresh for me. […]
> Writing diary is really useful for everybody to learn English better. And I
> believe that my English will become more better by writing diary once to
> once.'
> *SB31, learner reflective diaries, original*

> 'This the last time to write diary. It help us to practice writing English article.
> I think it's a nice homework.'
> *SB03, learner reflective diaries, original*

> 'In this semester teacher make some new rules that we have to follow. For
> example […] to write learning diary by English every week. I believe that
> these rules must can let my English make great strides.'
> *SA38, learner reflective diaries, original*

From the comments above, it could be noted that learners attach importance to writing reflective diaries in English. Despite their difficulty in expressing themselves properly in English, they were willing to make effort because the task was challenging and self-rewarding. To the learners, keeping the diaries in English was considered to be meaningful for their learning.

However, it is worth noting that diaries have similar limitations to that of the interviews. They should be treated as diarists' accounts rather than facts. Furthermore, my role as their course teacher might inevitably influence the way they reflected on their learning and the way they gave feedback. I thus decided to incorporate anonymous post-class reflective writing in the present study (see Appendix 9 for a translated version). I was hoping that by asking learners to reflect anonymously, I might generate a secure environment which allowed them to express their thoughts and to communicate with me freely. The post-class reflective writing served a similar function to the reflective diaries. Nevertheless, the learner reflective diaries prompted learners to reflect on their learning

retrospectively, whereas the post-class reflective writing gave them opportunities to reflect on the spot. Reflecting on their learning right after class, learners might have a fresher memory of what had happened in class. Moreover, since learners were allowed to use their native language in post-class reflections, it was hoped that they would have fewer language constraints in expressing themselves. The post-class reflective writing served as a supplement to the reflective diaries in which learners might have chances to reflect at a different point of time and in a different way.

### 3.4.4.3 Interviews

The purpose and procedures of the learner interviews remained very much the same as in the pilot study, yet I still made certain modifications in the administration of the interviews. As mentioned in 3.3.3, in the pilot study, I invited learners to participate in the interviews at the beginning of the semester. However, at the end of the semester when the interviews took place, I ended up losing some of my respondents because they lost interest in participating in the past few months. I understood this was partially because of my role as a non-participatory researcher who had difficulty in establishing and maintaining relationship with the respondents. Nevertheless, I believed the situation would have been better if I had sent the interview invitation *a few weeks* before the interviews took place rather than *months* before the interviews were conducted. As a consequence, in the main study, I informed learners about the interviews at the beginning of the semester but intended to wait until week thirteen to invite them to participate in the interviews. I was hoping by shortening the time between the date respondents agreed to participate and the date the interviews took place, I might maintain better control of the participation of the interviewees.

.    Moreover, I also made a change to the scale of the interviews. Instead of conducting focus group interviews, the interviews in the main study were conducted with a smaller numbers of participants—from one to three respondents according to the preference of participants. From my observation of the focus group interview in the pilot study, I found respondents who upheld different opinions from the rest of the group members tended to conceal or moderate their views in order to be agreeable to others. This drawback of group discussion is particularly evident in Asian culture in which group harmony overweighs individual uniqueness. Denscombe (2007:180) also claims that more extrovert respondents might dominate the discussion while contributions from less confident people will be inhibited in large group interviews. Although the focus group interview in the pilot study was conducted with a small group of five people, the effect of dominant participants still existed. In order to lessen the effect of 'group' on individual responses while still maintaining the secure atmosphere the 'group' provides, I reduced the number of participants in each interview where learners could choose to be interviewed individually or with one or two other classmates. Furthermore, the learner interviews here were not so exploratory in essence or rather they aimed to clarify certain inquiries in the classroom, i.e. the interrelationship between learner motivation and classroom interaction. In this sense, small-scale interviews allowed in-depth investigation to take place because all participants were given sufficient time to speak.

Other than the administration of the interviews, there were also some minor revisions to the interview guide. Main topics and subsidiary topics were re-edited to make the focus of the interviews more specific and relevant to the target course. After the modification, there were four categories of questions in the interview guide (see Appendix 10):

- Attitudes to and Reasons for Learning English
- Performance in English
- About Teachers
- About the Class

The first two categories were similar to those of the pilot study in which respondents would share their attitudes toward their English learning. In the third part, rather than commenting about the target teacher, respondents were asked to talk about their definition of a motivating teacher in general. Then in the last part, attention was drawn to learners' feelings about the target class in which the aim was to investigate learners' attitudes toward the tasks, materials, teacher, and peers (an issue arising from the pilot study) in the course. The learner interviews concluded with a question which prompted respondents to summarize elements which might motivate them in learning English.

Furthermore, before and after each interview, interview diaries were kept in the research journal for different purposes. In the pre-interview diaries, background information about the respondents such as diary content and their academic performances would be reviewed. According to Nisbet and Watt (1978: 15), this may assist interviewers in understanding which aspects were important for the respondents. My perception about the respondents would also be recorded in the pre-interview diaries to see if there was a difference before and after the interviews. On the other hand, the post-interview diaries prompted me to record instant thoughts about the interviews and to note down important issues emerging from the talk which might assist my later data analysis.

### 3.4.4.4 Questionnaires

After analysing the results of the pre-course and post-course questionnaires in the pilot study, certain problems in the instruments were

detected and modifications were made accordingly for the main study. Due to the lengthiness and redundancy of the pilot post-course questionnaire, some respondents were losing patience in the latter part of the questionnaire. From the result of the questionnaire, it was evident that some of them were giving random answers in the last section. In order to overcome this problem, some questions were moved from the post-course questionnaire to the pre-course questionnaire in order to shorten the length of the post-course questionnaire and reduce the occurrence of similar questions. Moreover, the sequence of questions and layout of the questionnaires were revised so as to make them more user- and analysis-friendly.

After the revision, the pre-course questionnaire consists of five parts (see Appendix 11 for a translated version):

- Attitudes Toward Language Learning
- Reasons for Learning English
- Perceived Personal English Ability
- Elements of Learning Motivation
- My Expectation

The first three parts consists of 24 five-point Likert scale statements investigating learners' attitudes, goals, value and self-concept in English learning. Each part ended with an open-ended question so as to allow respondents to share other dimensions of the topic which was not included in the questionnaire. In the fourth part, *Elements of Learning Motivation*, attention was drawn to learners' definitions of motivating English classes. 23 five-point Likert scale statements were used to explore learners' perceptions about teachers, peers and materials. This part also finished with an open-ended question at the end to invite more responses. In the last part of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to answer four open-ended questions which aimed to explore their expectation about the

course, the teacher and themselves.

In terms of the post-course questionnaire, questions were divided into three parts (see Appendix 12 for a translated version):

- Personal Information
- My Evaluation of This English Class
- My Views about This English Class

In the first part, respondents were asked to give personal information about their academic performances and perceived personal English ability. They were also asked to compare their English learning motivation in high school and in the target course. Then, in the second part, *My Evaluation of This English Class*, learners were asked to evaluate the course materials, peers, and the teacher in five-point Likert scales. Half of the items in this part were stated in negative evaluative statements while the other half in positive statements in an attempt to avoid the risk of inducing bias in the responses. The post-course questionnaire concluded with three open questions in which learners were asked to summarize their general feelings about the course.

### 3.4.5 Data Collection Procedures

The data collection process of the main study took place from February to June 2008 (see Figure 3.2 overleaf). In the first week of the course, a consent form (see Appendix 13 for a translated version) was distributed to the students to explain relevant ethical issues and to obtain permission from the participants. I explained to the learners that participation in the study was not compulsory and their decisions would not influence their relationship with me or their course results. They understood that by agreeing to take part in the study, they gave consent to my discussion and publishing of the results gained from their

questionnaires, class recordings, exams and assignments as part of my thesis for the award of an Ed.D. As a result, all participants in both Group A and B agreed to participate in the study.

```
● Main Study (February 2008—June 2008):

  ┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
  │        Pre-course Learner Questionnaire       │
  └─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
         │              │                │
  ┌───────────┐  ┌───────────┐  ┌───────────┐
  │  Learner   │  │ Participant │  │ Post-class │
  │ Reflective │  │Observation &│  │ Reflective │
  │   Diaries  │  │  Teaching   │  │  Writing   │
  │            │  │   Journal   │  │            │
  └───────────┘  └───────────┘  └───────────┘
         │              │                │
  ┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
  │            12 Learner Interviews              │
  └─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                        │
  ┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
  │       Post-Course Learner Questionnaire       │
  └─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
```
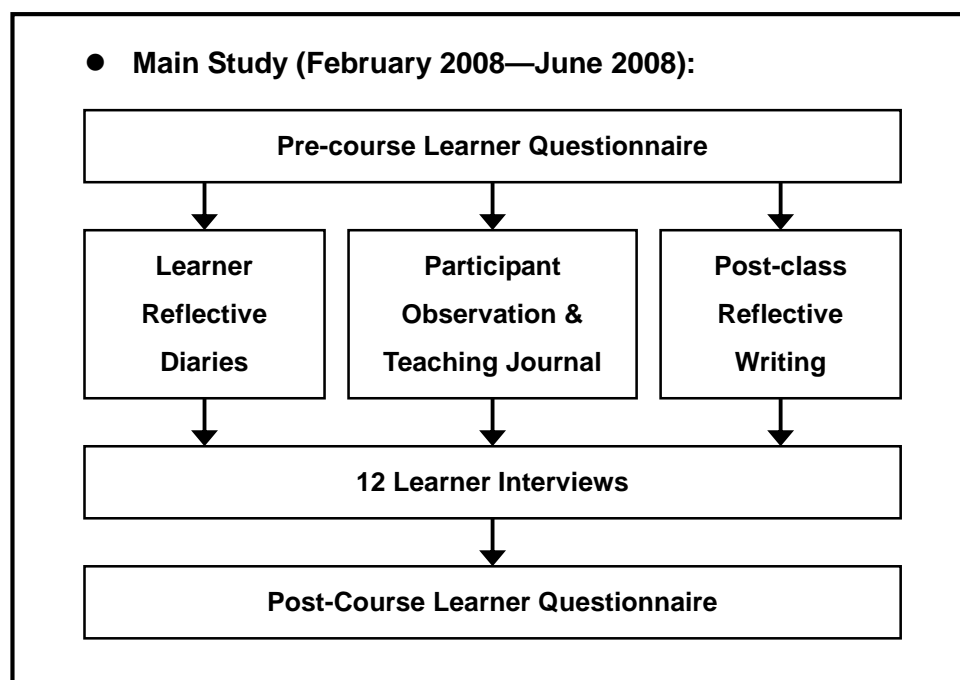
**Figure 3.2 Data Collection Procedures of the Main Study**

I made it clear to the learners that the aim of the research study was to help them and me understand our teaching and learning so as to improve the quality of our classroom life together. I also invited them to give any suggestion to the course or to me in an attempt to involve learners in the planning of the lesson content. On the same day, I also administered an anonymous questionnaire to find out learners' learning motivation, evaluation of their English ability, and expectation about the course.

During the semester, all lessons were audio-recorded under the consent of the learners and a teaching journal was kept after every lesson, which served as an observation log as well as a reflective diary. Students were asked to keep a weekly

learner reflective diary in English. The diaries were collected for language correction and feedback four times in the semester, approximately once a month. The feedback or comments were either given individually in their diaries or discussed as a class. The target learners were also asked to reflect on their learning in class sometimes. The post-class reflective writing was usually conducted when students were trying out new tasks or materials in class such as presentation, group discussion, CNN news etc. After each reflection, comments or feedback from students would be shared or discussed as a class. Throughout the semester, the post-class reflective writing was conducted four times in Group B and three times in Group A.

In week thirteen, an e-mail was sent to each student individually to invite them to participate in the interviews. They could choose how—individually or as a small group—and when they would like to be interviewed. As a result, 23 students agreed to participate. 12 interviews were conducted, in which 3 were individual, 7 were paired and 2 were with three students. The interviews took place in my library carrel and all the interviews were audio-recorded with the permission from participants. Before the interviews started, pre-interview diaries were kept to acquaint myself with the academic performances and personal traits of the interviewees. Since I was the target teacher as well as the researcher in the present study, I was aware that my dual-role might influence their responses. That was why, at the outset of the interviews, I spent some time explaining the purpose and relevant procedures of the interviews. I intended to let the participants understand that the interviews would not influence their course outcome and both positive and negative evaluations were valued in the interviews. I also notified the respondents that most individual and paired interviews took place for approximately one hour, whereas the small-group interviews lasted for around one

and a half hour. After the interviews, I would keep a post-interview diary in order to note down interesting issues emerging from the talk.

The data collection process of the main study ended with an anonymous learner questionnaire, which aimed to find out learners' evaluation of the teacher, the materials and peers. Other official documents were also collected as part of the data, such as the midterm teaching evaluation; final teaching evaluation; and their exam papers and results. To sum up, the data collected in the main study can be sorted in three categories—anonymous data, in-depth data and factual data (see Table 3.1).

| A Summary of Data Collected in the Main Study | |
|---|---|
| **Anonymous Data** | ● two pre-course learner questionnaires |
| | ● two post-course learner questionnaires |
| | ● seven post-class learner reflective writings (three times in Group A / four times in Group B) |
| **In-depth Data** | ● 12 learner interviews |
| | ● learner reflective diaries from the 108 participants |
| | ● my teaching journals for one semester |
| | ● my research journals throughout the fieldwork |
| **Factual Data** | ● in-class recordings of Group A and Group B for one semester (20 weeks) |
| | ● two official midterm teaching evaluations |
| | ● two official final teaching evaluations |
| | ● exam papers and results of the 108 participants |

**Table 3.1 A Summary of Data Collected in the Main Study**

## 3.5 Approach to Analysis

The data collected in the present study comprises both qualitative and quantitative data. Due to the massive amount of qualitative data, NVivo7,

computer software for qualitative data analysis, was used to assist the filing and

coding of the qualitative data. Other computer software such as Microsoft Excel

(see Figure 3.3) was also used to aid the analysis of the quantitative data.



**Figure 3.3 Excel: Analysis of the Questionnaires**

Before I embarked on the analysis of data, each piece of raw data was

given a reference number so as to make it easier for me to retrieve the location of

the data later. After labelling the data with reference numbers, quantitative data

collected from questionnaires were coded to convert questionnaire responses to

numerical data. For example, in the Likert scale sections, 'strongly agree' was

coded as 5 and 'strongly disagree' was coded as 1. The numerical data were later

entered into Excel spreadsheets for basic statistical analysis such as frequency and

measures of central tendency. On the other hand, qualitative data such as learner

diaries, learner reflective writings, interviews, teaching journals and open-ended

questions in questionnaires were coded on the basis of the motivational

framework I proposed earlier in 2.2 (see Figure 3.4 overleaf).
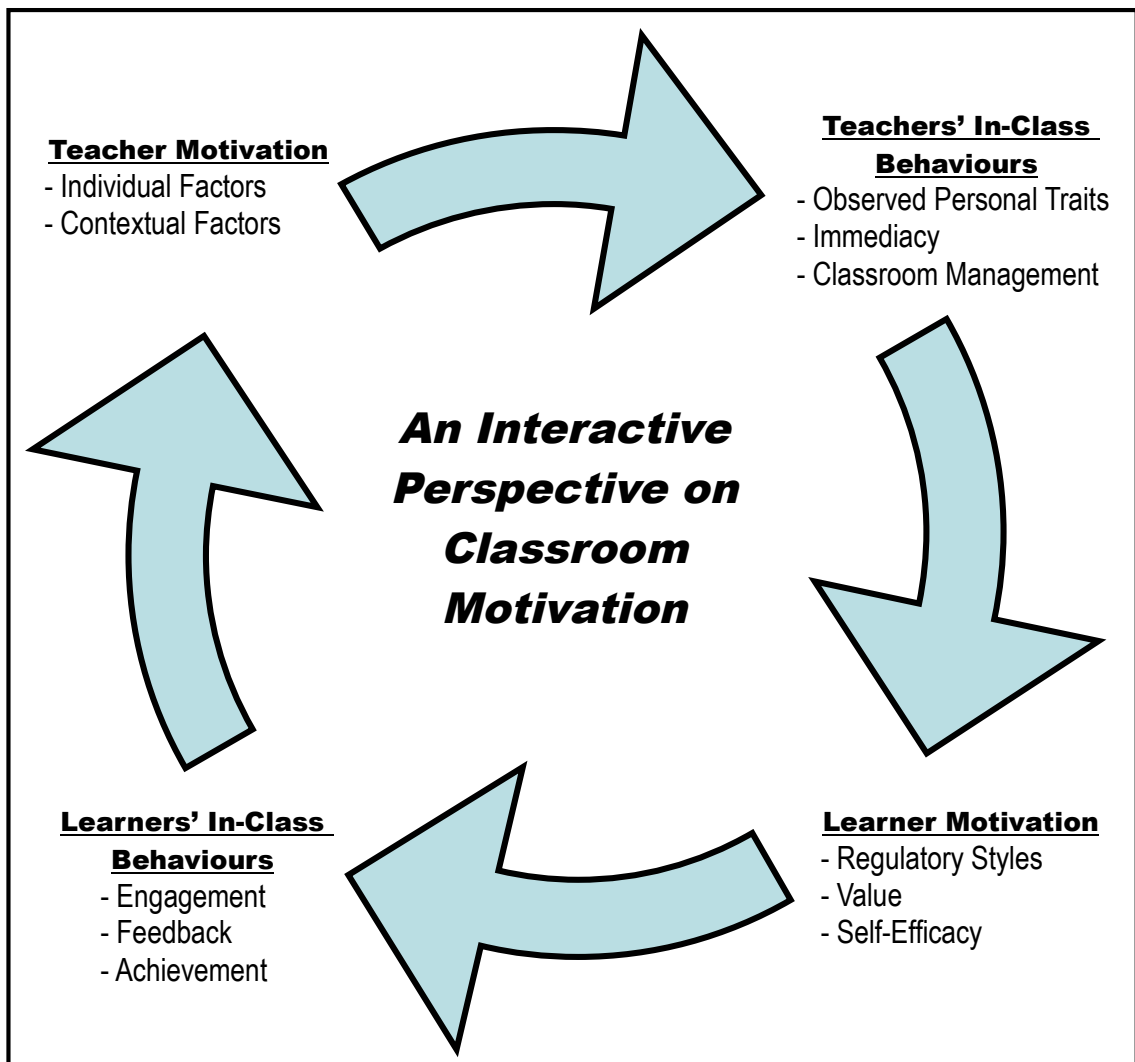
**Figure 3.4 An Interactive Perspective on Classroom Motivation**

The motivational framework provides a hierarchical pyramid of codes which helps me to interpret complex classroom behaviours and thinking in a more systematic fashion. In the framework, elements of classroom motivation are categorized into four main parts, namely teacher motivation, teachers' in-class behaviour, learner motivation and learners' in-class behaviour. Each part has its own subordinate elements. For example, there are individual influences and contextual influences underneath the main heading of teacher motivation. During the data analysis process, these subordinate elements would serve as lower level codes which would be attached to the data (see Figure 3.5 overleaf). For example,

'I like teaching very much' would be coded as 'individual influences,' while 'the school has a tight course schedule' would be coded as 'contextual influences.'
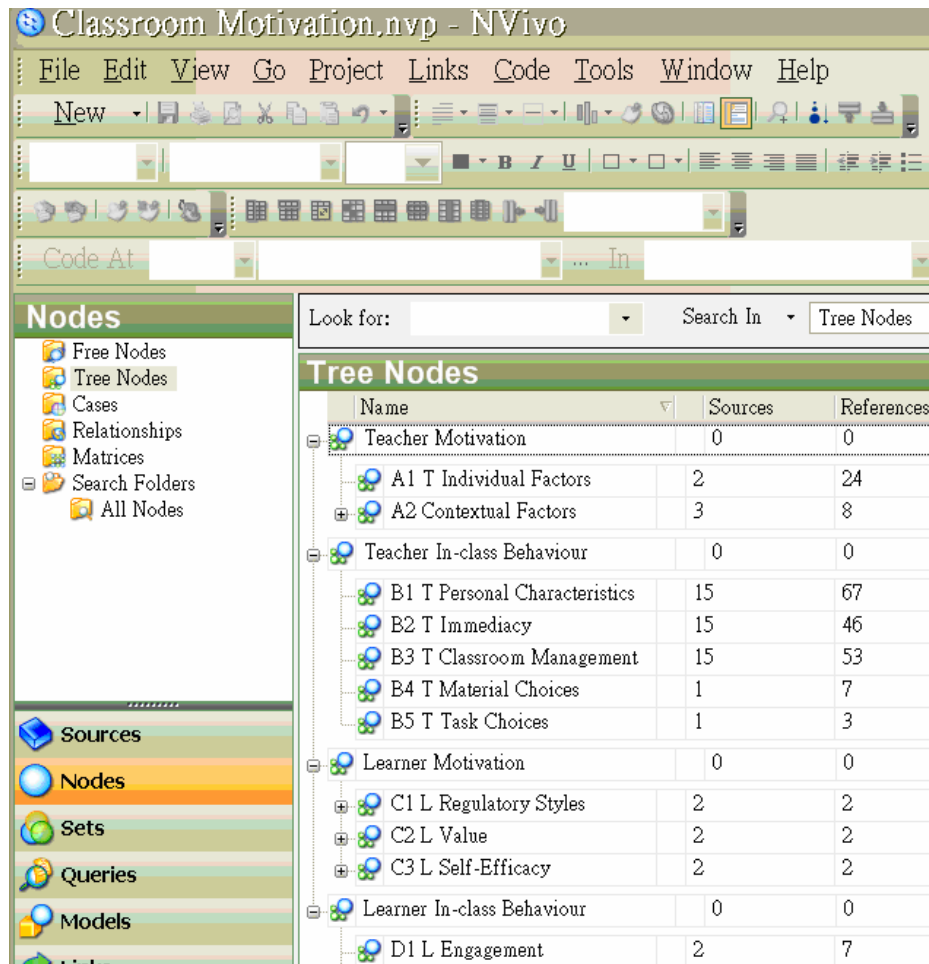


**Figure 3.5 NVivo7: Codes from the Motivational Framework**

During the analysis process, data would be coded line by line (see Figure 3.6 overleaf). Since the learner reflective writings, open-ended questions in questionnaires and interviews were conducted in learners' native language—Chinese, the data were analysed in Chinese and later translated into English for presentation in an attempt to prevent discrepancy generated by translation during the analysis process. In the hope of increasing the reliability of the translations, I have consulted one of my colleagues who is also researching in the field of L2 motivation regarding the translations of key concepts such as

self-motivated, monotonous, rigid, etc.

*An Interview Transcript in Chinese*                                    *Codes Attached to the Data*
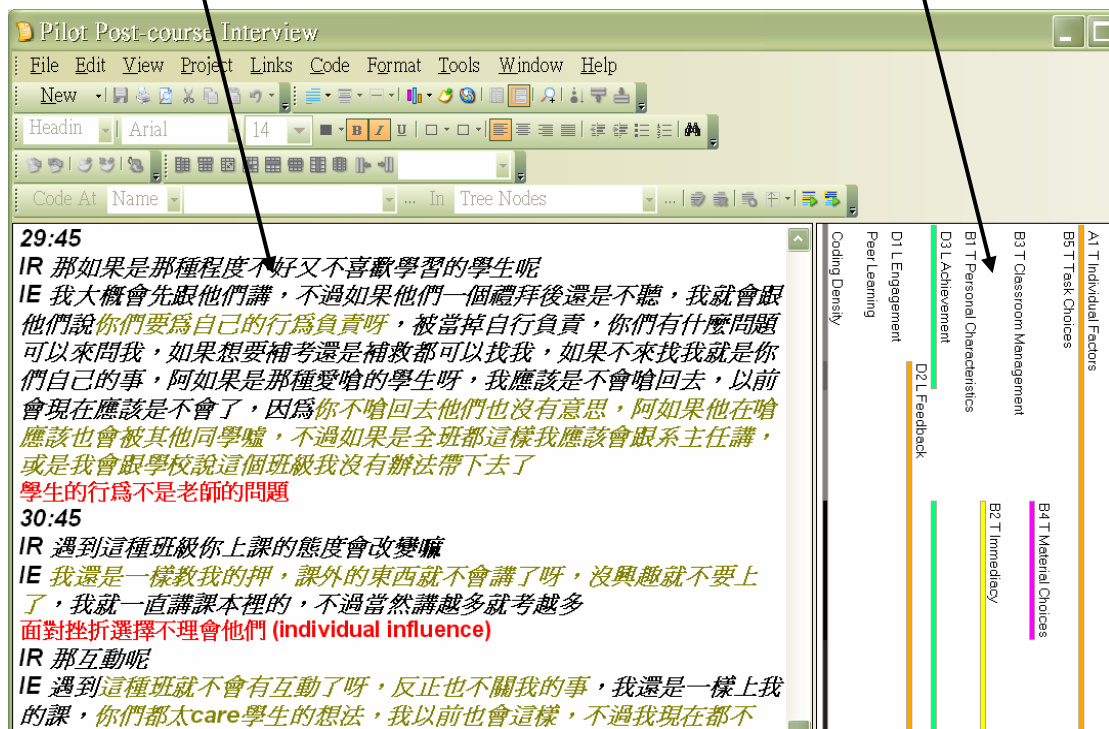


**Figure 3.6 NVivo7: Data Analysis Process**

It is worth noting that the codes which stemmed from the motivational framework only served as initial codes. During the analysis process, some codes would be refined and new codes would be developed. Although the interpretation of data in the present study was based on the predetermined framework, I still kept an open mind for other elements that emerged. I would first give a new element a new code and put it in the 'Free Node' file in NVivo7 (see Figure 3.7 overleaf). The codes in the 'Free Node' file would later be merged with existing codes or become new codes in the existing code system. This means the motivational framework would continuously be modified and evolve as the analysis progressed.

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**Figure 3.7 NVivo7: Other Codes**

Throughout the analysis, I also kept memos to note down my coding decisions and themes that sprang up during the coding process. The identification of codes was not always clear-cut. From time to time, there were grey areas between codes which made it very difficult to decide which code should be attached to a particular unit of data. In this case, memos allowed me to record my reasons for coding and helped me to be more consistent during the coding process. For example, in one of my memos I wrote,

'I put "the level of material" in the "self-concept and expectancy" category

because learners' perceptions of the level of learning material influence their expectations for success.'

The memo served as a reminder reminding me to attach the same code, 'self-concept and expectancy,' when learners were commenting about the level of learning material. It also allowed me to re-examine the adequacy of my coding later. Other than keeping track of my decision-making during the coding process, I also use the memos to note down themes, insights and potential relationships between codes that emerged during the coding process so as to assist my later interpretation of data.

It is worth mentioning that the coding and the analysis in the present study are open to different interpretation. Denscombe (2002) argues that it is unlikely for social researchers to be completely objective because they may inevitably bring along with them their culture, their socialization and the way they make sense of the world when interpreting data. That means the coding and analysis processes may reflect the person who conducts the research as well as the circumstances where the investigation takes place. I was aware that it would increase the reliability and validity of my findings if I invited another researcher who works in the same area to go through the coding process with me. However, I was unable to put this into practice due to the massive amount of data collected in the present study and the time constraint of the research study. Nevertheless, I intend to keep the research and coding process transparent so as to allow readers to see how data were collected, who the participants were and how I approached the data. Moreover, as mentioned earlier in this section, I also intended to keep an open mind during the analysis process. Although the coding process was based on the predetermined motivational framework, data that did not fit in the predetermined code system would first be put in the 'Free Node' file in NVivo7

(see Figure 3.7) and later be merged with existing codes or become new codes in the code system. This means there will be two types of findings in the present study, namely concept-driven findings and data-driven findings. It is hoped that the transparency of the research and analysis process and my open-mindedness for unexpected results may redeem the limitation of not being able to go through the coding process with other researchers, and maintain the reliability and validity of the findings.

Due to the length limit of this thesis, attention will be drawn to the findings of the main study. However, findings of the pilot teacher interviews and the pilot learner group interview were incorporated with the main study. As mentioned in 3.1.3, the main teacher data gathered from the main study were my reflective teaching journals. I was aware that my dual role as a teacher-researcher may raise issues of bias in the study. That is why I intend to draw together the teacher interviews in the pilot study with the data in the main study in the hope of reducing the subjectivity of my interpretation about the teaching journals. It is worth mentioning that the pilot teacher interviews were completely integrated with the data of the main study while the pilot learner group interview was used as data supporting the key findings. Furthermore, in an attempt to make the presentation of findings precise, classroom recordings and official documents were not included in the analysis. However, they served as a source for cross-referencing when the accounts gathered from the interviews, diaries or journals needed to be clarified further. To sum up, in the present study, the data being analysed are listed in Table 3.2 overleaf.

| A Summary of Data Analysed in Chapter Four | |
|---|---|
| *Pilot Study* | • one pre-course teacher interview |
| | • one post-course teacher interview |
| | • one learner group interview |
| *Main Study* | • 12 learner interviews |
| | • weekly diaries from the 108 participants |
| | • seven post-class reflective writings (three times in Group A / four times in Group B) |
| | • two pre-course questionnaires |
| | • two post-course questionnaires |
| | • my research journals |
| | • my teaching journals |

**Table 3.2 A Summary of Data Analysed in Chapter Four**

In this chapter I have explained the underlying reasons of the methodological decisions and my way of approaching the data. The research design, the data collection process and the data coding procedures were also illustrated. After the discussion of the methodological and analytical issues involved in the present study, in the next chapter I shall set out to discuss key findings arisen from the data.

# Chapter Four: Results

Before I set out to present results of the present study, it is worth mentioning that in this chapter participants' quotes from qualitative data are selected according to how representative they are of the body of data. In an attempt to demonstrate the representativeness of the selected quotes, questionnaire data will be combined with the presentation of the qualitative data. Key findings of the present study are organized in terms of the themes that emerged during the analysis process. Findings related to learner motivation will be presented in 4.1 and then those of teacher motivation in 4.2.

## 4.1 Learner Motivation

In this section we will first have an overview of factors that influenced the target learners' motivation by looking at the results of the post-course questionnaires. Then, I will use the results of the post-course questionnaires as a framework and present the findings from learner diaries, interviews, reflective diaries, post-class reflective writings and questionnaires on the basis of this framework. In the presentation of findings that follows, all learners are referenced as SA01-59, SB01-49 and SP1-5, in which 'SA' and 'SB' stands for the students from Group A and Group B respectively while 'SP' stands for the five students who participated in the pilot group interviews. Furthermore, the questionnaires are referenced as preQ 001-105 and postQ 001-106 in which 'preQ' and 'postQ' denote 'pre-course questionnaire' and 'post-course questionnaire' respectively.

