

**English learning motivation in a Taiwanese university
context: A study of its dynamic nature from
socio-dynamic perspectives**

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Abstract

This study investigated the strength of 88 Taiwanese university students' English learning motivation and what motivational factors influence the level of motivation in this particular context. The complex, contextual and dynamic nature of motivation and different motivational factors were examined via a mixed methods approach and various analyses. Four data collection instruments were applied in the study, namely a main questionnaire, a short weekly questionnaire, a semi-structure interview and classroom observation. Additionally, the researcher not only collected data at different time points, but also compared the data between two achievement groups: high and low achievers.

According to the results, the dynamic interactions of the nine motivational factors identified in this study would impact the level of motivation. When the participants had a positive English learning experience and higher levels of Cultural diversity, Interest, Travel orientation and the Ideal L2 self, they tended to have stronger motivation. However, when the learners possessed higher levels of Ethnocentrism, Fear of assimilation, English anxiety and the Ought-to L2 self, these factors could have both facilitating and debilitating effects on their motivation.

The findings also indicated that the participants were generally moderately motivated to learn English. Nevertheless, the strength of their motivation decreased over time and they might not regard themselves as working harder than their classmates, not greatly look forward to taking their English course and not consider that the English course was interesting enough to motivate them to learn. In particular, low achievers tended to have lower motivation. The implications of the findings are that (1) students' motivation is influenced by different motivational factors and (2) motivation

would be improved through English courses that make English learning more enjoyable, relevant and important for the learners and that help them to believe that they are able to learn it well.

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謝謝所有幫助我的人，
謝謝所有支持鼓勵我的人，
謝謝辛苦的努力的青春的自己，
謝謝你們。

Declaration

I confirm that this is my own work and the use of all material from other sources has been properly and fully acknowledged.

Chu, Fang-I

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

In this chapter, an introduction to the thesis will be given, organised into four sections as follows:

- (1) Background to the research
- (2) The significance and problem of researching motivation
- (3) The aim of the research and the research questions
- (4) An overview of each of the chapters

Firstly, the background to the research explains (a) why the author is interested in the topic of English learning motivation, (b) the importance of socio-dynamic perspectives, and (c) the background information about the role of English and English teaching and learning in Taiwan. It provides details of both the author's personal research interest and the analysis of the current situation of English use and education in Taiwan from a socio-dynamic perspective. Secondly, a statement of the significance of the study area and the problem of researching motivation will reveal why research into motivation is necessary; additionally, the issue of how to make English learning motivation researchable will be presented. Issues such as the need for and difficulty of researching this domain will be carefully discussed in this second section. Thirdly, in order to better understand and investigate the topic of English learning motivation, the particular research aim will be determined and research questions will be generated from an examination of the research background and problems. Lastly, the structure of the study will be illustrated in this final part of the

chapter. A clear picture of each of the chapters will be given as an introductory overview of this thesis.

1.2 Background of the research

This section outlines why the author is interested in researching English learning motivation in the Taiwanese university context from a socio-dynamic perspective. Thus, (1) the author's research interest, (2) the importance of researching English learning motivation from socio-dynamic perspectives, and (3) the role of English and English education in the Taiwanese context will be presented in the following paragraphs as the background to this thesis.

1.2.1 Personal research interest

As both an English learner and teacher, the author has not only confronted various English learning difficulties in person but also via her teaching experience; she has a direct understanding of how English learners feel and what they may face while learning. All the difficulties and obstacles may differ from person to person, but many learners experience unpleasant or frustrating situations from poor performance or learning stress. Under these circumstances, language students need encouragement and have to learn techniques to overcome such barriers. In language education, motivation plays an important role in encouraging learners to keep learning, to increase their interest in learning, and to seek efficient learning strategies and suitable learning methods (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Motivation serves as “the initial engine to generate learning and later functions as an ongoing driving force that helps to sustain” the long journey of language learning (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007, p. 153); and

it is also widely recognised as a crucial factor that influences learning success (Ushioda, 2013). Hence, in order to better understand how exactly English learning motivation benefits English learning and teaching, this thesis is, therefore, planned to examine English learning motivation in detail.

Furthermore, the author is particularly interested in examining English learning motivation in a Taiwanese university context for the following three reasons. Firstly, the English curriculum at university is the final formal English education for learners so it is a critical stage. It is a good opportunity to provide a better learning environment and suitable learning content for students since there is more freedom in teaching and learning at the university level compared to the former levels of education. English learning motivation may, therefore, facilitate learning to a tremendous extent if it is nurtured effectively. Secondly, the author aims to work in a Taiwanese university in the future. Thus, it is essential to acquire related knowledge in the field for better teaching and research quality. Thirdly, although English learning motivation is a popular research area, it is always helpful to add more empirical models to not only cross-examine the realm of motivation but also offer elements for researchers to compare with existing theories and studies, which may also possibly result in raising new concepts and questions or solving previously identified problems in the field.

1.2.2 Socio-dynamic perspectives

As the author is interested in researching English learning motivation in the Taiwanese university context, it is vital to understand the current research trend in the field of language learning motivation. Currently, many researchers situate their motivation research within socio-dynamic perspectives which have become a research

trend (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Lasagabaster, Doiz, & Sierra, 2014). Theories such as ‘A person-in-context relational view of motivation’ (Ushioda, 2009) and ‘The L2 motivational Self System’ (Dörnyei, 2005) have been widely applied. (See also Sections 2.3.10 and 2.3.11.) From socio-dynamic perspectives, three aspects can be identified as important (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011):

- The complexity of the interrelationship of motivational factors
- The integration of motivation and the social context
- The rise of Global English

Firstly, while learning a language, learners’ motivation is not a simple linear cause-effect relation but rather, it involves complicated interrelationships between different motivational factors. Thus, several questions should be taken into account since each level of factors will interact with the others and consequently shape and form motivation differently. For example, (a) When will the research be conducted? Will it focus on a particular setting and on cross-sectional or longitudinal research? (b) Where will the research be conducted? The social context and cultural background are influential. (c) Who will be the target in the research? The findings will noticeably vary depending on different participants. (d) How do different motivational factors interact with each other and motivate learners to learn? (e) To what extent does motivation influence and to what extent is motivation affected by language learning outcomes?

Secondly, “contemporary approaches in mainstream motivational psychology are shaped by situating perspectives that aim to integrate the notions of self and context in a dynamic and holistic way, and to explore how motivation develops and emerges through the complex interactions between self and context” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 70). In other words, the identity of learners in a certain socio-cultural context should be carefully investigated while researching.

Thirdly, nowadays, English has become a language with a global spread used both by English as L1 speakers and as a lingua franca (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Lai, 2013; Lamb, 2004; Lanvers, 2017); it is not an exclusive language owned by English-speaking communities but is also shared by other non-native speakers in order to communicate between people from different areas across linguistic and cultural boundaries (Jenkins, 2003; McKay, 2003). Consequently, English learning motivation is changing as Global English is rising. For instance, the concept of integrativeness may start to lose its meaning (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). For many learners, in other words, they learn English not because they would like to integrate into English native communities or become similar to English-speaking people (integrative motivation). (See Section 2.3.2 for more details of integrativeness.) They may (a) just enjoy learning English and be interested in the language and its culture and speakers. After all, learning and appreciating a language is one thing, becoming similar to and feeling strongly linked with the target language community is another thing. It is even possible to arouse the fear of assimilation or ethnocentrism when people heavily connect themselves with their own identity or style of living. They might then also lack integrative orientation to learn the language because they are proud of their own identity and lifestyle; they might desire to reduce possible change inevitably more or less caused by learning the language and its culture. Or, on the other hand, they may (b) refer to English as an educational skill or a tool to use to communicate with foreigners or to have access to “a spreading international culture incorporating business, technological innovation, consumer values, democracy, world travel, and the multifarious icons of fashion, sport and music” (Lamb, 2004, p. 3) and so on. They are motivated to learn English because of these benefits other than integrative orientation. All in all, the three aspects of complexity, social context, and Global English, which are important within socio-dynamic perspectives, make

motivation research significant and diverse.

1.2.3 Taiwan and English

As part of the author's research interest and the significance of socio-dynamic perspectives previously reviewed, 'context' is recognised as one of the core issues and main concerns. The following paragraphs will therefore scrutinise the situation of English use, teaching and learning in Taiwan. Issues including identity, norms and values, and English education which impact Taiwanese people's English learning will also be discussed in depth.

Under the influence of globalisation, English is viewed as a key access tool for entering the global market and connecting with the world; many Asian countries therefore include English as a required subject in education in order to engage in this increasingly globalised economy (Tsui & Tollefson, 2007). Taiwan is no exception. English is learned as a foreign language (EFL) in Taiwan. In order to raise Taiwan's international competitiveness in the global world, the Taiwanese government has become aware of the need for English competence, and therefore (a) English is officially assigned as a required subject from elementary school level to university and (b) the magnitude of English learning has been strongly promoted nationwide. To broaden Taiwanese international horizons and to raise the English ability and international competitiveness of the Taiwanese people, the government has created several policies, invested a tremendous amount of money, and encouraged international interactions between Taiwan and the world (e.g. exchange programmes and travel abroad) (Ministry of Education Taiwan, 2008). In addition to national policies and school education, good English ability is a plus or a must for numerous companies in Taiwan. They utilise English tests, such as the General English

Proficiency Test (GEPT) or the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC), as a gatekeeper to employ workers (Seiharmer, 2012). According to a survey conducted by ETS Taiwan (2015), 93.2% of companies in Taiwan take English ability seriously, particularly English communication skills, and 64.8% of the companies set a required standard of English proficiency when employing people. As a result, people want to master English; the government emphasises English learning; students have to learn it at school; employees need to learn it in order to gain more opportunities to find a job, and so on; overall, “the possession of English ability has been emphasised in almost every walk of life in Taiwan” (Chen & Hsieh, 2011, p. 71), and learning English has become a popular ‘全民運動’ (national campaign or country-wide movement) for decades (Chen, 2014; Syu, 2005). In short, strong English proficiency is highly valued in Taiwan.

The importance of English has been crucially recognised in Taiwan. However, there are three issues that potentially and critically impinge on English learning, namely identity, norms and values, and English education.

1.2.3.1 Identity

The first issue is identity. Identity can be defined as “how a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is structured across time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future” (Norton, 2012, p.45); or it can be simply referred to as “our sense of who we are and our relationship to the world” (Kanno, 2003, p. 3). In Taiwan, many Taiwanese people have a strong sense of identity not only because they are Taiwanese but also for a political reason. From 1945, Kuomintang (KMT) which established the Republic of China (ROC) and Communist Party of China (CPC), two political parties, fought each other in order to obtain the legitimate right to rule the areas of both Taiwan and China. This is referred

to as the ‘Chinese Civil War’, and it lasted until 1949. The CPC won in the end and formed the People’s Republic of China (PRC, known as China), while KMT retreated from mainland China to Taiwan and governed Taiwan. Without officially signing any peace treaty to date, the two parties have competed to be the legitimate government of Taiwan and China. Taiwan has had its own government since then. Nevertheless, the CPC has governed China up to the present and denies that Taiwan is an independent country. Since the United Nations switched its recognition from Taipei, Taiwan, to Beijing, China, in 1972, China has gained a higher international status and insisted that Taiwan is part of China in their Constitution and in the minds of the citizens. Other countries, in order to interact with China either politically, economically, or socially, need to acknowledge this stance or ‘fact’. The Taiwanese government, therefore, cannot interact with other countries as an independent country most of time, even though Taiwanese people have their own president and government, own culture, own writing system, own passport, etc. For example, Taiwan has been denied the opportunity to become a member of the United Nations and has diplomatic relations with only a few countries. At the same time, the official title and flag of Taiwan is not allowed to be used at many international events and competitions, such as the World Trade Organisation and the Olympic Games, and Taiwanese officers and athletes represent ‘Chinese Taipei’ (the capital of Taiwan) as a region, but not Taiwan as a country. Because of this political status, Taiwanese identity has become a focus for both the Taiwanese government and Taiwanese people; they are all aware of its importance (Hsu, 2009).

According to Figure 1 on the next page, findings from the survey conducted by Chou (2016) from the Election Study Center, NCCU, the percentage of Taiwanese people who consider themselves as Taiwanese had increased from 17.6% in 1992 to 58.2% in 2016, which reflects the growing notion of Taiwanese identity.

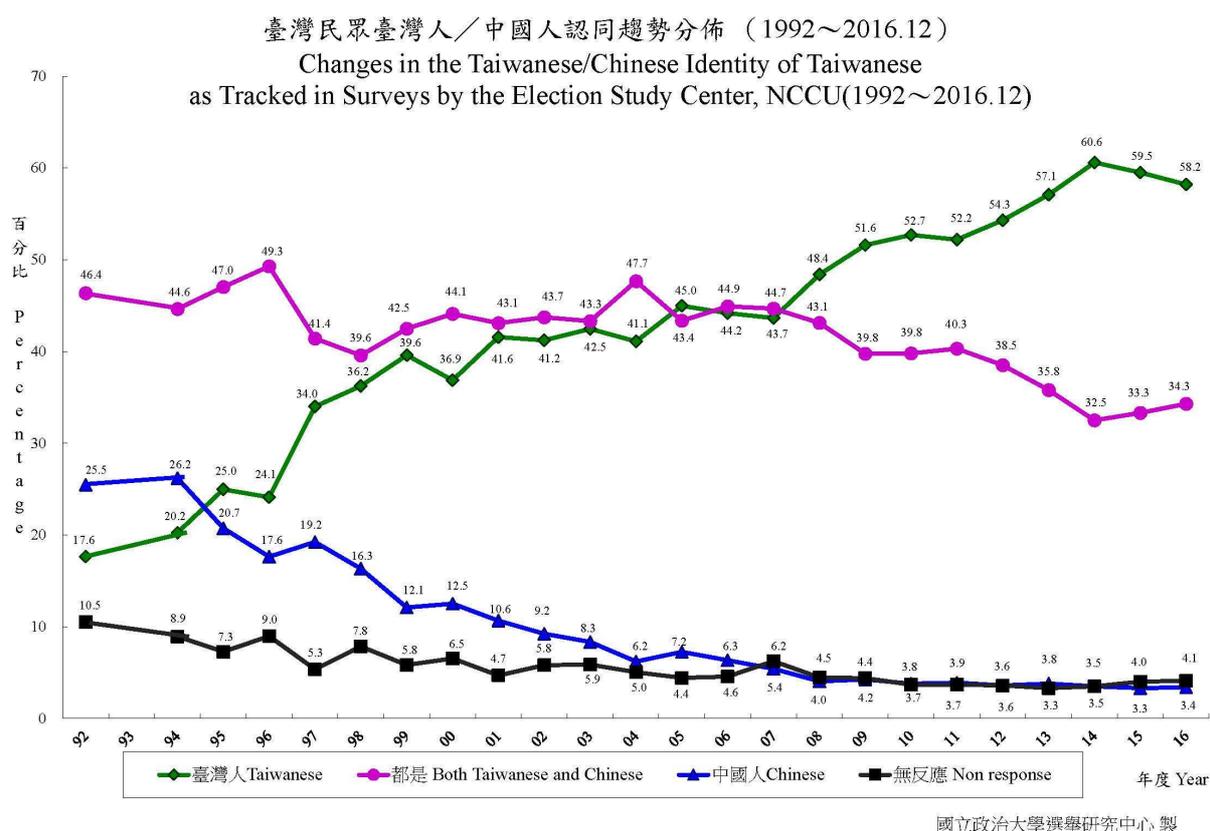


Figure 1: Changes in the Taiwanese/Chinese identity of Taiwanese as tracked in surveys by the Election Study Center, NCCU (1992~2016.12)

However, taking figures in 2016 as an example, 3.4% of people thought they were Chinese and 34.3% of people regarded themselves as both Taiwanese and Chinese, so there are still some citizens who connect themselves with a Chinese identity. Nevertheless, how to define ‘Chinese’ could be problematic and could influence how these results are interpreted. ‘Chinese’ can be defined as citizens of China or people who belong to the ethnic group of Chinese and share Chinese culture and values since they have the same ancestors. It is unfortunate that the survey does not provide a definition of Chinese, but it is possible that respondents might be using the latter ethnic definition, given that Chou (2016) found that only 1.7% of people wished for the unification of Taiwan and China. Hence, they showed little desire to become citizens of China. Figure 1, therefore, implies a sturdier sense of Taiwanese identity,

with 92.5% of people viewing themselves as Taiwanese in 2016 compared with 64% of people in 1992.

With respect to the relationship between identity and language learning, it has been suggested that learning a second or foreign language could challenge language learners' identity (Lamb & Budiyanto, 2013) because people may struggle to forge new identities and engage in "new ways of expressing and negotiating their identities through new words and in new worlds. The extent to which they are comfortable with developing these new identities and expanding their sense of self may connect profoundly with their motivation for language learning" (van Lier, 2007, as cited in Ushioda, 2013, p. 10). Sometimes people's L1 and L1 cultural identity might be replaced by an L2 and L2 cultural identity, which is a 'subtractive' change, (Lambert, 1975). For instance, some Taiwanese people's behaviours have become Westernised since learning English and its culture (Gao, Cheng, Zhao, & Zhou, 2005). Alternatively, sometimes learners' L1 and L1 cultural identity remain and L2 and L2 cultural identity are acquired in addition. For example, they might change the tone of their voice when speaking L2 in order to be like L2 native speakers (Ohara, 2001) or present different characteristics when speaking another language (Federer, 2012). Many Taiwanese people even have both a Chinese name and an English name; they are used at different times, in different situations, and for different occasions (Gao et al., 2005). This is an 'additive' change (Lambert, 1975).

On the other hand, sometimes people's identity undergoes little change or limited expansion because it may not be necessary to have "a sense of connectedness with the global community and [...] desire to project a global identity" (Sung, 2014, p. 53) or because they "clash with their current sense of self" (Ortega, 2009, p. 245) and choose to maintain their original self. For instance, some Taiwanese learners' 'true self' is not engaged much and their identity is not influenced or expanded significantly while

learning English for the following reasons. One of the reasons is that they use English as a lingua franca or because they do not need to integrate into English communities and view English as a subject or skill to learn instead of as a communicative tool for daily use (Lamb & Budiyanto, 2013). After all, compared to English-speaking countries or English as a second language (ESL) nations, there seems to be few chances for people to actually use English in daily life in Taiwan (Chen, 2014; Wu & Wu, 2008); “there just isn’t enough English input in the environment, there probably aren’t enough opportunities for interaction with English speakers, there usually aren’t enough strong role models” (Leong & Sabouri, 2012, p. 10). Even if various English authentic materials are easy to access on the internet, TV, or in the theatre, such as dramas, songs, and movies, translation and subtitles are mostly provided to attract a wider audience. Besides this, although there has been political tension between Taiwan and China, there have been more and more varied economic and social interactions between the two, in areas such as trade, travel, arts, music, and educational exchange programmes, etc. Instead of making extra efforts to learn English, Chinese, the mother tongue, is enough in order to communicate or being a medium for their own purposes. As a result, when people do not consider English ability to be a necessary skill or do not feel themselves to be English speakers, they may be challenged to change or expand their identity. People’s need and motivation to learn English is then reduced. The other reason is that, some people may have a sense of ethnocentrism or a fear of assimilation while learning English and its culture. Under the circumstances, these people may refuse to change or expand their identity in order to maintain their Taiwanese identity or avoid the potential fear associated with assimilation. Thus, their strong sense of national identity may also decrease their English learning motivation.

Hence, when Taiwanese learners regard English as a skill or when they feel

disconnected from English-speaking countries, the dimensions of their motivation change; that is, they may gradually gain strong instrumental or goal-oriented motivation yet little resonance of integrativeness. (See also Section 1.2.2 for more discussion about the rise of Global English and the dwindling meaning of integrativeness.) In these circumstances, the sense of Taiwanese identity, on the one hand, may help to boost people's English learning motivation for gaining more international competitiveness and opportunities to interact with foreigners as Taiwanese people or citizens of a 'country'. On the other hand, it may decrease the possibility of identity change or expansion to motivate them to learn English because of a lower level of necessity or a stronger sense of national identity. Although the value of English and English learning is recognised, and although learners' general motivation may still remain high, when they have other priorities to meet and since English is not often used in their daily life, their English learning may move out of their focus of attention.

1.2.3.2 Norms and values

The second issue is norms and values. Confucianism is learned by Taiwanese people at school and it influences people's thoughts and behaviours to a large extent (Biggs, 1996; Chen & Huang, 2016; Chen, Warden, & Chang, 2005; Smith, 1991); it has further formed the socio-cultural values and norms and shaped the way in which Taiwanese students learn English (Wen & Clement, 2003). The following four norms and values are foremost within Confucianism and Taiwanese culture: (1) collectivism, (2) face, self-image, and self-esteem protection, (3) the value of a low profile, and (4) respect for teachers (Flowerdew & Miller, 1995; Liu & Littlewood, 1997; Peng, 2014; Wen & Clement, 2003; Woodrow, 2006).

(1) Collectivism: In Taiwan, "people purportedly emphasise more collectivistic

values, which prioritises the harmony and structure of interpersonal and group relationships, along with interdependent self-construal in which one's sense of self is construed as connected with others and the broader context" (Noels, Chaffee, Michalyk, & EcEown, 2014, p. 134). This is, therefore, believed to make people "inclined to endorse solidarity and social belongingness" (Peng, 2014, p. 31). To understand a Taiwanese person completely, people need to consider the self in relation to the other party and the society (Sun, 1991). Under the circumstances, individual success reflects not only on the person but also on families and clans. For example, Taiwanese families provide resources to enable children to be prepared for exams since achievement is part of family success and they have expectations for their children's success (Chen, 2017; Chen, Warden, & Chang, 2005). Students should "work hard in school in order one day to glorify the clan" (Leung, 1994, p. 390). English competence is, therefore, also demanded by families and they will expect their children to master it. Thus, often, in the beginning, it is not students themselves who choose to learn English; rather, it is parents or elders who encourage or compel them to learn it (Chen & Sheu, 2005). Then later on, when students are aware of the expectations both from themselves and families, they may learn English under a higher level of pressure.

(2) Face, self-image, and self-esteem protection and (3) the value of a low profile: saving face, maintaining a good self-image, protecting self-esteem, and keeping a low profile are emphasised in Taiwan (Jones, 2004; Peng, 2014); they are the manners and philosophy of living. These values are concerned with the significance of sustaining a positive image or possessing dignity and modesty which people present in public situations or to the public. People tend to care about their behaviour and the impression they create with others. Hence, students tend to fear making mistakes, showing incompetence, receiving negative comments, or being ridiculed while

learning English, especially when they need to communicate orally with others, express opinions, or answer questions in English (Cheng, 1998; Ho, 1998; Lee & Wang, 2015; Tsai & Chang, 2013; Warden & Lin, 2000). Speaking English or poor English performance could be a challenge, a discomfort, or even a nightmare for learners, which may arouse anxiety, unwillingness to communicate or perform, or hinder progress. It is typical that students “seldom volunteer to answer the simplest questions even though they know the answer” (Timina, 2015, p. 1305) in order to reduce the possible threats from losing face or ruining positive images; consequently, often, the whole class will respond with silence or reticence.

(4) Respect for teachers: Taiwanese students show respect for teachers and refer to and address their teachers by their family name and title as ‘Teacher A’ or ‘Professor B’. Instructors normally have high hierarchical power in class. As a result, sometimes raising questions or doubts in order to search for truth and being themselves in class is difficult or rare for learners (Noels et al., 2014). Students are used to following what teachers tell them. Teacher-centred teaching and learning is mainstream in many districts in Taiwan (Cheng, 2000; Kung, 2013; Tsai & Chang, 2013). There is also limited meaningful interaction between instructors and learners in very large classes because of pressures of time or from the need to make progress within an exam-led system. These factors, in turn, have an influence on both teachers’ style and content of instruction (e.g. teacher-centred approach) (Chu, 2003; Tsai & Chang, 2013) and students’ willingness to learn and methods of learning (e.g. “learning through memorization, imitation, and repetition” (Peng, 2014, p. 30) without critical thinking).

On the other hand, these norms and values have begun to change nowadays. Taiwanese people, especially the younger generation or those in urban areas, have been influenced by or made aware of globalisation to a great extent. For many of them,

their identity has been reformed, revised, or expanded to take on a bi-cultural or multi-cultural perspective, and they, therefore, seem to behave differently in class and in life (e.g. being more individualistic, active, or self-centred) (Arnett, 2002; Lamb & Budiyanto, 2013; Lu & Yang, 2006), though these changes do not necessarily relate to English learning motivation.

1.2.3.3 English education

The third issue is English education. In Taiwan, English is designed as a required subject from elementary school level up to university level, and it is learned in an English as a foreign language (EFL) context (Craigie & Owens, 2013; Timina, 2015; Wu & Wu, 2008). That is, English is not used in daily conversations but as a subject or a skill to learn. In addition, exam-oriented teaching and learning is common in Taiwan (Li, 2012; Timina, 2015; Wu, 2012). This can also reflect that academic excellence is highly valued by students and their families and the whole society, as discussed in Section 1.2.3.2. Chern (2002) also points out why students' motivation to learn English has "remained at the level sufficient either to fulfill the course requirements or to pass the entrance examinations to the next level of schooling" (p. 97). At university, it may be hard for educators to change the characteristics of teaching and learning styles immediately, but they do try their best to help students to learn English and be competitive, and to follow the government's policy and fulfill the need for communicative ability. For example, even though students major in different subjects, they still need to take English courses (i.e. General English and English for Specific Academic Purposes) for at least one year. Chang (2006) also asserted that, in order to raise competitiveness on the international stage and increase understanding of and respect for different cultures, universities should, therefore, be supported and encouraged to offer opportunities for students to interact with foreign countries,

including via international conferences, sister schools, student exchanges, doing research abroad, and so on. Universities place an emphasis on English education, which takes the form of language centres, developing media sources, running various English courses for different purposes, and employing foreign teachers to form a connection between Taiwan and the world. Exposure to different cultures can be facilitated through English courses and interaction with other countries.

However, when universities endeavour to benefit their students' English learning, whether learners are motivated to learn or not arouses debate. The issues of English learning motivation are challenges and may be influenced by students' previous experiences at high school. Table 1 compares the two educational phases and the possible goals and influences acting on learners.

Table 1: Comparisons between Taiwanese high school and university language learning conditions

	Senior high school students	University students
Identity	Similar subjects taken by all	Major in a range of subjects
Likely family influence	Stronger	Weaker
Likely goals	To enter a good university	Graduation and further personal career plans
English learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - 30 to 45 students - 4 classes per week - More tests - More teacher-centred - Same objectives with little oral training - Important main subject 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - 30 to 45 students - Min. 2 classes per week - Fewer tests - More communicative - Different curricula and more oral training - Learning English may not be students' priority

For Taiwanese students, moving from senior high school to university brings a change in identity and with it, most likely, a change in their lifestyles, goals, environment for and manner of learning English, which may also have an important effect on their

English learning motivation. University educators and learners may need to face reality and take these language learning conditions into consideration as follows.

High school students usually live with their parents so family influences may be significant. They have four English classes per week (about 200 minutes) and aim to enter good universities. The exam-led teaching and learning which is common in Taiwan leads teachers to focus their teaching objectives and students' learning targets on what will be tested in the University Entrance Exam; learners might even be unwilling to learn if teachers deliver lessons seen to be irrelevant to exams (Chang, 2006; Kung, 2013). Thus, there is little oral training because this skill is not tested in the exam. What is more, in addition to monthly exams, students also have mock university entrance exams and several tests during term time in order to ensure that they can gain high marks. Chen further affirms that students are likely to fail in exams because

the difficulty of the exam papers is always above most students' current English proficiency. Social comparisons of exam marks and rigid grading criteria may render them performance oriented to outscore other students rather than focus on acquiring new knowledge and skills. When meeting repeated failure in exams, students can succumb to low self-perceptions, which severely undermine the maintenance of executive motivation. (2017, p. 73)

So, they may just give up learning English.

University students often live in dorms at university with other peers so the family influence may have less impact on them than on senior high school students. Peer influence may be greater instead. They major in different subjects and have dissimilar future careers to pursue. Moreover, there is more freedom and flexibility for university instructors to teach English, compared to teachers who teach English at other levels. That is, teachers can arrange their own syllabus, adjust their teaching

objectives, and adopt or write their own teaching materials for the classes so that they are suitable for students' need (Chern, 2010; Lee, 2007). By contrast, in senior high schools, the main teaching goals and materials are mostly and formally dictated by the government and the school. Undergraduates also have more opportunities to negotiate learning content and express their opinions about them. Furthermore, most English classes, especially General English, cater for different levels of English proficiency; some universities even divide students according to both the language level and major (Liu, 2008). This should enable teachers to tailor what and how they teach to their students' needs. There are fewer class hours and tests at university (normally only mid-term and final exams) and students do not have to compete with others by gaining high marks in the University Entrance Exam, which may cause less pressure. Nevertheless, as discussed in the beginning part of Section 1.2.3, students still need to pass GEPT in order to graduate, and they may also aspire to pass TOEIC to gain more future job opportunities. As a result, university teachers tend to follow a more communicative approach to enable students to have more oral practice because not only (a) do they have more freedom to teach and they want to really raise learners' English ability, not just testing skills, but also (b) in reality, the speaking skill is tested in GEPT and TOEIC, and both exams place an emphasis on examining learners' communication ability.

Under these circumstances, English learning could be a problem and difficulty for many Taiwanese learners in higher education due to their previous high school learning experiences and what they are experiencing at university. University students may confront (a) a lack of supportive environment, (b) low learning motivation, (c) low achievement, and (d) high learning anxiety (pressure from the environment, the self, and others) (Liu, 2012; Yang, 2012) in an exam-oriented and teacher-centred teaching and learning context. The following paragraphs will discuss these factors in

detail.

(a) A lack of supportive environment: Taiwanese university students usually spend fewer hours taking English courses at university compared to the hours at senior high school (Chang, 2006). English classes are also sometimes reported to be filled with many students in one class (Chen, Warden, & Chang, 2005; Lin & Warden, 1998), sometimes more than 40 students. This is likely to create fewer opportunities for students to practise their English, especially their oral skills; teachers may not have sufficient time to take care of every learner, either.

(b) Low learning motivation: Taiwanese university students are required to take English courses for at least one year. They can choose to take extra courses according to their needs throughout the four years. Nonetheless, English learning may not be a priority for many of those non-English majors. They may have negative previous English learning experiences or results at high school. Or, they may rather want to have more personal time for their professional fields of study and to explore a new social life. Some may also be unable to imagine that they will use English in the future or in their careers. Neither are their identities expanded or changed much (e.g. integrativeness) while learning English. (See discussion about identity in Section 1.2.3.1.) They may feel less stressed because of fewer classes and tests (Huang, 2012) and merely learn English because they do not want to be failed by teachers at the end of the term or because they need to pass GEPT in order to graduate. Since exam-led teaching and learning is a common phenomenon in Taiwan and since success from excellent performance would bring honour to both the individual and families, academic excellence is strongly valued as it is a direct way of providing evidence of success. Most teachers may, therefore, feel their primary objective is to help students to gain high marks in the exam, which influences their teaching styles and the content of lessons (Chang, 2006). Students, at the same time, may become passive learners

who aim to master taking tests instead of improving English (Kung, 2013). It is suggested that “it may be hard for people outside of this social milieu to imagine how students would try to get away from studying at the first chance that tests are not an immediate threat upon them” (Huang, 2012, p. 64). Hence, since English learning is not that urgent for many non-English majors who are free from the University Entrance Exam and who have other interests academically and personally, university English courses can be ignored or viewed as classes for relaxing or respite (Liu, 2003), which reflects students’ low English learning motivation.

(c) Low achievement: Chien and Hsu (2011) conducted a survey of Taiwanese undergraduate learners and their professors, from which it emerged that limited vocabulary is the primary problem for students; poor speaking and writing abilities are listed as other main problems. This may be because of exam-oriented teaching and learning, focusing on gaining high marks, in which students experience that they have had many weekly tests but have not experienced that their real ability has improved (Chen, 2010; Li, 2012). Furthermore, it has even been discovered that many Taiwanese university students’ English proficiency is below that of senior high school students (Chang, 2006). For instance, according to ETS’s (TOEIC, Taiwan) survey in 2016, Taiwanese senior high school students’ average TOEIC score was about 562 while that of university students was about 505. With lower English learning motivation, some undergraduates may think that with just few more steps they will be free from English learning as long as they pass the required English courses (Chang, 2006). GEPT still seems far away for them, except for fourth-year students. As a result, their English competence is often not improving but declining. Several companies are also dissatisfied with the English proficiency of graduates they are potentially going to employ; Taiwanese undergraduates’ average TOEIC score was about 505 in 2016, while based on ETS’s (TOEIC, Taiwan) investigation in 2015, the

standard required by different industries in Taiwan is normally higher, namely 522.2 for the manufacturing industry, 564.7 for the service industry, and 652.5 for the financial industry. In order to help low achievers who may also be less motivated, teachers may confront three problems. The first is the unsupportive environment as discussed earlier. Thus, the real practice time for students is limited and the instructor may not be able to take care of every individual. Students may, therefore, have the perception that formal education at university is not enough for achieving success and turn to private language institutions because private centres offer learning in a small class and opportunities to be taught by native speakers (e.g. adding more exposure to authentic speaking and listening input) (Tiangco, 2005). They may further overlook English classes at university, which possibly leads to a vicious cycle of poor learning and lower motivation. Another issue is that teachers need to know how to raise students' low English learning motivation and improve their past negative learning experiences or poor performance. When learners "give up trying to self-perceive as a legitimate user of English (as a global language), how will he/she be willing to invest in English learning, [...] not to mention using English to negotiate their identity as a valued member of the international community" (Zheng, 2014, p. 37). The final problem is that teachers may "struggle to integrate communicative language teaching with the form-focused instruction needed to enable students to pass exams" (Ushioda, 2013, p. 11). They may feel they need to appeal to students' academic involvement and raise their motivation by exam-led teaching, direct and relevant goals, or so-called 'immediate threats'; the importance of tests is, therefore, again to be emphasised, which seems to produce an endless vicious cycle (Huang, 2012).