Before I set out to present data collected from the target learners, it is worth mentioning that the learners who participated in the main study were university freshmen, which means that the target course was the first English

course they took in their university education. Thus, in their responses in the learner diaries, interviews, reflective diaries, post-class reflective writings and questionnaires, some of them may have interpreted the lesson procedures and course contents of the target course in terms of how university English courses were generally conducted. However, it is worth noting there is still considerable variation within the teaching of university English courses. Furthermore, due to the conduct of the practitioner research, the target learners were given more opportunities to express their opinions concerning the course as well as chances to reflect on their learning than would normally be the case. The course contents such as the selection of materials and tasks were adjusted according to the needs of learners if necessary. These factors may make the target course an exception. Thus, the discussion that follows focuses on how the target English course or, in 4.1.4, how the broader university educational context influence the English learning motivation of the learners rather than how general university English courses influence the construction of learner motivation.

### 4.1.1 An Overview: Learners' Attitudinal Changes

In Part One of the post-course questionnaires (see Appendix 12 for a translated version), learners were asked to compare English learning in high school with that in university, i.e. the present course. The questionnaires were distributed to 106 participants and all responses in that section are valid. Learners would indicate the extent to which they like or dislike the courses on five-point Likert scales as follows:

3. *My feeling toward the English class in senior high school...*

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Dislike | | | | | | Like |

*4.  My feeling toward this English class...*

|  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |  |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Dislike | | | | | | Like |
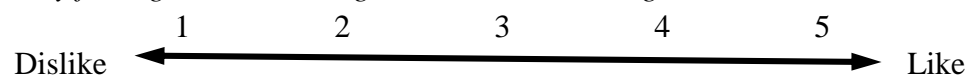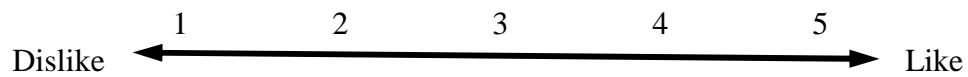
Interestingly, the result shows that there are evident changes in the target learners' attitudes toward English courses: the mean score of question 3 is 2.8, which is slightly below the neutral point, while that of question 4 is 4.1. The results represent strong indications that the target groups of learners were learning to like English classes in university. Learners' possible attitudinal changes are probed further in the next question, question 5, in which learners answer an open-ended question to indicate their reasons for any changes.

5.  *Did my English learning method or attitude toward English change in any way from high school to university? If there are any changes, it is because...*

Among the 106 respondents, 75 (71%) indicated there were changes, 22 (21%) considered there was no change, while nine (8%) did not give answers to the question. The responses of those who claimed changes in their English learning can be classified into four categories: *instrumentality, teachers, degree of control* and *variety*. The results can be seen in Table 4.1 overleaf. It is worth noting that 82 entries of responses do not represent 82 different participants because some participants gave responses which can be fitted in multiple categories. For example, this learner response, 'University teaching has more variety and I also have less stress from exams,' can be fitted in both categories of *degree of control* and *variety*.

From Table 4.1 overleaf, we can see that 17 learners claimed that they changed their English learning attitudes because they attached more instrumental value to learning English ever since they entered university. 18 learners attributed their attitudinal changes to the teachers. 23 learners claimed they had attitudinal

| Categories of Learner Responses (with translated sample statements) | Frequency |
|---|---|
| *Instrumentality*<br>(e.g. I learned English for exams in high school but now I learn English for my own future.) | 17 |
| *Teachers*<br>(e.g. The way you teach is more interesting so I'm more motivated to learn.) | 18 |
| *Degree of Control*<br>(e.g. In high school, I learned English because the teachers were pushing me. In university, I learn to learn English autonomously / I become lazy and hardly spent time studying English now.) | 23 |
| *Variety*<br>(e.g. High school teachers focused on textbooks and exercises only. The university English course is more interesting. We can learn from movies, songs and CNN news) | 19 |
| *Others* | 5 |
| *Total* | 82 |

**Table 4.1 Attitudinal Changes from High School to University**

changes in learning English because the degree of control they received from teachers or schools was different. It is worth noting here that among these 23 learners, 14 (61%) talked about the changes positively, seven (30%) expressed their feelings negatively while two (9%) gave neutral accounts about the changes. Following 'degree of control', 19 talked about the variety of materials and tasks in the present course. Lastly, five learner responses are classified into the category of 'others' either because they simply claimed the attitudinal changes without giving a specific reason why (e.g. It is more interesting now.) or because they gave reasons which do not seem to fit in any of the above categories (e.g. My attitude changed because of the oral presentations. / My attitude changed because my listening has improved.).

As mentioned in 3.4.2, it was not the aim of this research study to implement any specific strategy or technique in the classroom in order to increase

motivation. Rather, the study aims to *understand* how classroom interaction influences learner and teacher motivation by involving learners in the investigation process. However, unexpectedly, the results of question 3, 4 and 5 seem to imply that the target learners had undergone significant changes in their attitude and motivation level after taking the course. I find the results intriguing and they may serve as a nice starting point for the presentation of my findings. Learners' responses to question 5, the open-ended question, give us an overview of the possible influences of the target learners' motivation. In an attempt to understand the formation of the target learners' motivation in more depth, I aim to use their responses (see Table 4.1) as a framework for this section and present the findings from learner diaries, interviews, reflective diaries, post-class reflective writings and questionnaires on the basis of these four categories. The structure of the section can be seen in Figure 4.1.
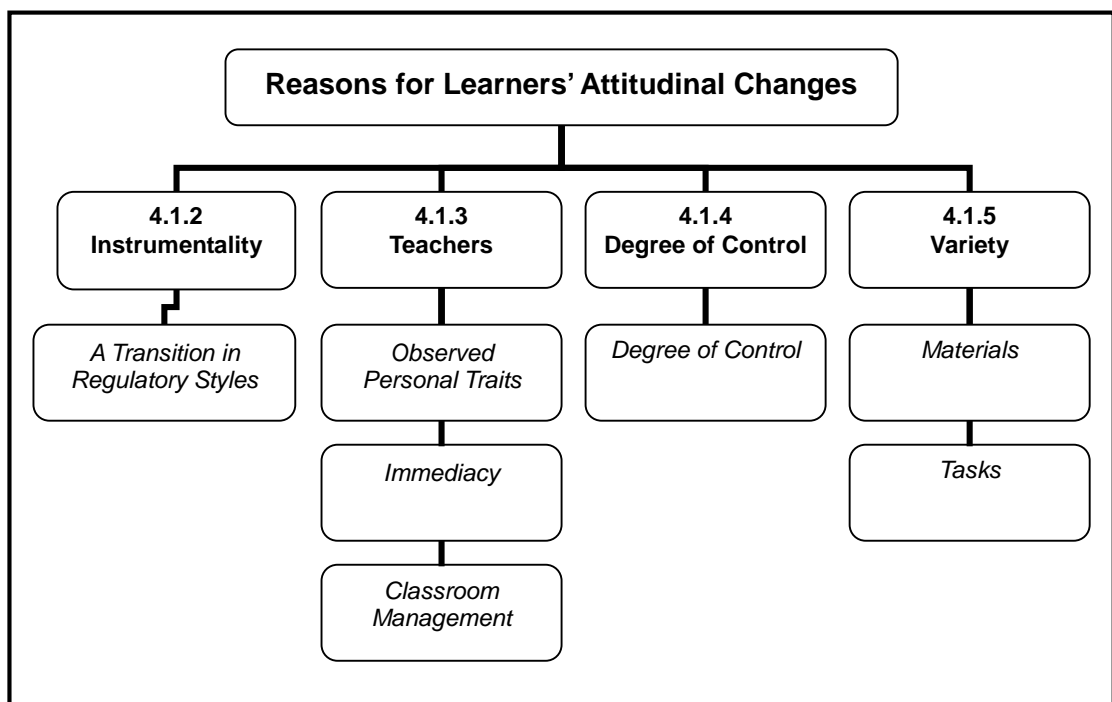


**Figure 4.1 An Overview of section 4.1**

As illustrated in Figure 4.1, in 4.1.2, attention will be drawn to the general regulatory styles of the target learners to see how the instrumentality of university education prompted learners to move from a controlled to a more self-determined regulatory style. Then, in 4.1.3, learners' accounts on how teachers influence their learning motivation will be elaborated. Teachers' in-class behaviours such as observed personal traits, immediacy and classroom management will be discussed in further detail. In 4.1.4, I will present findings which show the relationship between learner motivation and the autonomy-supportive environment of university education. Lastly, in 4.1.5, I will illustrate how the variety of materials and tasks generated and maintained learner motivation in the target classes, which consist of learners with different abilities and different learning preferences. Attention will focus on how different types of materials and tasks in the present course influence learner motivation in different ways.

### 4.1.2 Instrumentality: A Transition in Regulatory Styles

In Table 4.1, the results of the post-course questionnaires show that 17 respondents mentioned they learned English for exams and grades in high school, while in university they came to understand the importance of English and learn English for more practical reasons such as future careers, studies or knowledge. In this section, I will first discuss the target groups of learners' general regulatory styles by looking at the data collected from the pre-course questionnaires and learner interviews. Then, findings from the learner interviews will be presented in an attempt to verify the findings from Table 4.1 and to find out how the instrumentality of university education prompted the learners to change their regulatory styles.

In Part Two of the pre-course learner questionnaires (see Appendix 11 for

a translated version), 12 Likert scale items were used to find out learners' reasons for learning English. The questionnaires were distributed to 105 participants while one learner's responses in that section are invalid. The Likert scale section consists of 12 statements as follows (translated):

**I learn English because…**
1. *I'm interested in English.*
2. *Learning English gives me a sense of achievement.*
3. *I'm interested in the culture of the English-speaking countries.*
4. *English is helpful for my future career or study plan.*
5. *English is an international language. It helps to broaden my horizon.*
6. *English can be integrated with my interests. (e.g. travelling, movies, songs, novels, or computer games, etc.)*
7. *Most of my peers are learning English.*
8. *To speak English well, I can gain respect from others.*
9. *I want to get a good grade at school.*
10. *Others expect me to learn English. (e.g. parents or teachers, etc.)*
11. *English is an obligatory subject at school.*
12. *The school requires us to pass the beginner level of General English Proficiency Test before graduation.*

The sequence of the statements here is different from how it appeared in the pre-course questionnaires. I have rearranged the order of the items in terms of the degree of self-determination[5] so as to make the presentation of findings clearer.

Learners were asked to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with the statements on five-point Likert scales ranging from 'strongly agree' (=5) to 'strongly disagree' (=1). The mean scores of the results can be seen in Figure 4.2 overleaf:

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[5] According to Deci and Ryan's *self-determination theory* (2000:61), learner motivation can range from a self-determined to a controlled form of motivation, depending on the learner's regulatory style.
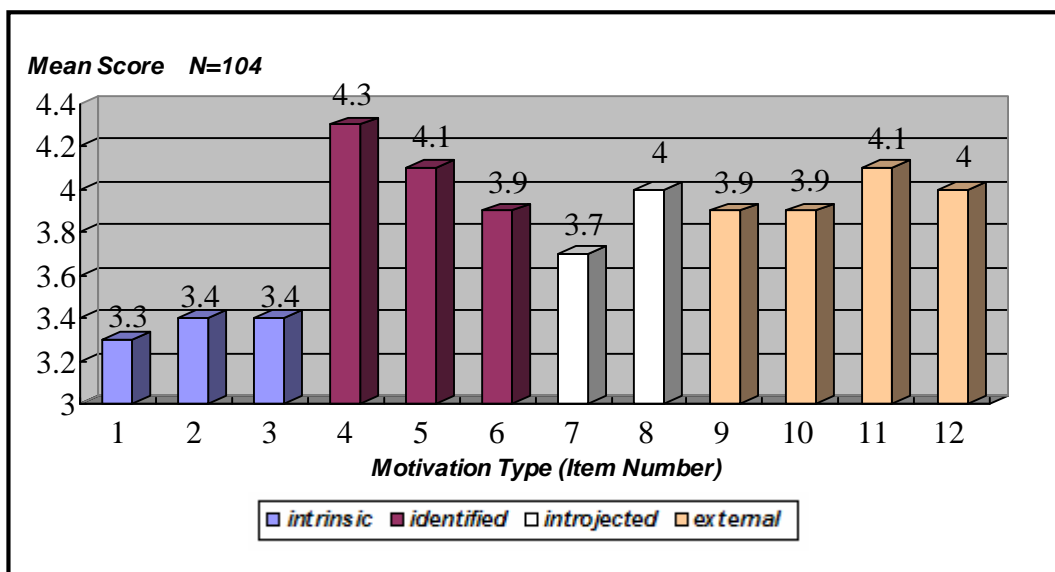
**Figure 4.2 Reasons for Learning English**

According to Deci and Ryan's *self-determination theory* (2000: 61), items 1-3 are related to 'intrinsic regulation', 4-6 to 'identified regulation', 7-8 to 'introjected regulation'[6] and 9-12 to 'external regulation.' From Figure 4.2, we can see the mean scores of items 1-3 are three of the lowest which indicates the target groups of learners' low intrinsic regulation. On the other hand, the mean scores of items 4-5 (identified regulation); and item 11 (external regulation) are three of the highest (>4). It is fairly reasonable to find the target groups of learners to have low intrinsic regulation and high external regulation. Since the participants of the present study are non-English majors, it is normal that they are not interested in learning English and that their learning motivation has to rely on external regulation. However, it is interesting to find the mean score of their identified regulation to be the highest among all regulations, even slightly higher than the mean score of external regulation.

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[6] According to the definitions of Deci and Ryan (2000:62), a person with 'identified regulation' performs an act because he/she attaches importance to the act and identifies with the behaviour; while a person with 'introjected regulation' engages in an activity because he/she may feel guilty or anxious for not doing it.

The target learners' high degree of identified regulation was even more evident in the learner interviews. Among the 23 interview participants, 13 (57%) indicated that they learn English because they considered learning English to be important and useful for future careers, studies, knowledge and travel (identified regulation). Two learned English because it was required by the school (external regulation). Five indicated their learning motivation to be regulated by a mixture of identified and external regulation. Two learned English because they consider learning English to be interesting (intrinsic regulation) and one was learning English because he liked English and it was also a requirement from school (intrinsic and external regulation). Deci and his colleagues (1991:329) claim that identified regulation is a more autonomous form of extrinsic motivation and it is relatively self-determined. The occurrence of identified regulation indicates that learners start to attach values to the behaviours and accept the regulatory process as a part of the self. This shows that the target learners are not as passive in learning English as we expected non-English majors to be. As a matter of fact, they are able and willing to self-regulate their learning without depending solely on external forces.

Interestingly, in the learner interviews, I also found that learners' identified regulation was not so evident before they started their university education. It was after entering university when they started to adjust their regulatory styles and took control of their own learning:

> 'I wouldn't reflect on my learning in the past. All that I cared was to get a good grade. Now I want to learn more because I might need to further my study.'
> *SA38, learner interviews, translated*

> 'In junior high, I learned English for exams. Then, in senior high, I started to have bad performances in English so I lost my interest. […] Time flies in

university. Soon, I'll be sophomore. That is why I want to learn something that is useful for my future. I don't really care about grades now. […] My learning attitude has changed. I put my focus on exercises in the past in order to get good grades for exams. Now I want to be able to practically use the language.'
*SA12, learner interviews, translated*

'I know English is important. It is useful not only for my study but also for daily conversations and careers. […] I didn't know why I learned English in junior high but I gained a sense of achievement in learning because I had good grades. I learned happily. Then in senior high, my grades were getting worse so I lost my learning motivation. After entering university, I am aware how useful English is so I will push myself to learn. I don't need others to tell me what to do.'
*SB40, learner interviews, translated*

'High school learning is all about exams. […] In the high school English courses, teachers followed the textbooks and kept explaining difficult grammar. University learning is more practical.'
*SB14, learner interviews, translated*

The learners' accounts indicate that, in high school, English learning is usually exam-oriented and externally regulated. However, as learners enter university, they came to value English learning in university due to its usefulness and identify with the regulatory process of their learning. This finding is in line with the results presented in Table 4.1 in which learners claimed they attach more practical value to learning English in university.

### *4.1.3 Teachers*

Now, we will move on to the second category in Figure 4.1—teachers. The results of the post-course questionnaires (see Table 4.1) show that 18 respondents claimed they changed their attitudes toward learning English due to the influence of teachers. In an attempt to investigate how teacher behaviours change the target learners' English learning attitudes, I will present findings from questionnaires,

diaries and learner interviews to see how different types of teacher behaviours, such as observed personal traits, immediacy and classroom management influence learner motivation in the classroom. I will first present findings from the pre-course questionnaires so as to provide an overview of the learners' general feelings about different types of teacher behaviours. Then, attention will be narrowed down to each type of teacher behaviour by drawing together findings from the learner interviews and diaries.

*4.1.3.1 Learners' General Feelings about Teacher Behaviours*

　　In Part Four of the pre-course learner questionnaires (see Appendix 11 for a translated version), 17 Likert scales were used to find out learners' perceptions of motivating teachers. The questionnaires were distributed to 105 participants while one learner's responses in that section were invalid. The Likert scale section consists of 17 statements as follows (translated):

**I think the following reasons may increase my learning motivation...**
1. *Teachers who are clear when lecturing.*
2. *Teachers who can practically combine English with my daily life.*
3. *Teachers who have sufficient knowledge of the field.*
4. *Teachers who like to teach.*
5. *Teachers who are conscientious.*
6. *Teachers who have attractive appearances.*
7. *Teachers who like me.*
8. *Teachers who are willing to listen to the students' needs.*
9. *Teachers who have good interaction with the students in class.*
10. *Teachers who teach vividly.*
11. *Teachers who maintain a relaxing, amusing in-class atmosphere.*
12. *Teachers who can be easily approached.*
13. *Teachers who treat all students equally.*
14. *Teachers who can maintain classroom order.*
15. *Teachers who urge us to learn through assignments and exams.*
16. *Teachers who cultivate our self-learning ability.*

*17. Teachers who encourage us to speak and write in English.*

The sequence of the statements here is different from how it appeared in the pre-course questionnaires. I have rearranged the order of the items in terms of my categorization of teacher behaviours so as to make the presentation of findings clearer.

Learners were asked to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with the statements on five-point Likert scales ranging from 'strongly agree' (=5) to 'strongly disagree' (=1). The mean scores of the results can be seen in Figure 4.3:
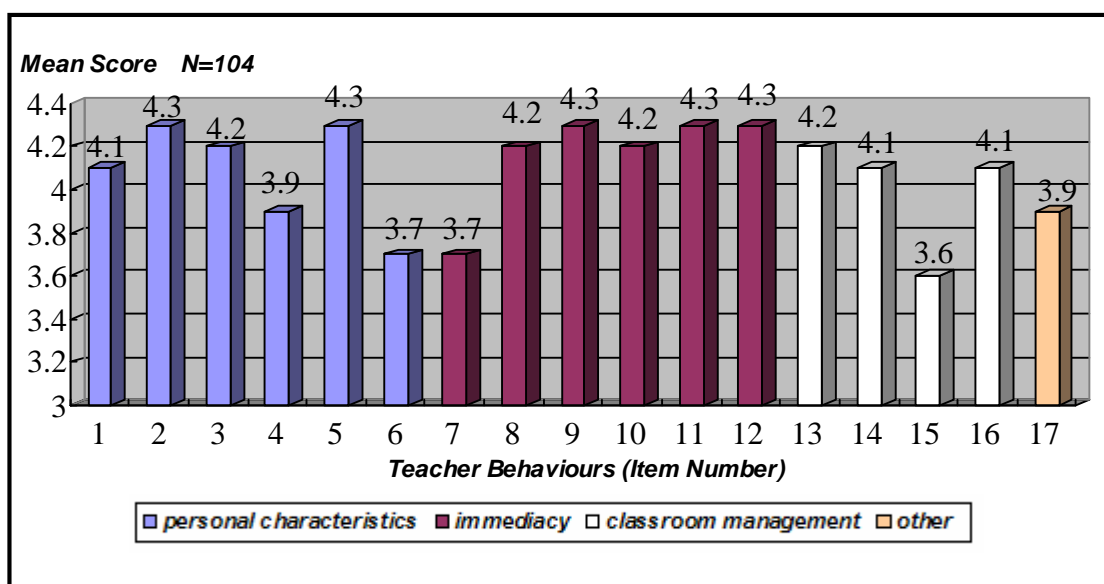


**Figure 4.3 Motivating Teacher Behaviours**

In Figure 4.3, the items were categorized into four types: *observed personal traits*, *immediacy*, *classroom management* and *other*. The categorization is adapted from Dörnyei's (2001:35) classification of teachers' motivational influences on learners. *Observed personal traits* refer to teachers' observed enthusiasm, observed commitment, observed competence, and personal charm. It is worth clarifying that item two—'Teachers who can practically combine English

with my daily life'—is considered an observed competence in the present study because according the definition of Knight (2006), teachers' competence is not only defined as teachers' knowledge of the subject but also their ability to teach in a way that is valuable to learners. Teachers who can practically combine English with learners' daily life make learning relevant to learners and help learners to attach more instrumental value to English learning. Thus teachers' ability to combine English learning with learners' daily life is considered a competence in the present study. As to *immediacy*, according to the definition of Megrabian (1971 cited in Pogue and AhYun 2006: 332), it refers to a type of teachers' communicative behaviour which may increase the closeness between teachers and students. In the present study, teachers' immediacy behaviours can be verbal (e.g. asking learners how they feel or including personal stories) or non-verbal (e.g. vocal variety or gestures). *Classroom management* here is defined as a teacher's norm-setting skills and authority type. Lastly, the last item is the issue arising from the pilot group interview—output. As mentioned in 3.3.3, the issue would be incorporated in the design of the main study. From Figure 4.3, we can see that all of the mean scores of the items exceed 3, the neutral score. It indicates that all of these teacher behaviours were considered to be motivating to the target learners. Nevertheless, some of the behaviours were considered to be more influential than others. Since my intention is to find out the most motivating teacher behaviours in the classroom, in the following sections, I will discuss items which have exceeded 4.1 in more detail by drawing together findings from the learner interviews and diaries. Furthermore, the aim of the present study is not to obtain particular measures from particular construct from the questionnaires and to find the significant relationships between different constructs. Rather, I am using the questionnaires to gain perspectives, feedback and evaluations from learners. The

categories of teacher behaviours, i.e. 'Personal Characteristics,' 'Immediacy' and 'Classroom Management', only serve as umbrellas for different types of teacher behaviours rather than distinct variables. Thus, rather than presenting the average score of all items belonging to one scale, e.g. the average score of 'Personal Characteristics', in the presentation of findings that follow, I will present the scores of each questionnaire item separately.

### 4.1.3.2 Observed Personal Traits

To look at observed personal traits of teachers, the mean scores of item 2, 3 and 5 all exceed 4.1. The high score of item 2 (teachers who can practically combine English with my daily life) (=4.3) can be confirmed in the post-course questionnaires, learner interviews and diaries, in which the target learners show their positive attitudes toward practical teachers and also their negative attitudes toward teachers who fail to combine the course content with learners' daily life:

> **Question 35. In this English class, I like…**
> postQ003: 'the teacher and the way she teaches.' **I like these because** 'it is very relaxing and it helps us to combine English with our daily life.' (the second part of the question is in bold)
> postQ034: 'the way the teacher teaches. It's very vivid and practical.'
> postQ103: 'the way the teacher teaches and the materials.' **I like these because** 'it is very interesting and practical.'
> *post-course questionnaires, translated*

> 'The most important element of a good English class is practicality. Think about English we will use in our daily life or English in small talks. […] For example, when talking about an article about food, the teacher can teach us some extra practical phrases about food. I think this will make a class quite interesting.'
> *SB17 learner interviews, translated*

> 'The teacher keeps forcing us to learn things we don't like. And most important of all, we are not interested in it and they are not practical. Do you

think you can use poems in the future?' (the learner was talking about a teacher who uses poems to teach English)

*SB14, learner interviews, translated*

'Today I disliked a curriculum. […] All my classmate hated him (=the teacher) to the bone. He always wanted us to practice tongue-twister, but I considered it is trashy!'

*SB07, learner reflective diaries, original*

It is worth mentioning that although it can be argued that in most of the quotes presented above, learners focused on the motivational effects of classroom-related factors such as the materials or the courses rather than teacher-related factors (postQ103, SB17, SB14 and SB07), there is no denying that teachers play crucial roles in selecting class materials and their teaching styles largely determine how course are going to be run. Thus, these learner quotes are also closely related to teachers and their teaching styles.

The learners' positive attitudes toward practical teachers are also in line with the results presented in Figure 4.2 in 4.1.2, which show the high degree of the target learners' identified motivation. Since the target learners generally learn English for practical reasons, teachers who stress the practical uses of English may make learning more relevant to them and, as a consequence, are more likely to increase their motivation in learning.

As to item 3 (teachers who have sufficient knowledge of the field) (=4.2), in the post-course questionnaires, diaries and learner interviews, learners talked about how teachers' knowledge and facility in the language influences their motivation:

**Question 35. In this English class, I like…**
postQ083:     'you use English to teach. […]' **I like these because** 'it makes me feel like attending class in an English speaking country and your English pronunciation is precise.'

**Question 37. I have something to say to my teacher…**

postQ057:　　　'I feel you know a lot and you have expertise. We've learned so many things. Although some of them are difficult to me, I had fun in class.'

*post-course questionnaires, translated*

'The teacher is talking too fast and his pronunciation is not precise. He is very demanding about our pronunciation yet he can't even pronounce English precisely.'

*SB40, learner interviews, translated*

'Most important of all, the teacher's speaking ability is not very good. If his pronunciation is precise, I will feel better to be corrected by him.'

*SB39, learner interviews, translated*

'The teacher asks us to read those (=tongue twister and articles) but he can't even read them properly. I think his pronunciation is not precise.'

*SB04, learner interviews, translated*

The participants' accounts show that learners' perceived teacher competence such as English-related knowledge (postQ57) and language facility (postQ083, SB40, SB39, SB04) of teachers may influence the value they attach to the teacher, their affect for the teacher and even their attitudes toward the tasks assigned by the teacher. It is worth mentioning that even though most learners were commenting about teachers' fluency and accuracy in the language, which do not constitute the whole of subject knowledge, they can be considered a demonstration of 'knowledge of the subject.'

Lastly, the high score of item 5 (teachers who are conscientious) (=4.3) can also be verified in the post-course questionnaires, interviews and diaries, in which the target learners talked about how teachers' observed commitment to teaching influenced their learning motivation:

**Question 5. Did my English learning method or attitude toward English change in any way from high school to university?**

postQ004:    'Yes.' **If there are any changes, it is because** 'university teachers are very conscientious on teaching. They prepare lots of materials before class.' (the second part of the question is in bold)

postQ020:    'The way teachers teach can directly influence students' willingness to learn so… I think my attitude has changed.' **If there are any changes, it is because** 'of the teaching attitude of the teacher.'

postQ057:    'High school teachers teach monotonously and they don't seem to be active in teaching. That's why most students don't learn well.'

**Question 35. In this English class, I like…**

postQ004:    'the teacher.' **I like these because** 'she makes great effort to prepare lots of materials to improve our English ability.'

postQ013:    'the way the teacher teaches and her conscientiousness. […]' **I like these because** 'it makes me feel good.'

postQ073:    'the teacher.' **I like these because** 'her teaching attitude is great.'

**Question 37. I have something to say to my teacher…**

postQ025:    'Thank you for teaching us conscientiously. This increases my interest in learning English.'

*post-course questionnaires, translated*

'Earnest teacher won't make me more earnest in learning but I will be more motivated in attending the class and I will make notes in class.'

*SA56, learner interviews, translated*

'One of my senior high school teachers is a pretty good teacher. She has similar age with you, in her 20s. She is very earnest in teaching and very motivated.'

*SB41, learner interviews, translated*

'One of my senior high school teachers is so earnest. She can give us lots of extra information about a word. How come I can hardly meet this kind of teachers? To go to this kind of teachers' classes makes me feel that I need to work hard on my study because the teachers are earnest. I'm possibly more passive in learning. My behaviours depend on the teachers' behaviours.'

*SB17, learner interviews, translated*

'I think younger teachers tend to be more motivated…They are usually more conscientious and want to teach more things to us. […] Students like earnest teachers…'
*SA12, learner interviews, translated*

'I was tired so I slept in my English class. I was very sorry to my English teacher. My English teacher always *teached* us industriously.' (italics denote spelling or grammatical mistakes)
*SB06, learner reflective diaries, original*

From the responses above, we can see that the learners have positive attitudes toward teachers who are committed to teaching (postQ004, postQ013, postQ073, SB41, SA12, SB17). Teachers' observed motivation level may also influence their attitudes (postQ004, postQ020, postQ057, postQ025) and their expenditure of effort on learning (SA56, SB17, SB06). In terms of expenditure of effort, it is worth explaining the accounts of SA56 and SB06 further. Although SA56 claimed that committed teachers would not change the degree of effort she made in learning English, she was not aware such teachers had prompted her to make more effort in class, such as paying attention to the lectures and making notes. As to SB06, although he did not make a direct link between the observed commitment of teacher and his expenditure of effort, he claimed to be sorry to fall asleep in class because the teacher was making effort in teaching. This indicates that the conscientiousness of the teacher made him feel he was obliged to pay attention and make effort in learning in class. However, SB06's accounts also raises our awareness that although teacher commitment may possibly increase learners' motivation in learning, this increased motivation does not necessarily lead to motivational behaviours.