(d) High learning anxiety: Anxiety is "the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system" (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986, p. 125). In language learning,

language anxiety occurs as “the apprehension experienced when a situation requires the use of a second language with which the individual is not fully proficient” (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993, p. 5). Skipping classes or not completing homework are common examples to avoid situations that arouse anxiety (Horwitz et al., 1986). Moreover, anxiety can be divided into two kinds, ‘facilitating’ (helpful) and ‘debilitating’ (harmful) (Kleinmann, 1977; Oxford, 1999). For instance, “some concern about a test is a plus (facilitating) while too much anxiety can produce negative results (debilitating)” (Chastain, 1975, p. 160). In other words, anxiety can lead to both positive and negative learning effects. In terms of language learning anxiety, it could be caused by factors such as exams, keen competition, lack of confidence, a communicative approach (e.g. anxiety caused by oral communication in English), negative learning experience, fear of negative evaluation, and so on (Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre, 1999; Tahernezhad, Behjat, & Kargar, 2014; Woodrow, 2006). For example, national English proficiency has been viewed as an index of competitiveness in Taiwan (Tsai & Chang, 2013). In order to graduate and to enter the world of work, Taiwanese university students are under pressure to pass national or international exams (e.g. GEPT and TOEIC) to show their advantages or qualifications (Chang, 2006; Tseng, 2015; Ushioda, 2013). Likewise, in order to speak English or give presentations in English in class, students may need to step out of their comfort zone, and this may also provoke their anxiety (Cheng, 2005; Huang, 2008). They may lack confidence in their English ability, be afraid of making grammatical errors, or even be concerned that their English, in areas such as pronunciation and accent, is below a native-like standard (Lee & Wang, 2015; Ortega, 2009). Tang (2011) also reports that Taiwanese undergraduates may feel stressed because they are afraid that their English competence is much lower than their classmates, so that they are unwilling to choose extra courses to learn more. Learners,

therefore, face different degrees of pressure and experience dissimilar anxiety, which can further impact on their learning and lead to various outcomes. For instance, if anxiety is viewed as having a debilitating function, students may be unwilling to learn; once they lack confidence or worry about their competence and they try to avoid learning, then they may be unable to improve their performance. In other words, negative anxiety could result in students' low learning motivation and worsening language performance (MacIntyre, 1999; Tsai, 2008; Woodrow, 2006).

1.3 The significance and problem of researching motivation

Three important features reflect how significant researching English learning motivation is. They are: (1) if the factors influencing motivation are uncovered, it could further help both learners and educators, including teachers, policy makers, and related professionals, to learn or instruct languages more efficiently and effectively; (2) when more and more researchers and readers are concerned about motivation, more and more investigation and discussion will then be generated; and (3) as better understanding of motivation is gained, it can contribute to future research and other fields of study.

Nevertheless, while conducting motivation research is worthwhile and rewarding, it is, at the same time, difficult and demanding. How to make English learning motivation researchable and reduce research prejudice are huge challenges for researchers. Because of the complexity of English learning motivation, there are three main concerns as follows: (a) "Motivation is abstract and not directly observable"; (b) "motivation is a multidimensional construct"; and (c) "motivation is inconstant and dynamic" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 197).

Firstly, motivation is considered to be “an abstract term that refers to various mental (i.e. internal) processes and states. It is therefore not subject to direct observation but must be inferred from some indirect indicator, such as the individual’s self-reported accounts, overt behaviours, or physiological responses (e.g. change of blood pressure)” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 197). In other words, measures of motivation are not objective but rather, inevitably, subjective. Thus, how to identify and interpret research findings, while minimising subjectivity, is extremely difficult. For instance, when a survey of English learning motivation is carried out, it needs to be made clear to participants that their answers will not affect their scores on the English courses they are taking, to prevent them from giving falsely positive responses. Taking another example, the investigation of motivation may involve feedback about participants’ past learning experiences. If researchers can ask similar questions at different times, their past learning feedback can then be double-checked, which would prevent mistakes in the research occurring as a result of inaccurate memories.

Secondly, “motivation is a multifaceted concept that cannot be represented by means of simple measures (e.g. the results of a few questionnaire items)” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 197). Multiple theories and various methods can be applied in researching motivation. Different methodologies have their own advantages and shortcomings; the findings are therefore diverse and incomplete, which could merely reveal some elements of motivation. This factor also better reflects the significance of the more theoretical and empirical studies.

Thirdly, language learning motivation is not a stable condition (Igoudin, 2013); instead, it “changes dynamically over time as a result of personal progress as well as multi-level interactions with environmental factors and other individual difference variables” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 198). As a result, data will be richer if

gathered at more than one point in time. For instance, 25 studies in the Taiwanese university context were chosen to be reviewed in this thesis (more details in Section 2.4). Most of them (23 out of 25) involved a single self-reported method, with 22 including questionnaire surveys and one being an interview investigation. In addition, these studies did not pay much attention to the inconsistent and dynamic nature of English learning motivation. Only four of them were concerned with motivational changes at different times. Therefore, approaches, such as cross-sectional, longitudinal, or mixed methods research, are suggested to provide dissimilar and more fruitful findings. (See Chapter 3 for more discussion about research methodology.)

1.4 The aim of the research and the research questions

This thesis aims to examine English learning motivation in the Taiwanese university context from a socio-cultural perspective. The problems of researching motivation stated in Section 1.3 are intended to be minimised as far as possible by taking a mixed methods approach, including the use of a questionnaire, interview, and observation. The dynamic nature of motivation will also be carefully examined by (a) collecting data at different times from the same participants and by (b) comparing the findings both quantitatively and qualitatively over time. Recommendations regarding how language learners' motivation can be best recognised, maintained, and increased will be made at the end of the thesis.

After reviewing the background, significance, and problem of the study, firstly, the author wishes to investigate Taiwanese university students' English learning motivation and the motivational factors that form the motivation. Then the author hypothesises that learners' motivation would change over time. Thus, how and why

motivation changes are other primary concerns. Later on, in order to understand more dimensions of motivation, students' learning behaviours in class and comparisons between high and low achievers will also be scrutinised in detail. Last but not least, since motivation is extremely complex and believed to involve multi-level interactions, the author plans to inspect the interactions between different motivational factors respectively. All in all, the research questions are therefore established as follows.

Research question 1: English learning motivation

- (a) What is the strength of Taiwanese university students' motivation to learn English?
- (b) Does the strength of their motivation change over time?
- (c) Does the strength of their motivation differ between high and low achievers?

Research question 2: English learning motivational factors

- (a) What factors influence the strength of Taiwanese university students' English learning motivation?
- (b) Does the strength of these factors change over time?
- (c) Does the strength of these factors differ between high and low achievers?
- (d) What is the relationship between these factors and English learning motivation?

1.5 An overview of each of the chapters

This thesis is composed of six chapters. Chapter one gives the background information to the research in detail, including the writer's research interest, socio-dynamic perspectives, and Taiwanese identity, norms and values, and English

education. It also presents the significance and problem of researching English learning motivation and the aim of the current study and its research questions.

Chapter two reviews related literature on English learning motivation. It firstly defines language learning motivation. Then it reviews the development of language learning motivation research and ten theoretical paradigms, including (1) Gardner's theory, (2) Crookes and Schmidt's theory, (3) self-efficacy theory, (4) attribution theory, (5) goal theory, (6) self-determination theory, (7) Three-level framework of L2 motivation, (8) focus on time, (9) a person-in-context relational view of motivation, and (10) vision and the L2 self. Finally, it reviews the 25 empirical studies on English learning motivation in the Taiwanese university context.

Chapter three elaborates the research methodology applied to the thesis, involving the research design, participants, research procedure, instruments used for data collection, and ethical issues.

Chapter four explains how the data were analysed. It demonstrates the details of the procedures for the data analysis of the questionnaire, interview, and classroom observation.

Chapter five reports the findings of the empirical results from both quantitative and qualitative data. The findings fall into two areas: English learning motivation and the motivational factors which affect the strength of English learning motivation.

Chapter six discusses the results in relation to the research questions. It offers in-depth discussion of the findings in the light of the Taiwanese university context, a socio-dynamic perspective, and related theoretical and empirical studies. It also identifies limitations and proposes implications and suggestions for the present study and future research. Finally, the thesis ends with overall conclusions.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews literature related to the current study. The review is divided into three parts; one relates to definitions of language learning motivation, another to the discussion of language learning motivation theories applied to the present study, and the third to the review of empirical studies in Taiwanese university contexts. This chapter, therefore, not only gives an overview concept of language learning motivation, but also provides knowledge of the underpinning theories applied by other researchers and used in this thesis. Under the circumstances, the aim of this chapter is to demonstrate (1) how language leaning motivation is defined, (2) what theories are the cornerstones of the thesis, and (3) the cross-examination and comparisons between previous empirical studies in a similar context.

2.2 Defining language learning motivation

Motivation can be defined as “the choices people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid, and the degree of effort they will exert in that respect” (Keller, 1983, p. 389) or “the extent to which you make choices about (a) a goal to pursue and (b) the effort you will devote to the pursuit” (Brown, 1994, p. 34). Motivation could also be a situation indicating that when a person is motivated, he/she is moved to do something (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) summarised that motivation is considered to be a process responsible for (1) the

reason: why people choose to do something, (2) the perseverance: how long they are willing to sustain their efforts to achieve the goal, and (3) the aspiration: how hard they will try to realise the intention or achieve the ambition.

In language education, language learning motivation is a factor that critically influences students' learning willingness, process, and results; it is also widely related to learning success or failure (Dörnyei, 2014). That is, one's language learning motivation would have influence on one's learning process and outcome, and one's learning experience and performance would also impact on one's language learning motivation. In addition, as language learning motivation functions, learners' cognition, emotion, and context (the sociopolitical setup of the learners' environment) would also interact with each other (Dörnyei, 2014). These complicated interactions between motivation, mind, and identity would, therefore, result in a change of motivation and lead to differential language learning and achievement. In other words, "levels and intensity of motivation rise and fall over time" (Ryan & Dörnyei, 2013, p. 90). Because of the complex and multi-dimensional interactions between the learner and language, learning and teaching, past experience and achievement, and identity and social context, motivation is inconstant and dynamic as all these factors change and interact (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). (See also Section 1.3.) For instance, one male learner has been generally motivated to learn English; however, during this class, he is anxious about giving a presentation; the topic of the lecture is uninteresting to him and he even got an unsatisfactory mark in the last test; as such, he is faced with such pressure and failure that he does not want to involve himself in learning and, therefore, that day, his motivation decreases. For another example, a female learner has not been motivated to learn English for a long time, but she meets a new teacher who helps her to build up her learning confidence and raise her motivation so that her English ability subsequently improves. In short, language learning motivation involves

multi-dimensional interactions; this dynamic nature resulting in different strength of motivation would lead to dissimilar learning outcomes.

In addition, language learning motivation is not only a key factor playing an important role in learning and teaching; certain educational benefits can also be gained through research into language learning motivation, including the following three aspects. First, helping learners motivate themselves to improve their language learning in multiple ways, different times, and various settings. Second, benefiting educators to know (a) how to help their students to raise and maintain language learning motivation, (b) how to make learning motivating in the classroom setting, and (c) how to design useful curriculums and policies to contribute to a better learning environment. Third, enhancing both the quantity and quality of motivation research by adding more empirical models and theoretical discussion and by encouraging more researchers to explore this field.

2.3 Reviewing theories of language learning motivation

The previous chapter and Section 2.2 provided some definitions regarding language learning motivation and its dynamic nature from socio-dynamic perspectives. In this section, since the strength of language learning motivation keeps changing caused by multiple interactions along with the impact of globalisation, there are two aspects of theoretical research expected to be reviewed. (1) The history of how language learning motivation research has changed and been diverse as time goes by and (2) several important underpinning motivation theories generated in past decades will be discussed in the following parts.

2.3.1 Development of language learning motivation research

The history of research on language learning motivation can be traced back to the 1960s. These decades could be sorted into four distinct phases as follows:

(1) The social psychological period (1959-1990)

- characterised by the work of Robert Gardner and his associates in Canada

(2) The cognitive-situated period (during the 1990s)

- characterised by work drawing on cognitive theories in educational psychology

(3) The process-oriented period (the turn of the century)

- characterised by a focus on motivational change

(4) The socio-dynamic period (current)

- characterised by a concern with dynamic systems and contextual interactions.

(Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012, p. 396)

Language learning motivation research originates from two Canadian social psychologists, Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert. They emphasised the importance of social and psychological dimensions, according to which language learners were expected not only to learn knowledge of the target language but also to identify with the target community and adopt their speech styles and behaviours. Two critical orientations were proposed by Gardner and Lambert (1972): (a) integrative orientation “reflecting a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other group” and (b) instrumental orientation “reflecting the practical value and advantages of learning a new language” (p. 132). Gardner and his associates produced a series of empirical models and fruitful studies. (See Section

2.3.2 for more details.)

By the late 1980s and early 1990s, language learning motivation research was broadened by numerous researchers by taking the following two areas into consideration: the need to combine cognitive theories (e.g. self-efficacy, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and attributions) and situating the analysis in specific learning settings (e.g. the language classroom). (See Section 2.3.3, 2.3.4, 2.3.5, 2.3.6, 2.3.7, and 2.3.8 for more details.) Researchers focused on how individuals' thoughts, beliefs, and emotions transform into actual learning action (Dörnyei, 1998).

In the process-oriented period, researchers clarified “the conceptual distinction between motivation to engage in L2 learning (choice, reasons, goals, decisions) and motivation during engagement (how one feels, behaves, and responds during the process of learning)” (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012, p. 397). For example, one of the best known and most representative process models was Dörnyei and Ottó's three-phase process model (1998), including ‘pre-actional’, ‘actional’, and ‘post-actional’ phases. They defined their concept of motivation as a “process whereby a certain amount of instigation force arises, initiates action, and persists as long as no other force comes into play to weaken it and thereby terminate action, or until the planned outcome has been reached” (Dörnyei, 1998, p. 118) (See Section 2.3.9 for more details.) However, there were two main shortcomings commented by the researcher himself later (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). One was that it assumed that the beginning and the end of a learning process could be clearly defined, which was nonetheless problematic. The other was that it assumed that the learning process is rather isolated without other interference. Consequently, researchers started to consider more and argued that motivational models were not simply linear models of cause-effect relationships; additionally, they should take account of the dynamic complexity of language learning, including research themes of context, past experience, future orientation, and change

over time. Language learning motivation has, therefore, shifted from the process-oriented period to the socio-dynamic period during the last decade. There has been a rapid and world-wide expansion of research into language learning motivation, with an accompanying range of themes considered (e.g. the self and identity, context, vision, and the dynamic nature: more details in Section 2.3.10 and 2.3.11).

2.3.2 Gardner's theory of L2 motivation

As mentioned in the history of motivation research in the previous section, Robert Gardner and his colleagues and associates in Canada are not only the representative researchers in the social psychological period but also the important core of researchers whose theories have become a keystone in the field of language learning motivation. According to their research (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Lambert, 1972), language learning motivation functioned between 'motivation' and 'orientation'. Based on their Canadian model in an English as second language (ESL) context from a social psychological angle, 'motivation' could be generally divided into three components: (1) motivational intensity, (2) desire to learn the language, and (3) attitudes towards learning the language; 'orientation' was composed of two components: (i) integrative orientation, which was concerned with a positive attitude toward a target country, interest in the target language, and a desire to interact or even become similar to valued members of the target community, and (ii) instrumental orientation, which is relevant to goal achievement, pragmatic gains in L2 proficiency, such as passing an English exam or taking a chance to get a better job.

Furthermore, motivation, as Dörnyei (2001) summarised, refers to "a kind of central mental 'engine' or 'energy-centre' that subsumes effort, want/will (cognition) and task-enjoyment (affect). [...] The role of orientation, then, is to help to arouse

motivation and direct it towards a set of goals” (p. 49). In other words, motivation is simply ‘the motivation’ itself, describing the extent of desire, the effort, and the attitudes, not the motivation which is ‘the reasons’ or ‘the drivers’ mentioned in daily conversation or buried in people’s minds. Instead, orientation is used to refer to the antecedents of motivation, the reasons or the drivers which propel people to learn a language. The orientations which cause the generation of language learning motivation are considerably noteworthy and remain a topic of research interest. For this reason, Gardner’s theory of two orientations has been highlighted in much research in the field and has become the cornerstone for later research on language learning motivation.

In the cognitive-situated period, because more cognitive theories of motivation had been emphasised, Tremblay and Gardner (1995) also developed their theories with the cognitive concept which could be summarised and depicted as the follows:

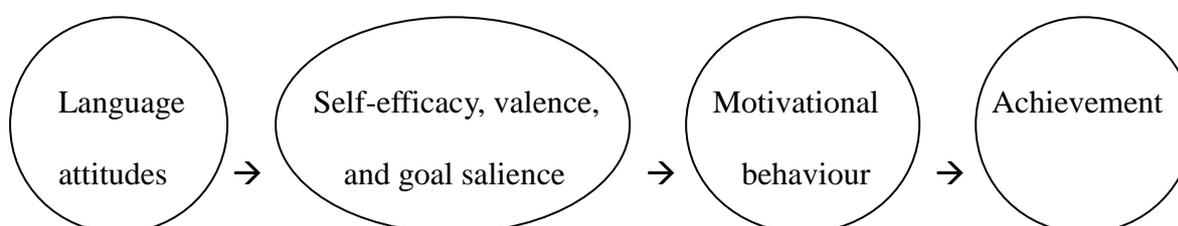


Figure 2: Tremblay and Gardner’s cognitive motivation model

(1) ‘Language attitudes’ included integrative orientation, attitudes toward L2 speakers, interest in foreign languages, attitudes towards the L2 course, and instrumental orientation. (2) The language attitude would affect language learners’ ‘self-efficacy’, ‘valence’, and ‘goal salience’. Self-efficacy is associated with attributions subsuming (a) learners’ belief in their capabilities to achieve learning goals and (b) performance expectancy. (Self-efficacy theory will be detailed in Section 2.3.4 and attribution

theory will be elaborated in Section 2.3.5.) Valence relates to the desire to learn the L2 and attitudes towards the L2. Goal salience refers to “the specificity of the learner’s goals and the frequency of goal-setting strategies used” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 49). (3) ‘Motivational behaviour’, comprising attention, motivational intensity, and persistence, would be influenced by learners’ self-efficacy, valence, and goal salience. (4) Finally, motivational behaviour would afterwards impact on language learning achievement.

After the 1990s, not only did Gardner and his associates present their models and findings but also more and more studies began to focus on exploring language learning motivation in different contexts, especially EFL/global contexts, in order to examine (a) whether motivational factors will differ from context to context or not and (b) how and why those differences happen. At the same time, researchers were also trying to create more links between theories and practice in the real language classroom, as was called for in the seminal article by Crookes and Schmidt (1991). (See Section 2.3.3 for more details.) In other words, the underpinning concept of Gardner’s theory has been gradually and widely adapted, added new concepts, and compared by those who conducted their empirical investigation in various contexts, with different countries, ages, genders, identities, majors, educational environments, socio-cultural backgrounds, etc.

2.3.3 Crookes and Schmidt’s theory of L2 motivation

Gardner and his associates’ research has attracted a large amount of attention over the years; consequently, Crookes and Schmidt (1991) argued that Gardner’s theory had been so dominant that other approaches had “not seriously been considered” (p.501) and “it seems reasonable that motivation, as it controls

engagement in and persistence with the learning task, should also be considered worthy of renewed scrutiny” (p.480). Thus, they further identified three aspects which were also important to learners’ motivation, particularly in the classroom setting. The first one was related to how to motivate students regarding the lesson before the teaching formally starts in order to arouse their higher levels of interest. Second, varying activities, tasks, and materials were needed to maintain learners’ motivation. Third, using cooperative rather than competitive learning would prevent the following situation (especially for low achievers). If learners experience failure and blame themselves for it, they are “likely to have a low estimate of their future success in SL learning, which may in turn lead to low risk-taking, low acceptance of ambiguity, and other behaviours that are probably negatively correlated with success in SL learning” (p. 490). Under the circumstances, low achievers would, therefore, feel that success is possible by cooperative learning. However, cooperative learning could not always work since low achievers might react differently, such as feeling more anxious about the distance from others or adopt a passive role while learning as one of team members. High achievers might also encounter potential difficulties, anxiety, burden, or frustration by pair-work or group-work. The value of cooperative learning would, therefore, need to be explored through more empirical research and to find effective methods in order to benefit teaching and learning.

Moreover, Crookes and Schmidt’s (1991) stated that motivation concerns the choices learners make, the experiences and goals they achieve or avoid, and the degree of effort they make. They proposed four course-specific motivational components as factors that influence learners’ motivation, including ‘interest’, ‘relevance’, ‘expectancy’ and ‘satisfaction’, which have become distinguished and applied by many other researchers.

(1) Interest refers to intrinsic motivation and personal curiosity about the self and

learning environment.

- (2) Relevance involves how learners feel about the instruction and whether the instruction satisfies their needs, values, or goals or not.
- (3) Expectancy is considered as “the perceived likelihood of success and is related to the learner’s self-confidence and self-efficacy at a general level” (Dörnyei, 1994, p.277). (See Section 2.3.4 for more details.)
- (4) Satisfaction means both the extrinsic rewards, such as good marks and honours, and intrinsic rewards, such as pride and self-fulfilment, for the outcome of a learning activity.

2.3.4 Self-efficacy theory

As previously mentioned, expectancy is one of important factors that influence language learning motivation; whether learners can develop their sense of expectancy for success or not would be influential on learning. Two of most crucial aspects that affect learners building up their expectancy include “judging one’s own abilities and competence (self-efficacy theory)” and “processing past experiences (attribution theory)” (Dörnyei, 1998, p. 119). This section is, therefore, going to talk about self-efficacy theory, and attribution theory will be elaborated later in Section 2.3.5.

Albert Bandura (1986) developed self-efficacy theory; it refers to people’s belief regarding their capabilities to achieve and complete a task. The self-efficacy belief should not be confused with learners’ confidence in their proficiency; the former reflects “individual’s judgments of how capable they are of performing specific activities” and “beliefs about expectations of future achievement” (Graham, 2007, p. 82), while the latter is related to “self-perceptions of communicative competence and concomitant low levels of anxiety in using the second language” (Noels, Pon, &

Clement, 1996, p. 255). Self-efficacy is not the actual competence, abilities, or learning outcomes either, although they are indirectly related. Instead, self-efficacy is “the product of a complex process of self-persuasion that is based on cognitive processing of diverse sources” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 16). For example, language students’ past learning experiences, other people’s feedback and comments, or the learning environment would be powerful sources contributing to self-efficacy. If a low achieving language learner has been positively affected by such sources and then has a higher sense of self-efficacy, he/she might be, therefore, highly motivated to learn the target language.

Based on Bandura’s theory, people’s decision, aspiration, and persistence are strongly determined by their sense of efficacy. “Unless people believe that they can produce desired results and forestall detrimental ones by their actions, they have little incentive to act or to persevere in the face of difficulties” (Bandura, 2001, p. 10). In other words, if people have a low sense of self-efficacy, they tend to have negative attitudes and view a difficult task as a threat and obstacle; then they might, therefore, lose their faith or give up easily when trying to achieve goals or even before starting, which may lead them to have lower motivation. On the contrary, people with a high sense of self-efficacy would be motivated and try hard to overcome difficulties with confidence and expectation, and to sustain their effort in the face of possible failure. For instance, one male student felt anxious and thought that he would not be able to master in English no matter what; then he had low self-efficacy that would lead to lowering down his English learning motivation. In contrast, another learner, while not necessarily highly proficient at English, believed that he would gradually improve and also imagined he would speak English fluently in the near future, so he was motivated to learn and enjoyed learning English.

2.3.4 Attribution theory

Attribution theory is of relevance to language learning motivation although it has not been widely applied to the field. According to the theory, attribution is (1) how people look for explanations or causes of their success or failure and (2) how people interpret their environment as to sustain a positive self-image (Weiner, 1986). There are three main categories of attribution, including 'locus of control' (i.e. internal or external), 'stability' (i.e. stable or unstable, whether causes change over time or not), and 'controllability' (i.e. controllable or uncontrollable). Students with higher self-esteem and achievement are likely to attribute their success in learning to internal, stable, and uncontrollable factors, such as ability, while they attribute failure to either internal, unstable, and controllable factors, such as effort, or external factors such as task difficulty (stable and controllable) or luck (unstable and uncontrollable). For instance, high achievers tend to attribute their success to their confidence and recognition of ability and effort; failure is considered to be caused by external factors (such as bad luck or poor exams) but not their fault. Therefore, failure does not impact their self-esteem and perceived ability but success improves their confidence and pride. If they did not work hard enough and this results in negative performance, they may also attribute their poor results to lacking effort, not innate intelligence, which could be likely to motivate them to learn and practise more next time. On the other hand, low achievers tend to attribute failure to stable and uncontrollable factors, such as bad ability or poor teachers, while they attribute success to external factors, such as luck and task difficulty. For example, low achievers might think that no matter how hard they try, they will fail anyway. These students would doubt their ability and assume learning outcomes are beyond their control; they seem not to feel responsible for their performance and are reluctant to work hard since failure usually happens and

success is rare and beyond their control.

In addition, attributions are influential in forming people's expectancy. Graham (1994) stated that self-questioning and self-reflecting, which arouses attributions, would have impact on learners' success or failure later on. For instance, when people think that effort brings success, they expect that working harder will lead to achieving learning goals; then they are likely to hold positive self-efficacy beliefs, which is "found to lead to higher levels of achievement, a greater willingness to face challenges, and to exert effort" (Graham, 2011, p. 114). While people tend to fail if they do nothing and expect nothing since results will not change or if they depend on their luck without working hard or blame their poor learning achievement on others, such as the difficulty of exams (Weiner, 1992; Dörnyei, 2001).

2.3.6 Goal theory

In the area of goal theory, there are three major focuses: (1) goal-setting, (2) goal-orientation, and (3) goal content and multiplicity. The latter two theories are related to the current thesis and they will be explored in this section.

Goal-orientation theory: Ames (1992) reviewed goal-orientation theory and asserted that two orientations were relevant to school settings: (i) mastery orientation and (ii) performance orientation.

- mastery orientation, involving the pursuit of 'mastery goals' (also labeled as 'task-involvement goals' or 'learning goals') with the focus on learning the content
- performance orientation, involving the pursuit of 'performance goals' (or 'ego-involvement goals') with the focus on demonstrating ability, getting good grades or outdoing other students

(Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 21)

Therefore, mastery orientation puts more emphasis on achievement activity and the learning process. Personal growth and improvement are vital aims during the learning process. On the other hand, performance orientation views learning as a method in order to obtain goals and/or public recognition. It is similar to Gardner's (1985) instrumental orientation.

Goal content and multiplicity theory: As goal-orientation theory are concerned more with learners' academic achievement and performance, goal content and multiplicity theory are strongly related to learners' goals particularly in the real language classroom and educational setting. For example, Wentzel (2000, 2007) suggested that students may not be motivated to learn a language because of learning pressure, low academic achievement, or competitiveness; in contrast, they may be motivated to learn in order to acquire knowledge, make friends, please teachers, avoid punishments, or follow the school rules. Moreover, Wentzel (2000) accentuated that goals are "socially derived constructs that cannot be studied in isolation of the rules and conventions of culture and context" (p. 106). For instance, students may desire to establish a reputation or earn praise for their hard work. So this theory has "drawn attention to the important role of social and emotional well-being in motivating learning [...] the focus on the social context of goal development reflects the growing importance of dynamic and socially situated perspectives on motivation" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 22) More dimensions, such as personal interaction, intergroup relations, socio-cultural values and norms, assimilation process, and ethnic issues, would, therefore, need to be taken into consideration in relation to language learning motivation.

2.3.7 Self-determination theory

Another essential and well-known motivation theory which is closely related to Gardner's theory and which has been applied by many researchers is Deci and Ryan's self-determination theory, including two main concepts of 'intrinsic motivation' and 'extrinsic motivation'. While integrativeness and instrumentality have continued to be recognised and applied widely, they are insufficient to explain the process of language learning engagement in classroom settings and learning process. Self-determination theory tries to bridge the gap between existing studies and the need for classroom learning analysis; it gains "theoretical prominence as motivation concepts more relevant to the analysis of classroom language learning, and more directly amenable to pedagogical influence and to internal as well as external regulation" (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012, p. 399).

According to Deci and Ryan (1985), "intrinsic motivation is in evidence whenever students' natural curiosity and interest energise their learning" (p. 245). It concerns people who find their learning interesting and then the engagement promotes their growth (Deci & Ryan, 2000). There are three subtypes of intrinsic motivation further distinguished by Vallerand (1997), including 'to learn', 'towards achievement', and 'to experience stimulation' as follows.

- (1) To learn: the individual engages in "an activity for the pleasure and satisfaction of understanding something new, satisfying one's curiosity and exploring the world" (Dörnyei, Muir, & Ibrahim, 2014, p. 19).
- (2) Towards achievement: the individual engages in "an activity for the satisfaction of surpassing oneself, coping with challenges and accomplishing or creating something" (p. 19).
- (3) To experience stimulation: the individual engages in " an activity to

experience pleasant sensation” (p. 19).

On the other hand, extrinsic motivation contains four dimensions.

- (1) The first one is ‘external regulation’. It involves extrinsically motivated behaviours that are “the ones that the individual performs to receive some extrinsic reward (e.g., good grades) or to avoid punishment” (Deci & Ryan, 1985, p. 275). It is likely to accomplish goal-oriented achievement as mentioned in Section 2.3.6.
- (2) The second one is ‘Introjection’. It is related to “self-worth (pride) or threats of guilt and shame” (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 236). This involves the imposed rules that accepted as norms to follow in order to achieve honour or prevent from feeling guilty (Dörnyei, 2009).
- (3) The third one is ‘Identification’. It entails the recognition and acceptance about the underlying value of behaviours, and this thought further becomes one part of individuals’ identity. For instance, if learners identify with the benefits and significance of learning English, they will make effort to learn it.
- (4) The last one is ‘Integration’. “It not only involves identifying with the importance of behaviours but also integrating those identifications with other aspects of the self” (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 236). For example, when the value of English proficiency is part of individuals’ social norms and culture, being proficient in English will be evidence that people qualify as well-educated persons.

As a result, both integrative and instrumental orientations are forms of extrinsic motivation since they are the purposes and means to learn a language. In particular, intrinsic motivation should not be mixed up with integrative orientation. The former emphasises learners’ curiosity, enjoyment, and interest; the latter has a strong

indication of integrativeness (Ortega, 2009). That is to say, intrinsic motivation focuses on students' personal positive feeling, such as enjoyment and satisfaction, which learning a language can bring about; whereas integrative orientation implies the desire to be similar to the target community, which is a form of internalisation of extrinsic motivation. For instance, a language student may have a low sense of integrativeness yet derive strongly intrinsic fulfillment while learning.

Furthermore, it is suggested that intrinsic motivation would promote more spontaneous and self-sustaining learning motivation than extrinsic motivation did (Ushioda, 2008). Learners who have strong intrinsic motivation would “display much higher levels of involvement in learning, engage in more efficient and creative thinking processes, use a wider range of problem-solving strategies, and interact with and retain material more effectively” (p. 22). Therefore, the key inspiration and insight for teachers to raise students' intrinsic motivation with helpful instruction were expected to fulfil three necessities, including “the need for autonomy (a feeling of being able to choose personally meaningful activities), for competence (a sense of gaining mastery of a subject area or skill) and for relatedness (feeling connected to and valued by others engaged in the activity)” (Lamb, 2017, p. 317). For example, if learners consider a learning challenge is too difficult to conquer and they feel incompetent to undertake it, they will not develop the sense of autonomy while learning; their intrinsic interest is, therefore, low during the activity (Ushioda, 2014). However, this is not to say that the worth of extrinsic motivation should, therefore, be overlooked and underestimated. After all, it is also tremendously linked to benefiting successful learning in the other way, no matter integratively or instrumentally. Extrinsic motivation is valued and powerful but it may unfortunately work more as short-term benefits. Thus, educators hope to be able to foster students' motivation from within.

2.3.8 Three-level framework of L2 motivation

Dörnyei and his research associates first became active in the cognitive-situated period, and became some of the most prominent researchers in the field from then on. Dörnyei conceptualised a three-level framework of L2 motivation system in 1994 which applied most of the theories mentioned in the previous sections (see Table 2-1).

Table 2-1: Dörnyei’s three-level framework of L2 motivation (Dörnyei, 1994, p. 280)

LEVEL	COMPONENTS
<u>Language level</u>	Integrative motivational subsystem Instrumental motivational subsystem
<u>Learner level</u>	Need for achievement Self-confidence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Language use anxiety ● Perceived L2 competence ● Causal attributions ● Self-efficacy
<u>Learning situation level</u>	
Course-specific motivational components	Interest (in the course) components Relevance (of the course to one’s needs) Expectancy (of success) Satisfaction (one has in the outcome)
Teacher-specific motivational components	Affiliative motive (to please the teacher) Authority type (controlling vs. autonomy-supporting) Direct socialisation of motivation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Modelling ● Task Presentation ● Feedback
Group-specific motivational components	Goal-orientedness Norm and reward system Group cohesiveness Classroom goal structure (cooperative, competitive or individualistic)

The three distinct levels are “(1) ‘language level’ (integrative and instrumental motivational subsystems), (2) ‘learner level’ (individual motivational characteristics), and (3) ‘learning situation level’ (situation-specific motives relating to the course and social learning environment)” (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012, p. 399).

Among the three levels, the language level encompasses multiple components connected to language learners’ attitudes toward L2 and L2 learning, including integrativeness and instrumentality; the components of the learner level include students’ own characteristics during their language learning process, such as the need for achievement and self-confidence; while the learning situation level is connected to the real language classroom setting, concerning factors such as course design, teaching, and learning group. Each level has its own powerful function that affects learners’ motivation and at the same time, they do not merely work individually. Each level could also mutually influence another. Consequently, the concept of the complexity and dynamic natures of language learning motivation appears to be demonstrated by the theory.

2.3.9 Focus on time

During the process-oriented period, researchers started to investigate how students change their learning motivation from the initial starting point of learning, during the course, and after the instruction. Teachers are expected to not only arouse learners’ interest at the beginning of the class but also help them to sustain their learning motivation. Hence, encouraging motivating learning entails more than sparking an initial interest, such as using interesting teaching materials (Williams & Burden, 1997). An exploration of students’ language learning motivation in different stages, including an analysis of the vicissitudes of its growth and decline, has been an

area of interest for researchers working within a process-oriented paradigm. Aiming to explore language learning motivation over time, Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) developed a process model of L2 motivation. This model contains three phases: the ‘pre-actional’ phase, ‘actional’ phase, and ‘post-actional’ phase.

The pre-actional phase “corresponds roughly to ‘choice motivation’ leading to the selection of the goal or task to be pursued” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 65). The actional phase “corresponds to ‘executive motivation’ that energises action while it is being carried out; [...] the individual is committed to action and the emphasis shifts from deliberation and decision-making to implementation” (p. 65). The post-actional phase “involves critical retrospection after the action has been completed or possibly interrupted for a period (e.g. a holiday). The main processes during this phase entail evaluating the accomplished action outcome and contemplating possible inferences to be drawn for future actions” (p. 66). For instance, before a language learner begins a new period of learning, his/her motivation would drive him/her to set a goal for making improvement; this is called the pre-actional phase. Then, when learning the target language, the learning motivation might change in response to the learning situation, for example, increasing, declining, appearing, fading, or even staying the same, leading to different learning outcomes; this sequence of ‘executive motivational influences’ occurs during the actional phase. The causes of this ebb and flow of motivation are “likely to be the quality of the learning experience, sense of autonomy, social influences (teachers, peers, parents), classroom reward and goal structures, and knowledge and use of self-regulation strategies” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 66). After learning, the post-actional phase begins; learners evaluate and think in retrospect about their learning, forming causal attributions to explain the learning outcomes achieved and meanwhile possibly also having an influence on their future learning strategies, planning, and language learning motivation.

Nevertheless, two main limitations in this process model of L2 motivation have been highlighted as follows (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). First, that it is difficult to draw a certain dividing line between the beginning and end of learning processes; particularly, whether the pre-actional phase can be purely defined may be problematic. Second, that the phases of learning processes might not occur individually; the three phases could overlap in a complex manner. For instance, students might also be influenced by the past learning experience or engage in other academic studies. “Several learning processes might be running simultaneously” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 69). Under the circumstances, in order to examine motivation changing over time, it has been suggested in the later period that this process model of language learning motivation be expanded and revised by taking a more socio-dynamic perspective. That is, researchers have established new conceptual theories since this century, such as ‘a person-in-context relational view of motivation’ (Ushioda, 2009), ‘vision’ (Levin, 2000), and ‘the L2 motivational self system’ (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). (See Section 2.3.10 and 2.3.11 for more details.)

2.3.10 A person-in-context relational view of motivation

In order to research language learning motivation in a relational view of motivation, self and context, Ushioda (2009) developed her person-in-context relational view of motivation with a focus on the complex individuality of real people. Learners’ cultural and historical backgrounds should, therefore, be considered within motivation research. Ushioda stated:

I mean a focus on real persons, rather than on learners as theoretical abstractions; a focus on the agency of the individual person as a thinking, feeling human being, with an identity, a personality, a unique history and background, a person with

goals, motives and intentions; a focus on the interaction between this self-reflective intentional agent, and the fluid and complex system of social relations, activities, experiences and multiple micro- and macro-contexts in which the person is embedded, moves, and is inherently part of. My argument is that we need to take a relational (rather than linear) view of these multiple contextual elements, and view motivation as an organic process that emerges through this complex system of interrelations (Ushioda, 2009, p. 220).

In other words, individual behaviours are shaped by the living context and the uniqueness of personality would also shape the future context. The interrelationships between the context and individual have been significantly emphasised in Ushioda's motivation theories, since, from her perspective, she is convinced that "we need to understand more about who is learning, with whom, where, when, and why" (Ryan & Dörnyei, 2013, p. 91). A language student is expected to be viewed as a 'person' with his/her own personal backgrounds instead of a 'language learner' without the recognition of his/her identity. As a language learning person learns a language, his/her behaviours could be influenced substantially by his/her uniqueness in a certain context and form both different levels of learning motivation and new context as time goes by.

2.3.11 Vision and the L2 self

Martin Luther King gave his 'I have a dream' speech on 28 August 1963 to illustrate an encouraging vision of a brighter future. The power of 'vision' is not only evidenced by history, but also widely used by people to create a promising vision in order to imagine a positive future-oriented image and plan to fulfil it afterwards. In the field of language learning motivation, vision is associated as an imagery that

ensues behaviour which “involves preliving hoped-for future experiences” (You, Dörnyei, & Csizer, 2016, p. 99). In addition to future hopes, other emotions, such as desire, fear or obligation, no matter positive (e.g. aiming for something) or negative (preventing from something), the vision for the future would render a clear way in motivating people to do further actions (Dörnyei, 2014; Dörnyei & Chan, 2013). Therefore, many researchers have believed that vision is “one of the single most important factors within the domain of language learning: where there is a vision, there is a way” (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014, p. 2). Vision is, therefore, “to help students to ‘see’ themselves as potentially competent L2 users, to become excited about the value of knowing a foreign language in their own lives and, subsequently, to take action” (p. 2). Meanwhile, vision is “one of the highest-order motivational forces, one that is particularly fitting to explain the long-term, and often lifelong, process of mastering a second language” (p. 4). In other words, even if just a mental image, vision is viewed as an effective factor that has the power to motivate learners to obtain a future goal and realise a plan. In particular, vision is not simply to offer a future goal enabling people to achieve. Rather, it involves a strong ‘sensory element’, that is a series of actions through which people produce a tangible image of a blueprint for the process of achieving the ‘personalised goal’, and, then, they further imagine the ‘future experience’ of achieving the target goal (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014; Levin, 2000; Markus & Ruvolo, 1989). For instance, an English learner may have a vision to study abroad. Then he or she should try to make a plan of how to realise it (personalised goal), imagine how the real life overseas will be (future experience), such as speaking English in daily life, and, finally, put the aims into action.

Since the vision is utilised to motivate people to carry out actions for future goals, how people should execute the power of vision by themselves has become a popular

topic. Over the past decades, “personality psychology has increasingly turned to investigate the active, dynamic nature of the self-system – that is, the ‘doing’ side of personality – by examining how the self regulates behaviour and how various self-characteristics are related to action” (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014, p. 10). Markus and Nurius (1986) first introduced the concept of ‘possible selves’ as a dynamic approach of connecting the ‘self’ within the ‘action’. Possible selves, involving ‘images’ and ‘senses’, enable people to think about what they might become, plan to become, and prevent from becoming in the future. It works effectively only when people perceive their visions as possible and realistic within their circumstances; in other words, their visions need to convince them that their action can really make a difference (Dörnyei, 2014). Dörnyei (2005) later reviewed Markus and Nurius’s psychological theory of possible selves and proposed the ‘L2 motivational self system’; he regarded his self model as “a natural progression from Gardner’s theory” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 80). After a large-scale motivation survey, with over 13000 participants and over a 12-year time period, conducted in Hungary, Dörnyei observed language learning motivation within the phenomena of the worldwide globalisation process and the rise of global/world English as an international language. Drawing on those concerns, Dörnyei integrated social context into his theory of the ‘L2 motivational self system’. The system was divided into three components: (1) the ideal L2 self, (2) the ought-to L2 self, and (3) the L2 learning experience.

First of all, the ‘ideal L2 self’ describes the attributions which people “would ideally like to possess (i.e. it concerns hopes, aspirations, and wishes)” (Dörnyei, 2014, p. 521). It represents a personal inspiring vision of an ideal future self-imagination as a competent L2 user and an aspiration to master the target language (Lamb, 2017; Ryan & Dörnyei, 2013). For example, if people are motivated

to learn a language because they are eager to decrease the discrepancy between their actual selves of the current state and the ideal L2 selves of the future vision, the ideal L2 self, therefore, serves as a positive motivational factor for learning (Dörnyei, 2018; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). In this category, Gardner's integrative orientation and internalised instrumental orientation (e.g. pursuing a better future career) would be counted.

Secondly, the 'ought-to L2' self depicts the attributions which people "believe they ought to possess (i.e. it concerns personal or social duties, obligations, and responsibilities)" (Dörnyei, 2014, p. 521). It involves other people's vision of the individual, such as family obligation, social norms, or reputation, which enables the person to meet expectations or prevent possible negative consequences occurring (Dörnyei, 2018; Lamb, 2017; Magid, 2012). For instance, if people are motivated to learn a language in order to meet a standard or expectation and avoid undesirable outcomes or punishments (instrumental orientation of extrinsic motivation), these conditions belong to the motivational factor of the ought-to L2 self. The difference between the instrumentality included in the ideal L2 self and that contained in the ought-to L2 self is that the former is the factor of "promotion focus", and the latter is the factor of "prevention focus" (Higgins, 1998). That is:

ideal self-guides have a promotion focus, concerned with hopes, aspirations, advancements, growth and accomplishments (i.e. approaching a desired end-state); whereas ought-to self-guides have a prevention focus, regulating the absence or presence of negative outcomes, concerned with safety, responsibilities and obligations (i.e. avoidance of a feared end-state)

(Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 87).

Dörnyei (2014) furthermore asserted that (a) integrativeness and the ideal L2 self

were positively correlated; (b) the correlation of the ideal L2 self with a promotion focus of instrumentality was stronger than with a prevention focus of instrumentality; and (c) the correlation between the ought-to L2 self and a prevention focus of instrumentality was higher than with a promotion focus of instrumentality.

Lastly, the ‘L2 learning experience’ concerns executive motivational influences, such as the learning environment, the curriculum, the teacher, the learning group and the experience of success, which exert an influence during language learning (Dörnyei, 2018). To be more specific, it relates to learners’ current learning experience in the immediate environment. In other words, the L2 learning experience represents (a) “the learners’ attitudes to, and experiences of, the learning process, inside and outside of classrooms” (Lamb, 2017, p. 321), and (b) “the motivational influence of the students’ learning environment” (Dörnyei, 2014, p. 521). These are closely related to the learning situational level in Dörnyei’s three-level framework of L2 motivation (See previous discussion of ‘three-level framework of L2 motivation’ in Section 2.3.8). Thus, language learners may be willing to learn a language or keep learning it because of the past learning experience of success, such as that they find out they are good at learning the language in class or the content of the lecture is interesting. Successful learning histories and the present learning conditions are, therefore, categorised into this component of the L2 learning experience. Szpunar and McDermott (2009) also indicated that “the intriguing fact that the reason why we can imagine our future vividly is due to our ability to recollect past occurrences” (cited in Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014, p. 18). It is like a ‘mental time travel’ that links a person from the past, now, and to the future (Dowrick, 2012). Learners are encouraged to look back and to imagine and see the future.

In sum, the L2 motivational self system endeavours to utilise the power of vision and suggests that when learners learn a language, they would have three primary

sources of motivation, including (1) the ideal L2 self, “the learner’s internal desire to become an effective L2 user”, (2) the ought-to L2 self, “social pressures coming from the learner’s environment to master the L2, and (3) the L2 learning experience, “the actual experience of being engaged in the L2 learning process” (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014, p. 22).

2.4 Reviewing studies in a Taiwanese university context

After the review of language learning motivation theories, this section discusses 25 empirical studies conducted since 2000 on English learning motivation in a Taiwanese university context. (See Table 2-2 for their summaries on the next page.) Firstly, the author keyed in the terms ‘English learning motivation’ and ‘Taiwanese university students’ on Google Scholar and located 66 related studies. Then, these studies were carefully read through and 25 of them were chosen because the context and theme of their research were close to the present thesis. Moreover, most of them involve a questionnaire survey; 22 out of 25 are quantitative research. The remaining three studies are two qualitative research and one mixed methods research: (a) of the two qualitative papers one is an interview survey and the other an interview survey plus classroom observation; (b) one is a mixed methods paper containing both questionnaire and interview surveys. In the following paragraphs, these papers are categorised into five groups as follows in order to review and facilitate the comparison of the theories applied and the findings of the studies.

- (1) University students in general
- (2) Non-English-major participants (low achievers)
- (3) English-major participants (high achievers)

(4) Comparison between groups

(5) Motivation change over time

In order to explicate the theories and findings of these 25 papers, first of all, the author divided them into three groups, according to the main concern of each of the 25 studies: one is seven studies focusing on examining differences between groups, mostly between high and low achievers (Group 4); another one is four studies aiming to investigate motivation change over time (Group 5); the other one is the remaining 14 studies. Secondly, the third group of the remaining 14 studies was further sorted into three groups, according to the participants' proficiency level: one is English majors (Group 3); another is non-English majors (Group 2); and the third is the remaining eight studies without giving the description of proficiency level (Group 1). As a result, there emerged five groups in total for review and analysis.

Table 2-2: 25 studies on English learning motivation in a Taiwanese university context

Study titles listed according to the chronology

Study 1: Existence of integrative motivation in an Asian EFL setting (Warden & Lin, 2000)

Study 2: Conceptualising Taiwanese college students' English learning motivation (Chang, 2002)

Study 3: An investigation of language learning motivation among EFL learners at a technology college in Taiwan – A case study of EFL learners at Far East college (Chang, 2003)

Study 4: Applying the Expectancy-value Theory to foreign language learning motivation: A case study on Takming College students (Chen & Sheu, 2005)

Study 5: An investigation of military school freshmen's motivational English achievement (Hou, Liou, & Cheng, 2005)

Study 6: A study of ROCMA freshmen Cadets' motivation on English learning (Chen, 2008)

Study 7: A qualitative study on English learning difficulties of Applied Foreign Languages Department students (Lin, 2008)

Study 8: English learning motivation and needs analysis: A case study of technological university students in Taiwan (Tsao, 2008)

Study 9: A study of the relationship among English learning environment, learning motivation and learning strategies of college students (Wu & Lin, 2009)

Study 10: A study of technical college students' English learning motivation in southern Taiwan (Li &

Haggard, 2010)

Study 11: The relation of academic self-concept to motivation among university EFL students (Liu, 2010)

Study 12: A comparison of English learning motivations between English-majored and non-English-majored students (Tsai, Jheng, & Hong, 2010)

Study 13: A study on students' learning motivation of EFL in Taiwanese vocational college (Fan, 2012)

Study 14: Investigating the relationship among cognitive learning styles, motivation and strategy use in reading English as a foreign language (Tsai, 2012)

Study 15: Promotion of EFL student motivation, confidence and satisfaction via a learning spiral, peer-scaffolding and CMC (Wu, Marek, & Yen, 2012)

Study 16: A study of English learning motivation of less successful students (Yue, 2012)

Study 17: The impact of integrating technology and social experience in the college foreign language classroom (Chen, 2013)

Study 18: The motivation of learners of English as a foreign language revisited (Lai, 2013)

Study 19: English language learners' perceptions of motivational change (Lai & Ting, 2013)

Study 20: The cooperative learning effects on English reading comprehension and learning motivation of EFL freshmen (Pan & Wu, 2013)

Study 21: Motivating TVES nursing students: Effects of CLT on learner motivation (Chang, 2014)

Study 22: Assessing language anxiety in EFL students with varying degrees of motivation (Liu & Cheng, 2014)

Study 23: Examining university students' motivation and their motivational behaviors in English learning with structural equation modeling (Sheu, 2015)

Study 24: Learning motivation and perfectionism in English language learning: An analysis of Taiwanese university students (Chen, Kuo, & Kao, 2016)

Study 25: A correlation analysis of Taiwanese university students' motivations and their motivational behaviors (Sheu, 2016)

The following discussion will focus on what was found about motivation and motivational factors identified and the strength of and relationship between them reported from the previous studies. Many studies use Likert scales with different number of points; for ease of comparison, the mean/median point can be taken as the 'dividing line' between positive and negative comparisons, as follows:

6-point Likert scale: Mean/median = 3.5

5-point Likert scale: Mean/median = 3

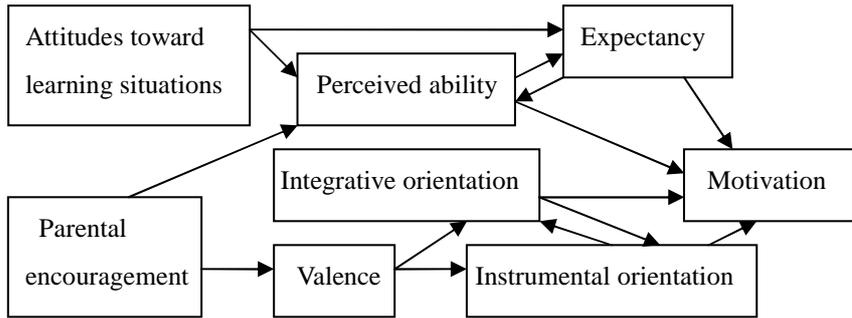
4-point Likert scale: Mean/median = 2.5

3-point Likert scale: Mean/median = 2

2.4.1 University students in general

There are eight papers discussing the general situation about English learning motivation in a Taiwanese university context. (See Table 2.3 for their summaries.)

Table 2-3: Eight empirical studies examining university students in general

Study	Participants	Main findings
Study 2 (Chang, 2002)	757 Taiwanese engineering university students who have different majors from one university	Nine motivational factors: (1) Intrinsic motivation (2) Interest in the language, culture and people (3) Implied value with English (4) Requirement (5) Desire to integrate into the target community (6) Technology and knowledge (7) Need for good performance (8) Need for study abroad (9) Future career
Study 4 (Chen & Sheu, 2005)	451 Taiwanese freshmen from one university	Seven motivational factors with structural equation modelling:  <pre> graph LR A[Attitudes toward learning situations] --> B[Perceived ability] A --> C[Integrative orientation] P[Parental encouragement] --> B P --> V[Valence] B --> E[Expectancy] B --> M[Motivation] C --> E C --> M V --> I[Instrumental orientation] I --> M E --> M </pre>
Study 9 (Wu & Lin, 2009)	913 Taiwanese university students who have different majors from eight different universities	Five motivational factors: (1) Intrinsic motivation (2) Extrinsic motivation (3) Instrumental orientation (the strongest factor) (4) Self-efficacy (5) Locus of control

Study 13 (Fan, 2012)	109 Taiwanese university students taught by the same teacher from one university	(5-point Likert scale questionnaire: 1 = low) Six motivational factors listed from the highest to the lowest: (1) Control beliefs about learning (3.66) (2) Task value (3.40) (3) Extrinsic goal oriented (3.35) (4) Intrinsic goal oriented (3.32) (5) Self-efficacy (2.94) (6) Expectations of success (2.73)
Study 17 (Chen, 2013)	315 Taiwanese university students from one university	(5-point Likert scale questionnaire: 1 = low) Desire to learn English: 3.36 Three motivational factors listed from the highest to the lowest: (1) Learning with technology: 3.66 (2) Technology experience: 3.34 (3) Social experience (social construction, cooperative learning, and communicative competence / willingness to communicate): 3.10 Correlations: (1) and (3) ($r = .48, p < .05$); desire to learn English and (3) ($r = .46, p < .05$) A stepwise multiple regression analysis: Significant predictor variables of desire to learn English: (1) and (3)
Study 23 (Sheu, 2015)	343 Taiwanese university students from four different universities	(4-point Likert scale questionnaire: 1 = low) Four motivational factors listed from the highest to the lowest: (1) Instrumentality (3.24) (2) Integrativeness (3.24) (3) Extrinsic orientation (2.98) (4) Intrinsic orientation (2.81) They were all mutually significantly correlated and served as significant predictor variables for each factor. (Structural equation modelling)
Study 24 (Chen, Kuo, & Kao, 2016)	371 Taiwanese freshmen from eight different universities	(4-point Likert scale questionnaire: 1 = low) Two motivational factors and four sub-categories: (1) Intrinsic motivation (2.93) challenge: 2.85 / enjoyment: 3.02 (2) Extrinsic motivation (2.76) outward: 2.82 / compensation: 2.69
Study 25 (Sheu, 2016)	832 Taiwanese university students from four different	(4-point Likert scale questionnaire: 1 = low) Three components of motivational behaviours listed from the highest to the lowest:

universities

- (a) Motivation intensity (2.92)
- (b) Attitude toward learning English (2.75)
- (c) Desire to learn English (2.67)

Eight motivational factors listed from the highest to the lowest:

- (1) Interest in foreign language (3.29)
- (2) Identified regulation (3.24)
- (3) Instrumental orientation (3.24)
- (4) Attitude toward English-speaking countries (3.24)
- (5) Integrative orientation (3.20)
- (6) External regulation (3.01)
- (7) Intrinsic orientation (2.81)
- (8) Introjected regulation (2.69)

A multiple regression analysis:

- Significant predictor variables of (a): (1), (2), (5), (6) (negative), (7), and (8) (negative)
 - Significant predictor variables of (b): (1), (5), (6) (negative), (7), and (8) (negative)
 - Significant predictor variables of (c): (1), (4), (5), and (6) (negative), and (7)
-

Among these studies, all of them identify different motivational factors among their participants. Instrumental and integrative orientations and intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are the two most common sets of motivational factors identified by the researchers. In particular, only Study 17 and Study 25 pay extra attention to language leaning motivation itself in addition to motivational factors. Their participants reported themselves to be moderately motivated to learn English in general. Different from Study 17, however, the participants in Study 25 show lower strength of motivation than of motivational factors. That is, although these students might have certain reasons for pursuing better English abilities, according to the findings, their actual motivation level was lower than the strength of motivational factors since (1) introjected and external regulations negatively predicted their English learning motivation and (2) instrumental orientation was not able to significantly predict and

contribute to motivation. In other words, “students normally tend to try to just get through and narrowly pass in the exams, and thus do not see the importance of learning English and are not motivated by its potential benefits” (Sheu, 2016, p. 137).

In addition, as discussed previously, it is argued that people may feel stressed when they are facing the potential of developing a bi-cultural identity (Arnett, 2002) or even multi-cultural identity while learning English. It is a process of struggling or enjoying making a choice between (a) maintaining their original identity rooted in their local culture and (b) changing or expanding their identity into a global identity that links them to the world. This raises two issues related to integrative orientation as follows.

One is that researchers may define integration differently. Some may only be interested in investigating integration that is linked to the change or expansion of national identity. Others may explore various dimensions of integration, such as in relation to not only identity but also positive attitudes towards and interest in a target language, its culture and community. When different researchers pay attention to different dimensions of integration, they may obtain different results. For example, Researcher A and Researcher B analyse integration from the same data set that includes both identity and the power of language and culture (e.g. music and media). The two researchers may arrive at dissimilar conclusions depending on whether they separate out the different facets of integration or not.

The other issue is that “the problematic nature of integrativeness has been amplified by the worldwide globalisation process and the growing dominance of Global / World English as an international language” (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 24). When English learners refuse to change or expand their original identity, they will not desire to integrate themselves into the target community and culture. In contrast, when English learners change or expand their identity, showing a form of integrative

orientation, then what exactly is “‘the other language community’ that the learner would want to ‘get closer to’” (Gardner, 2001 cited in Dörnyei, 2009, p. 24)? Plenty of people from different countries can regard themselves as owners of English speakers. Hence, integrative orientation may, therefore, play a “rapidly diminishing role in L2 motivation research during the past decade, to the extent that currently few active motivation researchers include the concept in their research paradigms” (p. 24).

Although integrative orientation is thought to lose its power and meaning along with the rise of Global / World English, interestingly, many studies, such as 2, 4, 23 and 25, still identify integrativeness as being a motivational factor. Study 4 and Study 25 also point out that integrative orientation significantly contributes to motivation. Researchers may, therefore, need to (1) provide details of how they define integration and (2) clarify what their target community is (e.g. the UK or the US) as they refer to integrativeness in order to make more meaningful interpretations of students’ motivation to learn English arising from an openness to appreciating or “taking on characteristics of another cultural / linguistic group” (Gardner, 2005, p.7).

Moreover, some motivational factors are only reflected in a few studies. For instance, parental / family influence is particularly specified in Study 4 and Study 19 (which will be referred to in Section 2.4.5). Technology-related learning, such as technology viewed as a learning goal / content or media / method, which is another example of an effective factor contributing to English learning motivation, is only identified in Study 2, 17, and 21 (which will be mentioned in Section 2.4.5).

Finally, an issue of different interpretation is found, firstly in Study 25, in which ‘intensity, desire and attitude’ are marked as ‘motivational behaviours’. Nonetheless, these items are identified by Gardner (1985) as three core components of motivation, which influence learners’ language learning behaviours rather than being the behaviours themselves. Secondly in Studies such as 2, 4, 9, 23, 25 and others

categorised into other sections, when these researchers had coded and named their motivational factors, integrative and instrumental orientations and extrinsic motivation were shown to exist at the same time. This may cause some confusion in that there may be overlaps of questionnaire statements being able to be categorised into both groups.

2.4.2 Non-English-major participants (low achievers)

There are four papers discussing the English learning motivation of non-English-major university students. (See Table 2-4 for their summaries.) These participants are low achievers, compared to English majors.

Table 2-4: Four empirical studies examining low achievers

Study	Participants	Main findings
Study 1 (Warden & Lin, 2000)	442 Taiwanese non-English-major university students from one university	Three motivational factors: (1) Instrumental motivation (2) Required motivation (3) Integrative motivation
Study 6 (Chen, 2008)	61 Taiwanese non-English-major university students (cadets) from three classes taught by the same teacher	(4-point Likert scale) Seven motivational factors listed from the highest to the lowest: (1) Linguistic self-confidence (3.04) (2) Direct contact with L2 speakers (3.00) (3) Instrumentality (2.99) (4) Integrativeness (2.94) (5) Cultural interest (2.89) (6) Vitality of L2 community (2.81) (7) Milieu (2.63)
Study 8 (Tsao, 2008)	576 Taiwanese university students from nursing and medical technology departments in one university	(5-point Likert scale) 12 motivational factors listed from the highest to the lowest: (1) Study or travel abroad (3.94) (2) Follow fashion (3.81) (3) Education and social status (3.79) (4) Job-related reasons (3.67) (5) Understand spoken English (3.66)

		(6) Cultural reasons (3.44)
		(7) Pursue knowledge (3.41)
		(8) Express oneself (3.40)
		(9) Interested in English (3.36)
		(10) Make foreign friends (3.26)
		(11) Exams (3.23)
		(12) Required course (3.05)

Study 16	207 Taiwanese	(5-point Likert scale)
(Yue, 2012)	university students from one university (They are 'less successful students' who failed the English courses.)	Nine motivational factors listed from the highest to the lowest: (1) Instrumental motivation (4.13) (2) Self evaluation (3.67) (3) Language value (3.35) (4) Cultural influence (3.32) (5) Teaching and curriculum value (3.31) (6) Group value (3.03) (7) Personality (2.96) (8) Personal development (2.67) (9) Interest motivation (2.43)

Low achievers usually perform relatively poorly in their English proficiency, but this does not mean that they, therefore, have lower language learning motivation. In these four studies, for instance, participants showed positive levels of motivational factors generally; the mean scores for the factors were mostly above average. Nevertheless, factors motivating learners to learn did differ person by person. The participants learned English because of different goals and purposes with various orientations and intentions. Yet their personal interests in English and its community and culture or in English learning were comparatively lower than accomplishing certain targets via learning English. In other words, they learned English mainly out of a need to fulfil certain purposes instead of out of a sense of love or enjoyment. It is also indicated in Study 1 and Study 6 that the learners were motivated to learn English more instrumentally than integratively.

2.4.3 English-major participants / higher achievers

There are two papers discussing the English learning motivation of English-major university students. (See Table 2-5 for their summaries.) The participants are normally high achievers among all the language learners.

Table 2-5: Two empirical studies examining high achievers

Study	Participants	Main findings
Study 7 (Lin, 2008)	Four Taiwanese English-major university students from the same class	(Focus-group interviews and classroom observation) (1) Students felt that instrumentality was losing its power to motivate them to learn. (2) Students felt that exam-led learning may cause negative effects.
Study 18 (Lai, 2013)	267 Taiwanese English-major students from one university	(4-point Likert scale) Seven motivational factors listed from the highest to the lowest: (1) Travel (3.20) (2) Instrumental (3.17) (3) Integrative (3.15) (4) Ideal L2 self (3.03) (5) Intrinsic (3.03) (6) Ought-to L2 self (2.50) (7) External (2.21)

Similar to the previous comment, like those low achievers in Study 1 and Study 6, the participants in Study 18 also reported themselves to be motivated to learn English more instrumentally than integratively or intrinsically. Additionally, these participants had more promotion-oriented factors (e.g. ideal L2 self) than prevention-oriented factors (e.g. ought-to L2 self). Study 18, however, is the only research that applied Dörnyei's 'L2 motivational self system' (2005).

On the other hand, Study 7 exposes two major difficulties from motivation research by an interview survey and classroom observation. First, unlike findings from other papers which show instrumental orientation powerfully working as a motivational factor, the participants in Study 7 expressed that instrumentality was

gradually losing its power to motivate them to learn. For example, they could be dissatisfied when they find that better language skills do not equate to achieving goals successfully. Instead, there could be a huge gap between providing a good curriculum vitae and obtaining a good job or being competitive. English is not a practical language for daily communication in the EFL environment, either. Second, exam-led teaching and learning could help to raise exam marks, but they might also cause negative effects, such as higher learning stress or only focusing on passing the exam. These side-effects would lead to circumstances such as motivation decreasing or less improvement of actual language ability. In other words, the students failed to be motivated instrumentally to have a promising vision of a better future.

2.4.4 Comparison between groups

There are seven papers that compare the English learning motivation of different groups of university students, including groups between high and low achievers and between different majors. (See Table 2-6 for their summaries.)

Table 2-6: Seven empirical studies examining English learning motivation of different groups

Study	Participants	Main findings
Study 3 (Chang, 2003)	334 Taiwanese university students who have different majors from one university	(5-point Likert scale) [A] 78 students from Humanities and Social Science majors: Intensity: 3.30 (1) Intrinsic motivation: 3.28 (2) Extrinsic motivation: 3.78 [B] 138 students from Business and Management majors: Intensity: 3.05 (1) Intrinsic motivation: 2.66 (2) Extrinsic motivation: 3.82 [C] 118 students from Science and Engineering majors: Intensity: 2.96

		(1) Intrinsic motivation: 2.63 (2) Extrinsic motivation: 3.66
		- Significant differences were found in intensity, intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation regarding to all the three different majors.
Study 5	682 Taiwanese freshmen (cadets) from seven universities	(3-point Likert scale) Comparisons between high and low achievers: [A] Two components of motivation: (1) Attitude: 2.66 / 2.60 (2) Intensity 2.61 / 2.48 (Significant difference: p = 0.014) [B] Two motivational factors: (1) Instrumentality: 2.64 / 2.66 (2) Integrativeness: 2.39 / 2.41
Study 10	366 Taiwanese freshmen who have different majors from one university (They are divided into two groups by language ability, listed from low to high: Level A: 162 Level C: 194)	[Level A: low achievers] Six motivational factors listed from the highest to the lowest: (1) Passive (extrinsic) motivation (2) Supereminence motivation (e.g. dignity of being proficient in English) (3) Having an interest in foreign cultures (4) Self-efficacy (5) Expectancy-value (6) Instrumental motivation [Level C: high achievers] Six motivational factors listed from the highest to the lowest: (1) Having an interest in foreign cultures (2) Supereminence motivation (3) Self-efficacy (4) Passive (extrinsic) motivation (5) Expectancy-value (6) Instrumental motivation
Study 11	434 Taiwanese freshmen from one university (They are divided into four groups by language ability, listed from low to high:	Means of the sums for motivation and its three components: (1) Attitudes toward learning Level 1: 36.97 / Level 2: 37.08 Level 3: 39.52 / Level 4: 43.84 (2) Motivational intensity Level 1: 15.58 / Level 2: 15.85 Level 3: 16.86 / Level 4: 28.24 (3) Desire to learn

	Level 1: 98	Level 1: 17.32 / Level 2: 17.73
	Level 2: 113	Level 3: 18.88 / Level 4: 21.51
	Level 3: 110	>> Overall motivation
	Level 4: 113)	Level 1: 69.87 / Level 2: 70.65
		Level 3: 75.26 / Level 4: 83.59
Study 12	120 Taiwanese university students from one university (60 English majors and 60 non-English majors)	Six motivational factors: (1) Student interests: Eng > Non-Eng (2) Self-development: Eng < Non-Eng (3) Social relationship; Eng < Non-Eng (4) Career development; Eng > Non-Eng (5) Society expectation: Eng < Non-Eng (6) Increasing diversity of life style: Eng < Non-Eng
Study 14	422 Taiwanese university students from one university (204 students marked as 'skilled readers' and 218 students marked as 'less-skilled readers')	(5-point Likert scale) Four motivational factors: (1) Intrinsic motivation*** skilled readers: 3.45 / less-skilled readers: 3.29 (2) Learning situation (classroom experience) skilled readers: 3.09 / less-skilled readers: 2.96 (3) Integrative motivation* skilled readers: 3.67 / less-skilled readers: 3.62 (4) Instrumental motivation*** skilled readers: 3.83 / less-skilled readers: 3.72 >> Overall of motivational factors** skilled readers: 3.50 / less-skilled readers: 3.38 *: Difference is significant at .05 level; **: .01 level; ***: .001 level
Study 22	150 Taiwanese freshmen from one university (They are divided into three groups: Low-motivation: 38 persons, Mid-motivation: 74 persons, and High-motivation: 38 persons.)	Means of the sums for the three components of motivation: (1) Attitude Low: 29.63 / Mid: 38.45 / High: 45.89 (2) Intensity Low: 24.05 / Mid: 31.12 / High: 36.13 (3) Desire Low: 22.58 / Mid: 33.30 / High: 39.90 >> Overall: Low: 76.26 / Mid: 102.87 / High: 122.93 A stepwise multiple regression analysis: Significant predictor variables of motivation: Anxiety and Proficiency

All these seven papers utilise a quantitative approach that involves a questionnaire

survey. Two among them compare motivation between different majors and the other five compare motivation between learners at different language levels.