*4.1.3.3 Immediacy*

Following observed personal traits, immediacy is the next category of

teacher behaviours in Figure 4.3. According to the definition of Mehrabian (1972:31), immediacy behaviours are defined as a type of communicative behaviour which increases a perception of physical and psychological closeness between people. Researchers suggest that examples of teachers' immediacy behaviours are moving around the classroom, looking at the students rather than the textbooks or boards, calling on students by name, asking learners how they feel, using humour, including personal stories, saying positive verbal content which indicates a positive feeling to the students, etc. (Dörnyei 2001c; Mehrabian 1972; Rocca 2007). From the figure, we can see that, except for item 7 (teachers who like me) (=3.7), all of the items related to teacher immediacy have relatively high mean scores (> 4.1). This demonstrates a strong positive relationship between teacher immediacy and learner motivation. This strong relationship is also found in the learner interviews and diaries. To look at item 8 first (teachers who are willing to listen to the students' needs) (=4.2), some learners also talked about their positive feelings toward teachers who cared about their needs or feelings in the learner interviews and diaries:

> 'You are one of the most earnest teachers I've ever met because you will want to listen to our opinions and adopt our suggestions. This makes me feel you are a good teacher.'
> *SA07, learner interviews, translated*

> 'I think you are one of the most conscientious teachers I've ever met. You really want to teach us a variety of things. […] You will try out different things in class to see if we like it.'
> *SA12, learner interviews, translated*

> 'I was happy to hear that teacher want to hear our suggests just like friends.'
> *SB40, learner reflective diaries, original*

In the same respect, some learners showed negative feelings toward teachers who did not care about their feelings when talking about teachers they disliked:

'I feel that he doesn't really care about students. He is only here to teach—teach whatever he likes.'
*SB17, learner interviews, translated*

'[…] my classmate and I is more hate the teacher. Because he always finds our trouble and don't think the *bed* classmate. He always think *everybady* like his bright. So I hate the teacher with my classmate.'
*SB36, learner reflective diaries, original*

Learners' accounts above indicate the positive relationship between a teacher's willingness to listen and learners' attitudes toward the teacher and the course. It can be argued that in these quotes, learners focused on their appreciation for caring teachers rather than discussing how caring teachers increase their learning motivation. Since teachers play crucial roles in the classroom, learners' attitudes toward teachers may inevitably influence their attitudes and motivation toward learning in the course. The relationship between learners' attitudes toward the course teachers and their learning motivation in the course can be seen in the learner interview where SB40 talked about a teacher who he disliked.

Me:       'How come you don't want to spend time on that subject?'
SB40:     'Because spending too much time on that subject will give you a headache. I will feel angrier and angrier. I can't help feeling angry whenever I think of that teacher's annoying behaviour.'
*SB40, learner interviews, translated*

To SB40, his negative feelings toward the course teacher had influenced his effort expenditure and emotion in the course. This shows how learners' feelings toward teachers may influence their learning attitudes and learning motivation in class.

As to item 9 (teachers who have good interaction with the students in class) (=4.3), in the learner interviews, some learners also claimed that teacher-pupil interaction influenced their in-class motivation:

'My senior high school teacher is not good at teaching. […] She kept reading

the textbook without having too much interaction with us. […] She made me feel she did not care about teaching very much.'
*SA12, learner interviews, translated*

'Teachers who keep reading textbooks make me feel bored.'
*SA56, learner interviews, translated*

'A motivating teacher should be able to generate an atmosphere which encourages everyone to discuss or answer to the questions. Don't just move on lecturing. Then, everyone will fall asleep. Teachers need to be livelier and interact with students.'
*SB07, learner interviews, translated*

'Students usually don't listen to what the teacher says. That's why I think there should be interactions. For example, we can preview a text before class and then teachers can divide us into small groups and ask us questions.'
*SA07, learner interviews, translated*

Moreover, the high score of item 10 (teachers who teach vividly) (=4.2) and item 11 (teachers who maintain a relaxing, amusing in-class atmosphere) (=4.3) are also confirmed in the learner interviews and diaries. Some of the learners' responses are as follows:

'I will be more capable of maintaining my motivation in class if the teacher is livelier and funnier. […] Teachers who teach with monotone make people feel sleepy.'
*SB40, learner interviews, translated*

'A teacher should have vocal variety in class. Like one of my teachers, he has dramatic gestures. If you sit at the front of the classroom, he will stare at you when teaching. Such class makes me impressed.'
*SB39, learner interviews, translated*

'Talking to foreigners from America or Canada in private English institutes makes an English class interesting. The way they think and talk are quite special and humorous. […] They are funnier in class and they have dramatic gestures which can catch my attention.'
*SA38, learner interviews, translated*

'I used to have an English teacher who is quite interesting. He would make fun of particular students, lecture loudly or talk about things we were

interested in class. He is a cram school teacher. He would make fun of himself despite his role as a teacher and made us laugh. You don't have too much vocal variety when you teach. It would be more interesting if you are more hyper such as saying some jokes. Don't just talk about things that are related to the textbook. It makes us feel bored.'

*SA41, learner interviews, translated*

'Teachers from ordinary schools always talk about the textbooks but private English institute teachers will also talk about things that are not related to the textbooks.'

*SB38, learner interviews, translated*

'You are one of the most impressive teachers I've ever had. I've never met English teachers who are as hyper as you. You're livelier and you constantly talk about things that are not related to the textbook.'

*SB20, learner interviews, translated*

'Recently, I have looked for a cram school to learn English. I found it. The teachers and teaching way is very funny. I like it. Perhaps it can help me to master English.'

*SA42, learner reflective diaries, original*

'Today is *Wedesday* again and my *favorate* class English is coming. Today is the same than before but teacher is more fun and make we so happy. I like this, just in the English class.'

*SA28, learner reflective diaries, original*

Learners' accounts indicate that teachers who have vocal variety and lively gestures tend to be more capable of generating and maintaining learners' in-class motivation. Moreover, the uses of humour and personal stories are also beneficial in catching learners' attention. It is interesting to note that learners tend to consider teachers in cram schools or private English institutes to be more lively and humorous in teaching (SA38, SA41, SB38, SA42) while ordinary school teachers tend to follow the course book without including things that are not related to the course.

Lastly, the high score of item 12 (teachers who can be easily approached)

(=4.3) suggests a positive relationship between approachable teachers and their learning motivation. In the learner interviews, the learners also talked about their feelings toward approachable teachers:

> 'One of my favourite English teachers is a cram school English teacher. He became a different person after class. You can talk about anything with him. […] We are quite close. He is our teacher but we can also chat with him happily like friends.'
> *SB07, learner interviews, translated*

> 'There's practically no distance between you and us. You see how the students joke with you. […] I think this is good because students will tell you any problems they have. Unlike our technology English teacher, he is so distant with us so we won't tell him anything.'
> *SB08, learner interviews, translated*

From the learners' accounts, we can see that learners had positive attitudes toward teachers who treated them like friends. Moreover, the account of SB08 also suggests that the teacher-pupil relationship may influence the communication between teachers and learners. This is in line with what other learners said:

> SB46:   'The teacher wants us to learn things we are not interested in.'
> […]
> SB39:   'The content is strange.'
> […]
> Me:      'Did you tell the teacher how you feel?'
> SB39:   'We dare not to.'
> SB46:   'He is fearsome.'
> *SB46 and SB39, learner interviews, translated*

> SB17:   'What he taught is not related to technology English (=the course title). […]'
> Me:      'Did you give the teacher some suggestions?'
> SB17:   'I dare not to.'
> *SB17, learner interviews, translated*

> 'Some teachers are very distant and this makes us afraid to ask questions.'
> *SA12, learner interviews, translated*

Although these learners did not indicate a direct relationship between unapproachable teachers and their own motivation, their accounts show that the lack of communication between teachers and learners may be harmful to learner motivation when things go wrong in the classroom. To take SB46, SB39 and SB17 for example, the teacher evidently did something uninteresting or meaningless for the learners in the classroom. However, the distant image of the teacher stopped them from communicating with the teacher. As a consequence, the teacher kept on de-motivating the learners using materials that he possibly considered interesting and meaningful.

### *4.1.3.4 Classroom Management*

After looking at teachers' in-class immediacy behaviours, we will move on to the last category of teacher behaviours—classroom management. From Figure 4.3, we can see that item 13 (teachers who treat all students equally) (=4.2) is not only the highest but also the only item which mean score exceeds 4.1. From the learner interview, SA13 talked about how the unequal treatment he perceived from his teacher influenced his learning motivation in English:

> 'When I was in junior high school, the less competent learners were usually seated at the last row of the classroom. Whenever we had exams, my teacher always said "The last row doesn't need to take the exam. Hand back your exam papers. It's useless for you to take the exam anyway." […] This made me hate English. He would constantly comment on the less competent learners in class. It made me feel very angry.'
> *SA13, learner interviews, translated*

On the other hand, another learner, SB38, talked about how teachers' unequal treatment influenced him positively when talking about one of his favourite English teachers.

'I didn't have any particular feeling about this teacher when I was a freshman in high school. Later, in my sophomore year, he said that he would combine us with senior students and we started to learn English writing. I didn't really particularly like writing but he always called upon me (to answer questions) in class.'
*SB38, learner interviews, translated*

It is interesting to compare how teachers' unequal treatments influenced these learners differently. From SA13's experience, his teacher's negative treatment toward him and the rest of the less competent learners, such as seating them at the back of the classroom, depriving them of the rights to take exams and criticizing them in front of peers, made SA13 start to hate learning English. However, to SB38, the extra attention he received from his teacher made him consider this teacher to be one of his favourites, despite the fact that he did not particularly like the teacher or the writing course at first. The accounts from SA13 and SB38 verify the result of item 13 and indicate that teachers' unequal treatment may influence learners' attitudes toward both teachers and learning English.

After discussing all the items whose mean ratings exceed 4.1 in Figure 4.3, it is worth looking at the mean score of item 15 (teachers who urge us to learn through assignments and exams), which is also the lowest among all items. This item investigates learners' attitudes toward teachers who are controlling and who push learners to learn through external forces. The mean score of this teacher behaviour is 3.6, which is above the neutral score. To interpret the score superficially, the figure seems to indicate that controlling teachers are considered to be slightly motivating to learners. However, this result is contradictory to the result of the open-ended question in the post-course questionnaires in which 14 learners considered controlling teachers and schools to have a negative impact on

their learning motivation while seven considered it to have a positive impact (see 4.1.1). Since the 'degree of control' these learners talked about is not only from teachers but also from the schools or the society, I will discuss its effect on learner motivation in a separate section in 4.1.4.

### 4.1.4 Degree of Control

The results of the post-course questionnaires (see Table 4.1) show that 23 respondents claimed they changed their attitudes toward learning English due to the autonomy-supportive environment of university education. As mentioned earlier, among the 23 respondents, 14 (61%) learners value the decrease of control from the learning environment positively. Some of their answers are as follows:

**Question 5. Did my English learning method or attitude toward English change in any way from high school to university?**

postQ016:    '(University learning is) more free and less stressful.'

postQ024:    'In high school, I learned English because the teachers were pushing me. In university, I learn to learn English autonomously'

postQ055:    'After entering university, learning becomes autonomous rather than semi-forced.'

postQ073:    'In high school, I learn English passively so I can't use my preferred way to learn.'

postQ085:    'High school learning is miserable and exhausting. In university, I can learn relaxingly.' **If there are any changes, it is because** 'of freedom.'

postQ086:    'Learning becomes more relaxing. In high school, I feel bad because of the stress from exams. Although university focus more on autonomous learning, it is more relaxing.'

*post-course questionnaires, translated*

Learners who gave positive values to the decrease of control from high school to university tend to focus on the positive influence of university education on their emotions or their degree of self-determination in learning. To take postQ016,

postQ085 and postQ086 as examples, these learners seemed to associate the controlling learning environments of high schools with negative emotions such as anxiety, stress and misery. On the other hand, universities generate pleasant learning environments for learning English. Other than emotions, postQ024, postQ055 and postQ073 claimed that the autonomy-supportive environment of universities allowed them to determine how they would like to learn and prompted them to take charge of their English learning. The positive effect of university education on learner emotions and self-determination can also be found in the learner interviews:

'I like learning English more now. In high school, we were forced to learn. University learning is more relaxing that we don't have to learn vocabulary by rote. […] It (=university learning) is free and relaxing. I like this feeling. It is not good to learn under stress.'
*SB07, learner interviews, translated*

'Exam-driven learning can influence our feelings greatly. If we learn English without exams, it means we are self-motivated to learn it. In this case, we can learn without stress and we might have good learning outcomes. However, if we have to learn for exams, it is very strange. It's not natural.'
*SB20, learner interviews, translated*

'In the junior high school, I learned English for the senior high school entrance exam. I told myself I must have good exam grades but I just couldn't. That's why I felt frustrated and resisted learning English. After entering university, learning depends on oneself and it becomes one's own responsibility. […] Since I can decide how to learn by myself, learning becomes smoother.'
*SA37, learner interviews, translated*

'We had exams everyday in high school and we had to keep memorizing vocabulary. University learning is freer. […] Now I will choose things I'm interested in.'
*SB42, learner interviews, translated*

'I was lazier in high school and I learned English just for exams. Now I have

more freedom and I can learn whatever I want to learn. To compare with high school, I like learning English more now.'

*SB38, learner interviews, translated*

From learners' accounts in the interviews, we can not only confirm the results of the post-course questionnaires but also see how the autonomy-supportive learning environment in university helped these learners to enjoy English learning processes more.

However, apart from the 14 learners (61%) who gave positive values, there are still seven learners, i.e. 30% of the 23 respondents, who considered the change from high school to university to have negative influences on their English learning:

**Question 5. Did my English learning method or attitude toward English change in any way from high school to university?**

postQ001:     'I don't memorize as much vocabulary as I did in high school.'

postQ038:     'I become lazier (in learning) in university. […] My English is getting worse.'

postQ060:     'I hardly spent time studying English now.'

postQ087:     '(My learning attitude is) getting worse.' **If there are any changes, it is because** 'I spent less time on learning.'

postQ088:     'I become lazy (in learning English).'

postQ091:     'I become lazy.' **If there are any changes, it is because** 'I hardly spent time studying English now.'

postQ101:     'I learned more vocabulary in high school.'

*post-course questionnaires, translated*

From the above responses, we can see that these learners tend to put their focuses on their problems in self-regulating themselves and the decreased intensity of university learning. These learners claimed that they were less capable of regulating themselves in learning English in university (postQ038, postQ060, postQ087, postQ088 and postQ091). Moreover, they also considered high school

learning to be more intensive than university learning (postQ001 and postQ101).

Similar opinions can also be found in the learner interviews:

'I think my English ability is good now because my teacher forced me to learn at the time (=in high school). That is why I learned a lot such as grammar, etc. […] I think appropriate pressure is good for learning.'
*SA51, learner interviews, translated*

'I took a lot of notes in class now but what I actually learned is very little. The problem is that we had exams in the past but we didn't now. If there are exams, you will force yourself to memorize more (vocabulary).'
*SB46, learner interviews, translated*

'I think I become lazy and my English is getting worse. […] The biggest reason is because we have less stress now. High school teachers are more controlling.'
*SB41, learner interviews, translated*

'I was very earnest in high school but I'm not so earnest now. Since we had exams in high school, I would ask myself to memorize vocabulary and write grammar exercises.'
*SA39, learner interviews, translated*

Learners' accounts from the post-course questionnaires and the interviews indicate that although a majority of learners claim to be more motivated in learning English after taking charge of their own learning, some of the target learners were still fairly dependent on the external regulation from teachers or schools and considered controlling learning environments to be more beneficial for their learning.


### 4.1.5 Variety

Now, we will move on to the last category in Figure 4.1—variety. In the post-course questionnaires 19 respondents indicated they changed their English learning attitudes from high school to university due to the variety of materials

and tasks in the present course (see Table 4.1). Some of their answers are as follows:

**Question 5. Did my English learning method or attitude toward English change in any way from high school to university?**

postQ015:  'High schools teachers always follow the textbooks. They won't give us extra information or let us learn from materials such as movies or news. That is why learning English in university is much more interesting.'

postQ028:  'English classes in high school are monotonous. The teachers just focus on textbooks and exercises. I hated English. After university, it becomes more interesting. We can learn from movies, CNN and English songs. This makes me start to feel interested in English.'

postQ044:  'The usage and phrases we learn now have more variety and global perspectives. We do not merely focus on textbooks and exams.'

postQ049:  'In high school, English learning mainly focuses on vocabulary memorizing. […] In university, learning has more variety.'

postQ101:  'English learning in high school mainly focuses on reading. University learning does not particularly focus on reading. Rather, it focuses equally on reading, listening and speaking.'

*post-course questionnaires, translated*

To these learners, English learning in high schools tend to focus merely on textbooks, exercises and exams; while the present course includes a variety of materials (movies, songs and news) and tasks (reading, writing and listening tasks) in the curriculum. They claimed that this variety prompted them to change their attitudes toward learning English and helped fostering their interests in learning. The same opinions can also be found in the learner interviews:

'I think it (=English learning) is more interesting now. Compared with high schools, you present lessons in various ways and consider using different topics and materials such as movies and CNN.'
*SB39, learner interviews, translated*

'I like all of these four teaching methods (=lectures, group discussions, oral presentations and listening practices). I don't particularly like any one. In high school, the lecture is the only teaching method so I think it is good now (=using different teaching methods in class).'
*SB08, learner interviews, translated*

In an attempt to generate deeper understanding of how this variety changed the target learners' English learning attitudes, findings from the questionnaires, interviews, diaries and post-class reflective writings will be presented in this section to show how different types of materials and tasks influence the learners' attitudes to learning English in different ways.

### *4.1.5.1 Materials*

As mentioned in 3.4.3, the course materials in the present study mainly consist of two types—authentic listening and speaking materials designed by me; and *Reading Keys*, a textbook focusing on the training of reading skills. In Part Two of the post-course questionnaires (see Appendix 12 for a translated version), six Likert scale statements were used to investigate learners' attitudes toward the materials used in the target course. The questionnaires were distributed to 106 participants while one learner's responses in that section were invalid. The questionnaire items are as follows (translated):

**I think…**
*22. 'Reading Keys' is interesting.*
*23. 'Reading Keys' <u>isn't</u> practical..*
*24. 'Reading Keys' suits my level.*
*25. the materials on Tuesdays/Wednesdays are interesting.*
*26. the materials on Tuesdays/Wednesdays <u>aren't</u> practical.*
*27. the materials on Tuesdays/Wednesdays suit my level.*

The content of items 25-27 is slightly different in the questionnaires for Group A and Group B because the authentic materials are used on Tuesdays and

Wednesdays in Group B and Group A respectively. Moreover, in order to reduce the risk of inducing a positive bias in the responses, some of the items, i.e. item 23 and 26, are negatively worded. Learners were asked to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with the statements on five-point Likert scales ranging from 'strongly agree' (=5) to 'strongly disagree' (=1). The scores of the negative evaluative statements were reversed and the results can be seen in Figure 4.4.
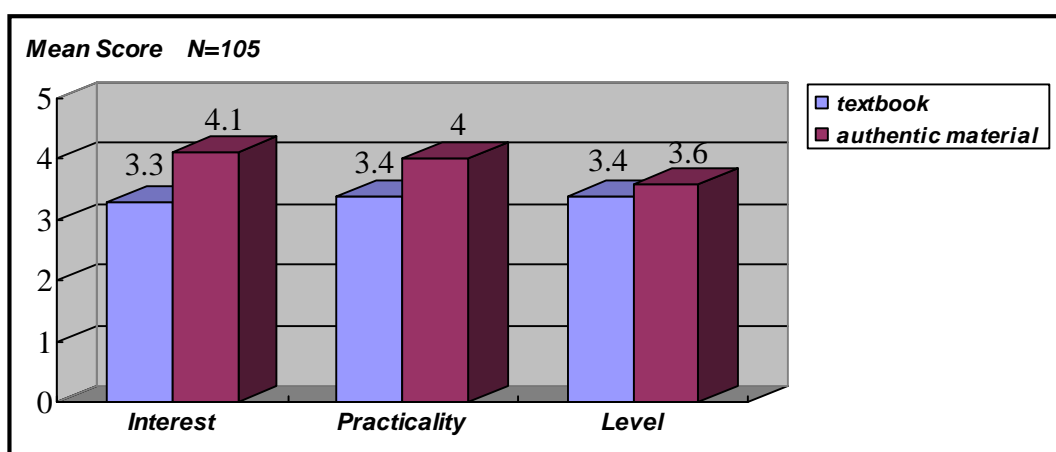


**Figure 4.4 Attitudes toward Learning Materials**

Figure 4.4 shows that the target learners generally consider authentic materials to be more interesting and practical than the textbook. The same result was also found in the learner interviews and diaries:

> 'I didn't like English in the past but now I do. I realize university teachers teach English differently from high school teachers. It is more interesting now. Most teachers follow the textbooks and I don't like it. […] You will let us learn from English songs and movies. I think this is a pretty good idea. I like the class on Wednesdays more. I don't like textbooks.'
> *SA13, learner interviews, translated*

> 'Chicago is a great movie! I love watch movies so learn English by movies is a good way. I think movie's conversations are fun, impression and easy remember. Watch movie more can let our hearing be better.'
> *SA29, learner reflective diaries, original*

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'This week we watch the "Friends." It's very funny. And what they talk is very useful. Just like we talk in my life. If I have time, I will watch all "Friends" in my summer vacation.'
*SB03, learner reflective diaries, original*

'This week we listened to the CNN news. […] It was too bad, we had to take the X-ray. We had very short time to learn. It's very useful, maybe I can study it by myself.' (The lesson was finishing off early that day because a physical examination was scheduled by the school.)
*SB03, learner reflective diaries, original*

'In this week, we watched the movie trailer. It was not very difficult and very funny for me. I will to borrow the movie and watch. I thought that watch movie is a good way to learn English.'
*SB26, learner reflective diaries, original*

'"Chicago" this movie I have seen before. I thought it's very good because includes *musicalize* element. I admiration for *there* dance and song. After this class, I want to borrow some movies. It can help me learn English more.'
*SA07, learner reflective diaries, original*

From learners' accounts in the interviews and diaries, we can see that authentic materials help learners to associate learning English with things they already find interesting. The interesting nature and instrumental value learners attached to authentic materials not only aroused their interest in learning but also prompted some learners (SB03, SA07 and SB26) to learn autonomously after class.

However, it does not necessarily mean that all textbooks are demotivating to learners. Some learners claimed that 'topic' is also very crucial in influencing their motivation. If the topic is interesting, sometimes textbooks can also motivate them to learn. In the same respect, authentic materials can also be demotivating if the topic is considered to be uninteresting to learners. Some learners talked about the influence of material topics/content on their learning motivation in the interviews:

'My favourite learning materials in this course are movies. Songs come second, the textbook comes third and CNN news comes last. The textbook is

sometimes interesting. Some articles are quite interesting.'
*SB14, learner interviews, translated*

'The textbook in university is not more difficult than the one in high school but the content is more interesting. The content is more diversified. […] High school textbook mainly consists of fables. It's really boring.'
*SB20, learner interviews, translated*

'I can accept any topic but politics and war. It's boring. Our teacher used to let us read English newspapers and the content is all about politics.'
*SB08, learner interviews, translated*

In terms of level of the materials, in the post-course questionnaires, learners seemed to have neutral feelings about the level of the textbook (=3.4) and the authentic materials (=3.6) used in the target courses. However, after analysing the learners' post-class reflective writings, learner diaries and interviews, I found the target learners to have fairly different opinions about the level of certain authentic materials. In one of the post-class reflective writings, learners were asked to reflect on a class using CNN news by answering four questions (translated):

1. *What have I learned in class today?*
2. *What do I like about the class today? Why? (e.g. the materials, the teacher's teaching approach, etc.)*
3. *What **don't** I like about the class today? Why?*
4. *Other comments*

In the post-class reflective writings, 27 out of 95 learners, i.e. more than a quarter, considered the authentic material, CNN news, to be difficult. It is worth mentioning that a quarter is a fairly notable proportion in the post-class reflective writings because learners were not particularly asked to comment on the level of the materials. They were encouraged to talk about anything happening during the class of the day such as tasks, teachers, materials, or peers. Some of their opinions are as follows:

1. 'I don't understand the content so it is boring.'
2. 'The listening material does not seem to suit our level.'
3. '(I don't like) watching the news because the speed is too fast.'
4. '(I don't like) CNN news because I can't catch up with the talking speed of the anchor. I hardly understand the content.'
5. 'CNN news is a good learning material but I think it is too difficult for me.'

*post-class reflective writings, translated*

In the learner diaries and interviews, learners also talked about their difficulties in understanding the news:

'We listened to the CNN news this week. It's a little hard for me to understand what is he talking about. If it could speak slower maybe I could know what he say. But it's still a good teaching material. I think it's better to change a *easilier* one.'
*SB03, learner reflective diaries, original*

'I think you could stop using CNN news in class. It is too difficult that we can't learn at all.'
*SB41, learner interviews, translated*

'Some materials on Tuesdays are acceptable and some are too difficult. CNN news is not acceptable.'
*SB39, learner interviews, translated*

'SA07 is very earnest. He always looks up new words in the textbook before class. However, he skipped one of your English classes when you were using CNN news. He said that if CNN news is the learning material, he won't want to come to class because it is too difficult.'
*SA12, learner interviews, translated*

'My listening ability is really poor. I find it hard to understand CNN news. I can catch some words but I don't really understand the main idea.'
*SB46, learner interviews, translated*

From learners' accounts in the post-class reflective writings, learner diaries and interviews, it can be suggested that although authentic materials show their strength in generating interest and promoting the instrumental value of learning

English, using them in the classrooms may run the risk of frustrating learners by using materials that are way above their level. Since authentic materials are not graded as textbooks are, it is especially crucial for teachers to keep an eye on the level of the content, including the grammar structure, vocabulary, and speaking speed. Materials that exceed learners' ability may easily demotivate them despite how practical they consider the materials are or how motivated they are in learning English. In the long term, it may even influence learners' self-concept in learning English as the account of SB46 indicated.

It is worth noting that the results of the post-class reflective writings, learner diaries and interviews are contradictory to the results of the post-course questionnaires where learners seemed to indicate that the authentic materials used in the target courses are suitable for their level (=3.6). One possible reason for the discrepancy may be because in the post-course questionnaires, I aimed to use 'one' question to find out learners' general feelings toward authentic materials. However, in the target courses, I had used a variety of authentic materials in the classroom ranging from songs to news. When thinking about authentic materials, it was likely that some respondents were referring to songs or movies while others were referring to news. In this regard, the target learners' different interpretations about the question may influence the way they choose their answers. The inconsistency between quantitative and qualitative data in the present study not only revealed a defect in my questionnaire design but also demonstrated the limitations of quantitative data. In the questionnaires, it is fairly difficult to understand how the respondents interpret the questions and why they choose certain answers by analysing the numbers they circle or the boxes they tick. Although I was aware of the limitation and thus left a column under each section for respondents to explain their answers if needed, only a few respondents made

use of the columns. The discrepancy between the post-course questionnaires and other qualitative data indicated the importance to triangulate data using different research instruments and justified my use of both qualitative and quantitative methods in the present study.

### *4.1.5.2 Tasks*

Like materials, learners' attitudes toward a particular task may also influence their in-class motivation. Due to the length limit of the thesis, in this section, I will only discuss two types of tasks in the target course—group discussions and exams. These two tasks were selected because they were two of the most dominant tasks in the target course and their influences on learner motivation were also more evident. In this section, findings from the learner interviews, learner reflective diaries and post-class reflective writings will be presented to investigate learners' attitudes toward these two tasks.

In some of the classes, the target learners were asked to discuss the meaning of the textbook articles in groups before they listened to my explanation. After the group discussions, two group members from each group would be randomly selected to present their results as a class. In the learner interviews and reflective diaries, a number of learners gave positive evaluations toward this kind of lesson procedure:

> 'We talked about the jokes together and it is fun. I like to do that. I think that talking about the lesson with classmates make me *fill* easier to learn English.'
> *SB43, learner reflective diaries, original*

> 'I feel very interesting, what everyone translated is very good and very funny, too.'
> *SB14, learner reflective diaries, original*

> 'S Mark also said it makes a difference. We tend to remember the text

content better after the group discussion'
*SA12, learner interviews, translated*

'You'll be more impressed on the text content because you look for the answers by yourself.'
*SA37, learner interviews, translated*

'I thought it could not only increase our speaking but learn how to discuss on English. I hope I'll be better and I really expect the new contents next week.'
*SB34, learner reflective diaries, original*

'We discussed the lesson about our textbook. I think that can help our friendship and speak English ability. I like this activity. By this way, I can improve my timid and enhance my self-confidence.'
*SB11, learner reflective diaries, original*

Learners' positive feelings toward group discussions were verified in the post-class reflective writings. In one of their post-class reflective writings, learners were asked to reflect on a class using group discussions. As mentioned in 4.1.5.1, four questions were used in the post-class reflective writings to guide learners through the reflection process and learners were encouraged to talk about any aspect they would like to talk about in the class. As a result, 56 out of 97 learners (59%) gave positive evaluations toward group discussions (e.g. 'the group discussion is fun' or 'the group discussion can enhance my English ability') while only seven (7%) gave negative evaluations (e.g. 'the group discussion is noisy' or 'the group discussion makes our lesson progress slow'). Some of their positive evaluations are as follows:

1. 'The group discussion is not bad. It gives me a sense of participation.'
2. 'I like the group discussion because I can look for the answers by myself.'
3. 'I like the group discussion because there is interaction so I won't feel bored.'
4. 'I like the group discussion. It helps me not to feel sleepy in class.'
5. 'The group discussion is fun so I was more attentive.'
6. 'I like the group discussion because after the discussion, I tend to

remember the content better.'

7. 'The group discussion helps me learn relaxingly and happily.'
*post-class reflective writings, translated*

From the learner diaries (SB43 and SB14) and post-class reflective writings (items 1-5), we can see that learners considered group discussions to be interesting. Instead of sitting in the classroom listening to the lectures passively, group discussions gave them a chance to participate actively in class. Moreover, the target learners also attached instrumental values to group discussions. From the interviews (SA12 and SA37), diaries (SB34 and SB11) and reflective writings (item 6), we can see that learners regarded group discussions as beneficial for their learning. Some even claimed that they tend to retain information longer if they look for the answers by themselves during the in-class discussions. Apart from the interest and instrumental value of group discussions, some learners (item 7, SB43 and SB11) also stressed the influence of groupwork on their emotions such as happiness, relaxation and confidence.

Other than the group discussion, the exam is another dominant task in the present course, which is also the most common task in traditional English classrooms. In the learner interviews, the target learners talked about how exams influence their motivation in learning English:

'I didn't know why I learned English in junior high but I gained a sense of achievement in learning because I had good grades. I learned happily. Then in senior high, my grades were getting worse so I lost my learning motivation.'
*SB40, learner interviews, translated*

'In senior high, I started to have bad performances in English so I lost my interest. My learning motivation was not bad in junior high school. I like English at the time because I had good exam grades.'
*SA12, learner interviews, translated*

Since learning English is a long process without concrete progress, we cannot

deny the value of exams in providing a tangible measure for learners' language abilities. To SB40 and SA12, exam grades provided them with a means to see their English learning achievements in junior high school and motivated them to learn English. However, when these external rewards did not exist anymore, they soon gave up learning. This indicates that exams may be beneficial in generating achievement motivation but they have their shortcomings in sustaining the motivation.