First of all, in Study 3, the participants were moderately motivated to learn English. Humanities and Social Science majors had the strongest intensity and Science and Engineering majors had the lowest one. As shown in Table 2-6, two main factors are reported, including intrinsic and extrinsic orientations. The participants were both positively motivated by these two orientations. Particularly, Humanities and Social Science majors had higher intrinsic motivation than Business and Management majors and Science and Engineering majors did. On the other hand, Business and Management majors had higher extrinsic motivation than the other two groups did. Significant differences were found between all these three different majors in intensity, intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. In addition, participants are divided into English and non-English majors in Study 12. English majors are reported as more active learners who had more personal interests and more connections between English learning and life fulfilment / career development while non-English majors considered more about practical purposes, such as self-development / better outcome and society expectation, and they were more passive learners who spent relatively less time on learning English. Both majors regarded English learning as a benefit and referred to English as a necessary skill for this globalisation world.

Second, the remaining five papers all divide their participants into groups with different levels of proficiency. Study 11 and Study 22 present quite similar results of English learning motivation. The motivation is composed by intensity, desire and attitudes. High achievers had higher mean scores of all these three components than low achievers did; among them, the scores of attitudes were higher than of intensity and desire. According to Study 22, anxiety and proficiency significantly predicted learners' motivation. Similarly, high achievers, found in Study 14, are also reported to

be more motivated to learn English by all means than low achievers did. However, motivation reflects similar mean scores for high and low achievers in Study 5, and it further indicates no significant relation between proficiency and motivation. Except for motivational intensity, there was a significant difference between high and low achievers regarding intensity. Lastly, results of Study 10 reveal the ranking of motivation of high and low achievers, respectively, listed from the most significant one to the lowest one. But the two proficiency groups are hard to compare due to lack of statistical details.

2.4.5 Motivation change over time

There are four papers discussing English learning motivation change over time. The researchers either conducted surveys at different time with the same / similar instrument or conducted one survey to ask about the change from participants' memory / opinions. (See Table 2-7 for their summaries.)

Table 2-7: Four empirical studies examining English learning motivation change over time

Study	Participants	Main findings
Study 15 (Wu, Marek, & Yen, 2012)	A class of 37 Taiwanese university students from one university	(1) Integrative orientation Time 1: 3.79 / Time 2: 3.76 / Time 3: 3.86
	(A mixed methods study: a 5-point Likert scale questionnaire survey conducted at three time points and 5 of participants were further	(2) Instrumental orientation (Significant differences: $p = .25$ / $p = .03$) Time 1: 3.58 / Time 2: 3.68 / Time 3: 3.85
		(3) Confidence (Significant differences: $p = .002$ / $p = .04$) Time 1: 3.06 / Time 2: 3.33 / Time 3: 3.47
		(4) Satisfaction (Significant differences: $p = .04$ / $p = .41$) Time 1: 2.86 / Time 2: 3.03 / Time 3: 3.08
		(5) Factors from interview - Fear or anxiousness of making mistakes - Lack of motivation / participation, passiveness, and personal laziness - Self-efficacy variables – self-esteem, work ethic, opportunities to practise, self-confidence

	interviewed.)	- Material preparation and organisation with peer assistance - Teacher encouragement
Study 19	20 Taiwanese university students from one university (An interview survey involving each participant once)	Factors that make participants' English learning motivation change from an interview survey: (1) Teachers (2) External pressure (3) Curriculum (4) Family members (5) Peers (6) Exams (7) Classroom dynamics (8) Short stays abroad
Study 20	69 Taiwanese freshmen from one university (They are divided into two groups: Experimental group – 40 persons and Comparison group – 29 persons.) (A questionnaire survey)	[A] Experimental group (with Reciprocal Cooperative Learning instruction): (1) Liking – pretest: 18.93 / posttest: 20.83 (t = -3.81***) (2) Dedication – pretest: 23.38 / posttest: 25.70 (t = -4.07***) (3) Self-efficacy – pretest: 22.20 / posttest: 24.43 (t = -3.87***) (4) Intrinsic – pretest: 15.05 / posttest: 15.68 (t = -1.19) (5) Extrinsic – pretest: 46.63 / posttest: 48.18 (t = -1.52) >> Overall – pretest: 126.18 / posttest: 134.80 (t = -3.80***) [B] Comparison group (with traditional lecture instruction): (1) Liking – pretest: 20.14 / posttest: 19.86 (t = .42) (2) Dedication – pretest: 23.52 / posttest: 23.66 (t = -.18) (3) Self-efficacy – pretest: 22.31 / posttest: 22.55 (t = -.42) (4) Intrinsic – pretest: 15.14 / posttest: 15.31 (t = -.39) (5) Extrinsic – pretest: 48.07 / posttest: 45.62 (t = 1.92) >> Overall – pretest: 129.17 / posttest: 127.00 (t = .76) ***: p < .001
Study 21	163 Taiwanese university students from one university (They are placed at 'lower-proficiency' level classes based on the results of their School Entrance English Placement test.)	[before Communicative language teaching CLT course and after CLT course] (5-point Likert scale) (1) Intrinsic motivation (t = -1.38) pretest: 3.38 / posttest: 3.31 (2) Interest in foreign language, culture and people (t = -2.30*) pretest: 3.83 / posttest: 3.73 (3) Implied value with English (t = -1.47) pretest: 3.64 / posttest: 3.58 (4) Requirement (t = 2.42*) pretest: 3.47 / posttest: 3.57

(5) Desire to integrate into the target community (t = -1.88)

pretest: 2.66 / posttest: 2.55

(6) Technology and knowledge (t = -.48)

pretest: 3.86 / posttest: 3.84

(7) Need for good performance in English class (t = -.21)

pretest: 3.45 / posttest: 3.44

(8) Need for study abroad (t = .47)

pretest: 3.76 / posttest: 3.79

(9) Need for future career (t = .04)

pretest: 3.82 / posttest: 3.83

*: p < .05

As shown in Table 2-7, researchers of Study 15, Study 20, and Study 21 applied a quantitative approach to observe motivation change overtime. They conducted the survey twice or three times with the same instruments to investigate the change. In Study 15, the participants generally showed positive motivation, and all the motivational factors also increased over time, except for integrative orientation where the mean scores fell from Time 1 to Time 2. Among these motivational factors, the learners had better integrative and instrumental orientations than confidence and satisfaction. Significant differences were found (a) in confidence and satisfaction between Time 1 and Time 2 and (b) in instrumental orientation and confidence between Time 2 and Time 3. In Study 20, the Experimental group's motivational factors were raised, including all the five factors respectively. Significant differences were found (a) in the factors of liking, dedication and self-efficacy and (b) in the overall of the motivational factors between pretest and posttest. However, the Comparison group's motivational factors showed more or less similar levels before and after the curriculum. Compared with the mean scores of the Experimental group, the Comparison group's motivational factors merely changed. In Study 21, the strength of the motivational factors changed over an annual CLT course. As shown in Table 2-7, (a) The means for Requirement are raised; (b) the means for need for study

abroad and for future career are slightly increased; (c) the means for need for good performance in class and for technology and knowledge are slightly decreased; and (d) the means for the remaining motivational factors, including intrinsic motivation, interest in the language, culture and people, implied value with English and integrativeness are dropped. Significant differences were found positively in the factor of requirement and negatively in the factor of interest in foreign language, culture and people before and after the CLT course. Furthermore, all the mean scores for these factors were generally above average, except for the means for integrativeness which were below average. This phenomenon resonates with the issue of the losing of power of integrative orientation that people may not desire to change or expand their identity when they learn English, which were discussed in Chapter one and Section 2.4.1 previously.

Moreover, Study 15 and Study 19 involve an interview investigation to scrutinise motivation change over time. The researchers asked interviewees about their opinions on their motivational factors in order to seek how their motivation changed and the reasons that drove the change. For instance, in Study 15, the participants expressed the change in their self-efficacy relating to, for example, asking for the teacher's assistance and practising English learning more. For another example, they might sometimes feel stressed or lazy to learn English while sometimes they engaged in learning actively. In Study 19, eight components are marked as factors that make the participants' English learning motivation change, including (1) teachers, (2) external pressure, (3) curriculum, (4) family members, (5) peers, (6) exams, (7) classroom dynamics, and (8) short stays abroad. These reasons seem to be more related to impacts from significant others and external causes. Both of the studies involve only interviewing each of their participants once. Thus, the findings of the change are mainly from the participants' memories of their past. Researchers who apply an

interview research in the future may try to interview their participants with similar questions at different times in order to gain more fertile results.

2.5 Concluding remarks

As reviewed above, in language education, motivation is regarded as a vital factor that enables learners to learn and leads to possible successful learning outcomes. Therefore, motivation and the research in its related domain benefit not only learners' learning and teachers' teaching but also policy makers and researchers' future work. In addition, the history of language learning motivation research can be generally divided into four distinct phases, namely (1) The social psychological period (1959-1990) (e.g. Gardner's theory of L2 motivation and Crookes and Schmidt's theory of L2 motivation), (2) The cognitive-situated period (during the 1990s) (e.g. Self-efficacy theory, Attribution theory, Goal theory, Self-efficacy theory, Self-determination theory and Three-level framework of L2 motivation), (3) The process-oriented period (the turn of the century) (e.g. a focus on motivational change) and (4) The socio-dynamic period (current) (e.g. A person-in-context relational view of motivation and vision, possible selves and the L2 motivational self). All these theories have been carefully reviewed in detail. Finally, the chosen 25 empirical studies of English learning motivation in a Taiwanese university context have been comprehensively analysed and compared. The comments and discussion are respectively focused on what motivational factors were identified and how their findings are similar or diverse from study to study. Furthermore, among these 25 studies, there were fewer involving investigation of the relationships between motivation and motivational factors such as identity, anxiety and the L2 motivational

self, nor did many of them focus on discovering how motivation changes over time and how it is identified to be different between groups. The current study, therefore, aims to address these issues in a Taiwanese university context since these are important features to be considered in the current socio-dynamic period of motivation research. In order to expand on the existing empirical results from the previous literature, this research, accordingly, hopes to acquire insights into the strengths of motivation and its motivational factors, their dynamic nature, differences between high and low achievers and the complexity of relationships between motivation and motivational factors.

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

As reviewed and discussed earlier in Chapter One and Chapter Two, the research aims and questions of the present thesis were established according to the author's personal research interest in language learning motivation, the English learning issues in a Taiwanese university context and the features which needed to be considered and explored with more empirical study from a socio-dynamic perspective. This chapter, therefore, will further present how this research was planned to be investigated, the research process, the approaches applied, who the target participants were, the instruments used for data collection and ethical issues related to the current study.

3.2 Reminder of the research objectives and questions

3.2.1 The objectives of the study

This study aimed to research Taiwanese university students' English learning motivation and the factors that motivate them to learn from a socio-dynamic perspective. Thus, while the research questions were developing, three aspects were considered to be the main concerns to be paid attention to, as follows. First of all, since the target participants of the thesis were Taiwanese university students, the issues with which Taiwanese undergraduate learners are potentially confronted when they learn English were expected to be examined. The four issues identified previously in Chapter One included low motivation, low achievement, high anxiety

and a lack of supportive environment. Hence, the relationships between motivation and the other three dimensions, namely achievement, English anxiety and English learning experience, were planned to be examined in the present study.

Second, since the research aimed to be conducted from a socio-dynamic perspective, it was vital to adopt “a concern with the situated complexity of the L2 motivation process and its dynamic interaction with a multiplicity of internal, social and contextual factors in our modern and increasingly globalised world” (Dörnyei, 2014, p. 529). To be more specific, three aspects could be identified as important: (1) the complexity of the interrelationship of motivational factors, (2) the integration of motivation and social context and (3) the rise of Global English (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). As a result, the relationships between motivation and motivational factors in addition to the dynamic nature caused by their interactions were identified as important aspects to consider. It has been suggested that “studying how change happen should be a major goal of motivation research” (Turner & Patrick, 2008, p. 123). Meanwhile, an important additional goal was to investigate how the notions of self and identity impact on English learning motivation because of the importance of social context and the influence of Global English.

Third, 25 empirical studies in a Taiwanese university context have been reviewed earlier in Section 2.4. All of the studies focused on examining English learning motivation and motivational factors in detail and provided productive findings. However, few of them additionally discussed motivation in connection with identity, anxiety or the L2 motivational self. There were also fewer studies further paying attention to the relationships between motivation and motivational factors, the dynamic nature of motivation change over time and comparison between groups. In order to gain insights into these above facets and expand on the existing results from the previous literature, the author intended to research all of them comprehensively.

3.2.2 The research questions

Based on the research aims proposed, the research questions were consequently established as follows:

Research question 1: English learning motivation

- (a) What is the strength of Taiwanese university students' motivation to learn English?
- (b) Does the strength of their motivation change over time?
- (c) Does the strength of their motivation differ between high and low achievers?

Research question 2: English learning motivational factors

- (a) What factors influence the strength of Taiwanese university students' English learning motivation?
- (b) Does the strength of these factors change over time?
- (c) Does the strength of these factors differ between high and low achievers?
- (d) What is the relationship between these factors and English learning motivation?

The researcher firstly attempted to examine the strengths of the participants' motivation and motivational factors. She then tried to discover the dynamic nature of motivation and whether its factors change over time. She also aimed to find potential differences between the high and low achievers, and the relationships between motivation and achievement. She finally sought to analyse the interrelationships of motivational factors and their relationship with motivation.

3.3 The research design and procedures

As mentioned in Section 1.3, three main problems may arise while researching English learning motivation. That is, (1) “motivation is abstract and not directly observable”; (2) “motivation is a multidimensional construct”; and (3) “motivation is inconstant and dynamic” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 197). On the one hand, in order to minimise the subjectivity of researching motivation and investigate the multidimensional complexity, a mixed methods approach was designed to be applied in this study, including collecting both quantitative and qualitative data by using two kinds of questionnaires (i.e. a main questionnaire and a short weekly questionnaire), semi-structured interviews and classroom observation (see further discussion about the mixed methods approach in Section 3.3.1). On the other hand, in order to inspect the dynamic nature of motivation change over time, three different approaches were proposed to be applied in this research, including self-retrospective, self-reported and self-documented approaches (see further discussion about these three approaches in Section 3.3.2).

3.3.1 A mixed methods approach

A research investigation can be conducted in either a quantitative or a qualitative approach. The former involves collecting primarily numerical data and analyzing them primarily by statistical methods (e.g. a questionnaire survey); the latter involves collecting primarily open-ended, non-numerical data and analysing them primarily by non-statistical methods (e.g. interview or classroom observation surveys) (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). In consequence, quantitative data analysis can be done using statistical software and the findings can help readers to check such aspects as distribution, statistical significance and validity. However, quantitative models

“average out responses across the whole observed group of participants, and by working with concepts of averages it is impossible to do justice to the subjective variety of an individual life” (p. 204). It does not leave much room for researchers to discover potential findings either, since quantitative analysis mostly relies on the answers given by participants while the instrument questions have been already designed and fixed before being filled in by the participants. In other words, “the general exploratory capacity of quantitative research is rather limited” (p. 204). On the contrary, “qualitative research has traditionally been seen as an effective way of exploring new, uncharted areas” (p. 204). The complex situations of each participant and reasons behind the motivation change can also be investigated. Nevertheless, for many researchers who are used to a quantitative approach, the qualitative results can “easily appear unprincipled and ‘fuzzy’, [...] and the processing of qualitative data in particular, can be rather time-consuming” (p. 205).

Moreover, instead of simply choosing either from a quantitative approach or a qualitative approach, researchers can also apply both approaches, which implies utilising a mixed methods approach. This approach involves “the combined use of qualitative and quantitative methods with the hope of offering the best of both worlds” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 202). It may be advantageous since both quantitative and qualitative approaches “share some similar features and also compensate for the other’s shortcomings” (MactIntyre, Noels, & Moore, 2010, p.5). Nonetheless, researchers may, therefore, struggle in acquiring extensive knowledge of both approaches and handling the application of both types of methodology, which are inevitably demanding and time-consuming.

As reviewed previously in Section 2.4, most of the 25 empirical studies in a Taiwanese university context were conducted in a quantitative approach (i.e. questionnaire surveys); only three out of the 25 studies applied a qualitative approach

(i.e. interviews and / or classroom observation) or a mixed methods approach (i.e. questionnaire and interview surveys). McEown, Noels and Chaffee (2014) also reported that they identified more quantitative research (55 studies) than qualitative research (six studies) and mixed methods research (16 studies) among a total of 77 empirical papers in the field of L2 learning motivation. Under the circumstances, in addition to not merely relying on a single set of self-reporting measures, either a quantitative or a qualitative approach, this current study endeavoured to investigate “contextual factors and individual-contextual interactions” by applying “triangulation of multiple forms of data from diverse points of view” (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012, p. 402). In other words, in order to explore both the nature of individuals in depth (qualitative investigation) and the distribution of a phenomenon (quantitative investigation), the researcher decided to adopt a mixed methods approach to researching English learning motivation. Quantitative and qualitative data were collected respectively using methods including questionnaire, observation and interview surveys (see Sections 3.5 for further discussion about each instrument used).

3.3.2 Approaches to the dynamic nature

Some researchers investigate the change of language learning motivation by asking their participants to recall and report their memory of learning histories and experiences at one point (e.g. Alzayid, 2012; Busse & Walter, 2013; Hsieh, 2009; Lai & Ting, 2013; Mirua, 2010; Pawlak, 2012; Wu, Marek, & Yen, 2012), while others survey the change at different time points with various durations and frequencies (e.g. minutely, hourly, daily, weekly, monthly, or yearly) via same / similar interview or / and questionnaire questions (e.g. Busse & Walter, 2013; Campbell & Storch, 2011;

Chang, 2014; Gardner et al., 2004; Matsumoto, 2012; Nitta & Asano, 2010; Pawlak, 2012; Peter-Szarka, 2012; Rubrecht & Ishikawa, 2012; Wu et al., 2012; Yu, 2010). Meanwhile, some researchers additionally apply other methods along with questionnaires and interviews for examining the process of motivation fluctuation in more detail, such as examining weekly journal entries (e.g. Burgh-Hirabe & Feryok, 2013; Matsuda, 2004; Mercer, 2011), adopting a think-aloud writing task (e.g. Yanguas, 2011) and conducting classroom observation (e.g. Huang, 2011; Komori, 2012; Lamb, 2007; Lin, 2008). The following paragraphs will analyse these different methods employed in the studies mentioned above, which have been categorised into three dimensions, namely self-retrospective, self-reported and self-documented approaches.

3.3.2.1 Self-retrospective approach

In this category, researchers tend to analyse the dynamic nature of language learning motivation through the descriptions of participants' learning stories and histories. For example, Alzayid (2012) conducted interview research for investigating the dynamic nature of Saudi students' motivation in learning English. Seven male participants who were studying in the U.S. were invited to participate in a semi-structured interview. They were asked to recall their past learning experiences and tell stories about their journeys of learning English.

Busse and Walter (2013), Hsieh (2009), Lai and Ting (2013), Pawlak (2012) and Wu et al. (2012) also adopted similar interview research in a self-retrospective approach. The interviewees in Busse and Walter's study were 12 German university students; in Hsieh's study, the interviewees were two Taiwanese master students; in Lai and Ting's study, the participants were 20 Taiwanese university students; in Pawlak's study, 11 Polish senior high school learners participated in the interviews;

and in Wu et al.'s study, the participants were five Taiwanese undergraduate learners. Different from the six studies above, Mirua (2010) applied a questionnaire survey. 196 Japanese university students were asked to fill in a questionnaire reflecting their overall motivational ranking at different phases (i.e. junior high school, high school and university periods), along with drawing their motivation levels on a chart for the past seven-year learning period.

Among these seven studies, the sample sizes of the former six interview studies are comparatively small. However, they provide in-depth retrospective language learning stories for discussion. In contrast, the later quantitative data seems to be unable to uncover every detail of individuals' learning history and the reasons for why the change happened, but it offers the general pattern of the motivation change and statistic data for statistical analysis.

Moreover, it is important and worthwhile to know language students' learning experiences for capturing the whole picture of the change of motivation and the reasons for the change. Nonetheless, the self-retrospective approach applied in the above seven studies seems to risk acquiring incorrect information due to lies, blurs, or wrong memories. It may be doubtful whether respondents would be willing to share their real feedback or could fully remember their strengths of motivation in the past and reasons for any change they experienced. They may also report "only those aspects of their experience which are felt to 'fit' with the researcher's perspective" and more recent events that "take on a stronger resonance" (Cotton, Strokes & Cotton, 2010, p.465). After all, the self-retrospective data are collected from sources that depend on participants' self-report expressions.

3.3.2.2 Self-reported approach

In this category, researchers investigate the dynamic nature of language learning

motivation by conducting qualitative or / and quantitative research, using the same / similar series of interview or / and questionnaire questions, at different time points with various durations and frequencies (e.g. minutely, hourly, daily, weekly, monthly, or yearly). In other words, unlike the self-retrospective approach in which data are collected from respondents' memories, a self-reported approach involves participants being asked to report the strength of their present motivation or current factors that motivate them to learn a language at different time points. Researchers can, therefore, compare the results and examine the differences between each survey point.

For instance, Campbell and Storch (2011) and Rubrecht and Ishikawa (2012) conducted semi-structured interviews at different time points over a period of time. The three interviews in the former study, involving the same eight participants at each time, took place in week three, seven and ten of a 12-week term, while the ten interviews in the latter paper were carried out before, during and after the one and only participant's nine-day trip to the USA. Consequently, the researchers could compare participants' feedback from different time points (a self-reported approach) in addition to examining the dynamic nature from self-retrospective stories collected at each time (a self-retrospective approach).

On the other hand, a quantitative approach was adopted in other studies, such as (1) Busse and Walter's (2013) two questionnaire surveys conducted at different time points, administered to 59 first-year undergraduate students; (2) Chang's (2014) two questionnaire surveys applied before and after a course taken by 163 university students; (3) Gardner, Masgoret, Tennant and Mihic's (2004) six questionnaire surveys conducted between September and the following March, involving 197 university students; (4) Matsumoto's (2012) two questionnaire investigations carried out before and after a 12-week language course, involving 140 students; (5) Nitta and Asano's (2010) study that involved 164 non-English-major freshmen who were asked

to fill in the same questionnaire at the beginning and end of the academic year plus a short weekly questionnaire at the end of every class; (6) Pawlak's (2012) study in which 28 high school students took part over a period of four weeks and were requested to fill in a motivational grid on a scale of 1 to 7 every five minutes during a lesson each week; (7) Peter-Szaka's (2012) research that applied three questionnaire surveys conducted in his participants' 5th, 6th, and 8th grades; (8) Wu et al.'s (2012) study of 37 university students' motivation change over a term via using a questionnaire conducted at three time points; and (9) Yu's (2010) examination revealing students' motivation change before and after nine months via two rounds of questionnaire surveys.

The two approaches, self-retrospection and self-report, have elements in common as follows. Firstly, both approaches involve collecting self-report data, no matter recalling their memories of past experiences or reporting their current opinions, through questionnaires or interviews. Thus, it is possible that participants may be unwilling to tell the truth. Secondly, the sample sizes in qualitative studies were smaller than the ones in quantitative studies, while qualitative research provided more details of individuals and their background stories. In contrast, quantitative research gives data for statistical analysis. The statistical findings can display the pattern of how motivation changes from a certain time to another time point and show whether a significant difference occurs or not. However, if researchers merely use a quantitative approach for investigation, they may fail to directly identify why the change happens. For example, the timing chosen for conducting questionnaire surveys can significantly affect the results. It may be found that the strength of participants' motivation at time B was higher than at time A. But what if, in reality, the participants' motivation had been decreasing, but they then had an exam shortly after time B, which instrumentally motivated them to learn (i.e. in order to pass the exam) to a large extent? Under the

circumstances, for understanding the underlying stories, acquiring more information from qualitative methods may be needed, such as interview surveys as mentioned earlier, collecting data from learners' weekly journal entries (e.g. Burgh-Hirabe & Feryok, 2013; Matsuda, 2004; Mercer, 2011) or adopting a self-documented approach (e.g. conducting classroom observation), which will be explained later in Section 3.3.2.3.

On the other hand, differences between a self-retrospective approach and a self-reported approach are that, first of all, self-report can provide relatively more valid information to some extent because participants are not recalling their memories but reporting their thoughts at that particular moment when they are asked to answer the questions. Furthermore, in longitudinal studies participants reply to similar questions at least twice so that potential differences can be found by comparing the sets of data. In other words, in a self-retrospective approach, participants offer their past stories and beliefs of how their motivations have changed, while, in a self-reported approach, it is the researchers who analyse the dynamic nature of change by examining the data collected at different time points, which is rather more objective. Second, self-report may cause some difficulty for researchers for two further reasons. One is that it is time-consuming to conduct a survey more than once. The other is that the same participants need to be retained during the whole research process. However, it is sometimes difficult to achieve this goal due to the withdrawal or absence of participants. Some people may drop out of participation during the later stage of research. For instance, such a situation happened in Busse and Walter's (2013), Peter-Szaka's (2012) and Yu's (2010) research. Hence, researchers need to bear in mind that the numbers of their participants may turn out to be fewer than expected in the end.

3.3.2.3 Self-documented approach

In this category, researchers try to explore the change of language learning motivation by a more direct way of recording and inspecting learners' learning. For instance, Yanguas (2011) applied a semi-guided think-aloud writing task to analyse participants' motivational paths and their dynamic nature. For other examples, classroom observation was applied by Huang (2011), Komori (2012), Lamb (2007) and Lin (2008) to examine students' motivation change over time. Huang conducted classroom observation in week two and week six of a summer programme respectively. Komori applied a mixed methods approach, including two questionnaire surveys (before and after two-month classes), follow-up interviews and 12 classroom observations during the two months. Lamb also utilised a mixed methods approach, including two questionnaire surveys (before and after twenty-month of learning), three interviews and two classroom observations. Lin combined classroom observation with interview surveys for investigation, including four group interviews and five classroom observations.

The five studies above recorded participants' in-class learning as thoroughly as possible, which seemed to reflect their learning behaviours in detail and provide rich data to show whether participants were motivated to learn or not. In other words, observational studies capture behavioural consequences rather than motivation itself (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Verschuren, 2003). To be more specific, however, "when observed in a classroom, the learners' actions signifying interest and engagement in the learning process can be used as evidence of motivation" (Igoudin, 2013, p. 194). Therefore, observations provide an ideal focus for researchers as the opposite of interviews and questionnaires and as materials for further follow-up investigation (Lamb, 2007).

As discussed earlier, self-retrospective and self-reported approaches both involve

collecting self-report data, either in a quantitative approach or a qualitative approach. As a result, the sources of data rely on participants' answers, which mostly cannot be checked by researchers as to whether replies are the truth or not. Responses are what participants attempt to convey, regardless if those are accurate. However, different from these two approaches, a self-documented approach "offers an investigator the opportunity to gather 'live' data from naturally occurring social situations" (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007, p. 260). In other words, the raw data collected were a document or documentary of what was then happening. The data will also "be less influenced by the researcher's own agenda and will be (at least in the raw form) relatively free from bias" (Cotton et al., 2010, p.465). This self-documented approach can, therefore, be a supportive complement in addition to the other two approaches.

Nevertheless, researchers who adopt this self-documented approach may encounter some problems or obstacles as follows. On the one hand, classroom observation is relatively difficult to conduct over a long period of time. Two main reasons for this are: (1) the tremendous work load produced by this method of data collection and analysis and (2) a possible reluctance of participants in being observed (Cotton et al., 2010). Researchers may also tend to conduct follow-up interviews in order to understand more about the relationships between participants' behaviours and motivation. Under the circumstances, if researchers desire to collect a wealth of data, it is time-consuming. On the other hand, since the investigation needs participants to engage in both their learning and the research study, participants may not be able to take care of both. For instance, learners may behave differently (e.g. being more active, nervous or shy) when they notice they are recorded, filmed and observed for a study. Researchers consequently hope to minimise a potential threat of collecting 'unnatural' live data by, for example, meeting participants in advance in order to allow researchers "not only to develop a more trusting relationship with the learners

but also ultimately to develop richer and more complex portraits of individuals” (Lamb, 2007, p. 761). Participants can also understand more about the observation procedure and be prepared to behave more naturally when they are observed later (Nguyen, McFadden, Tangen & Beutel, 2013). Thus, researchers may need to spend extra time in addition to the main study, which is considered to be another time-consuming factor.

In sum, if a self-retrospective approach is like reading and examining an autobiography, then a self-retrospective approach is analysing a photo album or a diary, and a self-documented approach is exploring a motion picture or a documentary. Each approach has its advantages and disadvantages. In order to investigate the dynamic nature of English learning motivation comprehensively and take advantage of each method, this present thesis chose to adopt all these three approaches for examining different aspects of the change. The author, therefore, expected to collect fruitful and manifold data via applying various instruments, including questionnaires, interviews and classroom observation (see further discussion about the application of each instrument in Section 3.5).

3.3.3 The research procedures

This current study planned to apply a mixed methods approach to researching English learning motivation among first-year undergraduate students in a university in Taiwan (see Section 3.4 for full details of the participants). These students were taking a year-long English course as a required module. The researcher used two kinds of questionnaires, interviews and classroom observation for investigation. In addition, the author aimed to adopt three approaches to examining the dynamic nature of motivation, including self-retrospective, self-reported and self-documented

approaches. Hence, the instruments utilised to collect both quantitative and qualitative data were designed to be implemented more than once. Moreover, after the official upgrade examination of Confirmation of Registration for the current PhD study, the numbers of participants were advised to be expanded for gaining richer data. All in all, the research schedule is summarised in Table 3-1 as follows.

Table 3-1: The research schedule during September 2014 to January 2015

Actions	Research point of time	Numbers of participants		
		The proposed target	The revised target	The main study
Questionnaire survey 1	Week 2 (22-26 Sep)	70	90	88
Observation 1	Week 3	6	12	13
Interview 1	Week 3 – Week 4	6	12	13
Observation 2	Week 14 (15 – 19 Dec)	6	12	13
Questionnaire survey 2	Week 17 (5 – 9 Jan, before the end of the term)	70	90	88
Interview 2	17 – 30 Jan (after the end of the term)	6	12	13
Short weekly questionnaire surveys	Week 3 to Week 16	6	12	13

Firstly, the main questionnaire (as shown in Appendix A) was administered twice. The first administration took place in Week 2 (the week after the university introduction week) and the other one was conducted in Week 17 (a week before the final exam and the end of the term). On each occasion, it took the participants about 10 to 15 minutes to complete the questionnaire. The researcher was there in person both to monitor participants' involvement and to answer any questions related to filling in the questionnaire. All the data were collected by the researcher herself without the presence of the instructor of the class. The final number of the participants was 88 in total.

Secondly, the interview investigation was conducted twice (see Appendix B for

the interview questions). These follow-up interviews were accomplished after the two main questionnaire surveys and the two rounds of classroom observation. The interviews lasted around 40 to 75 minutes each, and each of the interviewees was interviewed separately and individually. During the interviews, all the conversations were audio-recorded and notes taken with participants' permission. In regard to the interviewees, they were 13 volunteers who were, at the same time, observed in class and who filled in the short weekly questionnaire after every weekly English class.

Thirdly, the 13 learners were observed in class during two English lessons (100 minutes per lesson) in Week 3 and Week 14 of the term. Throughout the classroom observation, they were filmed (they were facing the camera) and notes taken with their permission. The researcher was at the back of the classroom and did not engage in any classroom interactions between the teacher and the whole class of students in order to minimise any possible interference or negative influence.

Lastly, the 13 students were also asked to fill in a very simple and short weekly questionnaire (around one minute to complete) after every lesson from Week 3 to Week 16 of the term (see Appendix C for the short weekly questionnaire). The researcher was there to collect the questionnaire at the first time, in case of any problems happening. Afterwards the participants were asked to hand in the questionnaire online for the rest of the surveys.

In order to enable the students to express their real opinions freely and behave naturally, it was made clear that the results of the investigation would remain confidential and their answers and participation would not influence their course marks (see more discussion about ethical issues in Section 3.6). Additionally, before they attended the interviews and classroom observation, they were asked to join either an informal meet-up or as a group according to their willingness. These informal gatherings were held in order to not only enable the researcher and the participants to

become familiar with each other but also provide a chance for the learners to ask questions and for the researcher to explain the interview and classroom observation procedures once again in addition to the information sheet given to the students beforehand (Lamb, 2007). They also experienced how classroom observation would be conducted in person so that they were more comfortable to be filmed. That is, these meetings were, therefore, designed to help the participants to behave naturally and act normally when they were formally interviewed and observed later.