Moreover, SB40 and SA12's accounts also indicate that exams may provide learners with opportunities of success but they may also provide experiences of failure. Especially for less competent learners, constant failure may cause them to generate negative self-concepts about their English ability:

> 'I used to have a senior high school teacher who gave us an exam every class. […] Since I always had bad exam results and I had poor English ability, I didn't want to prepare for the exams. […] I never had a chance to enjoy the achievement of having good exam results.'
> *SB07, learner interviews, translated*

> 'I didn't make much effort on learning English in the past because I know I would fail my exams anyway. […] I felt sleepy in class and I was not listening to the lecture. I just gave up.'
> *SA07, learner interviews, translated*

To SA07 and SB07, their constant bad exam results decreased their self-confidence in English learning and this in turn influenced their learning behaviours such as in-class engagement and effort. Other learners also associated exams with negative emotions:

> 'In the junior high school, I learned English for the senior high school entrance exam. I told myself I must have good exam grades but I just couldn't. That's why I felt frustrated and resisted learning English.'
> *SA37, learner interviews, translated*

> 'I don't like learning under the stress of exams. Although I will tell myself to

work hard but I will still resist it.'
*SA38, learner interviews, translated*

Due to the stress and frustration generated by exams, SA37 and SA38 resisted learning English in high school. Learners' opinions about exams indicate that although exams show their strength in providing learners with concrete, measurable achievements in learning English which may lead to motivation, they fall short of sustaining the motivation. Furthermore, using exams as the dominant classroom task may run the risk of generating negative self-concepts and negative emotions among less competent learners, especially in mixed-ability classes—which is a common phenomenon in Taiwan.

## 4.2 Teacher Motivation

After discussing the factors that influenced learner motivation, in this section I will set out to present findings from the pilot teacher interviews (one pre-course and one post-course interview), my teaching journals and research journals in the hope of understanding how teacher motivation is constructed in the classroom. Certain learner-generated data from the learner group interview of the pilot study and the learner reflective diaries of the main study will also be presented in the attempt to verify the findings from the above teacher-generated data. The findings will be organized in terms of the themes and patterns that recurred during the data analysis process. Attention will first be drawn to the individual influences on teacher motivation in 4.2.1 and 4.2.2. Then from 4.2.3 to 4.2.7, I will move beyond internal factors to contextual factors that play a part in the formation of teacher motivation. Lastly, in 4.2.8, I will discuss how the adoption of EP (exploratory practice) principles in this practitioner research influenced my motivation in teaching. In the presentation of findings that follows,

the teacher who participated in the pilot study is referred to as 'Peggy', which is not her real name, to preserve anonymity.

### 4.2.1 Self-Efficacy

After comparing my reflective teaching journals and the teacher interviews conducted with Peggy, I find us to be very different in terms of senses of self-efficacy. The data shows that these self-efficacy beliefs were not only influencing our emotions and behaviours in class but also the way we attributed failure in the classroom. In this section, I will discuss our self-efficacy from two dimensions—*English* and *teaching self-efficacy*.

Regarding *English self-efficacy*, Peggy seems to have a strong sense of self-efficacy concerning her English ability:

> 'In terms of English, I think my English is pretty good. […] I think my English is well above average. […] My language ability is definitely sufficient for my students. Possibly because the students I had so far were not very competent in English, I think my English ability is more than sufficient for them.'
> *The pre-course teacher interview, translated*

To compare with Peggy, I tend to feel less confident in my English ability:

> 'I can feel the class is not motivated and neither do I. I just move on talking and talking without much interaction with them. And my English is quite broken too. My head is not clear and I'm not focused.'
> *May 27th, teaching journals, original*

> 'I quickly finish the article. I was a bit nervous and I felt I can't remain good control of my mental status—possibly because of the cold. The procedure of class and my English is a bit messy.'
> *February 26th, teaching journals, original*

It may be argued that Peggy and I were evaluating our English abilities from different perspectives, in which Peggy was appraising her 'general' ability while I

was reflecting on my ability in 'specific' classes. Thus, I cannot simply conclude my sense of self-efficacy to be generally lower than Peggy's from the above examples. However, there is no denying that my low sense of self-efficacy on May 27th and February 26th was causing me to have negative feelings in class (nervous) and these feelings were substantially influencing my teaching behaviours (gave the lesson hastily and messily). Our difference in *English self-efficacy* was more evident in terms of how we regarded our weaknesses:

> 'However, my drawback is that I have poor spelling ability. […] I feel less confident of my spelling, but the rest (of my English ability) is ok. Among English teachers, I think my grammar is quite clear. Many English teachers do not have clear grammar. […] I will try to let my students understand that we can make mistakes when writing Chinese, let alone English. Although this is an excuse for myself, it is also a fact. I want to let them know that teachers are not perfect and that teachers don't simply know everything. As a matter of fact, this is also a way to reduce our (=teachers') stress.'
> *The pre-course teacher interview, translated*

> 'They're (=the students are) reading some very difficult articles and they come to ask me (questions related to the articles). I felt a bit stressful cause I'm not able to answer some of the questions.'
> *February 28th, teaching journals, original*

The above examples show how our *English self-efficacy* played a part in how we regulated our emotions when approaching threatening situations. Although Peggy was aware of her weakness in spelling, she did not consider it to be a defect of her English ability. Rather, she exposed her weakness to her students with confidence and paid more attention to her strength in explaining grammar rules clearly. In contrast, I considered not being able to answer all the questions from students to be a deficiency and thus felt stressed when facing such threatening situations.

As to *teaching self-efficacy*, Peggy also showed her confidence in teaching in the interviews:

'One of my student used to tell me that he had never met teachers who taught (grammar) like me. […] He thought this (=the way I teach) made it easier for him to understand (grammar). Actually, I learned this from a grammar class I took in the U.S. […] This kind of teaching method makes it easier for students to understand the structure of sentences.'
*The pre-course teacher interview, translated*

'A lot of my students want to take TOEIC or GEPT (=tests of English language proficiency). […] That's why I talked about 'power writing' in class so as to enable them to use simple techniques to write articles.'
*The post-course teacher interview, translated*

'I think I have moderate control of time in class. I know roughly how long it takes to teach one page (of the textbook) according to my experiences.'
*The post-course teacher interview, translated*

'I don't feel nervous. I am very relaxed when I teach. […] I think it (=teaching) is quite easy. I feel that time passes so quickly.'
*The pre-course teacher interview, translated*

The examples show that Peggy considered her teaching to be beneficial for her students' English learning and she was also confident of her time management in the classroom. Since she did not regard teaching as a difficult job which exceeded her competence, most of the time, she felt relaxed in the classroom. It is worth noting that she mentioned earlier that she found grammar to be her strength in English. From her first account in the pre-course interview above, we can assume that this strong sense of *English self-efficacy* possibly came from the positive feedback she received from the student who considered her to teach grammar in an exceptionally comprehensible way. On the other hand, compared to Peggy, I seemed to have a lower sense of *teaching self-efficacy*:

'When I was reviewing the answers of the quiz, only half (of the students) are listening. And the classroom is a bit noisy. I just quickly move on cause I was worried this is too simple and they might be bored.'
*March 18th, teaching journals, original*

'The class had been so noisy today. I felt that I was unable to control them.

> […] I was very nervous in the first session. I felt that I can hardly breathe. I guess that's because I found them hard to control and ended up being nervous. […] I felt a bit frustrated after class today. And I think I didn't control the classroom atmosphere well.'
> *February 20<sup>th</sup>, teaching journals, original*

> 'I asked them to quiet down a few times but it doesn't work well. I guess my classroom management really needs to be improved.'
> *June 17<sup>th</sup>, teaching journals, original*

As mentioned earlier, I cannot conclude Peggy to have higher *teaching self-efficacy* merely from these three teaching journals because we were evaluating our teaching abilities from different perspectives. Nevertheless, it is evident that on these three days, I was either unconfident of my teaching in producing student learning or losing faith in my competence to manage the class. My low sense of *teaching self-efficacy* in these lessons resulted in my negative emotions (worry or frustration) in the classroom. The difference in *teaching self-efficacy* between Peggy and me were more evident when we encountered failure in the classroom:

> 'If my learners are not competent in English and have bad learning attitudes, I will first communicate with them. If they still remain the same after one week, I will tell them that they have to be responsible for their own learning. […] If I met classes as such, I will still continue teaching but I will keep following the textbook without giving them extra information. If they are not interested, they don't need to listen to my lecture anyway.'
> *The pre-course teacher interview, translated*

> 'I've also warned the three to four chatting students to quiet down but there's noise all through the class. I think I didn't have good classroom management. This frustrates me a little.'
> *June 6<sup>th</sup>, teaching journals, original*

The examples show that after failing to regulate misbehaving students, Peggy attributed the failure to the students while I focused on my deficiency in classroom management. Although it is in question whether attributing classroom

failure to students was positive for fostering learning in class, in terms of teacher motivation, Peggy's attribution style helped her to remain relaxed in the classroom while mine easily generated frustration.

### *4.2.2 Expectations*

From the teacher interviews with Peggy, I also find that her expectations about the target class had substantially influenced her in-class behaviours. As mentioned in 3.3.1, the target students in Peggy's class mainly consisted of evening students. In both the pre-course and post-course interviews, Peggy mentioned how she treated day-time and evening students differently:

> 'It's obvious that they (=the target learners) only care about the degree. […] To deal with such classes, you can only adopt a relaxing attitude in classroom management. If you treat them like day-time students, soon there will be no students coming to class.'
> *The pre-course teacher interview, translated*

> 'After taking this course, I think they will improve their English ability more or less but not too much. […] After all, it is difficult for these students (to improve).'
> *The pre-course teacher interview, translated*

> 'Yes, I use the same textbook for day-time students and evening students. However, the tests for day-time students tend to be more difficult such as conversation matching exercises. I will spend more time designing the exam questions. As to evening classes, I will use the exam question banks (provided by the textbooks publisher).'
> *The post-course teacher interview, translated*

> 'Of course I will be stricter with day-time students than with evening students. It's impossible for to me tolerate day-time students to be late for 30 minutes without marking their absence but I can tolerate evening students to be late for 30 minutes.'
> *The post-course teacher interview, translated*

> 'I will ask day-time students to answer to questions and converse in English in class. As to evening students, even if I ask them to converse in English,

they can't really do it.'
*The post-course teacher interview, translated*

From Peggy's accounts in the pre-course interviews, it is evident that she expected evening students to be less motivated (only care about the degree) and less competent (can hardly improve their English ability). It is worth noting that the pre-course interview was conducted in week two of the course for evening students. In week one, Peggy only talked about course regulations in Chinese with the learners for 15 minutes and learners were not asked to do any tasks which might show their English abilities. This shows that Peggy's opinions in the pre-course interviews mainly came from her first impression of the learners and her stereotypes of evening students. Her expectations had resulted in her different treatments toward day-time students and the target learners. In the post-course interviews, she claimed that she made more effort on maintaining class discipline and designing exam questions in day-time classes. Moreover, day-time students were also given extra learning opportunities (chances to practise speaking) and more challenges (difficult exam questions) in the classroom.

However, Peggy's expectations about her students partially contradict what I observed in the classroom. In my research journal on September 20[th], which was kept after my first visit to Peggy's class in week one, I found the learners in Peggy's class were possibly more competent in English than she expected:

> 'The teacher showed the students the textbook they will use in this course and she told them the level of the textbook is roughly the beginner's level of GEPT (=General English Proficiency Test). I sat at the back of the room and heard a student murmuring, "We could already manage [inaudible] last term. We are still learning from a beginner's textbook?" I had the feeling that the textbook was possibly too easy for the learners.'
> *September 20[th], research journals, original (except the quotation, translated)*

This student's opinion corresponds with what I found in the pilot group interview, in which the participants of the group interview claimed that…

'At first I thought this course would teach us how to communicate with native speakers. However, the level of the course ended up being equivalent to junior high school materials. But it's good in a way. We can effortlessly get 80 points in exams.'
*SP1, pilot learner group interview, translated*

'Actually, I don't really mind. Since we are usually very tired to come to class after work, the level of the course makes things easier for us.'
*SP3, pilot learner group interview, translated*

The above examples show that the learners considered they were capable of learning from more difficult materials. However, they did not try to express their feelings to the teacher. Rather, they reduced their level of aspiration in learning English and adopted looser learning attitudes in this course. This indicates that a teacher's expectations toward particular learners may influence the way he/she behaves in the classroom, and learners' attitudes toward learning English may, in turn, be influenced in a corresponding fashion.

### 4.2.3 Contextual Restrictions

After looking at two individual factors that play a part in the formation of teacher motivation, we will now move beyond internal factors to external factors. From the teacher interviews and my teaching journals, I find restrictions teachers perceived from their working environments to be influential to their behaviours and emotions in the classroom.

In the post-course teacher interview, Peggy talked about how she would teach high school and university students differently:

'I put more focus on grammar when teaching high school students. The

content of the textbooks are also more rigid. In universities, I pay more attention to practicality. As to teaching, I focus more on lectures in high schools. In universities, I adopt a more vivid teaching style. […] I teach differently in high schools and universities because, in Taiwan, to get into a prestigious university is a top priority. […] Since they (=high school students) are learning for the joint college entrance exams, school teachers (=high school teachers) tend to focus more on grammar.'
*The post-course teacher interview, translated*

When talking about high school teaching, Peggy used a negative word, 'rigid', to describe the content of high school textbooks, while she used positive words such as 'vivid' and 'practicality' when talking about university English teaching. It can be inferred that Peggy considered English classes in universities to be more motivating and practical than the ones in high schools. However, she seemed to accept it as a necessity because, in the context of Taiwan, high school students are expected to learn English for the joint college entrance exams which may enable them to advance their studies in top-ranked universities. The social expectations, or restrictions, on high school students made Peggy believe that if she is to teach English in high schools, she will need to compromise herself by adopting a monotonous teaching style. It is worth noting that Peggy's opinions about high school teaching are in line with the findings in 4.1.2, in which the target learners also claimed high school English classes to be more exam-oriented and monotonous, while university English classes are more practical and interesting. This implies that the contextual restrictions play a part in teachers' in-class behaviours and the behaviours may in turn influence learners' attitudes toward learning English.

In the same respect, the effect of contextual restrictions was also found in my teaching journals. However, instead of reflecting on restrictions I received from the broader social context, I was reflecting on how the restrictions from the

local context, the school, were influencing my emotions and behaviours in class:

> 'I was very unhappy when I come home today. I'm soooo super slow today. Way behind schedule again!'
> *March 20th, teaching journals, original*

> 'Though I have to admit it's (=the lesson is) boring but RK (=*Reading Keys*) is meant to be boring.'
> *February 29th, teaching journals, original*

As mentioned in 3.4.3, the courses I taught took place four hours per week in which teachers were free to decide the course content in the first two hours and obliged to use a textbook chosen by the school, *Extending Reading Keys*, in the last two hours. From my teaching journal on March 20th, it is evident that the set curricula imposed by the school caused me to have negative feelings in class. Since I needed to catch up with the schedule set by the school in order to prepare the learners with the coming standardised midterm exams, the fact that I was behind schedule made me feel frustrated and stressed. Moreover, my teaching journal on February 29th shows that I seemed not to consider the textbook selected by the school to be motivating to learners. Although, in this teaching journal, I did not mention how my negative attitude toward the textbook had influenced my behaviours in class, I did talk about how my negative attitude toward other materials influenced what I did in class on February 26th:

> 'In the first session, we learn the CNN reading. It's quite boring cause I just move on explaining. I didn't want to spend too much time on reading cause I know it's boring and they'll lose their attention quickly.'
> *February 26th, teaching journals, original*

Although I was reflecting on the material chosen by myself in this teaching journal, it was evident that my negative attitude toward the material that day had prompted me to give the lecture in haste. In the same respect, my negative attitude toward the textbook assigned by the school may also inevitably influence the way

I teach in the classroom.

After looking at how contextual restrictions from the society or higher authorities play a part in teachers' in-class behaviours and emotions, I will narrow down the scope in the following sections to see how the immediate teaching environment—the classroom—influences teacher motivation.

### 4.2.4 Learner Engagement

From my teaching journals and the interviews with Peggy, I find that learners' engagement in the classroom may substantially influence the emotions of teachers as well as teachers' attitudes toward the learners:

'I used to teach a class which was a combination of two groups of learners. The group which sat at the left side of the classroom made me very unhappy. However, the group which sat at the right side made me very happy because they were very conscientious. When I wrote something on the board, they look at it with attentive eyes. It made me feel good. […] The other half was usually chatting in class and they won't behave even if I shout at them.'
*The pre-course teacher interview, translated*

'I used to teach a summer course which mainly consisted of gifted students from junior high schools. This was my happiest teaching experience ever. […] No matter what I asked the learners to do, they always did it without bargaining with me. Moreover, they easily understood what I asked them to do. From their learning attitudes and feedback, I could feel they were happy. I like this class very much.'
*The pre-course teacher interview, translated*

'When the lesson starts, they're (=the students are) very attentive. Whenever a question is asked, there're scattered answers. I can tell they're motivated because they're making notes and paying attention. I really like this class so much.'
*February 21$^{st}$, teaching journals, original*

'We used small-group discussions instead of lecture today. I was so surprised that it was a great success. They are so actively participating and discussing. They took out their dictionary and busy practicing reading. It was very noisy

but I can see they enjoy it very much. They come over to ask me questions and I can see they 'think' instead of just 'receive' what I said. The activity is very time-consuming but I think it's worth doing! I can see them making effort to practice reading and gathering thoughts from other group members. The presentation is good too. Instead of the last group, most of them are very well-prepared. […] I am very happy with the class today.'
*March 6<sup>th</sup>, teaching journals, original*

'I was happy to see them being attentive at the task. Most of them are on-task. […] Although some students fall asleep in the second session and some are chatting. Their general motivation is pretty good today. The rest of the class are very attentive and motivated. Most of my questions are answered and they're busy making notes. I'm very happy with their motivation level today.'
*March 14<sup>th</sup>, teaching journals, original*

In Peggy's pre-course interview and my teaching journals on March 6<sup>th</sup> and 14<sup>th</sup>, Peggy and I both claimed that learners' engaging behaviours such as paying attention to lectures, making notes in class, or putting effort on classroom tasks made us feel happy. The effect of learners' in-class engagement on teachers' emotions is even more evident in the first example of Peggy's pre-course interview. In this example, Peggy talked about a class which was a combination of two groups of learners. Peggy was teaching the two groups of learners in the same class at the same time using the same materials and the same class procedures. The learners also came from a similar learning background (both groups were evening students). It should be assumed that Peggy's feelings toward these two groups of learners were fairly similar. However, Peggy claimed to feel extremely different with the two groups because the 'the engaged half' made her feel good, while 'the misbehaved half' made her feel unhappy. It is worth noting that Peggy's extreme feelings toward the 'the misbehaved half' were not only caused by their poor engagement in the classroom but also by their misbehaviour. Since this is another major factor which plays a part in teacher motivation. I will discuss

it further in 4.2.6.

Furthermore, the second example of Peggy's pre-course teacher interview and my teaching journal on February 21$^{st}$ show that teachers tended to associate these engaging behaviours with learner motivation. Learners who show a higher level of engagement in the classroom are considered to be happier and more motivated in learning. This perception may in turn influence a teacher's behaviours toward the learners:

> 'To learners who want to learn more, I will give them more.'
> *The post-course teacher interview, translated*

Peggy's account indicates that learners who are considered to be more engaged and motivated in learning will be given more learning opportunities from teachers. However, this assumption may sometimes be wrong because motivated learners are not necessarily learners who overtly engage in the classroom. This brings us to the next section, where I will present findings to demonstrate the relationship between learners' observed motivation and their stated motivation.

### 4.2.5 Learners' Observed Motivation

In an attempt to investigate the relationship between learners' stated motivation and their observed motivation, results of the post-class reflective writings and my teaching journals are compared to see if learners' perceptions about the value of the course are similar to my perceptions about learners' general motivation (see Table 4.2 overleaf).

The post-class reflective writings were conducted seven times throughout the study, three times in Group A and four times in Group B. Within the seven post-class reflective writings, two were conducted on the days when the learners had their midterm group presentations. Since these two reflective writings were

| | | Post-class Reflective Writings | | | | | Teaching Journals | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Date | Group | Number | Positive (= 1) | Negative (= -1) | Score* | Rank | Motivation | Rank |
| 2/27 | A | 50 | 44 | 20 | 0.48 | 2 | 3.5 | 2 |
| 3/07 | | 49 | 44 | 7 | 0.76 | 1 | 3.83 | 1 |
| 2/26 | B | 45 | 39 | 13 | 0.58 | 2 | 4 | 2 |
| 3/06 | | 48 | 41 | 6 | 0.73 | 1 | 4.5 | 1 |
| 3/25 | | 44 | 28 | 9 | 0.43 | 3 | 2.75 | 3 |

**Table 4.2 A Comparison Between Learners' Stated and Observed Motivation**
* Score= (positive + negative) ÷ number

not conducted during normal lesson procedures, they are not included in the analysis here. In Table 4.2, 'number' denotes the number of reflective writings collected; 'positive' stands for the number of reflective writings which include positive evaluations such as 'the learning material today is very interesting' or 'the classroom task today is very helpful for our English learning;' and 'negative' denotes negative evaluations such as 'the lecture today is a bit boring' or 'the learning material today is too difficult for us to learn'. It is worth noting that some learners may give both positive and negative evaluations in their reflective writings commenting on different aspects of the lesson. Thus, the total number of positive and negative evaluations may exceed the number of reflective writings. The scores of learners' evaluations toward the lessons were calculated by adding the scores of positive evaluations (one point each) and negative evaluations (minus one point each) and then the score was divided by the number of reflective writings collected so as to obtain the average score. As to the teaching journals, learners' general motivation was rated in numbers in which '0' means the learners were not motivated at all while '5' means the learners were highly-motivated.

In Table 4.2, we can see that learners of Group A valued the lesson on March 7[th] more than the one on February 27[th] and their evaluations are consistent with their observed motivation on these two days. This positive relationship is

even more evident in Group B. To look at the results of March 6[th] and March 25[th], the learners attached high value to the lesson on March 6[th] and their observed motivation was also high on that day (=4.5); whereas their evaluations toward the lesson on March 25[th] was comparatively low and the motivation they showed on the same day was also fairly low (=2.75).

The result suggests that learners' real motivation level is usually fairly similar to the motivational behaviours they show in the classroom. However, my research journal indicates that this is not always true. In my research journal on April 1[st], I talked about the discrepancy between learners' observed motivation and their stated motivation that I found during the research process:

> 'It is not until I read the learning diaries from my students that I realize my poor sense of judgement as a teacher. There is a group in class B which I considered to be very de-motivated in learning. I constantly find them chatting in class and their attention span seem to be short according to my observation. I couldn't help attaching a tag on them as 'bad students.' However, after I read their diaries, they turned out to be the most motivated group in the class. They all write nice reflective diaries and, from their class notes, I can see that they have been very attentive in class. Even SB01 is able to write good diaries and, in his diaries, he told me how much he'd like to learn English well. I'm really very surprised. [...] The observed motivation can sometimes be deceiving. Active students are sometimes not motivated, while the motivated students are sometimes quiet. They make me have a different perspective on learner motivation.'
> *April 1[st], research journals, original*

Some examples of the diaries written by this group of learners are as follows:

> 'We have two exam during the English class. Even though I work hard on the vocabulary but I just don't understand what is mean in the article. I don't know how can I do. I hope someone can help me to learn English. I really want to learn English than better before.'
> *SB01, learner reflective diaries, original*

'Last Thursday, I don't like group of *dicussion* (=discussion) because I'm afraid speaking English. When I try to open my mouth, but I don't know if I read accurately. I like hearing other people speaking English but I don't like speaking English. I have a *text* (=test) in today's English class. Thought what I took the exam of is not ideal (=the result of my exam is not ideal), but I think my English is improving slowly.'
*SB01, learner reflective diaries, original*

'Even though my English grade is not pretty good but I really love English. So I try to look for how to learn English method. I think that I would get good grade if I read English *magzines* or *newspepers* everyday.'
*SB01, learner reflective diaries, original*

'I *through* the English textbook "Reading Keys" is so easy, so I distracted easily in Thursday's English lectures. I hope I can lean more extracurricular teaching material. In particular listening. I wanted to learn listening well. But I can't find a good method for me.'
*SA30, learner reflective diaries, original*

The research journal was written by me after I collected and read learners' learning portfolios for the first time. As mentioned in 3.4.3, the learning portfolios consisted of learners' weekly reflective diaries, assignments, exam papers and my self-designed materials. From learners' portfolios, I realized a specific group in Group B which I considered to be de-motivated was actually fairly motivated in learning. Although it may be argued that what these learners wrote in their diaries were not necessarily true because they might 'pretend' they were motivated in learning in order to please me, there is no denying that, compared to others, they made more effort in completing the diaries and making notes. Their class notes on my self-designed materials show they were paying attention to the class. It is worth noting that learners were not required to make notes in this course and my self-designed materials were not included in any exam in the course. This shows that these learners were making notes because they 'wanted' to learn rather than because other external factors forced them to learn.

Furthermore, in the diaries of SB01 and SA30, who were members of the 'de-motivated group', they not only showed their motivation in learning but also explained why they failed to engage in class. To take SB01 for example, he claimed that he did not participate in group discussions because he was not confident of his English speaking ability and he did not do well on exams because he was less competent. Despite his low sense of English self-efficacy and proficiency, he was still fairly optimistic and motivated about his learning. He believed he could succeed if he tried and he sensed he was improving slowly. On the other hand, SA30 claimed that he easily got distracted in Thursday classes because he considered the textbook to be too easy for him. However, he was keen on learning more difficult materials, especially listening materials.

From a teachers' point of view, I only noticed that SB01 did not participate in group discussions and his exam results were usually the worst in Group B; while SA30 was usually distracted on Thursdays. As a consequence, I assumed them to be de-motivated in learning English. My research journal and the learners' diaries indicate that learners' poor engagement in the classroom does not necessarily mean they are not motivated in learning. From time to time, some learners may covertly engage in learning or they may have particular reasons for not participating in class such as low values attached to the materials or low senses of self-efficacy.

### 4.2.6 Learner Discipline

'I used to teach a class which was a combination of two groups of learners. The group which sat at the left side of the classroom made me very unhappy. However, the group which sat at the right side made me very happy because they were very conscientious. When I wrote something on the board, they look at it with attentive eyes. It made me feel good. […] The other half was

usually chatting in class and they won't behave even if I shout at them.'
*The pre-course teacher interview, translated*

In 4.2.4, Peggy talked about a class she used to teach in the pre-course interview. In that class, 'the engaged half' and the 'misbehaved half' of students were making her having extreme feelings in class. In 4.2.4, we have discussed how engaged learners influence teacher emotions. Now attention will be drawn to 'the misbehaved half' and findings from Peggy's interviews and my teaching journals will be presented to see how the discipline of learners influences teachers' in-class emotions and behaviours.

Peggy's account in the pre-course interview is in line with my reflections in the teaching journals in which I reflected how classroom order plays a part in my emotions:

'I'm so happy after class today. Things are going well in class today. […] The classroom management is also good—nicely controlled, not too noisy and moderately excited. […] This is very different from class B. They're noisy and some are not participating. However, I didn't see a single student who's not participating today.'
*March 21$^{st}$, teaching journals, original*

'I'm so disappointed when I come back today. They were noisy in the beginning of the class. And when I quiet them down, they started to sleep. I think there're only 10-15 (students) who are listening attentively. I was so helpless and disappointed. […] Their attitude makes me sleepy too.'
*March 25$^{th}$, teaching journals, original*

'They made me so depressed today. They're very noisy through the class and a lot of them are sleeping. I find it hard to explain things or teach. They're simply not listening!'
*April 8$^{th}$, teaching journals, original*

'I'm happy when I'm home today. Things go so well in class! I realize if I spend more time to mange the class and set group norms, they'll be able to quiet down very quickly. The class is so well-controlled. […] They're a little bit noisy at first but I ask them to be quiet intensively three times and expressed my unhappiness. They quiet down so easily in the rest of the class!

Never feel bad to stop and control. It makes your class smoother later.'
*April 10th, teaching journals, original*

'I asked them to quiet down a few times but it doesn't work well. I guess my classroom management really needs to be improved. The second session remains pretty much the same. They're noisy still when we listen to the song together. They didn't seem to be very interested in the song which disappoint me a bit.'
*June 17th, teaching journals, original*

My teaching journals on March 25th, April 8th and June 17th show that learners' misbehaviours in class—chatting, were making me feel disappointed, helpless, depressed or unconfident of my classroom management skills. On the contrary, the good classroom order on March 21st and April 10th made me feel happy after class. This indicates that learners' discipline in class may not only influence teacher emotions but also a teacher's self-efficacy belief in teaching.

Other examples from Peggy's interviews and my teaching journals show that the negative emotions, which were generated by learners' misbehaviours, may in turn influence teachers' in-class behaviours in various ways:

'I can get along with students like friends. However, I will tell my students, like what I told them that day, that we can have a relaxing classroom atmosphere. However, I do not want to see you chatting when I am talking because it makes it difficult for me to focus on the lecture. I don't want to keep disciplining every student.'
*The pre-course teacher interview, translated*

'If my learners are not competent in English and have bad learning attitudes, I will first communicate with them. If they still remain the same after one week, I will tell them that they have to be responsible for their own learning. […] If I met classes as such, I will still continue teaching but I will keep following the textbook without giving them extra information. If they are not interested, they don't need to listen to my lecture anyway. […] I won't interact with such classes. It's not my business anyway. I will just focus on my teaching.'
*The post-course teacher interview, translated*

'They're so noisy today—so noisy that I almost get angry during the class. I'm not controlling my temper well. […] The class is still noisy that I get a bit upset later. When SB35 is presenting, I'm not very patient and I'm so afraid that I hurt his feelings. Things are a bit out of control during the presentation. And I think I get panic and mean.'
*March 20th, teaching journals, original*

'I'm so angry when I come back home today!!! They have been so noisy!!! […] Six to eight students kept talking and it annoys me! At last I get a bit angry and said "If you continue talking, I'll have to ask you to leave." I think my EQ (=emotional intelligence) is very low today. I should reason with them not shout at them.'
*April 22nd, teaching journals, original (except the quotation, translated)*

'However, in the second session, three to four students kept chatting. I felt that I'm unable to make them quiet. Although the rest of the students are attentive and less people sleep. I think the noise influence me somehow. […] I guess my mood influence my head. My head becomes unclear in the end and I kept making mistakes in lecture.'
*June 6th, teaching journals, original*

The above examples show that learners' misbehaviours will not only bring about teachers' negative emotions but also lead to less in-class interaction (the post-course interview), poor quality of lecture (the pre-course teacher interview, the post-course interview and teaching journals on June 6th) and inconsiderate teacher behaviours (teaching journals on March 20th and April 22nd). It is worth looking at my teaching journals on March 20th and June 6th. On these two days, my negative emotions provoked by certain misbehaving students were influencing learners who were well-behaved or engaged in class. To take March 20th for example, my negative emotions caused by the noisy classroom prompted me to be impatient and unsympathetic about the presentation of SB35, a less competent learner in Group B. As to June 6th, despite the fact that the rest of the class were engaged in the lecture, the noise generated by a few students made it difficult for me to stay focused and led to the poor quality of my lecture. The same effect of

learners' discipline on teachers' behaviours was also found in the pilot group interview, in which Peggy's students talked about how certain misbehaving students in the target class influence the behaviours of their teacher:

> 'Sometimes the teacher wanted to say or stress something in class but the other half of the students did not want to listen to it. Then, the teacher would not move on.'
> *SP4, pilot learner group interview, translated*

> 'Sometimes when we heard things we were very interested in but the teacher was interrupted by the other half of the students. […] Then, she would not want to continue anymore.'
> *SP5, pilot learner group interview, translated*

The above examples show that even when the number of the misbehaving students is small or even when the rest of the students are engaged, students' misbehaviour may still play a part in teacher's emotions and behaviours in class. This may in turn influence the learning opportunities of learners who are well-behaved or engaged in class.