Furthermore, all the data collection episodes mentioned above were completed in the participants' L1. The researchers and the participants shared the same mother tongue of Mandarin. It was easier and more comfortable for both sides using the same language during the research. However, the current thesis needs to be presented in English, which means that the results of the data collected in Mandarin had to be subsequently translated into English. Translation can cause some problems in cross-language research (Behr, 2017; Maneesriwongul & Dixon, 2004; Squires, 2008; Temple, 2002; Temple & Young, 2004). The issues of translation will be discussed in the following paragraphs.

3.3.4 Translation issues

First of all, an issue of 'conceptual equivalence' may occur during the process of translation. "When a translator performs a translation, they translate not only the literal meaning of the word, but also how the word relates conceptually in the context" (Squires, 2008, p. 3). Thus, a translator desires to offer "a technically and conceptually accurate translated communication of a concept spoken by the study's participant" (p. 3). In other words, translation involves decisions constantly made by translators in order to both understand the cultural meanings that the original language

carries and convey the meanings in another language, which may be difficult to find exactly the same expression with its original value in different languages (Simon, 1996; Temple & Young, 2004). Under the circumstances, translators' credentials and experiences are critical and important. It is suggested that translators need to be equipped with some sociolinguistic language competence (Danesi, 1996; Gee, 1990; Jandt, 2003; Savignon, 1997).

Second, an issue may arise when 'back translation' is applied. Back translation is a translation technique that has been widely used in order to verify translation (Behr, 2017; Brislin, Lonner, & Thronkike, 1973; Maneesriwongul & Dixon, 2004; Temple & Young, 2004). It involves a process in which a translation version (a version in L2) is translated back into the original source language version (a new version in L1) to allow comparison between the new version and the original text in the same language of L1. The goal is, therefore, to "identify discrepancies between these two versions that might be due to errors in the actual translation" (Behr, 2017, p. 573). As a result, back translation can be a time-consuming process and, at the same time, pricey.

For better quality and accuracy, back translation was applied in the present study. The raw data in Mandarin were initially translated into English by the researcher. Then, the English version was back translated into Mandarin by a co-translator who has experience in translation and a background in sociolinguistics. The researcher and co-translator finally checked and compared the original Chinese text with the two translated versions for verification.

3.4 The participants

3.4.1 Sampling information

The current research was conducted in a university in southern Taiwan, where the researcher's hometown is. The university contained about a total of 6500 postgraduate and undergraduate students. It is a reputable university that aims to nurture students to be competitive in different fields and industries. In particular, it is well-known for providing professional education and training for teachers-to-be. Many of their students may incline to be teachers in different subjects after graduation. Therefore, the Department of English, which is in charge of the English curricula for all the students, welcomed my visit and research since English learning motivation is an important topic for the teachers-to-be, educators and future curriculum development. Based on the features and reasons above, the university was chosen for the present study in a way of convenience or opportunity sampling. This sampling "is the most common non-probability sampling type in L2 research, where an important criterion of sample selection is the convenience to and resources of researcher; [...] participants also have to possess certain key characteristics that are related to the purpose of the investigation" (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2012, p. 81).

Among all the students of the university, the first-year undergraduates were the target group of potential participants for the research because of the following reasons. On the one hand, as discussed earlier in Section 1.2.3.3, they were free from the college entrance exam and had chosen their majors to study. This made them have a different learning life from their high school experience in that they could arrange their learning content more freely; they would meet new people and tended to have more social life; they might establish new learning goals; and they would experience a more communicative teaching approach in their English classes. All these changes might influence their English learning to a large extent. On the other hand, they were all asked to take a year-long English course as a required module in their first year of study. This compulsory model was the last official English course for them. It would,

therefore, not only be a good and likely a final opportunity for teachers to raise students' English learning motivation but also determine students' future lifelong English learning. In short, the first year is a critical stage of English learning and freshmen are an interesting group for exploration.

3.4.2 Grouping information

Before the main study was conducted, the number of the proposed participants was three classes of 90 first-year university students. According to this goal, with the assistance and arrangement from both the department of English and instructors who were willing to offer their help with my research, three classes were chosen by their agreement (see Table 3-2 for the summary of the participants).

Table 3-2: The summary of the participants

	High achievers	Low achievers	Class X	Class Y	Class Z	Total
All participants	41 persons	47 persons	29 persons	30 persons	29 persons	88 persons
Individual cases	6 persons	7 persons	4 persons	5 persons	4 persons	13 persons

Originally, there were 92 students in total enrolled in the first-year English course and they were divided into three classes at the beginning of the term. After two administrations of the main questionnaire, some students had dropped the course and some had joined in the course. As a consequence, in order to compare the sets of data from the same participants, the number of the learners who filled in the main questionnaire in both Week 2 and Week 17 turned out to be 88 persons in total for data analysis. These 88 participants had at least 10 years of experience in learning English. Among them, there were 28 males and 60 females and the mean of their ages was 18.32.

In addition, in order to investigate the relationship between motivation and achievement, all the participants were divided into two groups, high and low achievers. The principle of categorisation was the participants' scores in the English exam given in the first round of the College Entrance Examination. These participants had a similar average score on the entrance exam (covering several subjects) for entering the university but their English score differed. To enable comparisons by English proficiency, the students were grouped into high and low achievers according to their English scores. If their scores were higher than the other 75% of the students throughout Taiwan who took the same exam, then they were grouped into the group of high achievers, taking care with students at or near the borderline. As shown in Table 3-2, there were 41 high achievers and 47 low achievers among the 88 students for comparison.

Other variables in addition to achievement, such as social background and gender, were not included in the sampling framework in the current thesis. This was because (1) the time available for the research was restricted, necessitating a sharp focus on a restricted number of variables; and (2) additional variables would have increased the required sample size for the statistical tests to be used. However, these variables are excellent areas for future research.

Moreover, all the participants were asked to leave their contact information after the first questionnaire survey if they were agreed and intended to participate in the follow-up research. That meant that they were willing to be contacted to get involved in the short weekly questionnaire survey and be further interviewed twice and observed in class twice, respectively. Quite a number of them showed interest in the subsequent research. In order to strike a statistical balance between high and low achievers and between different classes, the researcher aimed to choose six high achievers and seven low achievers from these volunteers for qualitative research. That

is, as presented in Table 3-3, there would be two high achievers from each class, two low achievers from Class X and Class Z respectively and three low achievers from Class Y.

Table 3-3: The summary of the individual cases (with pseudonyms)

	Class X	Class Y	Class Z	Total
High achievers	Angel, Betty	Eva, Frank*	Jenny, Kin	6 persons
Low achievers	Carol, Daisy	Gina, Hank*, Ian*	Lily, Mina	7 persons

*: male

Among these volunteers, a total of 13 learners were selected to be the individual cases for qualitative analysis in depth. These students were chosen because they had replied to an open-ended questionnaire item as to what extra reasons they had in addition to those which have been described earlier regarding their motivation to learn English on the questionnaire. Those volunteers who had provided interesting and unexpected answers were, therefore, picked for further investigation. The researcher was interested in their personal thoughts and stories behind their responses. Although only three male learners were selected, there were originally fewer males (31.8%) than females (68.2%) among the 88 participants. The distribution of the 13 volunteers' gender was close to the original percentages to some extent (male: 23% and female: 77%).

3.5 The instruments used for data collection

The instruments used for quantitative and qualitative data collection in the current study were (1) the main questionnaire, (2) the short weekly questionnaire, (3)

classroom observation and (4) the interview. The following paragraphs will present how these instruments were constructed, piloted and developed for application in the main study.

3.5.1 The main questionnaire

3.5.1.1 The development of the main questionnaire

Questionnaire surveys have been widely applied for collecting self-report quantitative data in a great deal of language learning motivation studies. They have been used to “assess the attitudinal / motivational disposition of L2 learners in various geographical, socio-cultural and institutional contexts, and to compare the results of various subpopulations of learners” Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 213). In order to survey the participants’ English learning motivation in a Taiwanese university context from a socio-dynamic perspective, Taguchi, Magid and Papi’s (2009) questionnaire for researching English learning motivation was applied in the current study. The questionnaire measures not only integrativeness and instrumentality, traditionally dominant concepts in the language learning motivation research, but also new L2 motivation constructs appearing in the current socio-dynamic period of motivation research, such as the ideal and ought-to L2 selves and identity (Dörnyei, 2010; Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012). Moreover, issues including English anxiety, linguistic self-confidence and parental / family influence were also included for exploration. These issues are the socio-cultural areas that the researcher aims to investigate. In the meantime, the questionnaire survey of Taguchi et al. (2009) has been conducted in China, so both Chinese and English versions of the questionnaire are available, which contributes to the convenience of translation in the later stage of thesis presentation.

The original questionnaire comprised two parts: (1) 6-point Likert type questions,

consisting of 67 items and (2) personal information questions. The questions were clearly presented and free from ambiguity and double-barreled statements. The length of the questionnaire was not too long and the questions were not difficult in order to raise the respondents' willingness to complete it and the accuracy of self-reporting (Dörnyei, 2010; Krosnick & Presser, 2010). Next, the measure was modified and rewritten particularly for Taiwanese university students. For example, 'China' and 'Chinese' were replaced by 'Taiwan' and 'Taiwanese'. In addition, 'the UK and the US' were substituted for 'English-speaking countries' in order to clearly point out the specific countries. This avoids the obscurity due to the influence of Global English that English speakers may be a worldwide spread, which was discussed earlier in Chapter One and Chapter Two. The 'target community' for learners to integrate into or have interest in is, therefore, specified in the questionnaire. In the end, among the 67 questionnaire questions, there were 14 items related to English learning motivation (i.e. intensity, desire and attitudes), and the remaining 53 items were related to motivational factors (i.e. ethnocentrism, fear of assimilation, interest, travel orientation, English anxiety, the Ideal L2 self and the Ought-to L2 self).

3.5.1.2 The pilot study and changes made to the main questionnaire

Thirty-six Taiwanese university students took part in the pilot study; among these participants, 33 were from a class of students who filled in the questionnaire in Taiwan and the other three were Taiwanese university students studying in the UK who were willing to be further interviewed. There was a blank space at the end of the questionnaire for participants to leave any comments or ask any questions related to the questionnaire. The researcher stayed with the remaining three students in the UK when they were completing the questionnaire. For better validity and quality, they were asked carefully about their opinions throughout the whole questionnaire and on

the process of doing the survey.

After piloting the main questionnaire, the data were analysed to calculate Cronbach's α in SPSS in order to check the reliability of the questionnaire. The Cronbach's α reliability coefficients is a measure which helps to examine the internal consistency of the questionnaire. If the Cronbach's α values are lower than 0.7, it is suggested that the questionnaire items were lower than the acceptable standard (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2012; Field, 2013). The 14 items assessing English learning motivation together had a Cronbach's α level of .79 and the 53 items assessing motivational factors an alpha of .81. Hence, the main questionnaire had a good reliability.

Finally, the questionnaire was double-checked to make sure that it was understandable and easy to fill in. A few statements were re-worded or paraphrased because the respondents from the pilot study had reported having confusion or problems in understanding them. The layout of the items was modified in line with respondents' comments, especially for the items that were skipped or not answered in the pilot study. Additionally, an open-ended question was added for an exploratory purpose. That is, there was a blank space for students to leave comments about any extra reasons that motivated them to learn English in addition to the existing statements given on the questionnaire. This was designed for the researcher to find potential interviewees (see Appendix A for the final version of the main questionnaire).

3.5.2 The short weekly questionnaire

3.5.2.1 The development of the short weekly questionnaire

The short weekly questionnaire shares identical features, merits and limitations

with the main questionnaire. In this study, it was much shorter than the main questionnaire and was created to explore the pattern of motivation change in more detail through more frequent investigation between the two main questionnaire surveys. In particular, this weekly questionnaire was short and easy to read and answer; this motivated participants to fill in the questionnaire with higher level of willingness and accuracy.

The short weekly questionnaire comprised two parts: (1) 6-point Likert type questions, consisting of five items and (2) a blank area for leaving comments. The items were clearly presented and free from ambiguity and double-barreled statements. It helped the researcher to understand not only the participants' English learning motivation (i.e. three questions related to English learning intensity, desire to learn English and attitudes towards learning English) but also their English learning experience during the term (i.e. two questions related to how they enjoyed the English class and whether they were satisfied with their learning results).

3.5.2.2 The pilot study and changes made to the short weekly questionnaire

The process of piloting the short weekly questionnaire was similar to the way of piloting the main questionnaire. Thirty-four Taiwanese university students took part in the pilot study; among these learners, 31 were a class of learners who filled in the questionnaire in Taiwan and the other three were students in the UK who were willing to be further interviewed. There was blank space at the end of the questionnaire for participants to leave any comments or ask any questions related to the questionnaire. The researcher stayed with the three students in the UK when they were completing the questionnaire. For better validity and quality, they were asked in detail about their opinions throughout the whole questionnaire and on the process of doing the survey.

After piloting the short weekly questionnaire, the statements of the items were

judged easy and clear to understand. The layout and the order of items were also appropriate. The participants from the pilot study did not raise any questions and the three interviewees felt the questionnaire was easy and quick to fill in. In the meantime, the data were analysed with Cronbach's α analysis in SPSS for checking reliability of the questionnaire. All the question items could be categorised into two groups, namely English learning motivation and learning experience. The Cronbach's α values were 0.79 and 0.80, respectively. Thus, the short weekly questionnaire had a good validity and reliability, which was appropriate for this study (see Appendix C for the final version of the short weekly questionnaire).

3.5.3 Classroom observation

3.5.3.1 The development of the classroom observation sheet

In order to make the observation process more organised, a classroom observation sheet was generated for keeping records during classroom observation in class as well as for taking notes while processing and coding the observation videos for further interviews (see Appendix D for the classroom observation sheet). The observation sheet contained three parts, including basic information, key variables and a blank space at the end: (a) The basic information area needed to be filled in with the observation date and name of the target for reference; (b) The variables, chosen in order to reflect students' motivated behaviours, consisted of 'concentration' (e.g. attention and taking notes) and 'participation' (e.g. volunteering to answer questions and being willing to be involved in activities), which were modified from Turner's (1995) and Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's (2008) studies; (c) A blank space was provided to leave comments or notes for reviewing the observation videos and supplying elements for subsequent interviews.

3.5.3.2 The pilot study and changes made to classroom observation

In the pilot study, two participants were observed in class and interviewed after classroom observation. During observation, the video camera in the front of the classroom was set to face and focus on the two students for filming throughout the whole class. The researcher herself was sitting at the back of the classroom and taking notes on the observation sheet. After observation, the clip was checked for the quality of the image and voice and further analysed with the notes written previously in class. The two students were interviewed afterwards regarding the filming and their in-class learning motivated behaviours.

After examination, the quality of the video clips was found to be good and clear, and the design of the observation sheet was deemed appropriate to gather the required data. The two variables of concentration and participation on the form seemed to be valid and have no overlap, which were suitable for the study. Although sometimes, during observation, it was inevitably difficult to take notes and write down every detail of the two participants' behaviours, the researcher could still review the 'live data' later in the videos again to keep comprehensive information and double-check if written records were accurate. This strengthened the importance of the in-class filming as a helpful record in addition to the written notes.

Moreover, the participants reflected later that, even though they fully understood the observation procedure, they were still a little bit distracted or affected by the filming, but the interference quickly diminished and had gone when they got used to it and then were focused on learning. As a result, based on the participants' feedback, the researcher decided to (1) try a dry run of recording in the informal meeting up before conducting the main study and (2) start filming before the class began on the days of classroom observation. This would help the participants to get familiar with the observation procedure as well as be used to be filmed in person.

In terms of the researcher who was observing the participants at the back, the students felt that there was no problem with them and they even did not pay any extra attention to the fact of being observed. This left room for them to really behave naturally in class since the researcher strove to reduce as much interference as possible. After all, although “it is possible that the students’ behaviour was to some degree influenced by the researchers’ presence”, observation “required no direct interaction between the observer and the observed” (Cotton et al., 2010, p. 470). Even if the researcher foresaw a possible unavoidable or unpredictable factor of whether the participants in the main study would behave as naturally as possible or not, it is interesting and valuable to examine insights into (1) their behaviours, (2) comparing the behaviours of high and low achievers and (3) who could show different motivated behaviours indicating different levels of motivation.

3.5.4 The interview

3.5.4.1 The development of the interview questions

Interview surveys were adopted as a follow-up investigation to the questionnaire surveys and classroom observation in the current study. The interviews were designed to be semi-structured and were expected to “elicit in-depth self-report data on motivation and motivational experience, with the transcribed data then subjected to thematic analysis based on predetermined codes and categories” (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012, p. 402). The content of the interviews was a series of open-ended and pre-prepared guiding questions but at the same time would not “limit the depth and breadth of the respondent’s story” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 237).

Furthermore, it is important to conduct a retrospective interview using the materials involving participants’ participation (e.g. observation clips) or materials

responded by themselves (e.g. questionnaires filled in by the participants) as guiding questions for investigating their further reflection and explanation about what they really meant and thought (Egbert, 2003; Gass & Mackey, 2000; Lamb 2004; Lyons, 2009). Thus, on the one hand, the interview questions were developed from the main questionnaire. These questions not only explored respondents' past learning experiences, current motivation and attitudes towards future learning but also asked for their comments on their responses to the main questionnaire. On the other hand, the interview questions were based on the short weekly questionnaire surveys and classroom observation, such as opinions about their English learning in class and comments on their expressions, behaviours and thoughts recorded in the videos (see Appendix B for the interview questions).

3.5.4.2 The pilot study and changes made to the interviews

Based on the content of the interview questions, a stimulated recall protocol was applied during the interviews. This technique “gives participants a chance to view themselves in action as means to help them recall their thoughts of events as they occurred” (Nguyen et al., 2013, p.2). Hence, firstly, three students (Group A) who had participated in the main questionnaire piloting were also interviewed by the researcher after the questionnaire survey. The questionnaires they had completed were offered as discussion materials during their interviews. Secondly, two students (Group B) who had been observed in the classroom were interviewed with more questions about their in-class learning while being observed. The piloting observation notes and clips filmed during the class were given as stimulants to recalling their memories. As a consequence, a mixed methods approach can not only contribute to collecting diverse data but also enable a powerful means of validating findings from different methods; the different sources of data can also be double-checked via further discussion and

clarification in the interviews (Cotton et al., 2010).

In addition, all these five participants were not only asked the guiding questions but also interviewed for their feedback about the set questions and the process of the interview. Based on the responses from both groups of learners, it was clear that they felt comfortable and relaxed during the interview procedure. They also claimed that they were satisfied with the questions since (1) the questions were clear and unambiguous as well as not too harsh or sensitive and (2) they were given the elements to recall and freedom to express their thoughts. In particular, they thought the previous informal meetings were useful and beneficial before the formal interviews. They could, therefore, be more familiar with the procedures of being interviewed and observed and behave more naturally in the presence of the researcher.

3.6 Ethical issues

First of all, the present research investigation, including the instruments, information sheets, consent forms and the Ethical Approval Form were examined and approved by the Ethics Committee of the Institute of Education, University of Reading. Second, before conducting the pilot and main studies, including applying two questionnaires, interviews and classroom observation, all the participants and their teachers and schools involved were given information sheets and consent forms explaining (1) the purpose and procedure of the study and (2) that all their participation would be treated with complete confidentiality. Third, the participants were assured that their involvement in the study would in no way influence their course grades. If they changed their minds, they could also withdraw from the study at any time. Fourth, the consent forms were obtained by their agreement and all the

original records were kept private. No identifiers linked the participants and their teachers and schools to the study in any records kept. All in all, this study followed the rules of ethical protocols throughout. (See Appendix F to Appendix N for the files of blank ethical documents and see Appendix O for the approved Ethical Approval Form.)

3.7 Concluding remarks

The current study investigated English learning motivation in a Taiwanese university context from a socio-dynamic perspective. It paid attention to the issues that Taiwanese university students would encounter while learning English and the concerns that are emphasised in language learning motivation research in the current socio-dynamic period. It also aimed to focus on exploring what has not yet been studied much in the previous literature in a similar context. Based on these goals, Chapter Three presented how the researcher developed a series of research questions and decided and established her research approaches, participants and instruments to answer the research questions.

Firstly, a mixed methods approach was applied in the present study, including collecting both quantitative and qualitative data for examining the complexity of motivation. Next, in order to explore the dynamic nature of motivation, self-retrospective, self-reported and self-documented approaches were all adopted, including using questionnaires, interviews and classroom observation for data collection. Finally, the researcher showed the research procedures as well as demonstrating how she selected her participants and how she constructed, piloted and utilised the instruments to conduct the research. Both the strengths and importance

and potential issues and limitations of the methods applied were fully discussed by the researcher.

In short, in order to achieve the research objectives and answer the research questions, how the researcher chose the participants and the selected methods applied to conduct the study were all explained in detail in this chapter. In the following chapter, how the data were analysed and what they showed will be presented.

Chapter 4: Data Analysis

4.1 Introduction

Previously, in Chapter Three, all the stages of the data collection procedures were laid out in detail. This chapter will further present how these data were subsequently analysed. The data analysis procedures can be divided into two aspects: (a) quantitative analysis of the data collected from the main questionnaire survey and weekly questionnaire survey and (2) qualitative analysis of the data collected from the interview and classroom observation. These aspects will all be comprehensively presented in this chapter.

4.2 The quantitative analysis procedures

4.2.1 Preparation – data input and coding

All the quantitative data collected from the main questionnaire and short weekly questionnaire surveys were analysed by using SPSS 19.0 software. The data analysis procedures were guided by and followed the steps written in Andy Field's (2013) book, *Discovering Statistics Using IBM SPSS Statistics*. This quantitative analysis helped the researcher to produce statistical results, which will be reported in Chapter Five.

Thus, firstly, the data collected from the main study were all input into the SPSS software. There were no missing data or outliers found. The input of the data was double-checked by both the researcher and other research colleagues. They were PhD

research students from different universities. This was checking the accuracy of the data entry.

Secondly, as discussed earlier in Section 3.5.1, the 67 questions on the main questionnaire consisted of 14 items related to English learning motivation and 53 items related to motivational factors that were believed to influence the strength of motivation. First of all, according to Gardner’s (1985) theory, which was reviewed in Section 2.3.2, motivation comprises three components, namely English learning intensity, Desire to learn English and Attitudes towards learning English. Hence, the 14 items were firstly coded as 14 variables (e.g. ‘Effort’ and ‘Willingness’) and then they were classified into the three groups of intensity, desire and attitudes (see Table 4-1).

Table 4-1: The structure and reliability analysis of English learning motivation

Components of motivation	Variables	Cronbach’s α value
English learning intensity	Effort and Hard-work	.89
Desire to learn English	Anticipation, Willingness, Readiness, Priority and Plan	.90
Attitudes towards learning English	Atmosphere, Attraction, Liking, Self-efficacy, Confidence, Challenge and Course	.92

In addition, the researcher divided the remaining 53 items into 14 groups and coded them as another 14 variables (e.g. ‘Linguistic interest’, ‘Integrativeness’ and ‘Social approval’). These 14 variables were further grouped into seven motivational factors, consisting of (1) Ethnocentrism, (2) Fear of assimilation, (3) Interest, (4) Travel orientation, (5) English anxiety, (6) the Ideal L2 self and (7) the Ought-to L2 self. The structure of the motivational factors is demonstrated in Table 4-2 on the next page. This categorisation into seven motivational factors was adapted from Taguchi et al.’s (2009) questionnaire survey and based on Dörnyei and Ushioda’s (2011) review.

That is, (a) Integrativeness was grouped into the Ideal L2 self and (b) the questionnaire items showing Instrumentality with a promotion focus (e.g. ‘Future Career’) were grouped into the Ideal L2 self and the ones with a prevention focus (e.g. ‘Bad-result prevention’) were categorised into the Ought-to L2 self. For example, learning English in order to gain a better job was coded as Future Career, which belonged to the motivational factor of the Ideal L2 self, while learning English in order to avoid being failed was coded as Bad-result prevention, which belonged to the motivational factor of the Ought-to L2 self (see full discussion about the L2 motivation self system in Section 2.3.11).

Table 4-2: The structure and reliability analysis of motivational factors

Motivational factors	Variables	Cronbach’s α value
Ethnocentrism (4 items)	Ethnocentrism	.77
Fear of assimilation (4 items)	Fear of assimilation	.78
Interest (9 items)	Linguistic interest and Socio-cultural interest	.90
Travel orientation (2 items)	Travel orientation	.71
English anxiety (6 items)	Communication anxiety	.87
The Ideal L2 self (12 items)	Academic progress, Future career, Personal competence, Role model and Integrativeness	.88
The Ought-to L2 self (16 items)	Significant-other effect, Bad-result prevention and Social approval	.91

Data on other potential contributing factors, such as gender, social background, English learning time, overseas travelling experience, intercultural encounters, etc, were not collected in this current research. This was partly due to the pragmatic reason of insufficient time and partly to the limited number of participants. Including

more factors in the multiple regression analysis would have necessitated a larger sample size. (See more details of multiple regression analysis in Section 5.3.1.3). All such variables would be interesting for further study in the future.

4.2.2 Normality tests and reliability analysis

In order to conduct further analysis and choose which analysis should be applied, the next step was to check whether the data distribution met the assumption of normality or not. Thus, the researcher firstly ran a Kolmogorov-Smirnov / Shapiro-Wilk test. If the test is non-significant ($p > 0.5$), it means that the distribution of the sample tends to be normal. Then the researcher also used a P-P plot test. If the dots are close to the diagonal line, it also indicates that the sample is likely to be normally distributed.

From the P-P plot test, all 10 groups of the data (the three components of English learning motivation and seven motivational factors) seemed to be normally distributed since the dots of each group looked close to the line (see Appendix E). Although a few groups (Interest and the Ideal L2 self) appeared significantly non-normal ($p < 0.5$) from the Kolmogorov-Smirnov / Shapiro-Wilk test, the researcher decided that the deviations from normality were within acceptable limits based on the plots of the two groups. As a result, the researcher subsequently utilised parametric statistical tests for further data analysis, including correlation, multiple regression and t-test.

Furthermore, the internal consistency for all the 10 groups was checked by calculating Cronbach's α in SPSS. All values were above .70 as shown in Table 4-1 and Table 4-2. The results showed that the scales had good reliability.

4.2.3 Descriptive statistics

In order to examine the strengths of English learning motivation and motivational factors, the data were analysed by calculating descriptive statistics of minimum, mean, maximum and standard deviation. These were then used to help the researcher to answer research question 1-(a): ‘What is the strength of Taiwanese university students’ motivation to learn English?’

4.2.4 Correlation analysis

Correlation analysis enables researchers to “examine the relations between existing variables observed in the sample, [...] and correlation coefficients are computed between two variables: a high coefficient indicates a strong relationship, while negative coefficients suggest an inverse relationship” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 217). This analysis cannot show cause and effect between two variables but can show the interrelationship between two variables.

As a consequence, the researcher ran Pearson’s correlation analysis to identify (1) the relationship between English learning motivation and motivational factors and (2) interrelationships of motivational factors. This answered research question 2-(d): ‘What is the relationship between these factors and English learning motivation?’ Moreover, the researcher conducted point-biserial correlation analysis to identify the relationship between English learning motivation and achievement (high and low achievers), i.e. in order to answer research questions 1-(c) and 2-(c). At the same time, since these two research questions compare motivational strength between high and low achievers, the data were also analysed with t-test, which will be further explained in Section 4.2.6.

4.2.5 Multiple regression analysis

Multiple regression analysis is applied to assess whether a set of predictor variables can predict and contribute to the outcome variable. Thus, in addition to correlation analysis, the researcher conducted multiple regression analysis to examine which motivational factors could predict learners' English learning motivation. In the current study, the seven motivational factors identified in Section 4.2.2 were predictor variables. These predictors were run in multiple regression analysis with the expectation that they would predict English learning motivation. In other words, the multiple regression models helped the researcher to determine how motivation can be explained by motivational factors and the importance of each motivational factor contributing to motivation.

In addition, the researcher also conducted multiple regression analysis to examine the interrelationships of seven motivational factors. How each factor could be explained by the other factors was expected to give insights into the complexity of motivational factors predicting different levels of motivation. For instance, in a multiple regression model of 'Interest', the other six motivational factors were predictor variables. All in all, along with correlation analysis, multiple regression analysis was adopted to answer research questions 2-(a): 'What factors influence the strength of Taiwanese university students' English learning motivation?' and 2-(d): 'What is the relationship between these factors and English learning motivation?' The assumptions for multiple regression models will be reported in Chapter Five along with the results of these tests.

4.2.6 t-test analysis

The researcher ran (1) paired-samples t-test to compare two means of data collected at Time 1 and Time 2 and (2) independent-samples t-test to compare two

means of data from high and low achievers. The former was utilised “when there are two experimental conditions and the same participants took part in both conditions of the experiment” (Field, 2013, p. 364). This paired-samples t-test helped the researcher to answer research questions 1-(b) and 2-(b) examining whether the strengths of motivation and motivational factors would change over time. The latter was used “when there are two experimental conditions and the different participants were assigned to each condition” (p.364). Consequently, this independent-samples t-test was applied to answer research questions 1-(c) and 2(c) in finding out whether there were differences between high and low achievers’ strengths of motivation and motivational factors.

Hence, firstly, the researcher conducted paired-samples t-test to compare the two sets of means and identify differences between the data collected at Time 1 and Time 2 from the same participants. This analysis could, therefore, explore the dynamic nature of English learning motivation and motivational factors. Secondly, the researcher ran independent-samples t-test to compare the two sets of means and identify differences between the data of these two groups of high and low achievers collected at the same time. Thus, this analysis could discover whether their achievement was influential and related to possessing different strengths of motivation and motivational factors.

4.3 The qualitative analysis procedures

The researcher used the ‘constant comparative method’ associated with ‘grounded theory’ (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), in which “each new piece of data is compared to others already coded in order to identify similarities and differences”

(Cotton et al., 2010, p. 466). It should be noted, however, that unlike in grounded theory, the analysis was guided to a certain extent by the motivational theories reviewed in Chapter Two. At the same time, the analysis did allow for new themes to emerge that were not necessarily consistent with those theories.

Thus, after the data were collected, they were reviewed, coded and grouped into categories. If any new elements or concepts emerged during the coding process, they were compared with the existing codes. Then, they were either coded and classified into the original categories or defined as a new group. The following sections will comprehensively present the procedures of qualitative analysis.

4.3.1 Interview data analysis

4.3.1.1 Preparation – data transcription

Firstly, all the 26 interviews were fully and carefully transcribed by the researcher. Then secondly, in order to make sure the transcribing process was accurately conducted, the transcripts were double-checked by both the researcher and the other research colleagues for checking accuracy of transcription. They were the same doctoral research students who helped with validating the input of the quantitative data. According to their feedback, the transcripts were mostly consistent with the interview audios. Only few words were added since they were skipped while transcribing. After these accurate transcripts had been generated, finally, a series of data coding was performed.

4.3.1.2 First-round coding – an initial codebook

First-round coding was designed to code the transcripts and produce an initial codebook of the interview data. The interview coding process defined each sentence / paragraph by giving a code or codes to a unit of lines. Therefore, the researcher read

through every part of the transcripts and coded them carefully. For instance, “after negotiating, my roommates (my classmates) and I studied English together”, a line from one of the transcripts, was delineated as a unit and coded as ‘Significant-other effect’ in this study. That is, this interviewee was influenced by her peers and motivated to learn English for this reason. Similarly, many units from this and other transcripts were also coded as Significant-other effect. A similar process was followed in producing the remaining codes, such as ‘Self-efficacy’ and ‘Linguistic interest’.

The interview transcripts were coded based on the existing codes and grouping identified in the questionnaire. In other words, for example, Self-efficacy was further grouped into ‘Attitudes towards learning English’, while Significant-other effect and Linguistic interest were categorised into ‘the Ought-to L2 self’ and ‘Interest’, respectively (see Section 4.2.1 for the whole grouping structures of English learning motivation and motivational factors). If new features or situations appeared in the transcripts, they were then coded as new codes and classified into new themes.

One transcript was selected at random. This transcript was coded and this coding was used to construct an initial codebook, composed of every different code and its definition and example. This initial codebook could help the researcher in four important aspects. First, it functioned as a guide and standard for the researcher to code the remaining interview transcripts. Second, it served as a database for reviewing the coding procedure if the codes needed to be redefined or renamed at the any later research stage. Third, it provided a complete picture of how the researcher coded the transcripts for other coders in the later coding and checking stage. Fourth, it was the cornerstone for developing a final codebook, which benefited greatly not only the research processes for analysing data and reporting and discussing findings but also making the writing up more organised and efficient.

4.3.1.3 Second-round coding – revising the codebook

Second-round coding aimed to revise the initial codebook and review the coding procedure. This initial codebook and the transcript which was initially coded in the first round were sent to be reviewed by another researcher who was a professional data analyst from a similar research discipline. After these texts were reviewed by this experienced second coder, she discussed with the researcher how to revise them, and the researcher updated the initial codebook and revised the first transcript coding to reach agreement. Once the new version of the codebook and coding method had been established, the researcher then coded five more randomly chosen interview transcripts with the same coding approach.

4.3.1.4 Third-round coding – inter-coder reliability

Third-round coding endeavoured to double-check the reliability of the interview coding. Six interview transcripts and the revised codebook were prepared and sent to a third trained coder to examine the inter-coder reliability. This third coder was also an experienced data analyst, but from a different discipline to the researcher. The third coder was given the revised codebook, six original transcripts and one coded transcript as a reference. The aims of the study and the research questions were also made clear to her.

Next, the third coder was asked to code the six transcripts and review the codebook and coded transcript. Inter-coder reliability analysis was then conducted, which “consists of coding and comparing the findings of the coders” (Mouter & Noordegraaf, 2012, p. 2). Reliability coefficients were calculated to check the degree of how reliable the codes were applied to the data coding. Therefore, the researcher calculated ‘percentage of agreement’ to check the inter-coder reliability. After the version of the researcher’s coding was compared with that of the third coder, the

inter-coder reliability was shown to be 82.35%. A discussion was then held to clarify coding issues and solve all disagreements in order to reach 100% agreement. At this time, only minor changes were made after discussion between the coder and researcher.

4.3.1.5 Final-round coding – a final codebook

At this final stage, a final codebook was established. The researcher revised the codebook and the six coded interview transcripts accordingly and applied the latest codebook to code the remaining 20 interview transcripts. During the coding process, a few new codes emerged and, therefore, were added to the codebook. When all the 26 transcripts were coded and checked, the final version of codebook was completed.

As shown in the final codebook, there was no new code regarding English learning motivation, so the structure of motivation remained the same with the version constructed from the main questionnaire (see Section 4.2.1). That is, English learning motivation comprised three components of English learning intensity, Desire to learn English and Attitudes towards learning English; among these three components, there were 14 codes of sub-categories in total (see Table 4-1 for the whole structure of English learning motivation). On the other hand, there were some new codes which emerged regarding motivational factors. The revised version is demonstrated in Table 4-3; the new codes and motivational factors are shown in **bold** with a ‘*’ mark. As a result, there were totally 20 codes as sub-categories, and they were further grouped into nine motivational factors.

Table 4-3: The revised structure of motivational factors

Motivational factors	Codes
(1) Ethnocentrism	Ethnocentrism
(2) Fear of assimilation	Fear of assimilation
(3) Cultural diversity*	Cultural diversity*

(4) Interest	Linguistic interest and Socio-cultural interest
(5) Travel orientation	Travel orientation
(6) English anxiety	Communication anxiety and Exam and course anxiety*
(7) The Ideal L2 self	Academic progress, Future career, Personal competence, Role model and Integrativeness
(8) The Ought-to L2 self	Significant-other effect, Bad-result prevention and Social approval
(9) The L2 learning experience*	Environment*, Learning experience*, Test and learning results* and Mental and physical conditions*

4.3.2 Classroom observation data analysis

4.3.2.1 Preparation – data transcription

First of all, the legibility of all the observation sheets and the sound and image quality of all the clips from the classroom observation were carefully examined by the researcher. Then grids were produced to keep records of all the participants' behaviours minute by minute (see Section 4.3.2.2 for discussion about the grids). When these materials were ready, the following procedures were implemented to facilitate accurate and reliable data analysis.

4.3.2.2 First-round coding – an initial codebook

First-round coding was designed to code the observation videos and produce an initial codebook of the participants' classroom behaviours. The researcher carefully watched every part of the clips and observation sheets and cautiously coded the behaviours. For example, when one of the participants was yawning during the class, this behaviour was coded as 'YA'; when he or she was taking notes, this behaviour was coded as 'TN'. If one behaviour lasted for more than one minute, then each minute was coded separately. For instance, if Participant X slept for 2.5 minutes, then

each of the three minutes on the grid was coded as one ‘FA’ (falling asleep), respectively (see Figure 3).

Activity 1: Checking homework			
Time	08.13	08.14	08.15
Participant X	FA (till 08.15)	FA	FA

Figure 3: The ‘FA’ (falling asleep) example

In other words, for this participant, three instances of being asleep would be recorded. Similarly, the remaining codes were created and applied in the same way.

During the coding procedure, a series of observation codes was generated. One of the participants’ clips was randomly selected and coded, and an initial codebook of codes and their definitions was constructed. Similar to the initial codebook for the interview data, this initial codebook for the classroom observation could help the researcher in four important aspects. First, it functioned as a guide and standard for the researcher to code the rest of the observation clips and notes. Second, it served as a database for reviewing the coding procedure if the codes needed to be edited and changed at the any later research stage. Third, it provided a complete picture of how the researcher coded the participants’ behaviours for other coders in the later coding and checking stage. Fourth, it was the cornerstone for developing a final codebook which benefited greatly not only the research processes for analysing data and reporting and discussing findings but also making the researcher more well-prepared and competent to write up the thesis.

4.3.2.3 Second-round coding – revising the codebook

Second-round coding aimed to revise the initial codebook and review the coding procedure. This initial codebook, coding grids and one participant’s clip which had been initially coded in the first round were sent to be reviewed by the second coder, as

previously mentioned. After these materials were reviewed by the experienced second coder and discussed with the researcher as to how to revise them, the researcher updated the initial codebook and revised the first coding to reach agreement. Once the new version of the codebook and coding process had been established, the researcher then coded five more randomly chosen participants' clips with the same coding method.

4.3.2.4 Third-round coding – inter-coder reliability

Third-round coding endeavoured to double-check the reliability of the classroom observation coding. Six participants' clips were chosen, and the coding grid and revised codebook were prepared and all sent to the third trained coder. This third coder was the same person mentioned in the previous interview data analysis section. In addition to the given materials, one completed grid was provided as a reference. The research aims and questions of the study were explained again to the third coder. Next, the third coder was asked to do the same thing. She reviewed the existing codebook and completed grid and then coded the six observation videos.

Here, the calculation of percentage of agreement was also utilised to inspect the degree of how reliable the codes were applied to the observation data coding. By comparing the completed grids from the third coder and the researcher, the inter-coder reliability reached 90.88%. A meeting was held afterwards to discuss coding issues and resolve all disagreements in order to achieve 100% agreement. At this time, only slight changes were made after discussion between the coder and the researcher. Finally, the researcher continued to code the remaining clips manually.

4.3.2.5 Final-round coding – a final codebook

At this final stage, a final codebook was established. The researcher revised the codebook and the six coding grids accordingly and used this revised codebook to code

the remaining classroom observation clips. During the coding process, a few new codes emerged and were then added to the codebook. When all the videos were fully coded and checked by the researcher, the final versions of the codebook and coding grids were completed.

Furthermore, in order to ensure the validity for observation data analysis, the researcher “tried not to read too much into the situation” (Cotton et al., 2010, p.470) while coding and the results of coding were discussed with the participants during their interviews (see Section 3.5.4.2 for discussion about stimulated recall). Thus, via “using some form of ‘respondent validation’”, the research findings were shared with the participants and “refined in the light of their comments” (Cotton et al., 2010, p.467).

Lastly, the structure of the participants’ classroom behaviours is summarised in Table 4-4, where the meaning of abbreviations used is also given.

Table 4-4: The structure of classroom behaviours

Behaviours	Codes
Motivated behaviors of concentration	TN: taking notes
Behaviours of lack of concentration	LA: looking around at his / her classmates SO: smiling to him / herself ST: starting a conversation and talking to others RT: responding to others and talking to others DW: drinking water or eating food FH* : fixing his / her hair (0.5) TF* : touching any part of his / her face (e.g. nose, lips, cheeks, rubbing eyes, etc.) or sniffing / sneezing (0.5) LG* : lifting up his / her glasses (0.5) DS: doing something else (e.g. turning his / her pen for a certain time, dealing with his / her bag, putting on his / her jacket, using his / her phone, etc.) TB* : touching any part of his / her body (0.5)

	TS: thinking about something else or being absent-minded YA: yawning FA: falling asleep
Motivated behaviours of participation	FT: following the teacher's instruction GI: getting involved in activities RE: responding to the teacher HT: helping the teacher in response to a request NH: nodding head as positive response to the teacher AT: amused by what the teacher was saying PO: paying attention to other students' responses AQ: asking a question related to the learning content VA: volunteering to answer the teacher's question
Behaviours of lack of participation	NG: not getting involved in activities NP: not present at certain time NF: not following the teacher's instruction (staying numb or doing something else) NO: not paying attention to other students who were answering teacher's question

In order to compare the behaviours among the participants, their behaviours were counted according to the records of coding. For example, Participant Y had 5 'LA' (looking around), 2 'FH' (fixing hair) and 10 'DS'(doing something else), so Y was recorded as having a total of 16 instances of 'Behaviours of lack of concentration' ($5 + 2 \times 0.5 + 10 = 16$). Each FH (fixing hair) episode was counted only as 0.5 of an instance because it might be partly lack of concentration and partly the participants' habit. Likewise, 'TF' (touching face), 'LG' (lifting glasses) and 'TB' (touching body) were also counted as an 0.5 instance; these four codes are marked in **bold** with a '*' in Table 4-4.

4.4 Concluding remarks

Chapter Four presented the procedures of how the researcher conducted both quantitative and qualitative data analyses, outlining how steps were taken to maximize their accuracy and reliability. The former analysis involved computing the statistical analysis, including descriptive statistics, correlation analysis, multiple regression analysis and t-test analysis. The latter involved using a constant comparative method to construct the codebooks and code and analyse the data. From the initial stage of preparation to the final stage of establishment of the structures for reporting the results, these were all explained in detail in this chapter. All the findings produced from the analyses mentioned above will be reported in the next chapter.

Chapter 5: Results

5.1 Introduction

As elaborated in the previous chapters, the current thesis addressed two main research questions, which were investigated via both quantitative and qualitative methods. Eighty-eight students participated in the main questionnaire survey. Thirteen of them took part in the follow-up weekly survey, classroom observation and interview. In order to explore how the outcomes may differ between high and low achievers, all these participants were allocated to different groups for further analysis (see Tables 5-1 and Table 5-2). In addition, the two questionnaires (long and short versions) which were applied in the main and weekly surveys both contained 6-point Likert scale questions. The responses to the questions were from 1 (low) to 6 (high). On such a scale, the mean was 3.5, which indicated that if the mean was above 3.5, this value would be considered to be a positive response.

Table 5-1: Student groupings

	High achievers	Low achievers	Total
All participants	41 persons	47 persons	88 persons
Individual cases	6 persons	7 persons	13 persons

Table 5-2: Individual students (with pseudonyms)

	Class X	Class Y	Class Z
High achievers	Angel, Betty	Eva, Frank	Jenny, Kin
Low achievers	Carol, Daisy	Gina, Hank, Ian	Lily, Mina

This chapter will report how the researcher tried to answer the two research questions in detail. The first research question explored the participants' English learning motivation, as follows.

Research question 1:

- (a) What is the strength of Taiwanese university students' motivation to learn English?
- (b) Does the strength of their motivation change over time?
- (c) Does the strength of their motivation differ between high and low achievers?

The concept of English learning motivation was applied from Gardner's (1985) theory and research. That is, English learning motivation is composed of three components, including 'English learning intensity', 'Desire to learn English', and 'Attitudes towards learning English'. The findings of research question 1, therefore, focused on the strength of each component and how the strength might change over time and differ between groups.

The second research question examined the participants' English learning motivational factors, as follows.

Research question 2:

- (a) What factors influence the strength of Taiwanese university students' English learning motivation?
- (b) Does the strength of these factors change over time?
- (c) Does the strength of these factors differ between high and low achievers?
- (d) What is the relationship between these factors and English learning motivation?

The findings of research question 2, therefore, focused on the factors which affected the strength of English learning motivation. In other words, the aim was to explore why learners would have certain strengths of motivation. The findings of the two

research questions above will be reported from two angles in this chapter; one is the results of all the 88 participants, and the other is the results of the 13 individual cases.

5.2 Research question 1: English learning motivation

This section will show the results of the quantitative data, which were gained from quantitative analysis, including descriptive analysis, correlation analysis and t-test analysis. It will report the results according to the structure established in Chapter Four (see also Table 5-3 below). Thus, the findings of the participants' overall English learning motivation and the strengths of its three components and 14 sub-categories will be elaborated in the following sections, respectively.

Table 5-3: The structure of English learning motivation

Components of motivation	Sub-categories
English learning intensity	Effort and Hard-work
Desire to learn English	Anticipation, Willingness, Readiness, Priority and Plan
Attitudes towards learning English	Atmosphere, Attraction, Liking, Self-efficacy, Confidence, Challenge and Course

5.2.1 Overall English learning motivation

As shown in Table 5-4, all the participants had moderately positive levels of English learning motivation (Time 1: Mean = 4.06 and Time 2: Mean = 3.75). They were generally more motivated to learn English at Time 1 than at Time 2; the difference was significant (see Table 5-5 on the next page). Among these participants, at Time 1, high achievers (Mean = 4.28) had significantly greater strength of

motivation than low achievers (Mean = 3.87) did and achievement was weakly but significantly related to English learning motivation. At Time 2, however, there was no significant difference between high and low achievers in English learning motivation. Achievement also showed no significant relationship with their motivation.

Table 5-4: Descriptive statistics: English learning motivation

Statistics	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	1.86	1.14	1.14	1.57	1.43	1.43
Mean	4.28	3.87	4.06	3.92	3.61	3.75
Maximum	5.71	5.36	5.71	5.50	5.79	5.79
Standard Deviation	0.83	0.71	0.79	0.86	0.78	0.83

Table 5-5: Change and difference in English learning motivation

	Change from Time 1 to Time 2	Difference between high and low achievers
English learning motivation	t = 4.73***	Time 1: t = 2.54*, r = .26* Time 2: t = 1.75, r = .19

*: p < .05; ***: p < .001

5.2.2 English learning intensity

This section will report the results of the participants' English learning intensity and its two sub-categories: Effort and Hard-work.

First of all, as presented in Table 5-6, all the participants had a slightly positive degree of English learning intensity at Time 1 (Mean = 3.76) and slightly negative degree of English learning intensity at Time 2 (Mean = 3.47). They had stronger English learning intensity at Time 1 than at Time 2; the difference was significant (see Table 5-7).

Table 5-6: Descriptive statistics: English learning intensity

Statistics	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	2.00	1.50	1.50	1.00	1.00	1.00
Mean	3.93	3.62	3.76	3.71	3.27	3.47
Maximum	6.00	5.50	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00
Standard Deviation	0.95	0.82	0.89	1.04	0.99	1.03

Table 5-7: Change and difference in English learning intensity

	Change from Time 1 to Time 2	Difference between high and low achievers
English learning intensity	t = 3.44***	Time 1: t = 1.64, r = .18 Time 2: t = 2.04*, r = .22*

*: $p < .05$; ***: $p < .001$

Among these participants, at Time 1, there was no significant difference between high and low achievers regarding their English learning intensity and achievement also showed no significant relationship with English learning intensity. In contrast, at Time 2, high achievers (Mean = 3.71) had significantly greater strength of English learning intensity than did low achievers (Mean = 3.27) and achievement was weakly but significantly related to English learning intensity.

In addition, the participants' English learning intensity was measured by two items on the main questionnaire, including (i) trying their best to learn English, coded as 'Effort' and (ii) working harder in learning English than how their peers did, coded as 'Hard-work'. Among these two sub-categories of English learning intensity, the mean scores for Effort were higher than the ones for Hard-work, both at Time 1 and Time 2 (see Table 5-8).

Table 5-8: Descriptive statistics: Effort and Hard-work

Effort	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	1.00	2.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Mean	4.22	4.04	4.13	3.90	3.51	3.69
Maximum	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00
Standard Deviation	1.08	1.00	1.04	1.16	1.08	1.13

Hard-work	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	2.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Mean	3.63	3.19	3.40	3.51	3.02	3.25
Maximum	6.00	5.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00
Standard Deviation	1.07	0.90	1.00	1.08	1.11	1.12

All the participants reported themselves to be making an effort to learn English (Time 1: Mean = 4.13 and Time 2: Mean = 3.69). They made more effort at Time 1 than at Time 2; the difference was significant (see Table 5-9). However, they did not think that they were more hard-working than their peers were in learning English, since the means were below 3.5 on the 6-point Likert scale (Time 1: Mean = 3.40 and Time 2: Mean = 3.25); there was also no significant difference between Time 1 and Time 2 in Hard-work.

Table 5-9: Changes and differences in Effort and Hard-work

	Changes from Time 1 to Time 2	Differences between high and low achievers
Effort	t = 4.08***	Time 1: t = .80, r = .09 Time 2: t = 1.64, r = .17
Hard-work	t = 1.37	Time 1: t = 2.11*, r = .22* Time 2: t = 2.10*, r = .22*

*: p < .05; ***: p < .001

Among these participants, there was no significant difference between high and low achievers regarding Effort either at Time 1 or Time 2. Achievement also showed no significant relationship with Effort. Conversely, there was significant difference between high and low achievers in Hard-work, both at Time 1 and Time 2. High achievers showed more positive responses and had higher mean scores for Hard-work (Time 1: Mean = 3.63 and Time 2: Mean = 3.51) than did low achievers (Time 1: Mean = 3.19 and Time 2: Mean = 3.02). Achievement was weakly but significantly related to Hard-work.

5.2.3 Desire to learn English

This section will report the results of the participants' Desire to learn English and its five sub-categories: Anticipation, Willingness, Readiness, Priority and Plan.

As shown in Table 5-10, all the participants had a slightly positive degree of Desire to learn English (Time 1: Mean = 4.04 and Time 2: Mean = 3.64). They had stronger desire to learn English at Time 1 than at Time 2; the difference was significant (see Table 5-11).

Table 5-10: Descriptive statistics: Desire to learn English

Statistics	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	1.60	1.00	1.00	1.40	1.00	1.00
Mean	4.25	3.86	4.04	3.81	3.50	3.64
Maximum	6.00	5.80	6.00	5.40	5.80	5.80
Standard Deviation	0.96	0.80	0.90	0.94	0.91	0.93

Among these participants, at Time 1, high achievers (Mean = 4.25) had significantly greater strength of Desire to learn English than low achievers (Mean =

3.86) did and achievement was weakly but significantly related to Desire to learn English. In contrast, at Time 2, there was no significant difference between high and low achievers regarding Desire to learn English and achievement also showed no significant relationship with Desire to learn English.

Table 5-11: Change and difference in Desire to learn English

	Change from Time 1 to Time 2	Difference between high and low achievers
desire to learn English	t = 5.03***	Time 1: t = 2.12*, r = .22* Time 2: t = 1.58, r = .17

*: p < .05; ***: p < .001

Furthermore, the participants' Desire to learn English was measured by five items on the main questionnaire, as follows:

- (i) looking forward to taking English classes, coded as 'Anticipation',
- (ii) being willing to spend time on learning English, coded as 'Willingness',
- (iii) being ready to learn English, coded as 'Readiness',
- (iv) preferring spending time on learning English to learning other subjects, coded as 'Priority' and
- (v) being willing to take English courses in the future, coded as 'Plan'.

Among these five sub-categories of Desire to learn English, the mean scores of each variable for all the participants from the highest to the lowest at Time 1 and Time 2 are listed as follows:

- Time 1: 'Plan' (4.35) > 'Willingness' (4.33) > 'Readiness' (4.25) > 'Priority' (3.85) > 'Anticipation' (3.42)
- Time 2: 'Willingness' (4.02) > 'Readiness' (3.80) > 'Priority' (3.66) > 'Plan'

(3.65) > ‘Anticipation’ (3.09)

All the participants expressed moderately lower Anticipation for the English course. Nevertheless, they reported themselves as tending to be willing to spend time on learning English (Willingness), being ready to do their best to learn English (Readiness), slightly preferring to dedicate their study time to learning English than to learning other subjects (Priority) and having a moderately positive tendency to plan to take an English course in the future (Plan) (see Table 5-12).

Table 5-12: Descriptive statistics: Anticipation, Willingness, Readiness, Priority and Plan

Anticipation	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	2.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Mean	3.59	3.28	3.42	3.05	3.13	3.09
Maximum	6.00	6.00	6.00	5.00	6.00	6.00
Standard Deviation	1.18	1.06	1.12	1.14	1.08	1.10
Willingness	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	2.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Mean	4.51	4.17	4.33	4.17	3.89	4.02
Maximum	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00
Standard Deviation	1.10	1.11	1.11	1.07	1.24	1.16
Readiness	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	2.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Mean	4.44	4.09	4.25	3.98	3.64	3.80
Maximum	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00
Standard Deviation	1.12	1.02	1.08	1.15	1.09	1.13

Deviation						
Priority	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	1.00	1.00	1.00	2.00	1.00	1.00
Mean	4.17	3.57	3.85	3.98	3.38	3.66
Maximum	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00
Standard Deviation	1.20	1.08	1.17	1.15	1.21	1.21

Plan	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	2.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Mean	4.56	4.17	4.35	3.88	3.45	3.65
Maximum	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00
Standard Deviation	1.38	1.07	1.23	1.23	1.27	1.26

The mean scores for these five sub-categories from all the participants were all decreasing from Time 1 to Time 2. Four of them showed significant difference between Time 1 and Time 2, while only Priority reflected non-significant change (see Table 5-13). Meanwhile, with respect to whether the means of each variable differed between high and low achievers, Priority was again the exception in this component of Desire to learn English. That is, there was no significant difference between high and low achievers regarding Anticipation, Willingness, Readiness and Plan, either at Time 1 or Time 2. Achievement also showed no significant relationship with each of these four variables. Nonetheless, there was significant difference between high and low achievers regarding Priority, both at Time 1 and Time 2. High achievers had stronger preference for learning English (Time 1: Mean = 4.17 and Time 2: Mean = 3.98) than did low achievers (Time 1: Mean = 3.57 and Time 2: Mean = 3.38). Achievement was weakly but significantly related to Priority.

Table 5-13: Changes and differences in Anticipation, Willingness, Readiness, Priority and Plan

	Changes from Time 1 to Time 2	Differences between high and low achievers
Anticipation	t = 2.62*	Time 1: t = 1.29, r = .14 Time 2: t = -.33, r = -.04
Willingness	t = 2.55*	Time 1: t = 1.45, r = .15 Time 2: t = 1.12, r = .12
Readiness	t = 4.45***	Time 1: t = 1.55, r = .17 Time 2: t = 1.41, r = .15
Priority	t = 1.75	Time 1: t = 2.45*, r = .26* Time 2: t = 2.35*, r = .25*
Plan	t = 5.72***	Time 1: t = 1.50, r = .16 Time 2: t = 1.62, r = .17

*: p < .05; ***: p < .001

5.2.4 Attitudes towards learning English

This section will report the results of the participants' Attitudes towards learning English and its seven sub-categories: Atmosphere, Attraction, Liking, Self-efficacy, Confidence, Challenge and Course.

As presented in Table 5-14, all the participants had moderately positive Attitudes towards learning English (Time 1: Mean = 4.16 and Time 2: Mean = 3.91). They had more positive Attitudes towards learning English at Time 1 than at Time 2; the difference was significant (see Table 5-15). Among these participants, at Time 1, high achievers (Mean = 4.40) had significantly greater strength of Attitudes towards learning English than did low achievers (Mean = 3.95) and achievement was weakly but significantly related to Attitudes towards learning English. In contrast, at Time 2, there was no significant difference between high and low achievers in Attitudes towards learning English and achievement also showed no significant relationship with Attitudes towards learning English.

Table 5-14: Descriptive statistics: Attitudes towards learning English

Statistics	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	2.00	1.14	1.14	1.86	1.71	1.71
Mean	4.40	3.95	4.16	4.05	3.79	3.91
Maximum	6.00	5.71	6.00	5.71	5.71	5.71
Standard Deviation	0.79	0.76	0.80	0.83	0.71	0.78

Table 5-15: Change and difference in Attitudes towards learning English

	Change from Time 1 to Time 2	Difference between high and low achievers
attitudes towards learning English	t = 3.73***	Time 1: t = 2.77*, r = .29* Time 2: t = 1.59, r = .17

*: p < .05; ***: p < .001

Moreover, the participants' Attitudes towards learning English was measured by seven items on the main questionnaire, including

- (i) enjoying the classroom atmosphere, coded as 'Atmosphere',
- (ii) considering that learning English is interesting, coded as 'Attraction',
- (iii) enjoying learning English, coded as 'Liking',
- (iv) considering themselves to be able to learn English well, coded as 'Self-efficacy',
- (v) considering themselves to be confident in speaking English, coded as 'Confidence',
- (vi) considering that learning English is an important challenge, coded as 'Challenge' and
- (vii) considering that the fun of the English classes is motivating, coded as

‘Course’.

Among these seven sub-categories of Attitudes towards learning English, the mean scores for each variable for all the participants from the highest to the lowest at Time 1 and Time 2 are listed as follows.

- Time 1: ‘Challenge’ (4.64) > ‘Attraction’ = ‘Self-efficacy’ (4.34) > ‘Liking’ (4.28) > ‘Confidence’ (4.27) > ‘Atmosphere’ (4.14) > ‘Course’ (3.10)
- Time 2: ‘Challenge’ (4.34) > ‘Self-efficacy’ (4.28) > ‘Confidence’ (4.16) > ‘Attraction’ (4.07) > ‘Liking’ (3.95) > ‘Atmosphere’ (3.73) > ‘Course’ (2.85)

All the participants had the lowest scores for Course. In other words, they had a low level of agreement with the idea that the English course was interesting enough to motivate them to learn English. The results of the other six variables presented positive values, by contrast. The participants regarded themselves as moderately enjoying the atmosphere of the English course (Atmosphere) and learning English (Liking); learning English was interesting (Attraction) and an important lifetime challenge (Challenge); and they had positive self-efficacy to learn English (Self-efficacy) and confidence in speaking English (Confidence) (see Table 5-16).

Table 5-16: Descriptive statistics: Atmosphere, Attraction, Liking, Self-efficacy, Confidence, Challenge and Course

Atmosphere	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	2.00	2.00	2.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Mean	4.29	4.00	4.14	3.59	3.85	3.73
Maximum	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	5.00	6.00
Standard Deviation	0.96	1.10	1.04	1.22	1.04	1.13

Attraction	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	2.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Mean	4.83	3.91	4.34	4.37	3.81	4.07
Maximum	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00
Standard Deviation	1.14	1.17	1.24	1.14	1.08	1.13

Liking	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	2.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Mean	4.61	4.00	4.28	4.22	3.72	3.95
Maximum	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00
Standard Deviation	1.02	1.04	1.07	1.13	1.19	1.18

Self-efficacy	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	2.00	1.00	1.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
Mean	4.63	4.09	4.34	4.49	4.11	4.28
Maximum	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00
Standard Deviation	0.99	1.12	1.09	0.95	1.18	1.09

Confidence	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Mean	4.46	4.11	4.27	4.41	3.94	4.16
Maximum	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00
Standard Deviation	1.27	1.27	1.28	1.25	1.24	1.26

Challenge	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All

Minimum	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Mean	4.73	4.55	4.64	4.39	4.30	4.34
Maximum	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00
Standard Deviation	1.12	1.04	1.07	1.18	1.04	1.10
Course	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Mean	3.27	2.96	3.10	2.90	2.81	2.85
Maximum	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	5.00	6.00
Standard Deviation	1.40	1.16	1.28	1.28	1.23	1.25

The mean scores for these seven sub-categories from all the participants all declined from Time 1 to Time 2. Four out of these seven variables showed significant difference between Time 1 and Time 2, including Atmosphere, Attraction, Liking and Challenge. On the other hand, the other three variables, Self-efficacy, Confidence and Course, reflected non-significant change (see Table 5-17). In the meantime, with respect to whether the means of each variable differed between high and low achievers, four variables showed no significant differences, including Atmosphere, Confidence, Challenge and Course, either at Time 1 or Time 2. Achievement also showed no significant relationship with each of these four variables. In contrast, there was significant difference between high and low achievers regarding Attraction and Liking, both at Time 1 and Time 2. High achievers had higher scores for these two variables (Attraction - Time 1: Mean = 4.83 and Time 2: Mean = 4.37; Liking - Time 1: Mean = 4.61 and Time 2: Mean = 4.22) than did low achievers (Attraction - Time 1: Mean = 3.91 and Time 2: Mean = 3.81; Liking - Time 1: Mean = 4.00 and Time 2: Mean = 3.72). Achievement was weakly but significantly related to these two variables, respectively. As for the remaining variable, Self-efficacy, there was also

significant difference between high and low achievers at Time 1. High achievers had stronger Self-efficacy (Mean = 4.63) than did low achievers (Mean = 4.09). Achievement was weakly but significantly related to Self-efficacy. In contrast, at Time 2, there was no significant difference between high and low achievers in Self-efficacy. Achievement also showed no significant relationship with Self-efficacy.

Table 5-17: Changes and differences from items of attitudes towards learning English

	Changes from Time 1 to Time 2	Differences between high and low achievers
Atmosphere	t = 2.67**	Time 1: t = 1.32, r = .14 Time 2: t = -1.10, r = -.04
Attraction	t = 2.55*	Time 1: t = 3.69***, r = .37*** Time 2: t = 2.36*, r = .25*
Liking	t = 3.41**	Time 1: t = 2.76*, r = .29* Time 2: t = 2.00*, r = .21*
Self-efficacy	t = .49	Time 1: t = 2.42*, r = .25* Time 2: t = 1.65, r = .18
Confidence	t = .97	Time 1: t = 1.32, r = .14 Time 2: t = 1.80, r = .19
Challenge	t = 2.66*	Time 1: t = .78, r = .08 Time 2: t = .39, r = .04
Course	t = 1.62	Time 1: t = 1.14, r = .12 Time 2: t = .35, r = .04

*: p < .05; **: P < .01; ***: p < .001

5.2.5 Concluding remarks on research question 1

In sum, Section 5.2 reported the results of the participants' English learning motivation. It also provided insights into the three components of motivation: (1) English learning intensity and its two sub-categories, (2) Desire to learn English and its five sub-categories and (3) Attitudes towards learning English and its seven sub-categories.

All in all, the participants had moderately positive levels of overall English learning motivation (Time 1: Mean = 4.06 and Time 2: Mean = 3.75). They had significantly greater strength of English learning motivation at Time 1 than at Time 2. Additionally, at Time 1, there was significant difference between high and low achievers; achievement was weakly but significantly related to motivation. But, at Time 2, motivation did not differ between high and low achievers; achievement also showed no significant relationship with their motivation.

If we compare the three components of motivation, the mean scores from the highest to the lowest were Attitudes towards learning English > Desire to learn English > English learning intensity, both at Time 1 and Time 2 (see Table 5-18).

Table 5-18: Means for the three components of English learning motivation, ranked in order

	Ranking of Means		Changes from Time 1 to Time 2	Differences between high and low achievers and relationships between each component and achievement	
	Time 1	Time 2		Time 1	Time 2
Attitudes towards learning English	1 (4.16)	1 (3.91)	t = 3.73***	H = 4.40 L = 3.95 t = 2.77* r = .29*	H = 4.05 L = 3.79 t = 1.59 r = .17
Desire to learn English	2 (4.04)	2 (3.64)	t = 5.03***	H = 4.25 L = 3.86 t = 2.12* r = .22*	H = 3.81 L = 3.50 t = 1.58 r = .17
English learning intensity	3 (3.76)	3 (3.47)	t = 3.44***	H = 3.93 L = 3.62 t = 1.64 r = .18	H = 3.71 L = 3.27 t = 2.04* r = .22*

*: $p < .05$; ***: $p < .001$; H: high achievers; L: low achievers

All these three components showed significant difference between Time 1 and Time 2; the mean scores all decreased from Time 1 to Time 2. What is more, at Time 1, two

components showed significant difference between high and low achievers, namely Desire to learn English and Attitudes towards learning English; these components were weakly but significantly related to achievement, respectively. On the other hand, at Time 2, only one component showed significant difference between high and low achievers, which was English learning Intensity; it was weakly but significantly related to achievement.

If we compare the 14 sub-categories, the mean scores of each variable at Time 1 and Time 2 are summarised in Table 5-19 below. All the variables' mean scores were above 3.5 on the 6-point Likert scale, except for Anticipation, Hard-work and Course. All the mean scores were higher at Time 1 than at Time 2.