### 4.2.7 Learner Immediacy

As mentioned earlier, according to the definition of Megrabian (1971 cited in Pogue and AhYun 2006: 332), immediacy refers to a type of communicative behaviour which increases the closeness between people. In 4.1.3.3, we have discussed how teacher immediacy influences learner motivation. In this section, findings will be presented to see how learner immediacy, in turn, influences teacher motivation in similar fashion. The attention will be drawn to how certain immediacy behaviours of learners generate perceived positive relationships between teachers and learners; and how this perceived relationship plays a part in teachers' in-class emotions.

In Peggy's pre-course interview and my teaching journals, Peggy and I considered learners' immediacy behaviours to represent positive relationships between learners and teachers:

'They will come to ask me questions or chat with me after class, so I think it (=their attitude toward me) is ok.'
  *The post-course teacher interview, translated*

'I'm able to talk to them after class like friends and they like talking to me too. When I asked them to do things, they're so willing to do it. I gain a sense of achievement today. My kids like me and I love them too. My effort on them has paid off.'
*May 28ᵗʰ, teaching journals, original*

'There are a lot of laughing and discussion going on. I think this is a very good start. The interaction is good and the distance (=distance between the students and me) is even closer than last term. […] I think this is a good sign cause it means they're not afraid to crack joke with me. The distance is short between us. […] I think my relationship with this class is very friend-like. When I started talking to them, I felt relaxed and happy—unlike how I felt before class.'
*February 19ᵗʰ, teaching journals, original*

'Things go so well today. I can feel the rapport between me and the students. They laugh at my jokes and talk to me in class. The interaction is great. […] I'm so happy in this class. They're all very sweet. I'm like one of their friends. I accidentally say something wrong in class but since I was very relaxed, I figure out the answer with the kids. And I didn't feel bad about this at all.'
*June 5ᵗʰ, teaching journals, original*

The post-course interview and the teaching journal on May 28ᵗʰ show that learners' out-of-class conversations with teachers made teachers consider their students to have positive attitudes toward them. Moreover, the teaching journals on February 19ᵗʰ and Jun 5ᵗʰ indicate that other immediacy behaviours such as actively responding to teachers' questions, and laughing and joking with teachers generate positive relationships and rapport between teachers and students. These

examples show that learners' immediacy behaviours are beneficial in improving the relationships between teachers and learners. It is interesting to note that, according to my teaching journal on May 28th, I considered this positive teacher-pupil relationship to be a reward in teaching. This implies that the rapport between teacher and learners may serve as a motivating factor to teacher motivation.

Other than teacher-pupil relationships, on February 19th and Jun 5th, the learners' immediacy behaviours also prompted me to have positive emotions in class and helped me to relax when things went wrong in the classroom. The same effect of learner immediacy on teacher emotions can also be found in other examples from Peggy's interview and my teaching journals as follows:

'It's good to have some feedback in class. The students who sit at the left side can give me some academic feedback, while the students at the right can give me some entertaining feedback.'
*The post-course teacher interview, translated*

'If the students are more actively participating in class, I will also be more involved in the lesson. If they were very cold, it will more or less influence my emotion. But I will still finish what I plan to teach. I will look for students who will respond to me so as to make it easier for me to finish the lesson.'
*The post-course teacher interview, translated*

'There are a lot of laughing and discussion going on. We're having a lot of fun. […] I really like this class so much. They talked to me constantly, too—even after class. The interaction and atmosphere is great and my head is clear. I feel very relaxed and happy in class.'
*February 21st, teaching journals, original*

'They made me so depressed today. […] They laugh at my jokes sometimes but they're not talking to me. I felt like there's a wall between us and it's so hard to interact with them today.'
*April 8th, teaching journals, original*

'I can't believe the machine broke again! It's even worse today. I can't even

play the DVD. I spent so much time fixing it. But I didn't feel nervous or depressed today cause the kids are very supportive. SA20 helped me to fix the computer for two hours and the rest of them are encouraging him too. I felt good after class. There's good interaction between me and them and SA55 even come to say it's a pity (the machine was broken) after class.'
*April 30th, teaching journals, original*

Peggy's accounts in the post-course interview and my teaching journals on February 21st and April 8th show that learners' in-class responses, either class-related responses or casual conversations, are crucial to teachers' emotions in class. Peggy even claimed that, when teaching a 'cold' class, she would look for learners who might possibly respond to her so as to help her sustain her motivation in teaching. Moreover, to look at the teaching journal on April 30th, learners' verbal support and encouragement helped me to maintain positive emotions when dealing with a classroom crisis. It is interesting to compare this teaching journal with another journal written the day before, on which the same classroom crisis occurs:

'I was so nervous in class today. My head is blank and I have no idea what I was doing. I'm so depressed now. The machine didn't cooperate with me at all. In the beginning, I spent five minutes setting the machine. Then, I talked for 25 minutes. I spend another ten minutes setting the machine. It was a mess!!'
*April 29th, teaching journals, original*

On both of these days, the DVD players in the language labs were out of order. As a matter of fact, the problem on April 29th (technical problems with subtitles) was more minor than April 30th (the machine did not work at all). However, I obviously panicked more in class on April 29th and this in turn influenced my performance that day. By contrast, I was more capable of remaining relaxed in class on April 30th and the crisis even made me feel good after class. The biggest difference between these two days is that on April 30th, the learners and I still

maintained good interaction when I was solving the technical problem. One learner came up to help and the rest of the learners showed their support throughout the class. The perceived physical and psychological closeness between us made me feel it was *our* business rather than *my* business to make the machine work. The learners helped me to reduce the anxiety generated by the classroom crisis and also gave me the reward of having a good relationship with them. The results of these two teaching journals are in line with previous examples from Peggy's interviews and my teaching journals in this section and make it evident how learner immediacy helps to generate and maintain teachers' positive emotions in the classroom.

### *4.2.8 The Effect of EP on Teacher Motivation*

After discussing the individual and contextual influences on teacher motivation, I would like to discuss the effect of Exploratory Practice (EP) on teacher motivation in the last section of this chapter. As mentioned in 3.4.2, in the present practitioner research I integrate the principles of EP and aim to understand classroom motivation by having in-depth communication with learners and by reflecting on my personal insights. At the outset of my fieldwork, I regarded EP merely as a tool which helped me to understand how motivation was co-constructed in the classroom. However, as time went by, I realized my adoption of EP in my own classes had substantially influenced my motivation in teaching. In this section, I will discuss how EP influenced my motivation from two dimensions—*communication* and *reflection*.

#### *4.2.8.1 Communication*

According to Allwright (2005a:360), one of EP's principles is to involve

learners in the understanding of classroom life. In order to involve learners in the present study, I asked learners to keep a weekly diary which serves as a reflective tool for their learning as well as a channel of communication between them and me. I later realized this channel of communication between learners and me was directly and indirectly helping me to maintain my motivation in the target classes. To look at the direct influences, the diaries provide learners with a chance to give positive feedback to me which makes the effort I made to the course rewarding. From Peggy's pre-course interview, we can see how learners' positive feedback motivates teachers in teaching:

> 'I used to teach a summer course which mainly consisted of gifted students from junior high schools. This was my happiest teaching experience ever. […] From their learning attitudes and feedback, I could feel they were happy. I like this class very much. Since this was a short course, it ended around August 20th. They asked me why they couldn't come to class next week. It felt different from having students saying "Yeah! It's over." You can see that they have positive feedback.'
> *The pre-course teacher interview, translated*

In this summer course, Peggy's learners indirectly gave positive feedback to her by saying that they would like to continue the course. Although this was not the 'only' reason[7] why Peggy regarded this course to be her happiest teaching experience ever, there is no denying that this was 'one of the reasons' why. In the same respect, in my research journals, I also talked about how learners' positive feedback motivated me to make more effort in teaching:

> 'Most of them like the material today very much and they asked for more. I think this is a very good start and I'll keep trying something new in class! […] I feel that I gain a sense of achievement today. I'm glad that I ask for feedback. Otherwise, I'll never know how much they like the material! The EP research is giving me a chance to be even closer to my students. And it

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[7] For another reason (learner engagement), see 4.3.4.

also helps my teaching so much! EP can not only be frustrating, it can be so rewarding too!!'
*February 26th, research journals, original*

The target learners gave positive evaluations to the new materials in their post-class reflections on February 26th. In the research journal, I claimed that this positive feedback from learners gave me a sense of achievement in teaching and motivated me to continue trying new materials in the course. Without asking learners for their opinions about the course, I might have little chance to know how much they appreciate particular classroom tasks, materials or things I did in the classroom. In this case, EP provides teachers with more chances to receive positive feedback from learners and gain a sense of achievement which is indispensable in maintaining teacher motivation.

Nevertheless, it is worth noting that in the research journal, I also claimed that EP can sometimes be frustrating. If learners can give positive feedback to teachers, likewise, they can also give negative feedback. In my research journals, I talked about how practitioner research can sometimes be face-threatening for teachers:

'It is so good that the research has opened the window between me and the students. I get to see what's in their brains. But the drawback is that it is very face threatening sometimes. It takes such a long time for me to overcome from a bad comment.'
*March 25th, research journals, original*

At first glance, the negative feedback from learners may reduce teacher motivation because they lead to negative emotions such as frustration which are harmful for the maintenance of motivation. However, on second thoughts, I realized such feedback actually indirectly benefits teacher motivation. Since motivation is unobservable, as mentioned in 4.2.5, teachers' judgement on learner

motivation may sometimes be wrong. In 4.2.5, I attributed a group of learners' poor engagement in class to their lack of interest in learning English. However, after reading their diaries, I came to understand they failed to engage because of other reasons (low sense of self-efficacy and low values attached to the materials). Also, in 4.1.3.3, learners' accounts in the interviews indicate that a lack of communication between teachers and learners may be harmful to the development of learner motivation when things go wrong in the classroom. Other examples can be found in my teaching journal on March 11[th]:

> 'It was a mess today! In the beginning of the class, the machine didn't work. It took me half an hour fixing it. […] I guess it's partially because we had a bad start. The students are not very attentive when the class starts. Some chatting, some sleeping and some reading other books. Things get better later but around eight people are still sleeping.'
> *March 11[th], teaching journals, original*

On March 11[th], I was playing a movie, *Chicago*, in class but the machine was not functioning properly. In the teaching journal, I noticed the learners were de-motivated at the beginning of the class but, as the lesson moved on, they became more motivated. I considered learners' poor engagement and misbehaviours at first were due to the technical problem at the beginning of the class. However, a learner reflected on this particular class in his diary and his point of view was very different from mine:

> 'This week we saw a movie, "Chicago", on English lesson. After I watched it once, I felt bored. And I had no idea what it *meaned* until the teacher explained the content. Then, I was fond of it as soon as I understand it. We all watched the movie four times. Even when I got home, I really still *afterglew* it.'
> *SB34, learner reflective diaries, original*

SB34's reflection is partially in line with mine, in which we both talked about

learners' (or his own) de-motivation at the beginning and an increase of motivation in the later part of the class. However, we explained the change of motivation very differently. If I did not read SB34's diary, I would not know learners were actually de-motivated because they considered the material to exceed their level rather than because I was having some problems with the machine at the beginning of the class. The above examples show that learners' negative feedback or suggestions helped teachers to understand learners more. This understanding may prevent teachers from doing things that are de-motivating to learners, maintain or increase learner motivation, prompt better in-class behaviours of learners and in turn benefit teacher motivation. In this regard, EP allows teachers to have good communication with learners which generates better understanding of what happened in class and prompts a positive motivation cycle in the classroom.

## *4.2.8.2 Reflection*

The reflection of the practitioner is a vital element in practitioner research. Hence, in the present study, I kept a teaching journal after every class in an attempt to reflect on my teaching and record my observations in the classroom. Throughout the fieldwork, I find the reflections not only provided me with opportunities to examine the strengths and weaknesses in my teaching but also helped me to regulate my emotions in class. By comparing my teaching journals on May 27th and 28th, it is evident how reflections played a part in my emotions in the classroom:

> 'I didn't spend time creating rapport in class today simply because I'm tired. I was very sleepy and I think I was going to catch a cold. I was so sick of teaching and I'm highly de-motivated. I tried to crack jokes but I can feel the

class is not motivated and neither do I. I just move on talking and talking without much interaction with them.'
*May 27th, teaching journals, original*

'I guess possibly due to my unpleasant experience yesterday in class B, I was very careful today and I kept reminding myself to be happy in class. I remind myself to enjoy the process and I DID. Most important of all, when I enjoy more they enjoy more. I added jokes in the lesson from time to time and I realized their attention level to be higher and they're also more relaxed to answer my questions.'
*May 28th, teaching journals, original*

My reflections on May 27th helped me to be aware of how my negative feelings successively influence my in-class behaviours and learner motivation. As a consequence, on May 28th, I reminded myself to maintain positive emotions in class and these positive emotions in turn helped me to generate a positive motivation cycle in the classroom, in which my enjoyment in teaching led to my immediacy behaviours (cracking jokes with learners) which resulted in better learner engagement and immediacy behaviours. The above examples show how reflections can help teachers to regulate their emotions in class, which may in turn influence their in-class behaviours and learner motivation.

In this chapter key findings from the data were presented in an attempt to illustrate factors that influence the construction of learner motivation and teacher motivation. In the next chapter I shall draw on findings presented in this chapter to support the discussion of the four research questions proposed in the present study.

# Chapter Five: Discussion

In this chapter, I shall set out to discuss the four research questions which were advanced on the basis of the motivational framework proposed in chapter two (see Figure 2.1). It is hoped that the discussion of the four research questions may increase the plausibility of the motivational framework. I will draw on major findings of the present study to support the discussion of each research question and modifications will be made to the original motivational framework in the light of the findings. Following the discussion of the research questions, the role of Exploratory Practice in the development of classroom motivation and its effect on the circulation of classroom motivation cycles will be discussed in 5.5.

## 5.1 Research Question 1: How does teacher motivation influence a teacher's in-class behaviour?

In an attempt to answer the research question, a number of factors that constitute teacher motivation such as teachers' self-efficacy, expectations toward learners and various contextual factors will be discussed to see how they influence a teacher's in-class behaviours. Then, the section will conclude with the reasons why certain modifications were made to the original motivational framework (see Figure 2.1) after the analysis of data.

### 5.1.1 Self Concept

As shown in 4.3.1, the findings of the teacher interviews conducted with Peggy and my reflective teaching journals suggest that teachers' low self-efficacy may generate negative emotions in class and these emotions may consequently influence teachers' classroom behaviours such as showing less competence and

adopting less immediacy behaviours. Furthermore, the data also reveal that the influences of our self-efficacy beliefs on our emotions and behaviours were especially evident when we were dealing with threatening situations in the classroom such as failing to show expertise or facing learners with bad learning attitudes. The data show that there are mainly two reasons why our self-efficacy beliefs were influencing us differently in the face of obstacles. Firstly, Peggy's high sense of self-efficacy helped her to face her weaknesses with confidence and pay more attention to her strengths. On the other hand, I tended to dwell on my weaknesses when things went wrong in the classroom. This corresponds to Bandura's (1997:242) suggestion that people with lower self-efficacy beliefs tend to focus on their personal weaknesses rather than ways to perform tasks successfully. Secondly, our self-efficacy beliefs also influenced the way we attribute failure in the classroom. Since Peggy was confident of her English and teaching ability, when things went wrong in the classroom, she tended to attribute the problems to the students. However, I usually attributed it to my lack of ability.

When analysing the cases of Peggy and me, I found that our self-efficacy beliefs were not so much the results of our past teaching experiences, which is considered to be the principal source of efficacy information (Bandura 1997:80). Rather, our difference in self-efficacy beliefs was substantially influenced by our language teacher selves. In 2.2.3.2, I have drawn on Dörnyei's *L2 motivational self system* (2009) to show how learners' *ideal L2 self* and *ought-to L2 self* may influence the value they attach to language learning and their L2 learning motivation. In the same respect, teachers' motivational self system may also play a part in their motivation and classroom behaviours (Kubanyiova 2009:315). To apply the theory of *self system* to the case of Peggy, Peggy's possible teacher self (ideal/ought-to self) is one who is allowed to make mistakes and who does not

have to maintain the authority in the classroom. Her identity goal is evident in the pre-course interview (see 4.2.1 and 4.2.6) in which she claimed that teachers are not perfect and she can get along with students like friends. On the other hand, my possible teacher self is someone who is supposed to be an expert in English and who needs to be able to discipline learners in the classroom. That is why I tended to feel stressed or disappointed when I realized I was not able to answer to all questions from learners or maintain control of the class. This possibly explains my surprise when I was observing lessons in Peggy's class:

> 'To tell the truth, I was quite shocked to see the way the teacher taught because she didn't really look like a teacher on the stage—talking about the course content in a very casual way and chatting with students like friends.'
> *September 20th, research journals, original*

> 'The atmosphere was still very casual today. They seemed to feel free to walk around the classroom, and went to the bathroom anytime they wanted. In the middle of the class, the talkative student even went out to smoke. He told the teacher that he was going to smoke and the teacher didn't seem to mind.'
> *November 30th, research journals, original*

> 'As an observer, I think it is very difficult to say if they were motivated or not. They were surely on-task but not seriously on-task. I felt that they were having fun in class but too much fun to technically call this a formal lesson. There were too many jokes, nonsense and casual chatting in class.'
> *October 25th, research journals, original*

As an observer, I inevitably brought my teacher self to the classroom. The research journals show that Peggy and I had very different interpretations about what happened in class. Since Peggy believed that teachers do not necessarily have to be experts and the authorities in the classroom, she considered these lessons to go well. On the other hand, these lessons would be reckoned as 'threatening' to me because they may threaten my identity goal of being a teacher

who can discipline learners in the classroom.

In Higgins' (1987) *self-discrepancy theory*, it is believed that people have the motivation to reduce the discrepancies between their actual selves and possible selves (ideal/ought-to selves). That is why the greater the discrepancy there is, the greater the intensity of discomfort one experiences. Higgins claimed that the discrepancies between one's actual self and ideal self is associated with feelings of disappointment and dissatisfaction, while that between one's actual self and ought-to self would possibly lead to fear and threat. This possibly gives reasons for my negative emotions in the classroom. Since my ideal/ought-to teacher self was very different from my actual teacher self, I easily felt stressed or disappointed when learners were threatening my possible teacher selves. This great discrepancy consequently resulted in my low self-efficacy belief because I constantly felt that I was not doing well enough as a teacher. On the other hand, the discrepancy between Peggy's actual teacher self and possible teacher self is small. Peggy gave herself an achievable identity goal and this gave her chances to experience achievement and to feel competent in teaching. It is interesting to note that in the pre-course interview, Peggy talked about how she lowered her possible teacher selves as a way to maintain positive emotion in the classroom:

> 'I will try to let my students understand that we can make mistakes when writing Chinese, let alone English. Although this is an excuse for myself, it is also a fact. I want to let them know that teachers are not perfect and that teachers don't simply know everything. As a matter of fact, this is also a way to reduce our (=teachers') stress.'
> *The pre-course teacher interview, translated*

By telling herself that it is a fact that teachers cannot be perfect and by making students understand that teachers can make mistakes, Peggy reduced the discrepancy between her actual teacher self and her ideal/ought-to teacher self.

She intentionally used this as a strategy to reduce her stress in teaching. The data of the present study also show that this seemed to be an effective strategy for Peggy to keep her relaxed when things went wrong in the classroom.

*5.1.2 Expectations*

In 4.2.2, I have presented results from the pilot teacher interviews, pilot classroom observation and pilot learner group interview to demonstrate how a teacher's expectation of learners may influence the teacher's in-class behaviours, such as classroom management, commitment to class preparation and the selection of classroom tasks. In the case of Peggy, her low expectations of the target students had prompted her to be more tolerant of their misbehaviours in the classroom and she also claimed that she tended to make fewer demands on these learners' academic performances. However, the results of the pilot classroom observation and pilot learner interview reveal that the target students were capable of more difficult materials (see 4.2.2) and they also expressed their hopes to regulate the misbehaviours of other peers (see 4.2.6). In the pilot learner interview, I found that rather than communicating with the teacher about their needs, these learners chose to live 'down' to the teacher's expectation (Dörnyei 2001c). The results of the present study verify the *Pygmalion Effect* I discussed earlier in 2.2.1.1 in which it is believed that teachers' expectations about learners' learning outcomes determine their behaviours to the learners and these behaviours may in turn influence learners' learning performances as well as their level of aspiration (Dörnyei:ibid.).

In the present study, Peggy's expectations about the target learners mainly come from her stereotype about evening students, who are generally considered to be less motivated and less competent in English compared to daytime students.

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Since the society in Taiwan tends to value daytime students more and daytime programmes usually require higher scores in the university entrance exam than evening programmes, this is a common conception held by both teachers and the public in Taiwan. However, contradictory to the conception, in the pilot group interview with the target learners, I found evening students to have more potential to become motivated English learners than daytime students. A learner from Peggy's class talked about his reasons for learning English in the pilot group interview:

> 'In the past, I was forced to learn English. Now I work in a trade company and the meetings are held in English. I felt frustrated because I can't understand what others said. […] I learned English for grades in the past. Ever since I started working, I become more interested in English.'
> *SP1, pilot learner group interview, translated*

To SP1, work experiences prompted him to see the instrumental value of English. Shoaib and Dörnyei (2005:31) indicate that language learners may transform their motivational disposition when they become mature or when they move into a new life phase such as leaving school and starting to work. Since evening students usually have started working in the daytime and some even have been working for a couple of years before they continue their studies in the university, they tend to be more aware of the usefulness of English in workplaces and are clearer about their goals in life and in learning English. Although most daytime students also understand the significance of English for their future, they usually obtain the information from their teachers or parents rather than through their personal experiences. In this respect, it could be argued that evening students have higher potential to become motivated learners in English as long as the teachers understand their needs and make learning English relevant to their life goals.

Furthermore, Peggy's low expectations of the target learners can also be related to her self-efficacy in teaching. As mentioned in 2.2.4.1, Tollefson (2000) indicates that when teachers face uninterested learners, they tend to lower their expectations of the learners so as to protect their teaching self-efficacy. It means that if the learners fail to learn in the classroom, the teacher can attribute the poor outcome to learners' negative attitudes in learning rather than their lack of ability in teaching. This possibly explains why Peggy had lower expectations of this group of learners and why she tended to attribute problems in the classroom to learners (as mentioned in the previous section). It can be assumed that lowering expectations of learners and attributing classroom failures to learners may be strategies Peggy used to protect her teaching self-efficacy. The interplay between teachers' self-efficacy and expectations highlights the complex nature of motivation, which Dörnyei (2001c:13) refers to as 'parallel multiplicity.' It indicates that people's motivation is influenced by a number of factors simultaneously rather than being influenced by a single factor in isolation. This also justifies the reason why the present study aims to take into account various internal and external influences in the investigation of classroom motivation.

### 5.1.3 Contextual Influences

In 4.2.3, I have drawn findings from the pilot teacher interviews and my teaching journals to demonstrate how teachers' in-class emotions and behaviours may be influenced by two types of contextual influences. The first type is the influences from the society, which are referred to as the *macrocontextual influences* by Dörnyei (2001c:161). The findings suggest that such society-level influences such as the standardised exams imposed by the government may determine teachers' attitudes toward the courses which may in turn influence the

way they teach in the classroom such as adopting a monotonous or vivacious teaching style; or stressing the importance of exams or practicality of English in class. The other type of influences, which comes from the schools, is referred to as the *microcontextual influences* (Dörnyei's ibid.:161). The data of the present study reveal that restrictions from the local context such as set curricula or standardised textbooks assigned by the schools may generate negative teacher emotions like stress and frustration, and influence teachers' behaviours in the classroom such as giving the lectures in haste.

The results of the data collected from teachers correspond to the data collected from learners, in which learners claim that teachers of high schools, universities and private English institutes behave differently while teaching. To look at the *macrocontextual influences*, the influences of the educational policies are reflected in the behaviours of high school teachers and university teachers. In the post-course questionnaires and the learner interviews, learners claimed that they considered high school teachers to be more exam-oriented, monotonous, and controlling in teaching. On the other hand, university teachers tended to be more autonomy-supportive, practicality-oriented and vivacious in the classroom (see 4.1). This result is in line with Peggy's accounts in the post-course interview in which she claimed that:

> 'I put more focus on grammar when teaching high school students. The content of the textbooks are also more rigid. In universities, I pay more attention to practicality. As to teaching, I focus more on lectures in high schools, while adopt a more vivid teaching style in universities. […] Since they (=high school students) are learning for the joint college entrance exams, school teachers (=high school teachers) tend to focus more on grammar'
> *The post-course teacher interview, translated*

Peggy's accounts indicate that she considered high school teachers to have more

restrictions in the course content because of the joint college entrance exams mandated by the government and these restrictions may prompt her to adopt a monotonous and exam-oriented way to teach despite the fact that she was aware such lessons may be boring to learners. To compare with high school teachers, university teachers usually have less pressure with learners' performance standards and they also have more freedom to decide what and how they would like to teach in the classroom. Roth et al. (2007:771) indicate that the educational policies of the government such as the standardised testing may undermine teachers' autonomous motivation for teaching and consequently prompt teachers to be more controlling with their students. This possibly explains why the target learners claimed that university teachers tended to allow learners more freedom to learn on their own (see 4.1.4).

As to the *microcontextual influences*, the influences of school regulations are reflected in the behaviours of ordinary school teachers, i.e. university and high school teachers, and private English institute teachers. The results of the learner interviews and learner reflective diaries reveal that learners consider teachers from the private English institutes to be more humorous, lively and approachable while ordinary school teachers tend to pay more attention to the textbooks without talking about things that are not related to the course like jokes or personal stories (see 4.1.3.3). One possible reason for the difference is that ordinary school teachers usually have to comply with a curriculum or performance standards while teachers from private English institutes usually do not have such pressure. Although university teachers have less pressure regarding learners' performances in the standardised exams than high school teachers, some university teachers, such as those in the present university, still have to teach according to the regulations of the schools such as set curricula or standardised midterm and final

exams. The learners' conceptions about university teachers correspond to my teaching journal in which I claimed that the set curricula caused me to generate negative emotions in the classroom and prompted me to pay full attention to the textbook because I needed to catch up with the schedule set by the school (see 4.2.3). My teaching journals explain part of the reason why ordinary school teachers tend to spend most of the class time on textbooks and be reluctant to spend time on things that are irrelevant to the course content. Furthermore, my account in the teaching journal is also in line with the studies conducted by Pelletier, Séguin-Lévesque and Legault (2002) and Roth et al. (2007:771) in which they suggest that the contextual restrictions teachers receive from the higher authorities are negatively related to their autonomous motivation and well-being.

Another possible reason which causes the behavioural differences between ordinary school teachers and private English institute teachers may be the *microcontextual influences* on teachers' identity goals. In the ordinary schools in Taiwan, teachers have the power to decide whether a student passes or fails the course and their possible teacher selves are usually those who have authority and expertise in the classroom. However, the private language institutes are more like businesses and the students have the power to decide whether or not they want to continue the courses. Other than maintaining expertise in the classroom, teachers of the private institutes also have to find ways to motivate students to stay in the courses. Their possible teacher selves are teachers who are liked and valued by the learners. This may be one of the reasons why they are usually more lively, humorous and approachable than teachers from ordinary schools.

### 5.1.4 Modifications Made to the Framework

   The findings of the present study confirm my assumption in the motivational framework (see Figure 2.1), in which I speculated that the development of teacher motivation is related to two clusters of factors—*individual factors* and *contextual factors*. The data reveal that among the various individual factors discussed in 2.2.1.1, teachers' *self-efficacy* and *expectations* concerning learners' learning potentials are especially relevant to Peggy's and my teaching motivation. In an attempt to make the subcomponents of the motivational framework more specific, the cluster of *individual factors* is further specified. The modifications made to the framework are shown as below (see Figure 5.1).



**Teacher Motivation**
- Individual Factors
- Contextual Factors

➡

**Teacher Motivation**
- Self Concept
- Expectations
- Contextual Factors
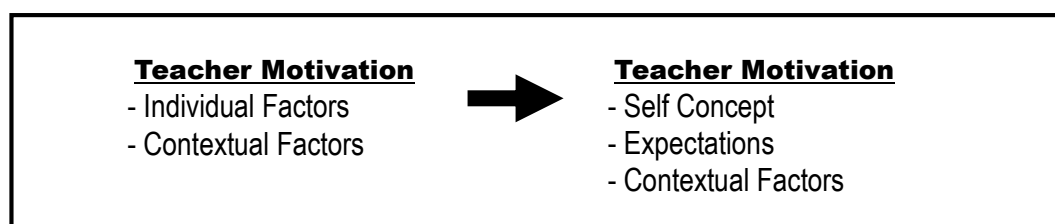
**Figure 5.1 Modifications Made to Teacher Motivation**

In Figure 5.1, the subcomponent related to *self-efficacy* is termed *self concept* instead because during the analysis, I found that the self-efficacy beliefs of Peggy and me were largely influenced by our language teacher selves. Thus, I incorporated the theory of *self system* (Dörnyei 2009 and Kubanyiova 2009) with *self-efficacy* and merged them into a more general category—*self concept*. It is worth mentioning that the result of the study does not suggest that other individual factors like the intrinsic components of teacher motivation are irrelevant to the construction of teacher motivation. Some other individual factors are not included in the framework because they do not appear to be major factors influencing the teaching motivation of the teachers in the present study. Further research may be

needed to see if the result of the study may apply to other teachers with different background or in different contexts.