Table 5-19: Means of the 14 sub-categories of English learning motivation, ranked in order

	Ranking of Means		Changes from Time 1 to Time 2	Differences between high and low achievers and relationships between each component and achievement	
	Time 1	Time 2		Time 1	Time 2
Challenge	1 (4.64)	1 (4.34)	$t = 2.66^*$	H = 4.73 L = 4.55 $t = .78$ $r = .08$	H = 4.39 L = 4.30 $t = .39$ $r = .04$
Plan	2 (4.35)	11 (3.65)	$t = 5.72^*$	H = 4.56 L = 4.17 $t = 1.50$ $r = .14$	H = 3.88 L = 3.45 $t = 1.62$ $r = .17$
Attraction	3 (4.34)	4 (4.07)	$t = 2.55^*$	H = 4.83 L = 3.91 $t = 3.69^{***}$ $r = .37^{***}$	H = 4.37 L = 3.81 $t = 2.36^*$ $r = .25^*$
Self-efficacy	4 (4.34)	2 (4.28)	$t = .49$	H = 4.63 L = 4.09	H = 4.49 L = 4.11

				t = 2.42*	t = 1.65
				r = .25*	r = .18
Willingness	5 (4.33)	5 (4.02)	t = 2.55*	H = 4.51 L = 4.17	H = 4.17 L = 3.89
				t = 1.45 r = .15	t = 1.12 r = .12
Liking	6 (4.28)	6 (3.95)	t = 3.41*	H = 4.61 L = 4.00	H = 4.22 L = 3.72
				t = 2.76* r = .29*	t = 2.00* r = .21*
Confidence	7 (4.27)	3 (4.16)	t = .97	H = 4.46 L = 4.11	H = 4.41 L = 3.94
				t = 1.32 r = .14	t = 1.80 r = .19
Readiness	8 (4.25)	7 (3.80)	t = 4.45*	H = 4.44 L = 4.09	H = 3.98 L = 3.64
				t = 1.55 r = .17	t = 1.41 r = .15
Atmosphere	9 (4.14)	8 (3.73)	t = 2.67*	H = 4.29 L = 4.00	H = 3.59 L = 3.85
				t = 1.32 r = .14	t = -1.10 r = -.04
Effort	10 (4.13)	9 (3.69)	t = 4.08*	H = 4.22 L = 4.04	H = 3.90 L = 3.51
				t = .80 r = .09	t = 1.64 r = .17
Priority	11 (3.85)	10 (3.66)	t = 1.75	H = 4.17 L = 3.57	H = 3.98 L = 3.38
				t = 2.45* r = .26*	t = 2.35* r = .25*
Anticipation	12 (3.42)	13 (3.09)	t = 2.62*	H = 3.59 L = 3.28	H = 3.05 L = 3.13
				t = 1.29 r = .14	t = -.33 r = -.04
Hard-work	13 (3.40)	12 (3.25)	t = 1.37	H = 3.63 L = 3.19	H = 3.51 L = 3.02
				t = 2.11* r = .22*	t = 2.10* r = .22*

Course	14	14	$t = 1.62$	$H = 3.27$	$H = 2.90$
	(3.10)	(2.85)		$L = 2.96$	$L = 2.81$
				$t = 1.14$	$t = .35$
				$r = .12$	$r = .04$

*: $p < .05$; **: $p < .01$; ***: $p < .001$; H: high achievers; L: low achievers

In addition, nine out of the 14 sub-categories' mean scores changed significantly from Time 1 to Time 2. The remaining five variables, including Self-efficacy, Confidence, Priority, Hard-work and Course, showed no significant difference between Time 1 and Time 2. Furthermore, at Time 1, five out of the 14 sub-categories showed significant differences between high and low achievers, including Hard-work, Priority, Attraction, Liking and Self-efficacy; these items were weakly but significantly related to achievement. Likewise, at Time 2, four out of the 14 sub-categories showed significant differences between high and low achievers, including Hard-work, Priority, Attraction and Liking; these items were weakly but significantly related to achievement.

5.3 Research question 2: English learning motivational factors

This section will present the findings of research question 2; it focuses on the motivational factors which affected the strength of the participants' English learning motivation. In other words, the researcher aimed to discover why learners would have certain strengths of motivation. Therefore, this section will demonstrate (1) the level of strength of each motivational factor, (2) how the level might change over time and differ between high and low achievers and (3) how each factor would influence each other and English learning motivation. Furthermore, the data collection and analysis

were conducted using both quantitative and qualitative methods. Hence, the results of the two sides will be reported in this section, consisting of the data collected from the surveys of the main questionnaire, short weekly questionnaire, interview and classroom observation.

5.3.1 English learning motivation and the seven motivational factors

As discussed earlier in Section 4.2, seven motivational factors were generated from the main questionnaire, namely (1) Ethnocentrism, (2) Fear of assimilation, (3) Interest, (4) Travel orientation, (5) English anxiety, (6) the Ideal L2 self and (7) the Ought-to L2 self. In order to understand the strength of participants' motivational factors, the researcher computed the descriptive statistics of each factor.

Moreover, the researcher ran correlation analysis and multiple regression analysis in order to examine how these seven motivational factors would influence the strength of Taiwanese university students' English learning motivation. In other words, the researcher attempted to use these two methods to investigate the interrelationships of the seven motivational factors and the relationship between these factors and English learning motivation.

As a result, the following paragraphs will present the descriptive statistics (see Section 5.3.1.1), correlations (see Section 5.3.1.2) and models produced from multiple regression analysis (see Section 5.3.1.3).

5.3.1.1 Descriptive statistics

Firstly, the descriptive statistics of the seven motivational factors are shown in Table 5-20. Among these factors, the mean scores for all the participants from the highest to the lowest, both at Time 1 and Time 2, are listed as follows: (1) 'Travel orientation' (Time 1: 4.70 and Time 2: 4.39) > (2) 'Interest' (Time 1: 4.57 and Time 2:

4.35) > (3) the ‘Ideal L2 self’ (Time 1: 4.44 and Time 2: 4.14) > (4) ‘English anxiety’ (Time 1: 4.11 and Time 2: 3.84) > (5) the ‘Ought-to L2 self’ (Time 1: 3.83 and Time 2: 3.80) > (6) ‘Ethnocentrism’ (Time 1: 3.16 and Time 2: 2.97) > (7) ‘Fear of assimilation’ (Time 1: 2.97 and Time 2: 2.70). The last two factors showed negative levels, that is, below 3.50.

Table 5-20: Descriptive statistics: The seven motivational factors

Ethnocen- -trism	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	1.75	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Mean	3.25	3.07	3.16	2.93	3.01	2.97
Maximum	5.25	4.75	5.25	4.25	4.75	4.75
Standard Deviation	0.80	0.76	0.78	0.77	0.92	0.85
Fear of assimilation	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	1.25	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Mean	2.90	3.04	2.97	2.59	2.80	2.70
Maximum	4.25	5.50	5.50	4.50	4.75	4.75
Standard Deviation	0.76	0.94	0.86	0.94	1.06	1.00
Interest	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	3.33	1.67	1.67	2.89	1.56	1.56
Mean	4.73	4.43	4.57	4.52	4.20	4.35
Maximum	6.00	5.89	6.00	6.00	5.78	6.00
Standard Deviation	0.77	0.84	0.82	0.71	0.93	0.84
Travel orientation	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All

Minimum	2.00	1.50	1.50	2.00	1.00	1.00
Mean	4.76	4.66	4.70	4.51	4.29	4.39
Maximum	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00
Standard Deviation	1.08	0.88	0.98	1.10	1.12	1.11
English anxiety	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	1.00	2.00	1.00	1.00	1.67	1.00
Mean	4.05	4.16	4.11	3.77	3.90	3.84
Maximum	5.83	5.67	5.83	5.50	5.83	5.83
Standard Deviation	0.98	0.83	0.90	1.04	0.98	1.00
Ideal L2 self	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	2.58	1.83	1.83	1.50	1.92	1.50
Mean	4.49	4.40	4.44	4.24	4.05	4.14
Maximum	5.67	5.42	5.67	5.58	5.08	5.58
Standard Deviation	0.72	0.65	0.68	0.78	0.72	0.75
Ought-to L2 self	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	1.19	1.69	1.19	1.25	1.75	1.25
Mean	3.76	3.90	3.83	3.82	3.78	3.80
Maximum	5.31	5.69	5.69	5.31	5.00	5.31
Standard Deviation	0.83	0.78	0.80	0.76	0.77	0.76

5.3.1.2 Correlation analysis

Secondly, Pearson's correlation analysis was conducted. It has been suggested that r values of .1 or -.1 represent a small relationship, .3 or -.3 indicate a moderate relationship and .5 or -.5 reflect a strong relationship between two variables (Field,

2013).

Table 5-21: Correlations (The first row of r values indicates the results at Time 1 and the second row of r values indicates the results at Time 2.)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Ethno-centrism	1.00						
2. Fear of assimilation	.39**	1.00					
3. Interest	.06	-.29**	1.00				
	-.07	-.05	1.00				
4. Travel orientation	.16	.02	.43**	1.00			
	-.04	-.06	.51**	1.00			
5. English anxiety	.07	.20	-.11	.02	1.00		
	.08	.10	-.15	-.09	1.00		
6. Ideal L2 self	.14	-.03	.38**	.65**	-.07	1.00	
	.23*	.24*	.59**	.57**	-.05	1.00	
7. Ought-to L2 self	.31**	.26**	-.08	.38**	.20	.57**	1.00
	.31**	.26*	.18	.32**	.32**	.62**	1.00
8. English learning intensity	.16	-.13	.36**	.38**	-.21	.47**	.14
	.15	.12	.50**	.53**	-.28**	.63**	.31**
9. Desire to learn English	.02	-.21*	.59**	.64**	-.05	.62**	.23*
	.11	.12	.62**	.54**	-.10	.74**	.39**
10. Attitudes towards learning English	.13	-.12	.67**	.58**	-.11	.57**	.16
	.12	.06	.72**	.58**	-.16	.72**	.31**

*: $p < .05$; **: $p < .01$

As shown in Table 5-21, several significant relationships occurred between the seven motivational factors and between these factors and the three components of English learning motivation, both at Time 1 and Time 2. The results reflect complex interrelationships between motivation and motivational factors.

- (1) Ethnocentrism: it was significantly related to Fear of assimilation, the Ideal L2 self and the Ought-to L2 self.
- (2) Fear of assimilation: it was significantly related to Ethnocentrism, the Ideal L2 self and the Ought-to L2 self. It was also negatively related to Interest and Desire to learn English.
- (3) Interest: it was significantly related to Travel orientation, the Ideal L2 self and the three components of English learning motivation. It was also negatively related to Fear of assimilation.
- (4) Travel orientation: it was significantly related to Interest, the Ideal L2 self, the Ought-to L2 self and the three components of English learning motivation.
- (5) English anxiety: it was significantly related to the Ought-to L2 self and negatively related to English learning intensity.
- (6) The Ideal L2 self: it was significantly related to all the other motivational factors, except for English anxiety. It was also significantly related to the three components of English learning motivation.
- (7) The Ought-to L2 self: it was significantly related to all the other motivational factors, except for Interest. It was also significantly related to the three components of English learning motivation.

5.3.1.3 Multiple regression analysis

Finally, the researcher applied multiple regression analysis to identify how the seven motivational factors (as predictor variables) could predict the three components of English learning motivation, namely English learning intensity, Desire to learn English and Attitudes towards learning English. In the meantime, these seven motivational factors were also assigned as the outcome variables. That is, the

researcher also wished to explore the interrelationships of these motivational factors. As a result, the aim was to generate 10 sets of multiple regression models.

First of all, the researcher checked whether assumptions were met in order to know if the results were true for a wider population. The assumptions are summarised as follows (Field, 2013, p. 311-312):

- (1) Additivity and linearity: the process we are trying to model can be described by the linear model.
- (2) Independent error: for any two observations, the residual terms should be uncorrelated.
- (3) Homoscedasticity: at each level of the predictor variable(s), the variance of the residual terms should be constant.
- (4) Normally distributed errors: it is assumed that the residuals in the model are random, normally distributed variables with a mean of 0.
- (5) Predictors are uncorrelated with 'external variables': this assumption means that there should be no external variables that correlated with any of the variables included in the regression model.
- (6) Variable types: all predictor variables must be quantitative or categorical (with two categories), and the outcome variable must be quantitative, continuous and unbounded.
- (7) No perfect multicollinearity: if the model has more than one predictor, then there should be no perfect linear relationship between two or more of the predictors.
- (8) Non-zero variance: the predictors should have some variation in value (i.e. they do not have variances of 0).

The results showed that assumptions (1), (3), (5), (6) and (8) were satisfied. Assumption (4) was also met, which was checked by the normality tests (i.e. the

Kolmogorov-Smirnov / Shapiro-Wilk test and P-P plot test), which were reported in Section 4.2.2. Then assumption (2) was tested with the Durbin-Watson test. It has been suggested that “a value of 2 means that the residuals are uncorrelated; [...] a value less than 1 or greater than 3 definitely cause for concern” (Field, 2013, p. 311). Then, the researcher examined the value of Variance inflation factor (VIF) to check whether assumption (7) was met (i.e. there should be no multicollinearity in a multiple regression model). The value is suggested to be below 10, which indicates that there are no substantial correlations ($r > .80$ or $.90$) between predictors (Field, 2013; Myers 1990).

After checking the assumptions, the R square value was subsequently examined in order to understand “how much of the variability in the outcome is accounted for by the predictors” (Field, 2013, p. 336). Furthermore, Adjusted R Square value is expected to be very close to the value of R square. It offers information about how well the model generalises, which implies the cross-validity of the model. The amount of shrinkage (R Square minus Adjusted R Square) is influenced by the sample size and the numbers of predictor variables: the larger the sample size and the fewer predictor variables, the less the shrinkage. Then, checking the F value in ANOVA was the next step; this “tells us whether the model is a significant fit of the data overall” (p. 338). Lastly, the standardised beta value (Beta) was examined in order to have “insights into the ‘importance’ of a predictor in the model” (p. 340). The higher the value is, the stronger the predictor is in the model.

According to the results reported in the following paragraphs, there was no Durbin-Watson value less than 1 or greater than 3 and there was no multicollinearity found in any model; none of the predictor variables correlated too highly. The F values for all the models also turned out to be significant. Meanwhile, the shrinkage for each model was below 6%. All these values above, as well as the Beta values for

the 10 sets of the models, are presented as follows.

(1) English learning intensity: (see Table 5-22)

These seven motivational factors explained more of the variance in English learning intensity at Time 2 than at Time 1. Travel orientation and the Ideal L2 self significantly predicted English learning intensity. On the other hand, English anxiety significantly but negatively predicted English learning intensity.

Table 5-22: Multiple regression models of English learning intensity

	R²	Adjusted R²	F	Durbin-Watson	Beta	VIF
Time 1	.31	.25	5.19***	2.15	1. .17	1. 1.31
					2. -.10	2. 1.40
					3. .10	3. 1.64
					4. .09	4. 1.92
					5. -.14	5. 1.12
					6. .40**	6. 2.66
					7. -.11	7. 2.10
Time 2	.51	.47	11.96***	1.86	1. .08	1. 1.75
					2. .02	2. 1.75
					3. .13	3. 1.85
					4. .22*	4. 1.67
					5. -.24**	5. 1.26
					6. .39**	6. 3.32
					7. .02	7. 2.25

*: $p < .05$; **: $p < .01$; ***: $p < .001$

Predictors: 1. Ethnocentrism, 2. Fear of assimilation, 3. Interest, 4. Travel orientation, 5. English anxiety, 6. The Ideal L2 self and 7. The Ought-to L2 self

(2) Desire to learn English: (see Table 5-23)

The models explained over 60% of the variance in Desire to learn English at each time. Interest, Travel orientation and the Ideal L2 self were the most important predictors of Desire to learn English.

Table 5-23: Multiple regression models of Desire to learn English

	R²	Adjusted R²	F	Durbin-Watson	Beta	VIF
Time 1	.60	.56	17.05***	1.72	1. -.05	1. 1.31
					2. -.10	2. 1.40
					3. .32***	3. 1.64
					4. .32**	4. 1.92
					5. .03	5. 1.12
					6. .30*	6. 2.66
					7. .01	7. 2.10
Time 2	.61	.57	17.59***	2.34	1. .01	1. 1.75
					2. .01	2. 1.75
					3. .26**	3. 1.85
					4. .10	4. 1.67
					5. -.02	5. 1.26
					6. .54***	6. 3.32
					7. -.03	7. 2.25

*: $p < .05$; **: $p < .01$; ***: $p < .001$

Predictors: 1. Ethnocentrism, 2. Fear of assimilation, 3. Interest, 4. Travel orientation, 5. English anxiety, 6. The Ideal L2 self and 7. The Ought-to L2 self

(3) Attitudes towards learning English: (see Table 5-24)

The models explained over 60% of the variance in Attitudes towards learning English at each time. Interest, Travel orientation and the Ideal L2 self were the most influential predictors of Attitudes towards learning English.

Table 5-24: Multiple regression models of Attitudes towards learning English

	R²	Adjusted R²	F	Durbin-Watson	Beta	VIF
Time 1	.60	.56	16.92***	1.67	1. .03	1. 1.31
					2. .03	2. 1.40
					3. .48***	3. 1.64
					4. .22*	4. 1.92
					5. -.04	5. 1.12
					6. .26*	6. 2.66
					7. -.04	7. 2.10

Time 2	.68	.66	24.60***	2.28	1. .12	1. 1.75
					2. -.08	2. 1.75
					3. .39***	3. 1.85
					4. .15	4. 1.67
					5. -.05	5. 1.26
					6. .45***	6. 3.32
					7. -.09	7. 2.25

*: $p < .05$; **: $p < .01$; ***: $p < .001$

Predictors: 1. Ethnocentrism, 2. Fear of assimilation, 3. Interest, 4. Travel orientation, 5. English anxiety, 6. The Ideal L2 self and 7. The Ought-to L2 self

(4) Ethnocentrism: (see Table 5-25)

Table 5-25: Multiple regression models of Ethnocentrism

	R²	Adjusted R²	F	Durbin-Watson	Beta	VIF
Time 1	.24	.18	4.22***	1.53	1. .38***	1. 1.21
					2. .23	2. 1.57
					3. .04	3. 1.92
					4. -.05	4. 1.12
					5. -.14	5. 2.64
					6. .30*	6. 1.98
Time 2	.43	.39	10.15***	1.79	1. .57***	1. 1.19
					2. -.09	2. 1.83
					3. -.06	3. 1.67
					4. -.04	4. 1.26
					5. .07	5. 3.32
					6. .16	6. 2.21

*: $p < .05$; **: $p < .01$; ***: $p < .001$

Predictors: 1. Fear of assimilation, 2. Interest, 3. Travel orientation, 4. English anxiety, 5. The Ideal L2 self and 6. The Ought-to L2 self

These six motivational factors explained more of the variance in Ethnocentrism at Time 2 than at Time 1. Fear of assimilation was the strongest predictor of Ethnocentrism. The Ought-to L2 self also significantly predicted Ethnocentrism at Time 1.

(5) Fear of assimilation: (see Table 5-26)

These six motivational factors explained more of the variance in Fear of assimilation at Time 2 than at Time 1. Ethnocentrism was the strongest predictor of Fear of assimilation. Interest also significantly but negatively predicted Fear of assimilation at Time 1.

Table 5-26: Multiple regression models of Fear of assimilation

	R²	Adjusted R²	F	Durbin-Watson	Beta	VIF
Time 1	.28	.23	5.36***	1.65	1. .36***	1. 1.13
					2. -.31**	2. 1.51
					3. .09	3. 1.91
					4. .11	4. 1.11
					5. -.08	5. 2.66
					6. .12	6. 2.08
Time 2	.43	.39	10.10***	1.88	1. .57***	1. 1.19
					2. -.08	2. 1.83
					3. -.13	3. 1.65
					4. .05	4. 1.23
					5. .26	5. 3.21
					6. -.04	6. 2.25

*: $p < .05$; **: $p < .01$; ***: $p < .001$

Predictors: 1. Ethnocentrism, 2. Interest, 3. Travel orientation, 4. English anxiety, 5. The Ideal L2 self and 6. The Ought-to L2 self

(6) Interest: (see Table 5-27)

Table 5-27: Multiple regression models of Interest

	R²	Adjusted R²	F	Durbin-Watson	Beta	VIF
Time 1	.39	.35	8.64***	1.97	1. .18	1. 1.26
					2. -.26**	2. 1.29
					3. .30*	3. 1.77
					4. .03	4. 1.12
					5. .39**	5. 2.42
					6. -.40***	6. 1.83

Time 2	.46	.42	11.44***	2.03	1. -.08	1. 1.74
					2. -.08	2. 1.74
					3. .20*	3. 1.60
					4. .01	4. 1.26
					5. .67***	5. 2.49
					6. -.26*	6. 2.13

*: $p < .05$; **: $p < .01$; ***: $p < .001$

Predictors: 1. Ethnocentrism, 2. Fear of assimilation, 3. Travel orientation, 4. English anxiety, 5. The Ideal L2 self and 6. The Ought-to L2 self

These six motivational factors explained more of the variance in Interest at Time 2 than at Time 1. Travel orientation and the Ideal L2 self significantly predicted Interest. Fear of assimilation and the Ought-to L2 self also significantly but negatively predicted Interest.

(7) Travel orientation: (see Table 5-28)

Table 5-28: Multiple regression models of Travel orientation

	R²	Adjusted R²	F	Durbin-Watson	Beta	VIF
Time 1	.48	.44	12.37***	1.97	1. .03	1. 1.31
					2. .07	2. 1.39
					3. .26*	3. 1.52
					4. .06	4. 1.11
					5. .52***	5. 2.15
					6. .06	6. 2.09
Time 2	.40	.36	9.08***	1.82	1. -.06	1. 1.75
					2. -.13	2. 1.72
					3. .22*	3. 1.77
					4. -.03	4. 1.26
					5. .45**	5. 2.99
					6. .06	6. 2.25

*: $p < .05$; **: $p < .01$; ***: $p < .001$

Predictors: 1. Ethnocentrism, 2. Fear of assimilation, 3. Interest, 4. English anxiety, 5. The Ideal L2 self and 6. The Ought-to L2 self

These six motivational factors explained more of the variance in Travel orientation at

Time 1 than at Time 2. The Ideal L2 self was the most influential predictor of Travel orientation. Interest also significantly predicted Travel orientation.

(8) English anxiety: (see Table 5-29)

These six motivational factors seemed to explain only a small amount of the variance in English anxiety. The Ideal L2 self and the Ought-to L2 self were the most important predictors of English learning anxiety. However, the former contributed negatively and the latter contributed positively.

Table 5-29: Multiple regression models of English anxiety

	R²	Adjusted R²	F	Durbin-Watson	Beta	VIF
Time 1	.11	.06	1.66*	1.92	1. -.05	1. 1.31
					2. .13	2. 1.38
					3. .04	3. 1.64
					4. .10	4. 1.91
					5. -.33*	5. 2.54
					6. .34*	6. 1.97
Time 2	.21	.16	3.51**	1.99	1. -.06	1. 1.75
					2. .07	2. 1.72
					3. .01	3. 1.77
					4. -.05	4. 1.26
					5. -.38*	5. 2.99
					6. .57***	6. 2.25

*: $p < .05$; **: $p < .01$; ***: $p < .001$

Predictors: 1. Ethnocentrism, 2. Fear of assimilation, 3. Interest, 4. Travel orientation, 5. The Ideal L2 self and 6. The Ought-to L2 self

(9) The Ideal L2 self: (see Table 5-30)

The models explained over 60% of the variance in the Ideal L2 self at each time. Interest, Travel orientation and the Ought-to L2 self were the most influential predictors of the Ideal L2 self. English anxiety also significantly but negatively contributed to predicting the Ideal L2 self.

Table 5-30: Multiple regression models of the Ideal L2 self

	R²	Adjusted R²	F	Durbin-Watson	Beta	VIF
Time 1	.62	.60	22.45***	2.08	1. -.07	1. 1.30
					2. -.04	2. 1.39
					3. .24**	3. 1.49
					4. .37***	4. 1.54
					5. -.14*	5. 1.07
					6. .51***	6. 1.42
Time 2	.70	.68	31.38***	2.30	1. .04	1. 1.75
					2. .14	2. 1.69
					3. .37***	3. 1.39
					4. .23**	4. 1.50
					5. -.15*	5. 1.19
					6. .49***	6. 1.47

*: $p < .05$; **: $p < .01$; ***: $p < .001$

Predictors: 1. Ethnocentrism, 2. Fear of assimilation, 3. Interest, 4. Travel orientation, 5. English anxiety and 6. The Ought-to L2 self

(10) The Ought-to L2 self: (see Table 5-31)

Table 5-31: Multiple regression models of the Ought-to L2 self

	R²	Adjusted R²	F	Durbin-Watson	Beta	VIF
Time 1	.52	.49	14.83***	1.78	1. .19*	1. 1.24
					2. .08	2. 1.39
					3. -.31***	3. 1.43
					4. .06	4. 1.91
					5. .18*	5. 1.06
					6. .64***	6. 1.80
Time 2	.56	.52	16.92***	2.19	1. .13	1. 1.72
					2. -.03	2. 1.75
					3. -.21*	3. 1.75
					4. .04	4. 1.67
					5. .32***	5. 1.03
					6. .72***	6. 2.17

*: $p < .05$; **: $p < .01$; ***: $p < .001$

Predictors: 1. Ethnocentrism, 2. Fear of assimilation, 3. Interest, 4. Travel orientation,

5. English anxiety and 6. The Ideal L2 self

These six motivational factors explained around 50% of the variance in the Ought-to L2 self at each time. The Ideal L2 self was the most important predictor of the Ought-to L2 self. Ethnocentrism and English anxiety also significantly predicted the Ought-to L2 self. In contrast, Interest significantly but negatively contributed to predicting the Ought-to L2 self.

All in all, these seven motivational factors had complex interrelationships and relationship with English learning motivation. Among these factors, the most influential factors that could significantly predict English learning motivation were (1) Interest (positively), (2) Travel orientation (positively), (3) English anxiety (negatively) and (4) the Ideal L2 self (positively). Based on the findings of the descriptive statistics, correlations and multiple regression models above, the following sections will comprehensively address further discussion and compare the quantitative and qualitative results of the current study. The researcher will give more insights into each motivational factor, including (1) whether these factors change over time, (2) whether there was difference found between high and low achievers in each factor and (3) how these factors could be influential in motivating the participants to learn English.

5.3.2 Ethnocentrism

Ethnocentrism in the current study means that learners consider that Taiwanese culture is better than others or that they would be happy if other cultures could be similar to Taiwan's and everyone could have a Taiwanese life style. It is related to how students perceive their Taiwanese identity.

As shown in the descriptive statistics in Section 5.3.1, the 88 participants

possessed low levels of Ethnocentrism (Time 1: Mean = 3.16 and Time 2: Mean = 2.97). The strength reduced from Time 1 to Time 2; the difference was significant ($t = 2.24, p < .05$). Nevertheless, among these participants, there was no significant difference between high and low achievers regarding Ethnocentrism either at Time 1 ($t = -1.06, p = .29$) or Time 2 ($t = .46, p = .65$). Achievement also showed no significant relationship with this factor (Time 1: $r = .11, p = .29$ and Time 2: $r = -.05, p = .65$).

As discussed earlier in Section 1.2, when people have a strong sense of ethnocentrism, they may have a different tendency to change or expand their own identity while learning a language. This factor affects their language learning motivation, such as (a) being unwilling to learn a new language since L1 is sufficient in daily life or (b) being willing to learn a new language in order to promote their own culture or gain social approval (i.e. a sense of the Ought-to L2 self: see Sections 2.3.11 and 5.3.9 for further discussion about the Ought-to L2 self).

From the correlation and multiple regression analyses reported in Section 5.3.1, the results also showed that some part of Ethnocentrism was mainly explained by Fear of assimilation (positively) and the Ought-to L2 self (positively) (see Section 5.3.3 for further discussion about Fear of assimilation). Although Ethnocentrism could not directly predict English learning motivation, it was ascertained to not only have a relationship with motivation and other motivational factors but also be an influential factor that predicted Fear of assimilation and the Ought-to L2 self. In other words, Ethnocentrism might influence the participants' English learning motivation while learning English in several ways (see Table 5-32). The dynamic nature of Ethnocentrism could also impact on motivation change over time.

Table 5-32: Possible situations when Ethnocentrism increases (results from multiple regression analysis in Section 5.3.1)

Interactions between the motivational factors	Possible influences on English learning motivation
(1) Fear of assimilation + → Interest –	→ Motivation –
(2) Ought-to L2 self + → Anxiety +	→ Motivation –
(3) Ought-to L2 self + → Interest –	→ Motivation –
(4) Ought-to L2 self + → Ideal L2 self +	→ Motivation +

Thirteen of the participants were further interviewed. Many of them thought that there was no such ranking of better culture and that each culture has its unique features which should not be the same across cultures. That is, they had a lower sense of ethnocentrism. For instance, Frank expressed the view that “other cultures should have their own traits, but not just be similar to Taiwan’s and there is no better or worse, only merits and shortcomings.” Gina also pointed out that “there are no good or bad cultures.” They did not assume that Taiwanese culture is better than others or that all the cultures should be the same. “It would be terrible if a culture vanishes. Stay diverse”, said Daisy. Among these 13 interviewees, Betty was the only one who took an opposite position. She thought that Taiwanese culture is better. However, no matter whether they had a strong or low sense of ethnocentrism, they mostly agreed that they appreciated the existence of different cultures. This attitude of being open-minded about cultural diversity would not reduce their willingness of potentially changing or expanding their identity while learning English. Even if Taiwanese identity was important to them, learning from English culture or other different cultures could be interesting, in their view, which meant that their English learning motivation was not constrained and was less influenced by Ethnocentrism (see further discussion about the factor of Cultural diversity in Section 5.3.4).

5.3.3 Fear of assimilation

Similar to Ethnocentrism, Fear of assimilation is also a factor related to learners' sense of identity. It involves the idea that the Taiwanese may confront the risk of forgetting Taiwanese culture or losing their sense of Taiwanese identity. It is also concerned with negative impacts, such as possessing negative values or having lower cultural status, resulting from the spread of other cultures, particularly British or American cultures in the present study.

As presented in the descriptive statistics in Section 5.3.1, the 88 participants reflected that they had low levels of Fear of assimilation (Time 1: Mean = 2.97 and Time 2: Mean = 2.70). The strength was decreasing from Time 1 to Time 2; the difference was significant ($t = 2.63, p < .01$). Nonetheless, among these participants, there was no significant difference between high and low achievers regarding Fear of assimilation, either at Time 1 ($t = .77, p = .44$) or Time 2 ($t = 1.02, p = .31$). Achievement also showed no significant relationship with this factor (Time 1: $r = -.08, p = .44$ and Time 2: $r = -.11, p = .31$).

When people possess a strong sense of fear of assimilation, they may question why they need to learn a new language. In order to avoid possible negative consequences, they may tend to hold a relatively more conservative attitude towards changing or expanding their own identity while learning a language. Their reluctance towards accepting new things or changes may, therefore, influence their language learning motivation (e.g. lower interest, less integrativeness or a stronger sense of ethnocentrism, see discussion also in the previous section).

From the correlation and multiple regression analyses reported in Section 5.3.1, the results also indicated that some part of Fear of assimilation was mainly explained by Ethnocentrism (positively) and Interest (negatively) (see Section 5.3.5 for further

discussion about Interest). Although Fear of assimilation could not directly predict English learning motivation, it was assumed to not only have a relationship with motivation and other motivational factors, but also be an important factor that predicted Ethnocentrism (positively) and Interest (negatively). Hence, Fear of assimilation was expected to have some influence on the participants' English learning motivation while learning English in diverse ways (see Table 5-33). The dynamic nature of Fear of assimilation could also lead to motivation change over time.

Table 5-33: Possible situations when Fear of assimilation increases (results from multiple regression analysis in Section 5.3.1)

Interactions between the motivational factors	Possible influences on English learning motivation
(1) Interest –	→ Motivation –
(2) Ethnocentrism + → Ought-to L2 self + → Anxiety +	→ Motivation –
(3) Ethnocentrism + → Ought-to L2 self + → Interest –	→ Motivation –
(4) Ethnocentrism + → Ought-to L2 self + → Ideal L2 self +	→ Motivation +

Among the 13 interviewees, many of them mentioned that the spread of English culture brought not only positive impacts, but also negative consequences. Some students who had a weaker sense of fear of assimilation claimed that there were more positive influences than negative effects, such as being more active and giving feedback while learning or a fast food culture like McDonald's. They enjoyed the change to their lifestyle or additional choices provided by other cultures. By contrast, some students proclaimed that people should not forget their Taiwanese identity. For instance, Ian asserted, "there are more people who do Yoga than people who do traditional martial arts; more people learn English than learn Taiwanese." Daisy also

emphasised that “our norms and values should be kept. How can we forget to be filial to our parents? We are related to each other.” They revealed the risk of forgetting or losing the local culture and identity, which showed some sense of fear of assimilation.

On the other hand, there were some students who recognised the impacts from other cultures, but who thought that the nature of Taiwanese culture would remain the same because Taiwanese people had a strong sense of identity. Thus, they were confident and believed that people were very aware of Taiwanese culture and identity, so they had a weaker sense of fear of assimilation. “Taiwanese identity will not be replaced”, Angel argued. Gina also indicated that “nowadays people seldom just adore and follow the western cultures and forget their sense of identity”; a sense of Fear of assimilation was not an issue. Jenny said that, “due to the rising strong sense of Taiwanese local culture and identity, the strength of impacts from other cultures has been smaller. We can communicate and exchange opinions with others, but our culture will not change.” In other words, the impacts brought by other cultures would not entail the decline or alteration of Taiwanese local culture. The pros and cons were just adding more colour as long as the nature of the original culture stayed strong enough to persist. As Frank commented, “there are many differences between Taiwanese culture and other cultures; we are both affecting each other. We should just adjust our thinking to be open-minded without changing our core nature.” Accordingly, these students approved Taiwanese identity, had less sense of fear of assimilation and did not consider a potential influence from other cultures to be a threat or change of identity, but, rather, an additional option. They might leave some room for expanding their identity if they needed or desired to, as long as their Taiwanese identity was not impaired.

As a result, few of these interviewees had any some sense of fear of assimilation; their interest might, to some extent, not be aroused or their worries might narrow the

opportunity of changing or expanding their identity when they were learning English. However, many of the others had low sense of fear of assimilation and did not regard influences from English culture as an issue. They were inclined to be more open-minded about the possible change or expansion of identity.

5.3.4 Cultural diversity

As discussed in the previous two sections, the students had a lower sense of ethnocentrism and fear of assimilation. They were more open-minded about expanding their identity and more or less interested in cultural learning. Therefore, in addition to the factors of Ethnocentrism and Fear of assimilation, Cultural diversity was another factor which was related to a sense of identity and could influence English learning motivation. Besides the seven motivational factors identified from quantitative analysis of the main questionnaire, this was a new factor which emerged from the interviewees' feedback. These students not only expressed their open-minded attitudes towards the potential change or expansion of identity (less sense of ethnocentrism or fear of assimilation), but also reflected that they appreciated the existence of different cultures. In other words, the factor of Cultural diversity refers to the recognition and respecting of the existence of the diversity and difference between cultures. There was no evident ranking of cultures or which identity was better than others. Many of the students agreed with this point of view and had a high sense of cultural diversity.