## 5.2 Research Question 2: How does a teacher's in-class behaviour influence learner motivation?

In 5.1, I discussed how teacher motivation influences teachers' in-class behaviours. In this section, attention will be drawn to how teacher behaviours subsequently influence learner motivation. Various teacher behaviours, such as teachers' observed personal traits, immediacy, classroom management, task choices and material choices will be discussed to illustrate their relationships with learner motivation. At the end of the section, I will conclude with the modifications made to the original motivational framework as well as the reasons for the changes.

### 5.2.1 Observed Personal Traits

In the present study, *observed personal traits* mainly refer to the personal characteristics that a teacher shows in the classroom such as observed enthusiasm, observed commitment, observed competence and physical attractiveness. The result of the pre-course questionnaires indicates that the target learners considered teachers' observed personal traits to be influential to their learning motivation (see 4.1.3.1). Among the various observed personal traits of teachers, the learners indicated that teachers' *observed competence* and *observed commitment* were especially crucial in increasing their learning motivation.

In the present study, a teacher's *competence* is defined as a teacher's knowledge of the subject matter as well as his or her ability to teach in a way that is valuable to learners. Data revealed that the target learners considered teachers

who have sufficient knowledge of the subject to increase their learning motivation. The results of the post-course questionnaires, learner interviews and learner reflective diaries show that the observed competence of teachers may influence the value learners attach to the teacher, their affect for the teacher as well as their attitudes toward the course tasks (see 4.1.3.2). The result is in line with Banfield, Richmond and McCroskey's (2006) study in which they claim that incompetent teachers may negatively impact learners' affect for the teacher and decrease their motivation to take a class with the teacher. The result also supports my assumption in 2.2.2.1 in which I speculated that teachers' observed competence may be a factor that is especially influential to learner motivation in the educational context of Taiwan. Since in Taiwan, teachers are typically considered to be the ultimate source of knowledge in the classroom and most language classes are teacher-centred, a teacher's knowledge about the subject may substantially determine the value Taiwanese learners attach to the teacher and to the course.

Other than knowledge of the subject, a teacher's ability to teach in a way that is of value to learners is also considered the *competence* of the teacher (Knight 2006). The result of the pre-course questionnaires reveals that the target learners considered teachers who can practically combine English with their daily lives to be especially motivating (see 4.1.3.1). The learners' accounts in the post-course questionnaire, learner interviews and learner reflective diaries also show that they had positive attitudes toward teachers who were practicality-oriented (see 4.1.3.2) because such teachers helped them to attach more instrumental value to English learning.

Nevertheless, the result does not indicate that practical teachers are necessarily competent teachers. One possible reason for the target learners'

positive attitudes toward practicality-oriented teachers may be because most of them started to learn English for instrumental reasons when they entered university (see 4.1.2). Thus, they valued practical teachers more because such teachers met their needs in English learning. However, in the context of high schools, learners may judge a teacher's competence differently. For example, in the learner interviews, two learners talked about good English teachers they have met:

> 'At first, I did not like him but later I realized that if I memorize things he taught us in class, I will be able to get high scores in exams. […] This motivates me to study.'
> *SB38, learner interviews, translated*

> 'After teaching the textbook, my cram school teacher would give us lots of articles to read as homework. He let us do a lot of reading practices. He can explain things very clearly. He can make me understand things that my junior high school teachers cannot explain clearly in class. '
> *SB07, learner interviews, translated*

SB38 and SB07 are referring to teachers they had in high schools. Their accounts indicate that they considered these teachers to be competent teachers not because they were practical. Rather, it was because they were exam-oriented. Since the primary goals for language learners in Taiwanese high schools are to obtain good exam results in the college entrance exams, teachers who can help them to do well in exams may be more valuable and motivating to learners. This shows that teachers' observed competence in teaching may influence learner motivation and, at the same time, learners' learning goals may also influence they way they evaluate teacher competence. Thus, competent teachers are not those who are especially practical or exam-oriented. Competent teachers should be those who understand the needs of learners and build learners' goals into their curriculum to meet the needs of learners. As Dörnyei (2001a) indicates, making learning

relevant for learners is one of the strategies teachers can use to generate learning motivation.

Other than *observed competence*, teachers' *observed commitment* in teaching is another personal trait that the learners considered crucial in influencing their motivation. The results of the post-course questionnaires, learner interviews and learner reflective diaries demonstrate that committed teachers increase learners' learning motivation and prompt them to make more effort in learning such as paying attention to the lectures and making notes (see 4.1.3.2). This is in line with the study conducted by Carbonneau et al. (2008) in which they claim that passionate teachers may foster learners' adaptive behaviours such as cooperation and enthusiasm. The result of the present study reveals that a teacher's teaching attitude serves as a *model* in class which sets an example for learners about their learning attitudes (see 4.1.3.2). Dörnyei (2001a) claims that since teachers play the role of group leaders in class, their classroom behaviours may substantially determine the class spirit. This possibly explains why in the present study, the learners claimed that committed teachers may prompt them to become committed learners. Dörnyei (2001c) refers to this as *modelling*, which is considered to be a type of teacher behaviour that may socialise learner motivation.

### 5.2.2 Immediacy

According to the definition of Mehrabian (1972:31), the immediacy behaviour is a type of communicative behaviour which shortens the perceived distance between the communicator and the addressee. In the present study, teachers' in-class behaviours such as showing positive attitudes toward learners, having good interaction with learners, caring about learners' needs, maintaining a relaxing, amusing in-class atmosphere and adopting a vivid teaching style are all

considered to be behaviours that increase the psychological closeness between teachers and learners. In the pre-course questionnaires, five out of six five-point-Likert-scale items probing learners' opinions about the influences of teacher immediacy on their motivation receive relatively high mean scores (>4.1) and the one that is below 4.1 also has a mean score of 3.7 which is well above the neutral score (see 4.1.3.1). This indicates that the learners considered teachers' immediacy behaviours to be one of the most influential factors in the development of their learning motivation. The result of the pre-course questionnaires is supported by the learner interviews and learner reflective diaries in which the learners claimed that teachers' immediacy behaviours were beneficial in generating and maintaining their motivation in learning (see 4.1.3.3). Earlier studies investigating the relationship between teacher immediacy and learner motivation also concluded with the same result with the present study (Allen, Witt and Wheeless 2006; McCroskey, Richmond and Bennett 2006; Pogue and AhYun 2006).

Findings of the present study indicate that teachers' immediacy behaviours are associated with learners' affect for the teachers and the intrinsic values learners attach to the course. In 4.1.3.3, the target learners claimed that caring and approachable teachers prompted them to generate positive affect for the teachers. They also claimed that teachers who were keen on interacting with them and who use a lively, funny way to teach may make learning more interesting and fun to them. These results correspond to the study of McCroskey, Richmond and Bennett (2006) in which they claim that teachers' immediacy behaviours may influence learners' affect for teachers and for the course content. Moreover, the data of the present study further reveal that teachers' immediacy behaviours are closely related to learners' perceptions of the commitment of teachers. According to the

learners' accounts in the learner interviews, the learners considered teachers who cared about their needs to be committed teachers while those who kept reading the textbooks without having much interaction with them in class were seen as passionless teachers.

As to the classroom motivation cycle, which is one of the principal concepts underlying the proposed motivational framework, findings suggest that teachers' lack of immediacy behaviours will indirectly result in a negative motivation cycle in the classroom (see 4.1.3.3). The learners' accounts in the learner interviews reveal that teachers who are distant may lower their willingness to communicate with the teachers. This lack of communication will be especially harmful for the development of learner motivation when teachers and learners have different perceptions about what is meaningful or interesting in learning English. For example, without good teacher-pupil communication, a teacher may attribute learners' bad learning attitudes in class to their lack of motivation in learning English without knowing that these learners are de-motivated in class because the teacher has been using tasks or materials that are considered to be useless and boring to them. Thus, in an attempt to make learning relevant and motivating to learners, and to circulate a positive motivation cycle in the classroom, good teacher-pupil communication is crucial in the classroom and the present study suggests that teacher immediacy fosters such communication. More discussions about how communication between teachers and learners circulates positive motivation cycles in the classroom will be elaborated further in 5.5, where the use of EP in increasing the opportunities of teacher-pupil communication will be discussed.

### 5.2.3 Classroom Management

In the present study, teachers' classroom management behaviour mainly refers to teachers' authority types and their ability to establish and regulate group norms (Dörnyei 2001c:36). The result of the pre-course questionnaires reveals that the learners considered teachers' classroom management to be influential in developing their learning motivation (see 4.1.3.1). Findings demonstrate that, among the various classroom management behaviours of teachers, the learners considered teachers' equity in the classroom to be the most influential behaviour on their motivation (mean score=4.2) and learners' opinions toward the influence of teachers' controlling behaviours on their motivation are the most different (standard deviation=1).

In terms of teachers' equity in the classroom, the result of the pre-course questionnaires is verified in the learner interviews in which the learners claimed that teachers who treated students differently may influence their learning motivation as well as their affect for the teachers (see 4.1.3.4). To take SA13 for example, his teacher's low expectations of him had led this teacher to treat him differently in class, such as seating him at the back of the classroom and humiliating him in class. This negative treatment prompted SA13 to have negative feelings toward the teacher and de-motivated him in learning English. SA13's example not only demonstrates how teachers' equity influences learner motivation but also shows how teachers' expectations may influence teachers' classroom behaviours, which corresponds to the discussion in 5.1.2. Researchers indicate that teachers' inequity may not only influence the individual motivation of those who have been treated differently but also influence the development of group motivation. Dörnyei and Malderez (1997:77) suggest that it is crucial for teachers to value every member equally because teachers' non-judgemental attitudes

toward learners may facilitate group development and foster better intermember relations. A well-developed group may in turn generate a pleasant environment which makes learning satisfying and motivating for both teachers and learners (Dörnyei and Murphey 2003:3).

As to teachers' authority types, which refer to whether a teacher is autonomy-supportive or controlling, the result of the pre-course questionnaires show that the learners seemed to have fairly different opinions toward the degree of control they received from teachers. To look at the data collected from the open-ended questions in the post-course questionnaires, among the 23 respondents who talked about the degree of control they received from the teachers or schools, 61% valued the decreased control from the learning environment positively; while 30% valued it negatively (see 4.1.1). Findings of the post-course questionnaires and learner interviews reveal that those who gave positive values toward an autonomy-supportive learning environment tended to claim that such a learning environment generated their positive emotions and increased their autonomous motivation in learning (see 4.1.4). This finding is in line with many other research studies which also suggest a positive relationship between learners' autonomous motivation and teachers' autonomy-supportive behaviours (Pelletier, Séguin-Lévesque and Legault 2002; Ryan and Deci 2003:263; Roth et al. 2007:768).

Although the number of respondents who showed positive attitudes toward an autonomy-supportive learning environment outnumbers those who showed negative attitudes, there were still 30% of the respondents who consider such an environment to have negative influences on their learning. The results of the post-course questionnaires and learner interviews show that these learners tended to focus on their problems in self-regulating themselves and the decreased

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intensity of learning in the autonomy-supportive learning environment (see 4.1.4). East Asian learners' negative feelings toward autonomy-supportive environments were discussed in the study of Spratt, Humphreys and Chan (2002:251), in which they found Hong Kong students to expect teachers to make decisions for the teaching/learning process and they consider those who manage to hand over the responsibility to learners to be 'lazy' or 'crazy.' Moreover, Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) found that Taiwanese teachers also do not consider their autonomy-supportive behaviours in the classroom to be important in motivating language learners. The results of these studies possibly explain why the target learners show negative attitudes toward autonomy-supportive environments. Since East Asian teachers believe in the effect of controlling teaching styles on learner motivation, they tend to be reluctant to promote learner autonomy in the classroom. This means that ever since the target learners started their elementary education, they have been taught under controlling learning environments and such environments have hindered their development of learner autonomy. Thus, they formed the beliefs that teachers who exercised authority in the classroom were more beneficial for their learning and they found it difficult to regulate themselves when they were given the chance to take charge of their learning.

Ryan and Deci (2003:257) claim that behaviours which rely on external regulations will have less tendency to continue in new situations and future times. Although it may be true that controlling teachers increase the intensity of learning and prompt learners to be more productive at first, such control is harmful for their learning in the long term. Findings of the present study suggest that in order to promote learner autonomy, it is crucial for teachers to show autonomy-supportive behaviours in the classroom and allow learners chances to

take charge of their learning. However, since the controlling teaching styles have long been a tradition in the Taiwanese educational contexts, teachers who hand over the learning responsibility to learners all at once may easily generate learners' negative affect for teachers, as Spratt, Humphreys and Chan (2002:251) found with Hong Kong students. In this case, Littlewood's (1999) suggestion of 'reactive autonomy', in which learners autonomously engage in the agenda set by teachers rather than taking full responsibility for their learning, may be a good starting point for Taiwanese teachers. After learners begin to show initiative, teachers can increasingly hand over more responsibility to learners until they can fully take charge of their learning.

### 5.2.4 Material Choices

In 4.1.5.1, I have presented findings from the post-course questionnaires, learner interviews, learner reflective diaries and post-class reflective writings to demonstrate how teachers' material choices influence learner motivation. Results reveal that, compared to textbooks, the learners attached more intrinsic and instrumental value to authentic materials; and these values may prompt them to engage in language learning autonomously outside the classroom. Other researchers have also stressed the effectiveness of authentic materials in generating learner interests and making learning relevant to learners. Ushioda (1996:44) claims that authentic materials are effective in helping learners to link their life experiences and interests with language learning. Since authentic materials are products of the real world, they help learners to see that language learning could be integrated into their life and thereby make learning meaningful and relevant to learners. Moreover, authentic materials such as songs and movies are part of the popular culture. Cheung (2001) argues that popular culture may

stimulate learners' motivation in learning because it appeals to them.

However, this does not imply that all authentic materials are motivating to learners. Results indicate that 'topic' and 'language difficulty' may also influence learners' attitudes toward authentic materials. In the learner interviews, the target learners claimed that authentic materials with uninteresting topics may also be de-motivating to them while textbooks may sometimes be motivating if the topics are relevant to their life or interests. However, most textbooks tend to cover topics that are less appealing. Dörnyei (2001a) explains that since textbook publishers are usually very careful not to raise controversial topics in their books which might upset certain schools, they tend to choose neutral and sterile topics. On the other hand, authentic materials cover a wider range of topics. Moreover, in the post-class reflective writings and learner interviews, the learners also claimed that certain authentic materials were de-motivating to them because the level of the language had exceeded their ability. Results show that to continuously use materials that are not suitable to the language proficiency of learners may not only decrease their motivation but also influence their self-concept in English learning.

These findings indicate that although authentic materials show their strengths in generating interesting, practical learning, they do not guarantee success in motivating learners. Teachers who are considering incorporating authentic materials in their lessons should be sensitive to the level as well as the interests and needs of learners so as to make authentic materials effective in fostering learner motivation. Other than the selection of authentic materials, the ways that the materials are presented in the classroom are also important issues for teachers to consider. Ushioda (1996:45) indicates that authentic materials are not sufficient in themselves to foster learners' autonomous motivation in learning. The ways the materials are exploited in the classroom may determine their effects

on learners. This indicates that the tasks which go along with the materials also play indispensable roles in the development of learner motivation. This brings us to the last teacher behaviour that is found to be influential to learner motivation in the present study—the task choices of teachers.

### 5.2.5 Task Choices

In 4.1.5.2, the results of the learner interviews, learner reflective diaries and post-class reflective writings reveal how two types of tasks—group discussions and exams— influence learner motivation. Findings show that the target learners attached intrinsic and instrumental values to group discussions and they tended to associate group discussions with positive emotions such as relaxation, happiness and self-confidence. The result is supported by the study conducted by Law (2008:567) with second-graders in Hong Kong, in which the researcher found cooperative learning activities to have a positive effect on learners' learning motivation. As to exams, the target learners' accounts in the interviews indicate that exams may be helpful in generating learner motivation when learners receive good exam outcomes but they are not as effective in sustaining the motivation. By using exams as the dominant task in the classroom, teachers may also run the risk of de-motivating less competent learners (see 4.1.5.2).

Findings of the learner interviews, learner reflective diaries and post-class reflective writings suggest that the target learners' positive feelings toward group discussions mainly arose from the cooperative, participatory atmosphere generated by groupwork. The target learners claimed that completing tasks in groups made learning easy, fun and relaxing. Since the responsibility was shared with other group members, groupwork might generate a cooperative learning

atmosphere which helped to reduce their anxiety and increased their self-confidence in English. This corresponds to the claim of Johnson and Johnson (1991:72) who also indicate that cooperative learning may be beneficial in promoting the psychological health of learners. Furthermore, group discussions give learners opportunities to participate actively in class rather than listening to the lectures passively. The learners claimed that participating in small-group discussions made learning more interesting because they could look for answers by themselves and interacted with other classmates. They also stressed the effect of active participation on their learning. Since they figured out the meaning of texts or answers of comprehension questions on their own, they were more likely to internalize the knowledge and to retain the new information longer. The results of the present study are consistent with the study conducted by Li and Campbell (2008:203) in which they found Asian learners valued group discussions highly because they considered group discussions to fulfil their social needs to make friends and they also believed such classroom tasks to be beneficial to their English learning.

In terms of exams, findings reveal that exams have different effects on different learners. Exams provide competent learners with tangible measures for their progress in English learning and allow learners chances to experience constant achievement during the long-lasting process of learning. According to learners' accounts in the interviews, such achievement served as an incentive to motivate them to make effort in learning. Dörnyei (1994:276) also argues that exams may function as attainable subgoals for language learners which can be used to develop learners' self-efficacy. However, on the other side of the coin, exams seem to be detrimental to the motivation and self-efficacy of less competent learners. Results demonstrate that learners' constant failure on exams

may prompt them to generate negative emotions and negative self-concepts about their English ability. It is interesting to note that some learners claimed that they were motivated in English learning when they received good exam results in junior high schools and lost their motivation while they started to receive bad exam outcomes in senior high schools. This indicates that although exams may serve as a motivator to generate learner motivation and prompt learners to be productive in learning, exams fall short of maintaining the motivation. Csikszentmihalyi (1997:76) also indicates that it is costly to maintain the learning motivation triggered by external rewards and such motivation may easily be extinguished when the rewards are withdrawn from the settings.

The results demonstrate that teachers' selection of tasks may determine the value learners attach to learning as well as their emotions and efficacy beliefs. Tasks that encourage cooperation and participation are beneficial in the development of learner motivation; and the effects of exams on learner motivation depend on how teachers present them in the classroom. In the educational settings of Taiwan, exams are usually the dominant task and the only method of evaluation in the language classrooms. Thus, Taiwanese learners tend to rely heavily on the extrinsic rewards of exam results and this reliance is considered to inhibit learning (Csikszentmihalyi 1997:73). The present study suggests that teachers should treat exams as tasks for learners to mark their progress in learning and incorporate other methods of evaluation which place more emphasis on effort and cooperation rather than ability in the classroom such as learning portfolios or groupwork projects. It is hoped that this may reduce learners' reliance on extrinsic rewards, generate a pleasant learning climate and prompt learners to cultivate their intrinsic motivation in language learning.

*5.2.6 Modifications Made to the Framework*

Results of the present study confirm my speculation in the motivational framework (see Figure 2.1), in which it is believed that teachers' in-class behaviours such as *observed personal traits*, *immediacy* and *classroom management* may substantially influence the development of learner motivation. As the data analysis process proceeded, I realized that teachers' *material* and *task choices* are also important determinants to learners' learning motivation. Thus, I have further incorporated these two elements in the cluster of 'teachers' in-class behaviours'. The modifications made to the framework are shown as below (see Figure 5.2).



**Teachers' In-Class Behaviours**
- Observed Personal Traits
- Immediacy
- Classroom Management

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**Teachers' In-Class Behaviours**
- Observed Personal Traits
- Immediacy
- Classroom Management
- Material Choices
- Task Choices
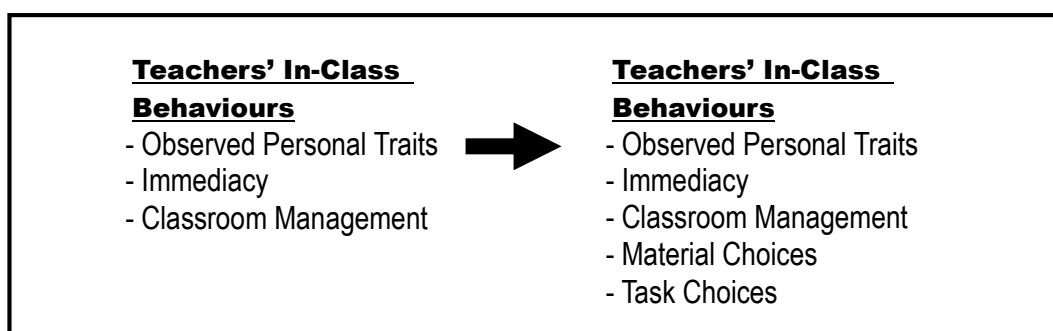
**Figure 5.2 Modifications Made to Teacher Behaviours**

## 5.3 Research Question 3: How does learner motivation influence a learner's in-class behaviour?

In the previous section, I discussed how different teacher behaviours may influence different components of learner motivation such as learners' self-efficacy in English learning and the values they attach to the teachers, the tasks and the materials. In order to answer the research question, in this section, attention will be drawn to the components that construct learner motivation and their effects on learners' in-class behaviours. Then, the section will end with discussion of modifications made to the original motivational framework and the

reasons for the changes.

### 5.3.1 Regulatory Styles

In the present study, there is no direct evidence to show how learners'
regulatory styles influence their in-class behaviours. However, findings presented
in 4.1.3.2 and 4.1.4 suggest that learners' regulatory styles may determine the way
they value a teacher's in-class behaviours and these values may in turn influence
the ways they behave in the classroom. In 4.1.3.2, findings from the learner
interviews and learner reflective diaries demonstrate how the target learners
valued practical teachers because most of them learn English for practical reasons
and this also prompted them to generate negative feelings toward teachers who
failed to combine English learning with their daily lives. Moreover, in 4.1.4,
learners' accounts from the post-course questionnaires and interviews show that
although 61% of the learners valued the autonomy-supportive learning
environment of university education, there were still 30% of the target learners
who showed negative attitudes toward such a learning environment and claimed
to engage less in English learning ever since they started their university studies.
Part of the reason is because these learners were still fairly externally regulated
and they valued controlling teachers more than autonomy-supportive teachers.
The above findings suggest that teachers' in-class behaviours, practical or
exam-oriented, or autonomy-supportive or controlled, may influence different
learners differently depending on their regulatory styles. This corresponds to my
discussion in 5.2.1 and 5.2.3 in which I argued that competent teachers are those
who can make learning relevant to learners and teachers should promote learner
autonomy in ways that are suitable to the educational contexts. Without
understanding the learning preferences of learners, teachers may easily generate

learners' negative attitudes toward English learning and prompt them to be reluctant to engage in learning as suggested by the present study and Spratt, Humphreys and Chan's study (2002:251) in Hong Kong.

Moreover, the result of the present study also reveals that there was a transition in learners' regulatory styles from the point at which the target learners entered the university (see 4.1.2). The data show that the majority of the target learners' English learning shifted from externally regulated to identified regulated motivation from high school to university where they started to value English learning and learned to be responsible for their learning. To look at the learners' accounts in the learner interviews more closely (see 4.1.2), two reasons can be suggested for the transitions—*internal* and *external influences*. In terms of *internal influences*, although the education system of Taiwan only requires Taiwanese citizens to have 12 years of education (i.e. until senior high school), the social standard considers university education to be compulsory. It is very likely that, *internally*, the target learners change their attitudes toward learning English because they consider university education to be the last stage of their 'compulsory education.' After university, they will have to be responsible for their decisions, either furthering their studies or working. Since they were aware of the importance of English in higher education and careers, they considered it crucial for them to self-regulate their English learning behaviours and enhance their English abilities in university so as to prepare themselves for their future. On the other hand, *externally*, learners may change their attitudes because they sense a transition in class goals from high school to university. Some of the learners claimed that they felt that the goal of high school learning is about exams while the goal of university learning is about the practical uses of English (see 4.1.2). The change of class goal may somehow influence them to attach more practical

values to the course and prompt them to learn English for instrumental reasons. These *internal* and *external influences* correspond to the underlying philosophy of the present study which stresses the interplay between internal and external factors.

Either because of *internal* or *external reasons*, learners' accounts in the post-course questionnaires (see Table 4.1), pre-course questionnaires and interviews (see 4.1.2) suggest that, as learners enter university, they may start to undergo an attitudinal change and a transition in regulatory styles. They may come to value learning English for instrumental reasons and learn to 'internalize' the regulation of their English learning behaviours. The finding corresponds to the claim of Shoaib and Dörnyei (2005:31-35) who indicate that L2 motivation is a dynamic process and there are *motivational transformation episodes* under which learners may change their learning orientations. They find that when learners move into a new life phase such as entering university or starting to work, their learning orientations may become more specific and focused; or when people become older, they may also mature and gradually gain interests in L2 learning. This possibly explains why the target learners started to attach instrumental values to English learning and learned to take control of their learning as they started their university studies.

### 5.3.2 Value

In 4.2.5, I have compared the results of the post-class reflective writings and my teaching journals to demonstrate that the values learners attach to the English courses, including the teachers, tasks, materials, etc., may positively influence the motivational behaviours they show in the classroom. In the learner reflective diaries and learner interviews, we can also find this relationship

between learner motivation and their motivational behaviours:

> 'I *through* the English textbook "Reading Keys" is so easy, so I distracted easily in Thursday's English lectures.'
> *SA30, learner reflective diaries, original*

> 'SA07 is very earnest. He always looks up new words in the textbook before class. However, he skipped one of your English classes when you were using CNN news. He said that if CNN news is the learning material, he won't want to come to class because it is too difficult.'
> *SA12, learner interviews, translated*

To SA30 and SA07, they attach low value to certain learning materials because such materials were either too easy or too difficult to them and these in turn influence their in-class behaviours such as concentration and attendance. The finding of the present study is in line with the study of Tremblay and Gardner (1995) and Tabachnick, Miller and Relyea (2008) in which they also found learners who attach high values to language learning may demonstrate more motivational behaviours.

However, these results seem to be conflicting with my research journal where I noted that learners' real motivation level is different from their motivational behaviours I observed in the classroom (see 4.2.5). One possible reason for the difference is because in the teaching journals I was comparing learners' perceptions about their perceived motivation and my perceptions about learners' observed motivational behaviours. However, in the study of Tremblay and Gardner (1995), Tabachnick, Miller and Relyea (2008) and in the learner reflective diaries and interviews of the present study, the sources of the data mainly come from learners' self-reports, which means that learners' stated motivation and their motivational behaviours were both reported by learners. The conflicting result of my teaching journal indicates that while learner motivation

may lead to more motivational behaviours, these behaviours are not always observable by teachers.

As to the comparison of the post-class reflective writings and the teaching journals, the rankings of learners' stated motivation seems to correspond to that of their observed motivation (see Table 5.1). However, if we compare the scores of Group A and Group B, we may find very different results. To take March 7[th] and March 6[th] for examples, the lesson procedures in Group A and Group B were almost the same and the learners from Group A (=0.76) and Group B (=0.73) seemed to have very similar motivation level on these days according to the learners' perceptions. However, to look at their observed motivation in my teaching journals, I considered Group B (=4.5) to be much more motivated than Group A (=3.83).

| Date | Group | Post-class Reflective Writings | | | | | Teaching Journals | |
| | | Number | Positive (= 1) | Negative (= -1) | Score* | Rank | Motivation | Rank |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2/27 | A | 50 | 44 | 20 | 0.48 | 2 | 3.5 | 2 |
| 3/07 | | 49 | 44 | 7 | 0.76 | 1 | 3.83 | 1 |
| 2/26 | B | 45 | 39 | 13 | 0.58 | 2 | 4 | 2 |
| 3/06 | | 48 | 41 | 6 | 0.73 | 1 | 4.5 | 1 |
| 3/25 | | 44 | 28 | 9 | 0.43 | 3 | 2.75 | 3 |

**Table 5.1 A Comparison Between Learners' Stated and Observed Motivation**
* Score= (positive + negative) ÷ number

This indicates that different learners may show different motivational behaviours in class. From learners' observed motivational behaviours, teachers can judge if learners are more motivated or less motivated compared to other days but their judgement about different learners' motivation may not always be accurate. What I have written in the teaching journals about Group A students may be able to explain why Group A seemed to look less motivated than Group B:

'Even when I say something funny, only a few laugh. This class has been like this since last term. They tend to be shy to talk in class.'
*Feb 20<sup>th</sup>, teaching journals, original*

'This class is still extremely shy. They're so quiet when I walked in the classroom.'
*Feb 22<sup>nd</sup>, teaching journals, original*

My teaching journals indicate that Group A was a fairly shy group and they tend to quietly participate rather than verbally engage in class. This possibly explains why, from my perceptions, Group A learners tended to look less motivated.

After comparing the results of the present study and earlier studies, it can be concluded that while learners' perceptions of the value of English learning may influence their motivational behaviours, these motivational behaviours are different from learner to learner. Some learners' motivational behaviours may be less evident than others.

### 5.3.3 Self-efficacy

In 4.1.5.2, I have presented findings from the learner interviews to demonstrate how teachers' task choices may influence learners' self-efficacy in learning and subsequently influence learners' learning behaviours such as engagement and effort expenditure. In 4.2.5, results of the learner reflective diaries also reveal that learners' self-efficacy may determine their engagement in classroom activities. The results of the present study are consistent with the study conducted by Patrick, Ryan and Kaplan (2007) in which they concluded that learners' academic efficacy may facilitate their engagement in learning. However, as discussed earlier, learners' engagement in the classroom can be attributed to a variety of reasons such as the values they attach to English learning, their self-efficacy, their attitudes toward the teachers or even the learning environments.

Thus, in an attempt to increase learners' learning motivation, it is crucial for teachers to generate deeper understanding about the reasons behind learners' in-class behaviours. In 5.5, I will discuss how to use Exploratory Practice to assist teachers' understanding of learner motivation and how this understanding helps to promote a positive motivation cycle in the classroom.

### 5.3.4 Modifications Made to the Framework

Findings of the present study reveal that learner motivation does not necessarily lead to more observable motivational behaviours, which is different from my earlier expectation in chapter two. Data reveal that other personal reasons may also influence learners' motivational behaviours in class such as shyness. Findings suggest that some learners may be motivated in learning but they may show little motivational behaviour in the classroom due to personal reasons. Teachers cannot judge learner motivation solely from their in-class behaviours because certain motivational behaviours are not observable nor are the reasons behind de-motivated behaviours. Furthermore, the present study also shows that learners' motivational behaviours very much depend on the relationship between learners' regulatory styles and teachers' in-class behaviours. Results indicate that when teachers teach in ways that fit learners' regulatory styles, learners will show more motivational behaviours in class. This raises our awareness to the fact that learners do not enter the classroom like a piece of blank paper. They bring along with them their original motivation disposition, self-efficacy and attitudes toward English learning which are developed through their past learning experiences and construct their motivation according to their interpretation about the classroom situations. This implies that the same teacher behaviours may have different influences on different learners. Therefore, results

of the present study suggest that teachers' understanding about learners must precede any attempt teachers make on the development of learner motivation.

## 5.4 Research Question 4: How does learners' in-class behaviour influence teacher motivation?

In 5.3, I discussed how learner motivation influences learners' in-class behaviours. In this section, attention will be drawn to how learner behaviours subsequently influence teacher motivation. Various learner behaviours, such as engagement, discipline, immediacy, feedback and achievement will be discussed to illustrate their relationships with teacher motivation. At the end of the section, I will conclude with the modifications made to the original motivational framework as well as the reasons for the changes.

### 5.4.1 Engagement

In 4.2.4, findings from the teacher interviews and my teaching journals reveal that learners' engaging behaviours in the classroom such as paying attention to lectures, making notes or actively participating in classroom tasks may substantially influence teachers' emotions in the classroom as well as their attitudes toward learners. Meyer and Turner (2006) indicate that motivation and emotion should be considered as integrated and simultaneous. Furthermore, learners constitute the immediate teaching environment and thereby teachers' attitudes toward learners may influence teachers' attitudes toward teaching. Thus, the findings in 4.2.4 support my earlier assumption that learners' in-class engagement may substantially influence teacher motivation.

Data also reveal that teachers tend to associate learners' engaging behaviours with learners' learning motivation and teachers' perceptions about

learner motivation may determine the ways they treat learners in the classroom. The results depict the relationships among learner behaviours, teacher motivation and teacher behaviours. They suggest that learners' in-class engagement may influence teachers' beliefs about learner motivation and these beliefs or expectations in turn prompt teachers to provide learners with more learning opportunities. The relationship between learner behaviours and teacher behaviours was also discussed in the studies of Skinner and Belmont (1993) and Pelletier, Séguin-Lévesque and Legault (2002), in which they found learners' self-determined or engaging behaviours may elicit positive teacher behaviours such as autonomy support or involvement.

However, in 5.3.2, I discussed how learners' observed motivational behaviours in the classroom may sometimes be different from their real motivation level. Especially in the educational context of Asia, learners tend to be shyer and less willing to engage overtly in the classroom. This means Asian learners usually look less motivated in class than they really are and, according to the results of the present study, may consequently receive less positive teacher behaviours. Thus, the results of the present study suggest that while learner de-motivation has been considered as a major problem in the English learning classrooms in Taiwan, it is worthwhile for Taiwanese teachers to reconsider their judgement about learner motivation and raise their awareness to the characteristics of Asian learners as well as the effects of their in-class behaviours on learner motivation.

### 5.4.2 Discipline

It may be argued that learners' engagement and discipline go hand in hand because under most circumstances, misbehaving learners are usually who do

not engage in class. However, in the present study, I intend to separate these two constructs because learners who actively engage in class are not necessarily learners who demonstrate discipline in class. This distinction is evident in the study of over-communicative students, in which learners who talk about class materials excessively in class may also be considered as misbehaving because they may disrupt other students' rights to learn (McPherson and Liang 2007:18). According to the definition of Türnüklü and Galton (2001:291), learners' misbehaviours can generally be defined as 'any behaviour that threatens the flow of academic performance in a particular context.' This also indicates that the definition of learner misbehaviours is fairly context-bound. It depends on the interpretations of the teachers as well as the culture of the class, the school or the nation. The context-bound nature of learner misbehaviours is also found in the present study. In 5.1.1, findings from my research journals show how certain learner behaviours such as moving around the classroom or talking nonsense with the teacher were considered to be acceptable for Peggy while I considered them to be disruptive. Moreover, Peggy's post-course interview also shows that even the same teacher may have different interpretations about learner misbehaviours in different contexts:

> 'Of course I will be stricter with day-time students than with evening students. It's impossible for to me tolerate day-time students to be late for 30 minutes without marking their absence but I can tolerate evening students to be late for 30 minutes.'
> *The post-course teacher interview, translated*

Findings of the present study reveal that learners' misbehaviours are closely related to teachers' in-class emotions and self-efficacy (see 4.2.6). In terms of emotions, data reveal that the misbehaviours of learners may generate teachers' negative emotions even when the number of misbehaving students is small or

even when most learners are engaged in class. This corresponds to the claim of Charles and Senter (2005:159) who indicate that students' misbehaviours in class may generate a fearful and stressful classroom climate for teachers. Data also show that the negative emotions generated by learners' misbehaviours may subsequently lead to teachers' negative behaviours such as fewer teacher-pupil interactions, poor quality of lecture or impatience. As to teachers' self-efficacy, results of the present study demonstrate that learners' misbehaviours may lower teachers' self-efficacy in teaching. This is in line with the study of Pelletier, Séguin-Lévesque and Legault (2002:194) who indicate that learners who lack motivation in learning may make teachers feel incompetent. Charles and Senter (2005:159) also indicate that learners' disruptive behaviours may produce teacher frustration. Tollefson (2000:79) indicates that in an attempt to protect teacher efficacy, teachers may lower their expectations of uninterested learners and the effort they invest on these learners because it is more comforting to attribute learners' failure to learners' own problems rather than the teacher's teaching abilities. The results discussed above imply that teachers' classroom management skills are crucial in promoting a positive cycle of classroom motivation. If teachers fail to maintain the norms of the class and manage misbehaving students, these learners' disrupted behaviours may be detrimental to their emotions and self-efficacy, which leads to teachers' negative in-class behaviours. As a result, these negative behaviours may continuously de-motivate more learners and decrease the number of engaging or well-behaving learners in class, which then negatively influences teachers' emotions and self-efficacy.

### 5.4.3 Immediacy

Findings from previous research (Allen, Witt and Wheeless 2006;

McCroskey, Richmond and Bennett 2006; Pogue and AhYun 2006) and my earlier discussion in 5.2.2 have demonstrated that teachers' immediacy behaviours are beneficial in generating and maintaining learner motivation. Interestingly, after analysing the data collected from the teacher interviews and my teaching journals, I found that learner immediacy such as having out-of-class conversations with teachers, caring about teachers, laughing and joking with teachers may play a part in the development of teacher motivation in the same way. In 4.2.7, findings show that learner immediacy may promote better teacher-pupil relationships and positively influence teachers' in-class emotions. Especially in the face of classroom crises, learners' immediacy behaviours may help teachers to lower anxiety and maintain positive emotions.

Deci and Ryan (1985) suggest that people have the need for relatedness. They must feel that they are close to and related to other people. This possibly explains why Peggy and I both claimed to have positive feelings when learners showed immediacy behaviours in the classroom. Such behaviours shortened the distance between learners and us and filled our fundamental needs for relatedness. On the other hand, findings also show that when the needs are not satisfied, negative feelings may easily be generated (see 4.2.7). In Peggy's interviews and my teaching journals, we both claimed to feel anxious or depressed when our learners were cold or distant. This is in line with the claim of Walker and Symon (1997.:15), who indicate that teachers may feel anxious when they believe they cannot make favourable impressions on learners. They further suggest that since the professional life of teachers is mostly spent in front of learners, it is crucial for researchers to consider the effects of learners when investigating teacher motivation.

It is interesting to note that findings of the present study also show that

immediacy behaviours are infectious between teachers and learners. Teachers who show more immediacy behaviours are more likely to receive more immediacy behaviours from learners, while distant teachers may decrease learners' attempts to approach the teachers. In SB08's learner interview, he talked about how the teacher-pupil distance influence learners' immediacy behaviours in class:

> 'There's practically no distance between you and us. You see how the students joke with you. […] I think this is good because students will tell you any problems they have. Unlike our technology English teacher, he is so distant with us so we won't tell him anything.'
> *SB08, learner interviews, translated*

SB08's account implies that learners' immediacy behaviours are closely related to the immediacy behaviours of teachers. This corresponds to the underlying belief of the proposed motivational framework in the present study, in which it is believed that teacher behaviours and learner behaviours may have reciprocal influences on each other.

### 5.4.4 Feedback

In 2.2.4.2, I have drawn on literatures from the realm of behaviouristic, cognitive and affective psychology to show how feedback concerning a person's performance on an activity may influence the person's motivation in performing the activity (Becker 1978; Locke and Latham 1990; Williams and Burden 1997). Thus, I speculated that learners' evaluation about teachers' teaching performances may play a part in the development of teacher motivation. Results of the present study bore out my speculation. Findings from the teacher interviews and teaching journals reveal that learners' feedback may directly or indirectly influence teacher motivation (see 4.2.1 and 4.2.8.1).

Results indicate that learners' positive feedback may directly influence

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teacher motivation by making teaching rewarding, giving teachers a sense of achievement and increasing teachers' self-efficacy in teaching. The results are consistent with the claim of Locke and Latham (1990), who indicate that feedback may give people chances to experience success and influence people's efficacy beliefs in performing the activity. As to negative feedback, although findings show that such feedback may generate teachers' negative emotions such as frustration and depression which are detrimental to the maintenance of motivation, in the long term, negative feedback from learners may prevent the negative cycles of classroom motivation from circulating. In the negative cycle, teachers' de-motivating behaviours lead to decreased learner motivation which in turn decrease teachers' motivation in teaching and result in more de-motivating teacher behaviours. Negative feedback increases teachers' understanding about the reasons behind learners' de-motivation in the classroom and helps teachers to modify the lesson procedures according to the preference of learners. In 4.1.3.3, I have presented findings from the learner interviews to demonstrate how the target learners' fear of giving negative feedback to a teacher resulted in a de-motivating learning environment which continuously decreased the learners' motivation in learning.

However, it is worth mentioning that not all feedback is effective in the development of teacher motivation. Walker and Symons (1997:8) suggest that effective feedback has to be 'specific, un-ambiguous and *continuous*.' As mentioned in 2.2.4.2, in the educational context of Taiwan, learners usually give teachers feedback using standardized questionnaires provided by schools which include a list of Likert-scale questions. The questions in the questionnaires are usually fairly general and learner feedback is provided to teachers in the form of numbers. This means that teachers will only know learners are generally satisfied

or dissatisfied with the course without knowing what exactly goes right or wrong in the classroom. In this case, negative feedback may be detrimental rather than constructive to teacher motivation because it generates teachers' negative emotions without providing teachers with ways to ameliorate learners' de-motivation. Teachers and learners may attribute learners' de-motivation differently and, as findings in 4.2.8.1 show, misunderstandings between teachers and learners may easily occur. These misunderstandings may in turn prompt the negative cycle of classroom motivation to circulate and have a negative impact on teacher-pupil relationships.

### 5.4.5 Achievement

In the motivational framework proposed in chapter two (see Figure 2.1), it is suggested that learners' academic achievement may substantially influence teacher motivation. In 2.2.4.3, I have drawn on research to show how learner achievement may play a part in teachers' expectations toward learners and teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. However, results of the present study indicate that while learner achievement may determine teachers' expectations toward learners, there is no evidence showing that it may influence teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in teaching.

In terms of teachers' expectations, I have presented results from the teacher interviews in 4.2.2 to show how Peggy expected evening students to be less competent and less motivated than daytime students and this expectation in turn influenced the way she treated evening students. Since in the educational system of Taiwan, daytime programmes usually require higher scores of the university entrance exam than evening programmes, it can be assumed that Peggy's low expectations toward evening students were influenced by the

students' lower achievement outcomes in the university entrance exam. This is in line with the indications of Good and Brophy (1984:110) who claim that learners' previous learning achievement may influence teachers' expectations toward them. In the experiments conducted by Rosenthal and Jacobson (1992:vii,160), results also found that the teachers' expectations toward the target learners were influenced by these learners' achievements in the intelligence tests.

As to teachers' self-efficacy, there is no evidence indicating the relationships between learners' achievement and teachers' self-efficacy. Data collected from Peggy's interview and my teaching journals suggest that teachers seem to care about learners' learning attitudes more than their achievement:

Me:         'How do you judge if this is a good class or bad class?'
Peggy:    'I will look at their learning attitudes.'
Me:         'What if the learners have good learning attitudes but poor academic achievement?'
Peggy:    'I will forgive them. I will not fail them for this reason. However, if they have poor academic achievement and their learning attitudes are also bad. That's the end of the conversation.'
*The pre-course teacher interview, translated*

'The result of their listening test is not as good as Group B but they make me happy because they LISTEN!!'
*April 9^{th}, teaching journals, original*

The accounts from Peggy and me suggest that learners' engagement and discipline seem to influence teacher motivation more than their academic achievement does. From the above examples, we can see that both of us considered learners' poor academic achievement to be acceptable as long as they show good learning attitudes in the classroom. This is possibly influenced by the Confucian culture in the educational context of Taiwan which emphasizes effort in learning. Tollefson (2000) also indicates that how teachers attribute learners' poor achievement outcomes determine how they treat and feel about the learners. Learners who are

unsuccessful in learning due to their low ability tend to receive more help and sympathy from teachers while those who perform poorly in school because of their lack of effort will make teachers feel angry and unwilling to provide help.

However, it is worth noting that the results may be different if the research context is situated in high schools where the classroom goal structure is more performance-oriented. The goal structure of university education is more mastery-oriented which places more emphasis on the intrinsic value of learning rather than the outcome of learning. Thus, learners' academic achievement is not as important as their attitudes toward English learning. Furthermore, university teachers usually do not have to be responsible for learners' learning outcomes. Even though some universities may ask teachers to prepare learners for certain language proficiency tests such as IELTS or TOEFL, learners rather than teachers have to be responsible for the exam results. On the other hand, high school teachers are usually required to help learners to perform to specific standards and teachers are usually evaluated by schools in terms of learners' academic performance. In this case, high school teachers may have more pressure related to learners' achievement because learners' academic performances are associated with their teaching ability. Although the results of the present study indicate that learners' achievement does not seem to influence college teachers' self-efficacy or emotions, its effect on high school teachers may need to be investigated further.

### 5.4.6 Modifications Made to the Framework

Results of the present study support my speculation in the motivational framework (see Figure 2.1) that learners' in-class behaviours such as *engagement*, *feedback* and *achievement* may play a part in the development of teacher motivation. However, in chapter two, it was suggested that learner *achievement*

may influence both teachers' expectations toward learners and teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. Different from this expectation, data reveal that while learners' academic performances may influence college teachers' expectations about the learning potential of learners, their effects on college teachers' self-efficacy are not found in the present study. Further research may be needed to see if the results may also apply to high school teachers.

As the data analysis process proceeded, I also found that learners' *discipline* and *immediacy* are influential to teacher motivation, especially to teachers' in-class emotions and self-efficacy. Thus, I further incorporate these two elements in the cluster of 'learners' in-class behaviours'. The modifications made to the framework are shown as below (see Figure 5.3).



**Learners' In-Class Behaviours**
- Engagement
- Feedback
- Achievement

➡

**Learners' In-Class Behaviours**
- Engagement
- Discipline
- Immediacy
- Feedback
- Achievement
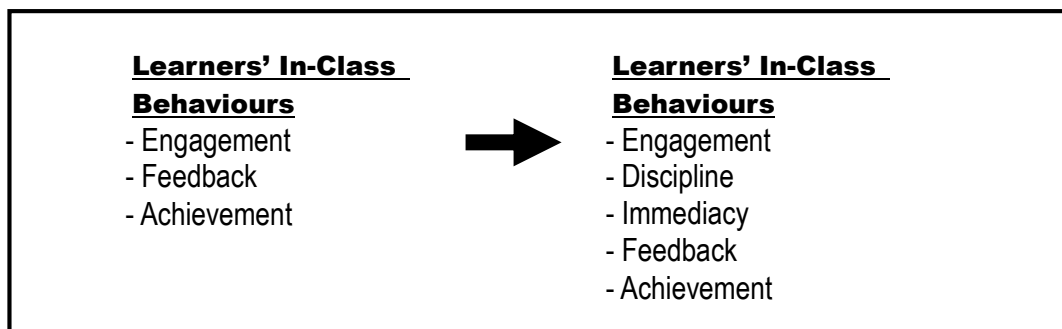
**Figure 5.3 Modifications Made to Learner Behaviours**


**5.5 The Influence of Exploratory Practice on Classroom Motivation**

As mentioned in 3.4.2, I integrated the principles of Exploratory Practice (EP) in the present study in an attempt to generate deeper understanding about the quality of life in the language classrooms. At the outset of the study, EP was merely treated as a research framework for my investigation about classroom motivation. However, as the data collection process proceeded, I found the in-depth understanding generated by EP had substantially influenced my motivation in teaching (see 4.2.8). My earlier discussion in this chapter also

revealed that this understanding may help to promote a positive motivation cycle in the classroom (see 5.2.1, 5.3.1 and 5.3.3). These findings correspond to the claim of Allwright (2005a:358) who indicates that practitioner-researchers who work under the framework of EP usually find their understanding about the 'problems' in the classroom result in a more satisfactory situation which makes it unnecessary to look for any other 'solution'. In an attempt to demonstrate how EP helped to produce a motivating classroom environment in the present study, I will discuss its effects on classroom motivation from two perspectives—*understanding between teachers and learners* and *teachers' understanding about themselves.*

In terms of *understanding between teachers and learners*, in 4.2.8.1, I have presented findings of the present study to demonstrate how EP prompted learners and me to communicate with each other on a regular basis and to increase our understanding about each other. Results of the present study indicate that constant teacher-pupil communication may benefit the development of classroom motivation in many ways. Firstly, it provides teachers with constant feedback from learners, which is believed to be crucial for work motivation (Csikszentmihalyi 1997:84; Hackman 1979; Locke and Latham 1990). Learners' positive feedback to teachers may provide teachers with the achievement that is needed in the maintenance of teacher motivation while learners' negative feedback helps teachers to understand what goes wrong in the classroom and prevents the negative cycle of classroom motivation from circulating. Secondly, in 5.3.4, I discussed the possible discrepancy between learners' real motivation and their observed motivational behaviours; and teachers' difficulties in observing the reasons behind learners' de-motivated behaviours. Since motivation is unobservable, regular teacher-pupil communication helps teachers see what is not observable in the classroom. EP provides teachers and learners with a channel of

communication, which fills the gap between learner motivation and learners' in-class behaviours as shown in Figure 5.4.

**Teacher Motivation**
- Self Concept
- Expectations
- Contextual Factors

*Reflection*

**Teachers' In-Class Behaviours**
- Observed Personal Traits
- Immediacy
- Classroom Management
- Material Choices
- Task Choices

*An Interactive Perspective on Classroom Motivation*

**Learners' In-Class Behaviours**
- Engagement
- Discipline
- Immediacy
- Feedback
- Achievement

*Communication*

**Learner Motivation**
- Regulatory Styles
- Value
- Self-Efficacy

**Figure 5.4 Modified Motivational Framework**

The mutual understanding between teachers and learners may in turn reduce any potential misunderstanding between teachers and learners and prompt the classroom motivation cycle to evolve positively. Thirdly, my earlier discussion in 5.2.3 and 5.3.1 has stressed the importance for teachers to understand the learning preference of learners such as their regulatory styles and their preferred authority types of teachers. Teacher-pupil communication increases teachers' understanding

about the needs of learners and helps teachers to make learning relevant to learners, which is considered to be an effective strategy for teachers to generate learner motivation (Dörnyei 2001a).

As to *teachers' understanding about themselves*, teachers' reflection about their own practices has been an important research tool in practitioner research. However, in the present study, I found my reflection benefited me more than merely as a data collection tool. In 4.2.8.2, my teaching journals reveal that reflection helped me to understand my strengths and weaknesses in teaching and this understanding prompted me to find ways to maintain my teaching motivation in class and be aware of the effects of my behaviours on learners. Drawing on Corno and Kanfer (1993), Dörnyei (2003c:174) also suggests reflecting to be an effective self-motivating strategy for teachers. He indicates that teachers should not only reflect about their feelings and performances in class but also analyse these feelings and find ways to overcome them. Teacher motivation, like learner motivation, may continuously be influenced by the environment and the people they interact with. Although teachers cannot stop learners' negative in-class behaviours from decreasing their teaching motivation, teachers can use constant reflection to regulate their in-class behaviours. In this case, teachers' decreased teaching motivation will not lead to teachers' negative teaching behaviours and the negative cycle of classroom motivation may be prevented (see Figure 5.4).

Findings of the present study support my assumption in the motivational framework that classroom motivation is co-constructed by teachers and learners through their in-class interaction and that the development of classroom motivation evolves in cycles. However, results also reveal that there is a potential gap between learner motivation and learners' observed motivational behaviour in

the motivation cycle and this gap may prompt the negative cycle of classroom motivation to circulate. Results suggest that sufficient communication between teachers and learners is effective in filling the gap and teachers' constant reflection about their own practices may also help teachers to prevent the negative cycle of motivation from developing. The present study unexpectedly finds that the adoption of EP may promote such communication and reflection, which may in turn encourage the development of classroom motivation. It is hoped that results of the present study may raise teachers' awareness of the interplay between teacher motivation and learner motivation and provide teachers with ways to improve the quality of classroom life.

# Chapter Six: Conclusion

Social constructivists consider the construction of learner motivation to involve learners' internal mental process as well as their interaction with the learning environment (Williams and Burden 1997). In the light of social constructivism, the present study managed to investigate classroom motivation from an interactive perspective and illustrate the social-interactive process between teacher motivation and learner motivation. In this chapter, three major findings of the present study will be summarized along with their pedagogical implications for language teachers and suggestions for future studies. Following the summary of findings, relevant research limitations and the contribution of the study will also be discussed.

## *6.1 A Summary of Findings*

### *6.1.1. The Cycle of Classroom Motivation*

Findings of the present study support my speculation in the motivational framework that teacher motivation and learner motivation may have reciprocal influences on each other and the influences are mediated by teachers and learners' in-class behaviours. This corresponds to the claim of Deci, Kasser and Ryan (1997:68) who indicate that,

> 'the relationship between students and faculty is an interactive one that can be either positively or negatively synergistic.'

Nevertheless, although the cycle of classroom motivation does exist, results show that the cycle will best function under conditions where teachers and learners have sufficient communication with each other. Since learner motivation does not necessarily lead to observable motivational behaviours, teachers may sometimes

misinterpret learners' in-class behaviours. In this case, shy but motivated learners may easily be reckoned as de-motivated learners. Especially in the educational context of Taiwan, where the Confusion culture considers modesty to be a virtue and encourages students' respect for teachers, learners tend to be less willing to venture an answer or to express their feelings in the classroom. This implies that Taiwanese learners may easily look less motivated than they really are and it is also more difficult for teachers to understand Taiwanese learners through their in-class behaviours. Thus, in an attempt to circulate a positive classroom motivational cycle, it is crucial for Taiwanese teachers to generate a classroom environment which encourages learners to express their feelings to teachers. According to the findings of the present study, one way for teachers to create such a classroom environment is to show more teachers' immediacy behaviours because results show that approachable teachers may increase learners' willingness to communicate with them.

Although the motivational framework proposed in the present study provides an overview of how classroom motivation is co-constructed by teachers and learners, it does not mean elements that are not listed in the framework are irrelevant to the construction of classroom motivation. Due to the complex nature of motivation, it is fairly difficult to include every aspect of classroom motivation within the present study. Since the main purpose of the present study is to explore how classroom motivation evolves in cycles through teachers and learners' social interaction with each other, the framework only includes factors that are directly related to teacher-pupil interaction. For example, the influences from peers or parents, or learners' past learning experiences are also important determinants of leaner motivation. However, they are not included in the framework because it is less relevant to the focus of the study. Dörnyei (2001c:13) indicates that one of the

biggest challenges of motivation research is the 'parallel multiplicity' of motivation. He stresses the reality that teacher and learner motivation can be influenced by various factors simultaneously. Although the present study manages to take into account the simultaneous influences of different internal motivational factors (e.g. self-efficacy, regulatory styles, etc.) and external motivational factors (e.g. teacher behaviours and learner behaviours) on classroom motivation, it is worth noting that there are a number of other motivational influences that are beyond the social interaction between teachers and learners. The present study suggests that the development of motivation should involve multiple loops of cycles as illustrated in Figure 6.1.
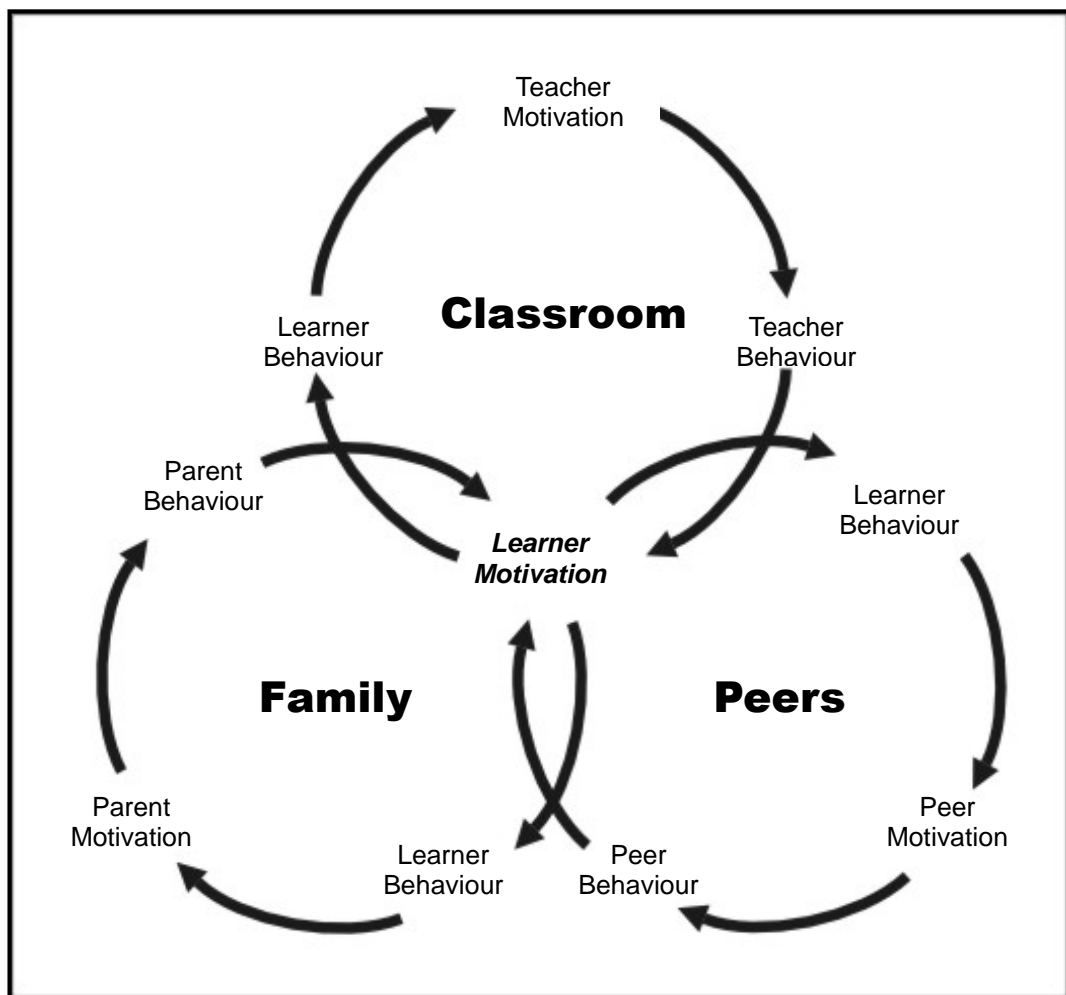


**Figure 6.1 Multiple Loops of Motivational Cycles**

Further research may be needed to expand the framework to include other dimensions of classroom motivation such as peer influences and parental influences.

### *6.1.2. The Role of EP in the Development of Classroom Motivation*

Another major finding of the present study is the effect of EP on the development of motivation. Results suggest that EP can benefit teacher researchers more than a research framework. Data reveal that EP plays a crucial role in the circulation of a positive classroom motivation cycle. As illustrated in Figure 5.4, the classroom motivation cycle will best function under conditions where there is sufficient teacher-pupil communication and teacher reflection. These conditions are consistent with EP's stress on 'understanding of language classroom life' (Allwright 2005a: 360). EP urges communication between learners and teachers and this consequently fills the gap of the motivation cycle and prevents misunderstanding between teacher and learners. It also encourages the reflection of practitioner researchers which may help teachers to break any potential negative motivation cycle and encourage the development of a positive cycle. As indicated by Allwright (2005a:358), EP researchers usually find their understanding about classroom life to ameliorate their 'problems' in the classroom, which makes any other 'solution' unnecessary.

Thus, the present study suggests the adoption of EP to be beneficial to teacher motivation as well as learner motivation. In terms of teacher motivation, it generates teachers' understanding about their own motivation and helps teachers to maintain their teaching motivation through constant reflection. As to learner motivation, different learners have different learning preferences. EP generates teachers' understanding about the needs of learners and provides teachers with

guidance to produce a learning environment that is considered to be motivating to their learners.

### *6.1.3 Transition in Regulatory Styles*

Taiwanese learners' lack of motivation in English learning has long been an issue widely discussed by teachers. However, results of the present study reveal that university learners can be potentially motivated learners if teachers are aware of transitions in their regulatory styles. Findings show that when learners enter university, they may start to attach instrumental values to English learning and change their regulatory styles from external regulation to identified regulation. As Shoaib and Dörnyei (2005:31-35) indicate, there are certain *motivational transformation episodes* such as moving into a new life phase or growing older under which learners may transform their learning orientations. This implies that university may be a critical period when learners are willing and ready to develop their self-determined motivation in learning. Thus, it is crucial for university teachers to seize the chance and give learners the opportunities to exercise autonomy in their learning. According the study conducted by Cheng and Dörnyei (2007), Taiwanese teachers tend to be unwilling to hand over the control to learners. Part of the reasons may be because of the educational culture of Taiwan which stresses the 'authority' of teachers. Results of the study suggest that Taiwanese teachers should reconsider their roles in the classroom and believe that their learners also have the willingness and capability to govern their learning process.

Nevertheless, it is worth mentioning that the promotion of an autonomy-supportive learning environment requires radical change to the current learning environment in Taiwan. In order not to generate learners' negative

feelings toward the teachers, it may be helpful for teachers to start with the promotion of 'reactive autonomy,' in which learners autonomously engage in the agenda set by teachers (Littlewood 1999). Then, teachers can gradually hand over more responsibility to learners until they can take full control of their learning.

Learners' transition in regulatory styles also raises our awareness of university students' needs to learn English for instrumental uses. Cheng and Dörnyei (2007:170) indicate that since paper-and-pencil exams are usually the only way used by teachers or schools to assess learners' performances, Taiwanese teachers tend to overemphasise learning outcomes. This implies that Taiwanese teachers' focus in the classroom does not meet the needs of university learners, who learn English for practical reasons such as future careers, studies or knowledge. The exam-oriented learning environment generated by Taiwanese teachers may be one of the reasons why university learners are de-motivated in English language classrooms. In an attempt to increase university learners' learning motivation, teachers may need to pay more attention to the practical uses of English and think about how to make the lessons relevant to learners' daily life.

## 6.2 Research Limitations

Although findings of the present study manage to demonstrate the interplay between teacher motivation and learner motivation, it is not without its limitations. Motivation is a multi-dimensional mental force that is constructed by various internal and external factors simultaneously. Thus, although the motivational framework proposed in the present study managed to list elements that constitute teacher and learner motivation, categorize different aspects of teacher and learner behaviours and depict the relationships between classroom behaviours and classroom motivation, it is worth noting that these distinctions and

relationships between different subcomponents are not always clear-cut. During the data analysis process, I found that while teachers' in-class behaviours may influence learner motivation, different subcomponents of learner motivation may also influence each other. Moreover, the definitions of different subcomponents may also overlap with each other from time to time. This possibly explains why Williams (1994:84) claims that 'There is no room for simplistic approaches to such complex issues as motivation.'

Other than the complex nature of motivation, there were also research limitations that constrained the data collection process. As mentioned in 3.1.2, I was having difficulties in obtaining permission from teachers to participate in the research because most teachers were concerned about the in-class observations that are needed in the present study. Richards (2003:107) also considers it to be difficult for researchers to get access to observations in educational contexts because observations may bring uneasiness to the observed. As a result, the nature of the main study had to be changed to practitioner research. Although conducting practitioner research allowed me to have maximum exposure to the research site, my dual role as a teacher-researcher may inevitably influence learners' accounts in the study and the investigation of my own teaching motivation may also raise issues of bias. In order to cope with these potential problems, I made the purpose of the research study explicit to the learners at the outset of the study, encouraged them to give both positive and negative evaluations and gave them plenty of chances to give comments to me anonymously. Furthermore, I also kept a research journal in the hope of maintaining my researcher's detachment during the research process. It is hoped that these may reduce the impact of the research limitations.

Lastly, both the teacher participant in the pilot study and me are part-time teachers in the target school. Our relationships with the school may be different

from other full-time teachers' relationships with the school. As findings of the present study show, contextual influences from schools also play an indispensable role in the construction of teacher motivation. Full-time teachers may receive more restrictions from schools than part-time teachers and thereby it can be assumed that they may have more responsibility or pressure at work, which are crucial factors to consider in the construction of teacher motivation. Thus, further research may be needed to see if the motivational framework proposed in the present study also applies to classes taught by full-time teachers or teachers from other educational contexts.

### 6.3 Contribution of This Research and Personal Reflections

In terms of contributions to the language learning motivation research and theory, it is hoped that the results of the study provide motivational researchers a holistic picture of how classroom motivation may be co-constructed through the social interaction between teachers and learners by integrating different lines of theories in mainstream and L2 motivational literature; provide an illustration of how researchers or teacher-researchers might investigate the socially constructed process of motivation under the framework of Exploratory Practice; and demonstrate how teacher and pupil's understandings about classroom life may lead to better quality of life in the classroom. As to contributions to the language learning environment, it is hoped that results of the study can help practising teachers to see how teacher-pupil communication can help them to understand learners' needs more and subsequently generate a motivating learning environment for learners. Furthermore, teachers' reflections may also help teachers to understand their strengths and weaknesses in teaching and to be aware of how their emotions may be influenced by learners and vive versa. In terms of

the language learning environment of Taiwan, it is hoped that the present study may shed light on Taiwanese learners' lack of motivation in language learning and prompt Taiwanese teachers to reconsider the learning habits of Taiwanese learners. It is also hoped that the motivational framework of the present study may provide teachers with ways to generate and maintain a motivating environment for both teachers and learners.

Although the present study aimed to generate understanding about the socially constructed process of classroom motivation, at the end of the study, I unexpectedly found this understanding to play a crucial role in the development of the learners' motivation as well as my teaching motivation. During the research process, I found myself benefiting greatly not only as a researcher but also as a teacher. The study allowed me to generate deeper understanding about my students and my own practice and it also gave me opportunities to interpret classroom situations from learners' perspectives. It is not until the conduct of this practitioner researcher that I became aware of my poor sense of judgement about what is in learners' minds. The target learners' diaries and their post-class reflections helped me see that learners' in-class behaviours do not always reflect how they think deeply inside. As a researcher, the study helped me see that a researcher cannot understand classroom situations fully without involving all participants in the research process. As a teacher, it showed me the importance of teacher-pupil communication in understanding and improving the quality of classroom life. The exploration of classroom life is a continuous process and the motivation cycle may also function differently in different contexts. Therefore, findings of the present study suggest that one of the best ways to prompt the development of classroom motivation is to understand the life in the classroom by constantly observing, reflecting and, most importantly, listening.

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## Classroom Observation Scheme      Date: _____

| Time | Non-verbal Feedback | Verbal Feedback | Off Task/ On Task | General Motivation | In-Class Behaviour |
|------|---------------------|-----------------|-------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
|      |                     |                 |                   |                    |                    |
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|      |                     |                 |                   |                    |                    |
|      |                     |                 |                   |                    |                    |
|      |                     |                 |                   |                    |                    |

G: group feedback    I: individual feedback

/ Slightly off-task    // On-task but not motivated    /// Motivated    //// Highly Motivated

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**Pre-course Teacher Interview Guide**

1. **Intrinsic Components**

☐ 1.1 Reasons for Being a Teacher (when? how? why?)

☐ 1.2 Goals (career plan / goals in teaching)

2. **Self-efficacy**

☐ 2.1 Language Proficiency / Learner Achievement

☐ 2.2 Teaching Skills / Learner Motivation

☐ 2.3 General Evaluation (by self / by students)

3. **Expectation**

☐ 3.1 Outcome Expectations (about the class)

☐ 3.2 Efficacy Expectations (how you can help them)

4. **Other Affective Factors**

☐ 4.1 Feeling about Teaching

☐ 4.2 Attribution (a successful class / an unsuccessful class: why?)

☐ 4.3 Personal Traits (authority type / empathy / rapport / enthusiasm / shy)

5. **Microcontextual Influences**

☐ 5.1 Job Description (workload / students / class size / colleagues)

☐ 5.2 Job Design (meaningfulness / empowerment / feedback)

☐ 5.3 Career Structure

☐ 5.4 Job Satisfaction (workload / pay / freedom)

6. **Macrocontextual Influences**

☐ 6.1 Education Policy

☐ 6.2 Social Status of Teachers

7. **Summary**

☐ 7.1 General Motivation

☐ 7.2 Commitment

## Post-course Teacher Interview Guide

**1. Learner Behaviour vs. Teaching Motivation**

☐ 1.1 The "talkative student"

☐ 1.2 The "competent student"

☐ 1.3 The difference of the two groups

☐ 1.4 Their Achievement (Result of Learning)

☐ 1.5 Their Participation

☐ 1.6 Their Motivation

☐ 1.7 Their Feedback (Their evaluation about you) (Your evaluation about you)

☐ 1.8 Different from your expectation? (motivation / language level)

☐ 1.9 Pygmalion Effect: Your teaching behaviour is different in this class?

**2. About Teaching**

☐ 2.1 Belief about teaching (What constitute a successful teaching?)

☐ 2.2 Strategies you consciously use in class (Strategies you think useful)

☐ 2.3 Personal trait (What kind of teacher students think you are?)

**3. Lesson Preparation**

☐ 3.1 Time willing to spend

☐ 3.2 Time usually spending

☐ 3.3 Higher salary / status → attitude

**4. Coping with Frustration**

☐ 4.1 Competent and proud students

☐ 4.2 De-motivated students and Incompetent students

Dear Participants,

I am a doctoral student who is currently carrying out a research study in the University of Warwick in the U.K. which investigates the English learning motivation of Taiwanese university students. It is hoped that the research may contribute to the development of English language teaching and benefit future English language learners in Taiwan. It would take approximately 10 minutes to finish the questionnaire. All your answers are for research purposes only and confidentiality will be respected. If you have any further enquiry concerning the study, please do not hesitate to write to I-Cheng.Wu@warwick.ac.uk. Thank you very much for participating in the study.

Regards,
I-Cheng Wu

# I. Personal Information

-- Sex: ☐ Male ☐ Female       -- Department: **…………..……………**

-- University Year: ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4

-- How long have you learned English? **………** Years

# II. Please circle a number from the scale which you consider appropriate to the statement.

**Attitude toward English Learning**

1. Do you enjoy learning English?

|        | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |        |
|--------|---|---|---|---|--------|
| Dislike | ← | | | → | Like |

2. What do you think about the culture of the English-speaking courtiers?

|        | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |        |
|--------|---|---|---|---|--------|
| Dislike | ← | | | → | Like |

3. What do you think about your English proficiency?

|      | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |      |
|------|---|---|---|---|------|
| Poor | ← | | | → | Good |

**Attitude toward the Course**

4. Do you think the course can help you to improve your English ability?

|    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |     |
|----|---|---|---|---|-----|
| No | ← | | | → | Yes |

5. Do you think you can do well in the course?

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No | | | | | Yes |

## III. Please answer to the questions.

6. Why do you learn English? (personal interests, forced to learn, career, travel, future study, etc.)

………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………..

7. Do you think the course is of value to you? Why or why not?

………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………..

8. Can you briefly talk about one of your most impressive or influential English teachers in the past? Why is she/he especially influential to you? (either a good or bad teacher)

………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………..

9. In your opinions, what constitutes a motivating teacher?

………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………..

Thank you very much for filling in the questionnaire. If you are willing to participate in further interviews, please write your name and mobile phone number in the blanks below.

Name: **………………………………………**

Mobile phone number: **…………………………………….**

I am a doctoral student who is currently carrying out a research study in the University of Warwick in the U.K. which investigates the English learning motivation of Taiwanese university students. It is hoped that the research study may contribute to the development of English language teaching. All your answers are for research purposes only and confidentiality will be respected. If you have any further enquiry concerning the study, please do not hesitate to write to I-Cheng.Wu@warwick.ac.uk. Thank you very much for participating in the study.

I-Cheng Wu

Candidate for Doctoral Degree, Centre for Applied Linguistics, University of Warwick, UK.

Part-time Lecturer, Southern Taiwan University of Technology

Sex: ☐ Male ☐ Female

Class: ☐ Group 2B of the 4-year Evening College

☐ Group 3A of the 2-year Evening College ☐ Other _____

Working Status: ☐ Full-time Student ☐ Full-time Employment

☐ Part-time Employment ☐ Other _____

**Part I：Attitudes Toward Language Learning**

| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Not sure | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Ever since I start my university study, I wanted to learn English more. | | | | | |
| My attitude toward English learning is greatly influenced by teachers. | | | | | |
| My attitude toward English learning is greatly influenced by peers. | | | | | |

Other feelings about English learning: _____

**Part II：Reasons for Learning English**

| I learn English because… | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Not sure | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I'm interested in English. | | | | | |
| I'm interested in the culture of the English-speaking countries. | | | | | |
| I want to get a good grade at school. | | | | | |
| English can be integrated with my interests. (Ex. travelling, movies, songs, novels or computer games, etc.) | | | | | |
| English is an international langue. It helps to broaden my horizon. | | | | | |
| Learning English is helpful for my future career or study plan. | | | | | |
| Most of my peers are learning English. | | | | | |
| Learning English gives me a sense of achievement. | | | | | |
| English is an obligatory subject at school. | | | | | |
| The school requires us to pass the beginner level of *General English Proficiency Test* before graduation. | | | | | |
| To speak English well, I can gain respect from others. | | | | | |
| Others expect me to learn English. (Ex. parents or teachers, etc.) | | | | | |

Other reasons for learning English: _____

_____

**Part III：Perceived Personal English Ability**

| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Not Sure | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Generally, I think my English ability is not bad. | | | | | |

| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Not Sure | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Comparing to other peers, I think my English ability is good. | | | | | |
| I consider English ability to be genetically determined. | | | | | |
| I think my English ability will improve if I work harder. | | | | | |

Other feelings about my English ability: _____

_____

## Part IV：My Evaluation of This English Class

| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Not Sure | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Generally, I think my teacher is good at teaching. | | | | | |
| I think my teacher is clear when lecturing. | | | | | |
| I think my teacher teach vividly. | | | | | |
| I think my teacher is willing to listen to the students' needs. | | | | | |
| I think my teacher has good interaction with the students in class. | | | | | |
| I think my teacher can be easily approached. | | | | | |
| I think my teacher is able to maintain the order of the classroom. | | | | | |
| I think my teacher maintains a relaxing, amusing in-class atmosphere. | | | | | |
| I think my teacher treats all students equally. | | | | | |
| I think my teacher likes teaching. | | | | | |
| I think my teacher is a responsible teacher. | | | | | |
| I think my teacher has sufficient knowledge in this subject. | | | | | |
| I think my teacher practically combine English with my daily life. | | | | | |
| I think my teacher has good impression on us. | | | | | |
| I think my teacher is physically attracted to me. | | | | | |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| I think the materials are interesting. | | | | | |
| I think the materials are practical. | | | | | |
| I think the materials suit my level. | | | | | |
| I think my peers are interested in English learning. | | | | | |
| I am satisfied with the learning attitudes of my peers. | | | | | |
| I think my peers have good English ability. | | | | | |
| I think my teacher gives us chances to speak and write in English. | | | | | |
| I think my teacher cultivates our self-learning ability. | | | | | |
| I think I have spent a lot of time and effort on this course. | | | | | |
| Generally, I think this course is helpful to me. | | | | | |
| Generally, I think this course is interesting. | | | | | |

Other feelings about the English course: _____

_____


**Part V：Elements of Learning Motivation**

| I think the following reasons may increase my learning motivation... | Very Unimportant | Unimportant | Not Sure | Important | Very Important |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Teachers who are clear when lecturing. | | | | | |
| Teachers who are willing to listen to the students' needs. | | | | | |
| Teachers who have good interaction with the students in class. | | | | | |
| Teachers who teach vividly. | | | | | |
| Teachers who can be easily approached. | | | | | |
| Teachers who treat all students equally. | | | | | |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Teachers who have good classroom management. | | | | | |
| Teachers who maintain a relaxing, amusing in-class atmosphere. | | | | | |
| Teachers who like to teach. | | | | | |
| Teachers who are responsible. | | | | | |
| Teachers who are knowledgably. | | | | | |
| Teachers who can practically combine English with my daily life. | | | | | |
| Teachers who have attractive appearance. | | | | | |
| Teachers who like me. | | | | | |
| Teachers who encourage us to speak and write in English. | | | | | |
| Teachers who urge us to learn through assignments and exams. | | | | | |
| Teachers who cultivate our self-learning ability. | | | | | |
| Materials which are interesting. | | | | | |
| Materials which are practical. | | | | | |
| Materials which suit my level. | | | | | |
| Peers who are interested in English Learning. | | | | | |
| Peers who have good learning attitude. | | | | | |
| Peers who have good English ability. | | | | | |

Other elements to increase my learning motivation: _____

_____

Thank you very much for your participation!

# PARTICIPANT INFORMATION STATEMENT AND CONSENT FORM

**Title of Project:**

An Interactive Perspective of Classroom Motivation: An Empirical Study of EFL Learning Motivation in Taiwan

**Investigator:**

Miss I-Cheng Wu

Doctoral Student

Centre of English Language Teacher Education

University of Warwick, UK.

**Participant selection and purpose of study:**

You are invited to participate in a study of English learning motivation in Taiwan. The purpose of this study is to investigate the EFL learning motivation of university students studying in the context of Taiwan. You have been selected as a possible participant in this study because you meet the main criteria of participant selection including having a Taiwanese nationality and being a student in a university in Taiwan.

**Description of study:**

If you decide to participate, the investigator will ask you to provide information about your English learning experiences and attitudes. The data collection process will comprise two questionnaires, two or three classroom observations and an in-depth interview (subject to your agreement). Each interview should last approximately one hour. As part of this study, she will make an audio recording of you while you participate in the research. It is envisaged that this study will be beneficial for the participants in terms of providing them insights and reflections on their own learning experiences and it is hoped that the research will contribute to the development of English language teaching in Taiwan.

**Confidentiality and disclosure of information:**

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission. If you give the investigator your permission by signing this document, she plans to discuss and publish the results as part of her thesis for the award of an Ed.D. The investigator would like you to indicate below what uses of these records you are willing to consent to. This is completely up to you. The records will be used in ways that you agree to. In any use of the records, names will not be identified.

1. The records can be used in the investigator's thesis.

   ☐ Both Audio Records and Transcripts   ☐ Transcripts Only   ☐ None

2. The records can be shown to subjects in other research projects.

   ☐ Both Audio Records and Transcripts   ☐ Transcripts Only   ☐ None

3. The records can be used for educational publications.

   ☐ Both Audio Records and Transcripts   ☐ Transcripts Only   ☐ None

4. The records can be shown at meetings of educational researchers.

   ☐ Both Audio Records and Transcripts   ☐ Transcripts Only   ☐ None

5. The records can be shown in public presentations to noneducational groups.

   ☐ Both Audio Records and Transcripts   ☐ Transcripts Only   ☐ None

6. The records can be shown in classrooms to students.

   ☐ Both Audio Records and Transcripts   ☐ Transcripts Only   ☐ None


**Feedback to participants:**

At the completion of the study, all participants would be most welcome to consult the thesis when it is published.


**Your consent:**

Your decision on whether or not to participate will not prejudice your future relations with The University of Warwick or the teacher of the course. If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw your consent and to discontinue participation at any time without prejudice.


If you have any additional questions concerning the study, please do not hesitate to e-mail I-Cheng.Wu@warwick.ac.uk.


**Your signature indicates that, having read the information provided above, you have decided to participate.**


..............................................................          ...........................................

Signature of Research Participant                          Date

# Teaching Journal (A)

| Date: | Class Content: | |
|---|---|---|
| Sleeping: | Chatting: | Distracted: |
| Actively Participate: | Off- / On-task: | G Motivation: |
| Note: | | |

| Date: | Class Content: | |
|---|---|---|
| Sleeping: | Chatting: | Distracted: |
| Actively Participate: | Off- / On-task: | G Motivation: |
| Note: | | |

DATE 2008/4/6

This week is spring vacation. I finally can ~~wo~~ go home. In the vacation I have visited some friends whom I haven't seen ~~saw~~ for a long time. In the chat some of my friends asked me. "How was your daily life in school?" "Is your study stressful ~~stress heavy~~?" I said: There are two learning phases I enjoy most in my life. One of it is elementary and the other. is now, university. Since I learned in the university I feel happed happy every. moment. So study stress is just nothing ~~not thing~~ for me. And I even believe that Rain can make the flowers grow.

I'm glad to hear that.
You have a really good learning attitude! 2008/4/12

Study! Study! Every one studies hard in this week. Because midterm ~~medial~~ examination are coming. In the English class, our teacher repetition (N→ADv) helped helping us practiced reading and grammer skill. It's very important for me. My grammer was sucks. I can't recognize where the mistake is in the sentence. Or use right word to make sentence. What can I do?

I think your grammar is well above average ☺
Read more! It helps! 2008/4/26

Oh! YA! The medial exam was finally over. On wednesday teacher let us see ~~saw~~ our test paper. I got seventy-five. It close that I guess? But I think I can get higher grade by being move careful and study harder. I will rember this. lesson. And make the examination better next time. ☺

2008/5/3

This week we had a lesson about "Enjoy the vacation of a lifetime! Around the world in twenty days!" Oh! If it is true I will go. Because traveling around the world is my dream. The country I wont to go most is Switzerland. I hear that there are ~~has~~ beautiful view, tasty food and enthusiasm of the people. I have to go there if I can.

# Post-class Reflective Writing

- What have I learned in class today?

  _____

  _____

- What do I like about the class today? Why? (Ex. the materials, the teacher's teaching approach, etc.)

  _____

  _____

- What **don't** I like about the class today? Why?

  _____

  _____

- Other comments

  _____

  _____

**Learner Interview Guide**

1. **Attitudes to and Reasons for Learning English**

☐ 1.1 Why do you learn English?

☐ 1.2 Does your attitude to learning English changes from high school to university?

☐ 1.3 What do you think about the target community culture?

☐ 1.4 What do you think about the school in terms of English language education?

   Why?

☐ 1.5 What do you think about the course?

2. **Performance in English**

☐ 2.1 What do you think about your English ability generally?

☐ 2.2 What do you think about your performance in class comparing to others?

☐ 2.3 Why is your performance good or bad?

3. **About Teachers**

☐ 3.1 The teacher's clarity when teaching

☐ 3.2 Distance between the teacher and the students

☐ 3.3 Willingness to listen to students' needs

☐ 3.4 Classroom Management

☐ 3.5 Perceived teacher motivation / Why?

☐ 3.6 Perceived teacher's attitude toward the class / Why?

☐ 3.7 Perceived teacher competence / Why?

4. **About the Class**

5. **Closing**

☐ 4.1 General feeling about the teacher (shortcomings / strong points)

☐ 4.2 What kind of teacher prompts you to learn?

Dear students,

A new semester is going to start. Through this ten-minute anonymous questionnaire, I wish to understand your attitude and expectation in English learning. It is envisaged that this questionnaire also helps you to understand your learning needs more. During this semester, I hope we can have better understanding of our classroom life and work together to co-construct a better learning environment.

**Part One：Attitudes toward Language Learning**

| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Not sure | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| I'm **NOT** interested in English. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I'm **NOT** interested in the culture of English-speaking countries. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I consider this course to be useful to me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Ever since I start my university study, I wanted to learn English more. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My attitude toward English learning is greatly influenced by teachers. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My attitude toward English learning is greatly influenced by peers. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Other feelings about English learning: _____

**Part Two：Reasons for Learning English**

| I learn English because… | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Not Sure | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| I'm interested in English. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I'm interested in the culture of the English-speaking countries. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| English can be integrated with my interests. (Ex. travelling, movies, songs, novels or computer games, etc.) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Learning English gives me a sense of achievement. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I want to get a good grade at school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| English is an international langue. It helps to broaden my horizon. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| English is helpful for my future career or study plan. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Most of my peers are learning English. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| To speak English well, I can gain respect from others. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| English is an obligatory subject at school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| The school requires us to pass the beginner level of *General English Proficiency Test* before graduation. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Others expect me to learn English. (Ex. parents or teachers, etc.) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Other reasons for learning English: _____

**Part Three：Perceived Personal English Ability**

| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Not Sure | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Generally, I think my English ability is not bad. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Comparing to other peers, I think my English ability is good. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I expect myself to have good performance in this class. | | | | | |
| I consider English ability to be genetically determined. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I think my English ability will improve if I work harder. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Other feelings about my English ability: _____

**Part Four：Elements of Learning Motivation**

| I think the following reasons may increase my learning motivation... | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Not Sure | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Teachers who are clear when lecturing. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Teachers who can practically combine English with my daily life. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Teachers who are willing to listen to the students' needs. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Teachers who have good interaction with the students in class. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Teachers who teach vividly. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Teachers who maintain a relaxing, amusing in-class atmosphere. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Teachers who treat all students equally. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Teachers who can maintain classroom order. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Teachers who can be easily approached. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Teachers who like to teach. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Teachers who are conscientious. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Teachers who have sufficient knowledge of the field. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Teachers who have attractive appearances. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Teachers who like me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Teachers who encourage us to speak and write in English. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Teachers who urge us to learn through assignments and exams. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Teachers who cultivate our self-learning ability. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Materials which are interesting. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Materials which are practical. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Materials which suit my level. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Peers who are interested in English Learning. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Peers who have good learning attitude. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Peers who have good English ability. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Other elements of learning motivation: _____

**Part Five：My Expectation**

■   This semester, I wish to learn…

_____

_____

■   This semester, I wish the teacher to…

_____

_____

■   This semester, I wish I could…

_____

_____

■   Other comments…

_____

_____

Dear Students：

Your Freshmen English class is going to end. I wish this ten-minute anonymous questionnaire can help me to understand what you think about this class more. This is also part of a research study which investigates the English learning motivation of Taiwanese students. It is hoped that the research will contribute to development of English language teaching in Taiwan. All your answers are for research purposes only and confidentiality will be respected. If you have any further enquiry concerning the study, please do not hesitate to write to I-Cheng.Wu@warwick.ac.uk. Thank you very much for participating in the study.

I-Cheng Wu        Centre for Applied Linguistics, University of Warwick
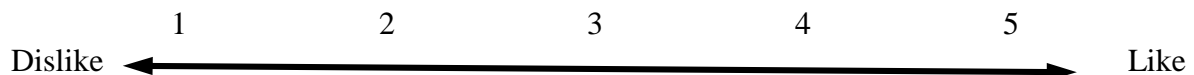
**Part One：Personal Information**

1.  The results of my midterm and final exams are around _____. (Ex: 40-50)

2.  Compared to my peers, I think my English ability is...
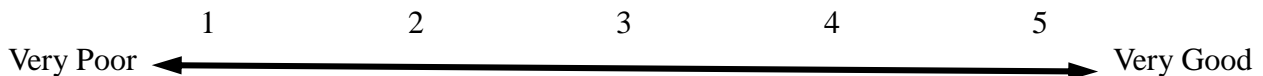
|   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Very Poor | ← | | | | → | Very Good |

3.  My feeling toward the English class in senior high school…

|   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Dislike | ← | | | | → | Like |

4.  My feeling toward this English class…

|   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Dislike | ← | | | | → | Like |

5.  Did my English learning method or attitude toward English change in any way from high school to university?

_____

_____
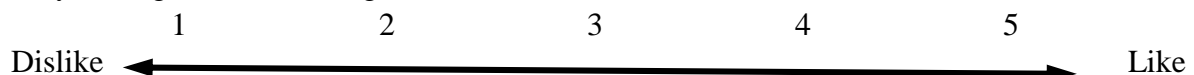
If there are any changes, it is because _____

**Part Two：My Evaluation of This English Class**

| I think… | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Not Sure | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 6. my teacher is clear when lecturing. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. my teacher **doesn't** practically combine English with my daily life. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. my teacher is willing to listen to the students' needs. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. my teacher **doesn't** have good interaction with the students in class. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. my teacher **doesn't** teach vividly. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. my teacher maintains a relaxing, amusing in-class atmosphere. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. my teacher treats all students equally. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. my teacher **isn't** able to maintain the order of the classroom. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. my teacher **cannot** be easily approached. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. my teacher **doesn't** like teaching. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. my teacher is a conscientious teacher. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. my teacher has sufficient knowledge in this subject. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. my teacher **doesn't** have good impression on me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. my teacher **doesn't** encourage us to speak and write in English. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. my teacher urges us to learn through assignments and exams. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. my teacher **doesn't** cultivate our self-learning ability. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. *Reading Keys* is interesting. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23. *Reading Keys* **isn't** practical. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24. *Reading Keys* suits my level. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 25. the materials on Wednesdays are interesting. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26. the materials on Wednesdays **aren't** practical. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 27. the materials on Wednesdays suit my level. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 28. my peers **aren't** interested in English learning. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 29. my peers have good learning attitudes. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 30. my peers **don't** have good English ability. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 31. Generally, I think my teacher is good at teaching. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 32. I think I have spent a lot of time and effort on this course. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 33. Generally, I think this course **isn't** helpful to me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 34. Generally, I think this course is interesting. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

## Part Three：My Views about This English Class

35. In this English class, I like… (Ex：teaching methods, the teacher, the peers, and the materials

etc.)

_____

I like these because _____

36. In this English class, I **dislike**… (Ex：teaching methods, the teacher, the peers, and the

materials etc.)

_____

I **dislike** these because _____

37. I have something to say to my teacher…

_____

**PARTICIPANT INFORMATION STATEMENT AND CONSENT FORM**

**Title of Project:**
An Interactive Perspective of Classroom Motivation: An Empirical Study of EFL
Learning Motivation in Taiwan

**Investigator:**
Miss I-Cheng Wu
Candidate for Doctoral Degree
Centre of English Language Teacher Education
University of Warwick, UK.

**Participant selection and purpose of study:**
You are invited to participate in a study of English learning motivation in Taiwan. The
purpose of this study is to investigate the EFL learning motivation of university
students studying in the context of Taiwan. You have been selected as a possible
participant in this study because you meet the main criteria of participant selection
including having a Taiwanese nationality and being a student in a university in
Taiwan.

**Description of study:**
If you decide to participate, the investigator will ask you to provide information about
your English learning experiences and attitudes. The data collection process will
comprise two questionnaires, two post-class learning reflections and an in-depth
interview (subject to your agreement). Each interview should last approximately one
hour. It is envisaged that this study will be beneficial for the participants in terms of
providing them insights and reflections on their own learning experiences and it is
hoped that the research will contribute to the improvement of the learning quality of
this class and the development of English language teaching in Taiwan.

**Confidentiality and disclosure of information:**
Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be
identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your
permission. If you give the investigator your permission by signing this document, she
plans to discuss and publish the results gained from questionnaires, class recordings,

exams, assignments and so on, as part of her thesis for the award of an Ed.D. As part of this study, she will make an audio recording of you while you participate in the research. The investigator would like you to indicate below what uses of these records you are willing to consent to. This is completely up to you. The records will be used in ways that you agree to. In any use of the records, names will not be identified.

1. The records can be used in the investigator's thesis.
   ☐ Both Audio Records and Transcripts   ☐ Transcripts Only   ☐ None
2. The records can be shown to subjects in other research projects.
   ☐ Both Audio Records and Transcripts   ☐ Transcripts Only   ☐ None
3. The records can be used for educational publications.
   ☐ Both Audio Records and Transcripts   ☐ Transcripts Only   ☐ None
4. The records can be shown at meetings of educational researchers.
   ☐ Both Audio Records and Transcripts   ☐ Transcripts Only   ☐ None
5. The records can be shown in classrooms to students.
   ☐ Both Audio Records and Transcripts   ☐ Transcripts Only   ☐ None

**Feedback to participants:**

At the completion of the study, all participants would be most welcome to consult the thesis when it is published.

**Your consent:**

Your decision on whether or not to participate will not prejudice your future relations with The University of Warwick or the teacher of the course. If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw your consent and to discontinue participation at any time without prejudice.

**Your signature indicates that, having read the information provided above, you have decided to participate.**

…………………………..…………        …………………………......……
Signature of Research Participant          Date