They further pointed out that it was interesting and better to have cultural diversity; people could learn from diverse cultures and appreciate the uniqueness. "Every culture has its own value", said Carol. Gina also added that "the Taiwanese now can better accept or tolerate and respect different cultures." Moreover, according

to Jenny:

Because of the uniqueness of each different culture, the sense of freshness can arouse the curiosity and desire for exploration. We can, therefore, learn from each other, share our own uniqueness and understand the difference. Then, we are able to know more about each other and this world.

In other words, while learning from various cultures, it was a good chance to interact with each other and promote the local culture. “In order to learn from cultural diversity,” said Mina, “learning English can help us to know this world and communicate with different people.” “We are able to promote Taiwanese culture”, added Hank.

Under the circumstances, people who had a sense of cultural diversity might tend to be open-minded about the possible change or expansion of identity; they delighted in cultural learning and this might even result in arousing their interest in learning English in order to communicate with different people or learn from diverse cultures. As Frank also commented:

My main English learning motivation is that I want to understand this world directly through English, but not via Chinese translation. After all, there are not so many varieties of international news reported in Taiwan. I can read English international news from the foreign media and catch the world trending news.

Meanwhile, English learning could also be a good challenge because of culture learning. For instance, Gina regarded applying the thinking of English culture while using and learning English as an interesting challenge; her English learning interest was then raised.

All in all, via learning English, the students thought that they could then learn from different cultures, exchange opinions and admire each other’s own identity. Hence, the higher strength of cultural diversity could possibly imply the higher

strength of learners' interest in learning English, English culture and communities. Since Interest was an important factor that predicted Desire to learn English and Attitudes towards learning English (see the results from multiple regression analysis in Section 5.3.1), Cultural diversity could, then, be another influential motivational factor affecting English learning motivation.

5.3.5 Interest

This motivational factor is composed of two dimensions, namely 'Linguistic interest' and 'Socio-cultural interest'. That is, when English learners have a stronger sense of this motivational factor, Interest, they tend to like the English language, culture or community.

As shown in the descriptive statistics in Section 5.3.1, the 88 participants reported themselves as having a positive sense of Interest (Time 1: Mean = 4.57 and Time 2: Mean = 4.35). The strength was higher at Time 1 than at Time 2; the difference was significant ($t = 3.06, p < .01$). Nevertheless, among these participants, there was no significant difference between high and low achievers regarding Interest, either at Time 1 ($t = -1.78, p = .08$) or Time 2 ($t = -1.81, p = .07$). Achievement also showed no significant relationship with this factor (Time 1: $r = .19, p = .08$ and Time 2: $r = .19, p = .07$).

Furthermore, if we compare the two sub-categories of Interest (i.e. Linguistic interest and Socio-cultural interest), the mean values reflected that the participants had stronger Socio-cultural interest than Linguistic interest, both at Time 1 and Time 2 (see Table 5-34). The results of paired-samples t-test analysis also showed that the levels of these two sub-categories both changed over time (see Table 5-35). Although high and low achievers seemed to have similar levels of Interest, a significant

difference was found between high and low achievers regarding Linguistic interest at Time 1 ($t = -2.06, p < .05$). Achievement was weakly but significantly correlated with Linguistic interest ($r = .22, p < .05$) (see Table 5-35 for the statistical comparison of Linguistic interest and Socio-cultural interest).

Table 5-34: Descriptive statistics: Linguistic interest and Socio-cultural interest

Linguistic interest	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	2.00	2.00	2.00	1.00	2.00	1.00
Mean	4.68	4.23	4.44	4.39	4.06	4.22
Maximum	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00
Standard Deviation	1.01	1.03	1.04	1.09	1.07	1.09

Socio-cultural interest	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	3.25	1.50	1.50	2.88	1.50	1.5
Mean	4.74	4.45	4.58	4.54	4.22	4.37
Maximum	6.00	5.88	6.00	6.00	5.88	6.00
Standard Deviation	0.77	0.86	0.83	0.69	0.94	0.84

Table 5-35: Changes and differences in Linguistic interest and Socio-cultural interest

	Changes from Time 1 to Time 2	Differences between high and low achievers
Linguistic interest	$t = 2.35^*$	Time 1: $t = -2.06^*, r = .22^*$ Time 2: $t = -1.41, r = .15$
Socio-cultural interest	$t = 3.00^{**}$	Time 1: $t = -1.65, r = .18$ Time 2: $t = -1.80, r = .19$

*: $p < .05$; **: $p < .01$

Moreover, from the correlation and multiple regression analyses reported in Section 5.3.1, the results showed that some part of Interest was mainly explained by Fear of assimilation (negatively), Travel orientation (positively), the Ideal L2 self (positively) and the Ought-to L2 self (negatively) (see further discussion about Fear of assimilation in Section 5.3.3, Travel orientation in 5.3.6, the Ideal L2 self in 5.3.8 and the Ought-to L2 self in 5.3.9). Interest was also an influential factor which could significantly predict not only Desire to learn English (positively) and Attitudes towards learning English (positively), but also other motivational factors, namely Fear of assimilation (negatively), Travel orientation (positively), the Ideal L2 self (positively) and the Ought-to L2 self (negatively). Therefore, Interest could significantly influence the participants' English learning motivation while learning English in multiple ways (see Table 5-36). The dynamic nature of Interest could also impact on motivation change over time.

Table 5-36: Possible situations when Interest increases (results from multiple regression analysis in Section 5.3.1)

Interactions between the motivational factors	Possible influences on English learning motivation
(1) Interest +	→ Motivation +
(2) Travel orientation +	→ Motivation +
(3) Ideal L2 self +	→ Motivation +
(4) Fear of assimilation –	→ Motivation + (see Table 5-33 for the four possible situations)
(5) Ought-to L2 self – → English anxiety –	→ Motivation +
(6) Ought-to L2 self – → Ideal L2 self –	→ Motivation –

In addition to the statistical results above, the 13 interviewees also gave further comments on Interest and how this factor could play an important role while they were learning English. The following sections will illustrate what they shared about their opinions concerning linguistic interest (see Section 5.3.5.1) and socio-cultural

interest (see Section 5.3.5.2) from different perspectives, respectively.

5.3.5.1 Linguistic interest

Among these 13 interviewees, high achievers were likely to define whether they liked the English language or not by whether they could gain a sense of achievement from their past English learning experience (see Section 5.3.10 for the full discussion about the L2 learning experience). In other words, if they considered English as a language that they were capable of acquiring, their linguistic interest in English would be higher than linguistic interest in other languages, such as French, German and Japanese; learning English could then be interesting to them. This also suggested that they might have lower levels of the Ought-to L2 self and English anxiety (e.g. not having to worry about being failed or course pressure because they can handle them). For example, Eva thought that she liked English more than French because English grammar was easier to understand and she achieved better English learning results; she was then willing to keep learning English, but stopped learning French. In contrast, high achievers who had a negative learning experience might possess lower linguistic interest in English and be interested in other languages or subjects instead. For instance, Betty was fascinated by Japanese language and culture, such as drama, so she kept learning Japanese actively. However, she really hated English and wanted to give up learning because she thought learning English was harder than learning Japanese and she was not satisfied with her learning outcomes and English proficiency. She was learning English just to gain high marks in exams, and then she would stop learning English after the formal school education ended.

On the other hand, in addition to the reasons expressed by high achievers, low achievers having different strength of linguistic interest in English might be because they needed to satisfy two conditions in order to have higher linguistic interest. One

was English being a language they were capable of learning and the other was English being a language that was related to what they were interested in. Therefore, low achievers who had linguistic interest in English also emphasised other advantages and requirements rather than being simply interested in English for its own sake. For instance, Gina believed English was a language which would benefit her Chinese learning, such as acquisition, grammar and translation. Thus, she was interested in English and wanted to learn it. For another example, Ian desired to know how to write English lyrics since he was a member of a band. He confessed that he liked English more than his major, which was Chinese, so English learning became more important to him and he spent time on learning it. In other words, Gina's linguistic interest was raised because of pursuing 'academic progress' in other subjects and Ian's linguistic interest was increased because learning English was related to his 'future career' (see further discussion about academic progress and future career in Sections 5.3.8.1 and 5.3.8.2, respectively). They might need other instrumental benefits in addition to acquiring a sense of achievement in order to have higher linguistic interest.

Hence, high achievers' linguistic interest in English might usually be because learning English could bring a sense of achievement, which was interesting; they focused on the English language itself. On the other hand, low achievers' linguistic interest often existed accompanied by aspiring to gain satisfaction from other motivational factors, such as Travel orientation (see Section 5.3.6) or the Ideal L2 self (see Section 5.3.8); they focused on achieving other aspects first, and found their linguistic interest afterwards. Although the reasons for the occurrence of diverse strength of linguistic interest might vary between high and low achievers, linguistic interest did influence the students' strength of English learning motivation. The higher the linguistic interest in English, the higher the English learning motivation was likely to be.

5.3.5.2 Socio-cultural interest

In general, the 13 interviewees expressed higher levels of socio-cultural interest. Many of them liked English movies, TV shows, songs and bands; some even liked to read English books, such as literature or novels, or make friends who were from the English community. In the participants' opinions, these preferences, which reflected a positive sense of socio-cultural interest, would bring advantages to their English learning and raise their English learning motivation, especially their Desire to learn English and Attitudes towards learning English.

One aspect was that learning English could be a good medium to learn or enjoy English culture so that learners' motivation would increase. For instance, "in order to understand more about English culture, I need to learn English", said Angel. Hank also commented that, "via learning English, we can also learn about their thoughts from English culture; this is one part of my English learning motivation." Similarly, Mina wanted to learn more about cultures and communicate with different people through possessing English ability. Regarding Frank, although he did not want to particularly make friends with English speakers or understand English culture, he was having fun reading English novels and playing online English games. Therefore, when he confronted unknown English words during the activities, he would look them up in the dictionary to conquer the obstacles for continuing reading or playing. His speaking ability had also improved considerably, he explained:

I have joined the group chatting while I am playing games with people who speak English. My ability to use colloquial and everyday English has been improved greatly. My English learning attitudes stay positive because I am never fed up with these.

The other aspect was that English culture could be a learning material which added more fun to or reduced the pain of English learning. For example, Jenny

pointed out that “when I watch English movies, I will listen to English conversations carefully and see how much I can understand by comparing them with Chinese subtitles.” Carol also mentioned that she would listen to English songs to enhance her English listening ability. Gina had a similar experience: “I have listened to many good English songs recently. Some lyrics are so nice that I have memorised some new vocabularies”, she enthused. She not only had a good time with her cultural interest, but also paid attention to English sentences to learn new words and usages. Additionally, Ian was interested in English music; even though he experienced difficulties in learning English, he still bought English books about music history to read and he would be willing to take some English courses related to music and culture if they were offered in the future. In other words, these students combined their socio-cultural interest with English learning to give themselves potentially higher linguistic interest (e.g. happier learning and a sense of achievement) and stronger learning motivation.

However, even if the participants might have some interest in English culture or community, they admitted that, sometimes, their strength of socio-cultural interest was not high enough to benefit their English learning motivation. For instance, Betty and Daisy both viewed listening to English songs purely as an entertaining activity; they were not that interested in English culture or people and were not making an effort to learn English while enjoying themselves. “I would never listen to English songs or watch English movies in order to improve my English competence. These are just for entertainment”, Betty reflected. They were not that eager to obtain better English ability like the other learners or did not have an urgent need to make any effort to learn English, such as Frank who enjoyed reading English novels and playing online English games. Thus, socio-cultural interest could possibly be unable to help students to raise their English learning motivation.

Furthermore, the strength of socio-cultural interest would not only affect the interviewees' English learning motivation, but also change over time. Take Angel for an example: her strength of socio-cultural interest decreased because she used to adore an English music star, while she was no longer a fan when she was interviewed. Hank also indicated that he listened to English songs much less frequently and watched fewer English movies compared to the past. Conversely, Kin watched more English movies and Lily listened to English songs more often than they used to. "I have found good stars and good songs recently", remarked Lily. Consequently, the strength of socio-cultural interest could change at any time. This also meant that the strength of the students' English learning motivation might also change along with their dynamic levels of Interest, since this factor was likely to significantly affect their motivation. The impact of Interest on English learning motivation could, therefore, be more obvious and direct.

5.3.6 Travel orientation

The motivational factor, Travel orientation, involves the importance of learning English in order to travel to foreign countries. As presented in the descriptive statistics in Section 5.3.1, the 88 participants mainly had positive levels of Travel orientation (Time 1: Mean = 4.70 and Time 2: Mean = 4.39). The strength was decreasing from Time 1 to Time 2; the difference was significant ($t = 3.68$, $p < .001$). Nonetheless, among these participants, there was no significant difference between high and low achievers regarding Travel orientation, either at Time 1 ($t = -.45$, $p = .65$) or Time 2 ($t = -.95$, $p = .35$). Achievement also showed no significant relationship with this factor (Time 1: $r = .05$, $p = .65$ and Time 2: $r = .10$, $p = .35$).

Moreover, from the correlation and multiple regression analyses reported in

Section 5.3.1, the results indicated that some part of Travel orientation was mainly explained by Interest (positively) and the Ideal L2 self (positively) (see further discussion about Interest in the previous section and the Ideal L2 self in Section 5.3.8). Travel orientation could also significantly and positively predict the students' English learning intensity, Desire to learn English and Attitudes towards learning English. It also correlated with other motivational factors and was an important factor that significantly predicted Interest (positively) and the Ideal L2 self (positively). As a result, Travel orientation is expected to have a helpful influence on the participants' English learning motivation while learning English in different ways (see Table 5-37). The dynamic nature of Travel orientation could also lead to motivation change over time.

Table 5-37: Possible situations when Travel orientation increases (results from multiple regression analysis in Section 5.3.1)

Interactions between the motivational factors	Possible influences on English learning motivation
(1) Travel orientation +	→ Motivation +
(2) Interest +	→ Motivation +
(3) Ideal L2 self +	→ Motivation +

Most of the 13 interviewees reflected that they had positive levels of travel orientation. Nevertheless, their strength of this factor could fluctuate over time according to their travel willingness and plans for the future. For instance, Daisy and Frank's levels of travel orientation declined from the first to second interview. At the first round interview, both referred to the importance of learning English for potential travel in the future. Thus, they were willing to spend more time on learning English. However, they both changed their minds about travelling by the second round interview. As they did not desire to go abroad in the near future, they felt that it was, therefore, not that urgent to improve their English. By contrast, Kin did not want to

travel abroad at first because she thought that her English communication ability was not good enough. Yet, at the second round interview, she commented, “I cannot guarantee whether someday I will use English or not, such as using it in my job or while travelling abroad, so it is better to be ready to possess better English proficiency.” Therefore, the strength of her Travel orientation increased.

According to these 13 participants, travel orientation had an impact on their English learning motivation. When they had a higher level of Travel orientation, they might then be willing to take time to learn English. At the same time, while they were learning, learning content that related to Travel orientation might also help them to enjoy the learning process. For example, Carol commented, “I enjoy travelling abroad. It can also offer me more chances to use daily English instead of academic English utilised while taking exams. It is interesting.” Hence, she reflected that if a Travel English course were to be available in the future, she would choose to take it since it is more fun, practical and motivating to her.

5.3.7 English anxiety

English anxiety is a motivational factor which can be divided into two sub-categories, including ‘Communication anxiety’ and ‘Exam and course anxiety’. The former is an anxiety aroused when learners need to communicate with others in English, while the latter is an anxiety generated from exams and courses. If learners feel tension, worry, fear or nervousness when their English communicative ability is required, or if they experience pressure from English exams or courses, they have higher levels of English anxiety.

As shown in the descriptive statistics in Section 5.3.1, the 88 participants reported themselves as having moderate levels of English anxiety (Time 1: Mean =

4.11 and Time 2: Mean = 3.84). The strength was higher at Time 1 than at Time 2; the difference was significant ($t = 3.49, p < .001$). However, among these participants, there was no significant difference between high and low achievers regarding English anxiety, either at Time 1 ($t = .58, p = .57$) or Time 2 ($t = .60, p = .55$). Achievement also showed no significant relationship with this factor (Time 1: $r = -.06, p = .57$ and Time 2: $r = -.06, p = .55$).

Moreover, from the correlation and multiple regression analyses reported in Section 5.3.1, the results suggested that only a small amount of English anxiety was explained by the Ideal L2 self (negatively) and the Ought-to L2 self (positively) (see further discussion about the Ideal L2 self in Section 5.3.8 and the Ought-to L2 self in 5.3.9). However, English anxiety was a factor which could significantly predict not only English learning intensity (negatively), but also other motivational factors, namely the Ideal L2 self (negatively) and the Ought-to L2 self (positively). Thus, English anxiety could have some influence on the participants' English learning motivation while learning English in various ways (see Table 5-38). The dynamic nature of English anxiety could also impact on motivation change over time.

Table 5-38: Possible situations when English anxiety increases (results from multiple regression analysis in Section 5.3.1)

Interactions between the motivational factors	Possible influences on English learning motivation
(1) English anxiety +	→ Motivation –
(2) Ideal L2 self –	→ Motivation –
(3) Ought-to L2 self + → Interest –	→ Motivation –
(4) Ought-to L2 self + → Ideal L2 self +	→ Motivation +

In addition to the statistical findings above, the 13 interviewees also gave further comments on English anxiety and how this factor could affect their English learning motivation. In particular, its subcategory of communication anxiety was identified

from the survey of the main questionnaire, while the other sub-category of exam and course anxiety was a new dimension which emerged from the follow-up interviews. The following paragraphs will first present the interviewees' feedback on communication anxiety and the researcher will then elaborate the qualitative findings of exam and course anxiety.

5.3.7.1 Communication anxiety

The interviewees mostly hoped to be equipped with good communication ability yet they did have some communication anxiety. According to their feedback, the persons who had experience of living in an English-speaking country or actually using English to communicate with others would have lower levels of communication anxiety. By contrast, the students who thought that they did not have an opportunity to speak English or practise English speaking skills would have higher levels of communication anxiety. In other words, whether they had experienced an English-speaking supportive environment or not could be a critical reason for determining the strength of communication anxiety.

For example, Frank had lived in the USA for a while; at first, he dared not to speak English, but, after a period of time, he felt that he could communicate with others in English naturally without being anxious. He then even enjoyed how English could bridge the gap between different people from different cultures. Hank and Lily also had some experience of using English to communicate with others in daily life. Lily sometimes talked to her mother in English because they were both practising their English speaking skill. Hank also chatted to his mother in English because she was a worker for international sales; he had also been a volunteer in South Africa, so he spoke English during that activity. He reflected that he would not feel that nervous while speaking English because, "I use simple sentences in conversation; after all,

English is just used for communication.” These experiences of actually speaking English in daily conversation enabled him to improve his English communication skill and raised his English learning motivation, since he did not encounter too much difficulty or feel anxious.

On the contrary, some interviewees, at the first round interview, mentioned that they were not used to speaking English and had higher levels of communication anxiety because of a lack of opportunity to practise and speak English in real life (an EFL context in Taiwan) and insufficient training from formal school education before entering university. For instance, Kin indicated:

I have more confidence in reading and writing skills. But, in particular, when I need to speak English, I will be worried and feel anxious about whether my sentences are too simple and the usage is correct or not. After all, I am educated in a Taiwanese educational system.

This is a system which is focused less on communication skills, especially in the levels before higher education. In other words, when the students thought that they did not have enough training or they were not ready to be capable of speaking English well, they would have higher levels of communication anxiety. Eva also agreed that a limited vocabulary to communicate in English would cause communication anxiety.

Many of the participants also reflected that they felt more anxious, nervous and afraid when they needed to communicate with people who had better English proficiency, such as native speakers, or had to speak English in front of their classmates. It might be difficult for them to show their weakness or inability in public, which reflected the norms and values of saving face in Taiwan (see Section 1.2.3.2 for full discussion about Taiwanese norms and values). For example, Mina expressed her worry about replying to the teacher’s requests: “I always worry that the teacher will ask me to answer her questions in class, so I am under heavy pressure.” For another

example, Gina would experience more communication anxiety when she spoke English to English native speakers than to non-native speakers. She said:

I am afraid that I am unable to express myself well, so I am more nervous to communicate with English native speakers. But I would love to speak to other people in English. For instance, if I go to Japan, I can communicate with Japanese people in English without feeling stressed because I do not need to be afraid of whether my speaking skill is good enough or not.

Some interviewees also claimed that they would have lower levels of communication anxiety when they found that their classmates had a similar proficiency level of English speaking skill. For instance, Carol confessed that:

I also want to be capable of communicating with foreigners in English, but I will feel nervous, especially with English native speakers; I will be under pressure. [...] Now I do not feel that nervous if I make mistakes when I am speaking English in class. Since everyone has a similar level, let's laugh together if I make mistakes.

Lily and Jenny felt the same way. “I will feel very nervous when I talk to English native speakers because I may make some grammatical mistakes and they can notice them”, said Lily. Jenny also shared her opinion, saying:

I hated the English course in the beginning because the teacher would request us to speak English in public. It was stressful and made me nervous. However, I have gradually become used to it and, since everyone is similar (level), I am not that afraid and braver to speak English.

Thus, all these participants would have less communication anxiety when their self-image was protected or not threatened and when they could feel more comfortable and less burdened to speak English, even if they regarded themselves as persons who were not that competent in English communication skill.

The good news was that, during the second round interview, many of the students' communication anxiety seemed to reduce because they felt that they were offered more opportunity and a friendlier environment in which to practise their English communication skill at university than at high school. For example, Gina agreed that "it is good to practise conversation skill in class since there is not enough opportunity to speak English in daily life. The classroom atmosphere is also good for practice". Likewise, Kin pointed out that "pairwork is a good teaching method. I can practise and discuss the learning content with my partner, and then improve together. I also then feel less anxious and nervous about answering the teacher's questions." In other words, when learners felt more supported and their communication anxiety decreased, they might feel more motivated to practise and improve their English speaking skill. Then, they might gain a sense of achievement when they improved, which possibly raised their linguistic interest (see Section 5.3.5.1). They might also be willing to establish a goal of achieving better proficiency (a stronger level of the Ideal L2 self, see Section 5.3.5.8) after actually practising speaking English because they were not that afraid and dared to learn from mistakes. Hence, their English learning motivation could be raised.

5.3.7.2 Exam and course anxiety

Exam-led teaching methods have been commonly applied in education in Taiwan; English oral skill is more strengthened and a communicative approach has been adopted more often in English courses at university (see Section 1.2.3.3 for full discussion about English education in Taiwan). Although many of the interviewees expressed the view that they had higher levels of exam anxiety at high school due to having tests frequently, tight learning schedules and a goal of entering a good university, they were confronted with a new course pressure in that they needed to

improve their oral skill and they still needed to pass national exams in order to graduate or find a better job in the future. Therefore, no matter the participants were good or bad at taking exams, no matter they had high or low levels of English proficiency, they all admitted that they did encounter different degrees of exam and course anxiety.

Furthermore, pressure from the English course, which causes exam and course anxiety, could be both facilitating and debilitating to them. On the one hand, it pushed the students to make some effort to learn, resulting in their English learning motivation being raised and, in turn, their English ability was then improved. It was an effective way to enable them to be more efficient in making progress, otherwise they might potentially be lazy. For instance, Carol confessed that she hated English anxiety, yet was actually thankful to have some pressure:

I used to have more exam and course anxiety because there were lots of tests at high school. I was forced to study English as well. However, because I needed to follow the instructions and tight schedules, I improved faster.

Eva also indicated that pressure was useful since “it forces me to study English. Having pressure is a good thing because it makes me improve. I liked the old days when I used to have more pressure at high school. It was stressful but more efficient.” Similarly, Lily commented that, when there was less pressure, English learning was more interesting; nevertheless, while pressure aroused exam and course anxiety, it also led to better learning intensity and achievement. “The peak of my English proficiency level was at high school because I needed to prepare for the tests and studied English everyday. It was stressful, though,” she said. In other words, higher exam and course anxiety is often accompanied by higher pressure from the Ideal self (e.g. self-expectation or ambition) or the Ought-to L2 self (e.g. not wanting to be failed or family and social expectation of good scores). They had mutual influence

and could also subsequently affect English learning motivation. As Mina reflected, “I need to be prepared for the class because the teacher will ask questions in class. It is stressful, but I am also more concentrating on learning in case of being asked questions.”

On the other hand, pressure could be harmful and bring negative impacts. For example, Daisy hated English anxiety and expressed the view that “when I think of exams, I don’t want to study English. If there is no exam, there is no pressure and I will not be anxious. Learning English can be interesting, such as listening to radio broadcasts. I will then learn English actively.” For another example, Kin would not take an additional English course in the future since she would experience high exam and course anxiety and fear that the outcome of exams might not meet her expectation.

The pressure will force me to learn, but I dislike it. My learning motivation will decrease. Unless I really like the course, when I think that I need to pass exams and I will feel nervous in class, I’d rather study English by myself, but not by taking a course.

Gina took the same stand that she might not want to take an English course in the future because of pressure from exams and courses. “I will study English by myself later on, such as memorising vocabulary or watching movies. Although taking a course will be more helpful, I don’t want to decrease my learning motivation because of disliking the course and learning English”, she stated.

Consequently, no matter whether pressure is facilitating or debilitating, it would arouse exam and course anxiety and influence the students’ English learning motivation to a large extent. Since positive and negative impacts could exist at the same time, many interviewees admitted that they could feel pressure and hate it, but they might also need it or even like it. For some people, it might be helpful to make

them learn English because of having pressure from exams and courses, while it might also be a dilemma of continuing learning with having exam and course anxiety or learning more interestingly. Under the circumstances, in order to avoid too many debilitating effects and too much exam and course anxiety, the practical functions of pressure should not to be overemphasised. Otherwise, when learners had a choice, such as after their required English module was completed, they might hesitate to take courses to learn English in order to escape exam and course anxiety.

5.3.8 The Ideal L2 self

The Ideal L2 self describes a personal inspiring vision which people “would ideally like to possess (i.e. it concerns hopes, aspirations and wishes)” (Dörnyei, 2014, p. 521). In the present study, it involves creating a self-imagined ideal future as a competent English user who can decrease the discrepancy between their actual self and their ideal self.

As shown in the descriptive statistics in Section 5.3.1, the 88 participants reported themselves as having moderately positive levels of the Ideal L2 self (Time 1: Mean = 4.44 and Time 2: Mean = 4.14). The strength was higher at Time 1 than at Time 2; the difference was significant ($t = 5.16, p < .001$). Nevertheless, among these participants, there was no significant difference between high and low achievers regarding the Ideal L2 self, either at Time 1 ($t = -.57, p = .57$) or Time 2 ($t = -1.21, p = .23$). Achievement also showed no significant relationship with this factor (Time 1: $r = .06, p = .57$ and Time 2: $r = .13, p = .23$).

In addition, five dimensions were identified as the sub-categories of the Ideal L2 self from the survey of the main questionnaire as follows:

- (1) ‘Academic progress’: learners consider that learning English would benefit

their further study, such as achieving higher degrees or obtaining a scholarship.

- (2) 'Future career': learners consider that learning English would benefit their future career, such as utilising English while working or acquiring a better job, salary and promotion.
- (3) 'Personal competence': learners consider that learning English would benefit their English ability and help them gain a sense of achievement, such as hoping to have a native-like English communication skill.
- (4) 'Role model': learners consider that the persons whom they like or adore (e.g. stars or friends) are competent English users so learning English would benefit them by helping them to overcome the language barrier or reduce the discrepancy between themselves and their models.
- (5) 'Integrativeness': learners consider that learning English would benefit them in learning how to live and behave like English native speakers.

The mean values for each sub-category reflected that the participants had visions of academic progress, their future career and personal competence, both at Time 1 and Time 2, while mostly, they mostly did not regard themselves as creating visions related to role model and integrativeness (see Table 5-39). Meanwhile, the results of the paired-samples t-test analysis showed that the levels of the former three sub-categories all significantly decreased from Time 1 to Time 2, but the latter two did not (see Table 5-40).

Even though high and low achievers seemed to have similar levels of the Ideal L2 self, a significant difference was found between high and low achievers regarding Academic progress at Time 2 ($t = -2.07, p < .05$). Achievement was weakly but significantly correlated with Academic progress ($r = .22, p < .05$) (see Table 5-40 for the statistical comparison of the five sub-categories of the Ideal L2 self).

Table 5-39: Descriptive statistics: Academic progress, Future career, Personal competence, Role model and Integrativeness

Academic progress	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	3.00	1.00	1.00	2.00	1.50	1.50
Mean	4.79	4.66	4.72	4.52	4.10	4.30
Maximum	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00
Standard Deviation	0.90	1.03	0.97	0.93	1.00	0.99
Future career	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	2.80	2.20	2.20	1.60	2.20	1.60
Mean	4.87	4.79	4.83	4.54	4.37	4.45
Maximum	6.00	6.00	6.00	5.80	5.80	5.80
Standard Deviation	0.74	0.78	0.76	0.84	0.78	0.81
Personal competence	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	2.67	2.33	2.33	1.33	1.67	1.33
Mean	4.59	4.44	4.51	4.41	4.08	4.23
Maximum	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	5.67	6.00
Standard Deviation	0.93	0.81	0.87	0.96	0.89	0.93
Role model	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Mean	2.71	2.89	2.81	2.80	2.94	2.88
Maximum	5.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00
Standard Deviation	1.17	1.11	1.13	1.23	1.30	1.26
Integrative	Time 1			Time 2		

-ness	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Mean	3.39	3.36	3.38	3.07	3.32	3.20
Maximum	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00
Standard Deviation	1.32	1.03	1.17	1.31	1.30	1.31

Table 5-40: Changes and differences in Academic progress, Future career, Personal competence, Role model and Integrativeness

	Changes from Time 1 to Time 2	Differences between high and low achievers
Academic progress	t = 4.31***	Time 1: t = -.64, r = .07 Time 2: t = -2.07*, r = .22*
Future career	t = 5.27***	Time 1: t = -.53, r = .06 Time 2: t = -.96, r = .10
Personal competence	t = 3.81***	Time 1: t = -.83, r = .09 Time 2: t = -1.71, r = .18
Role model	t = -.62	Time 1: t = .77, r = -.08 Time 2: t = .49, r = -.05
Integrative -ness	t = 1.43	Time 1: t = -11, r = .01 Time 2: t = .88, r = -.10

*: p < .05; ***: p < .001

Furthermore, from the correlation and multiple regression analyses reported in Section 5.3.1, the results showed that some part of the Ideal L2 self was mainly explained by Interest (positively), Travel orientation (positively), English anxiety (negatively) and the Ought-to L2 self (positively) (see full discussion about Interest in Section 5.3.5, Travel orientation in 5.3.6, English anxiety in 5.3.7 and the Ought-to L2 self in 5.3.9). The Ideal L2 self was also an influential factor which could significantly predict not only English learning intensity (positively), Desire to learn English (positively) and Attitudes towards learning English (positively) but also other

motivational factors, namely Interest (positively), Travel orientation (positively), English anxiety (negatively) and the Ought-to L2 self (positively). Therefore, the Ideal L2 self could significantly influence the participants' English learning motivation while learning English in various ways (see Table 5-41). The dynamic nature of the Ideal L2 self could also impact on motivation change over time.

Table 5-41: Possible situations when the Ideal L2 self increases (results from multiple regression analysis in Section 5.3.1)

Interactions between the motivational factors	Possible influences on English learning motivation
(1) Ideal L2 self +	→ Motivation +
(2) Interest +	→ Motivation +
(3) Travel orientation +	→ Motivation +
(4) English anxiety –	→ Motivation +
(5) Ought-to L2 self + → Interest –	→ Motivation –
(6) Ought-to L2 self + → English anxiety +	→ Motivation –

In addition to the statistical results above, the 13 interviewees also provided further comments on the Ideal L2 self about what visions they had and how pursuing their goals would motivate them to learn English. The following sections will elaborate on their opinions about their visions of academic progress (see Section 5.3.8.1), their future career (see Section 5.3.8.2), their personal competence (see Section 5.3.8.3), their role model (see Section 5.3.8.4) and integrativeness (see Section 5.3.8.5) from different perspectives, respectively.

5.3.8.1 Academic progress

The 13 interviewees had dissimilar feedback about their vision of academic progress. Some of them imagined themselves to be studying in an English-speaking country and some of them aspired to improve their English in order to continue with further study. Some of them did not create any vision of academic progress so they were not motivated to learn English for this reason. For instance, both Angel and Gina

desired to study abroad as an exchange student. Jenny also mentioned that she could imagine that she would use English in the future because she really wanted to study and travel abroad. Eva and Mina gave detailed descriptions and depicted why they had generated their goal of studying abroad, what their life would look like and what they were trying to do in order to achieve their plans. Mina reflected:

I really want to study abroad, such as studying a Master's degree in a foreign country. After all, that is a better environment for me to improve my English, so it is very appealing. I lived in an English-speaking country for three years when I was very young. This also made me want to go abroad to do further study. Recently, I have started to watch the BBC and American dramas without Chinese subtitles in order to train my listening skills. I have also taken other English courses in order to learn more.

Similarly, Eva commented:

I like English and I want to learn it well. This can bring me a sense of achievement. I also want to study a Master's degree in the UK and travel. Thus, I think that there is a good chance that I will use English in the future. I will continue reading the Times magazine and buy English books to improve my reading ability. I also want to continue taking English courses next year.

In addition, some of the interviewees, who were all low achievers, indicated in their second round of interviews that they were preparing for school transfer exams. They needed to start studying English harder in order to gain good exam results and to continue with their further study. For example, Lily reflected:

If I have a chance, I would still like to study or travel abroad in the future. However, I am under pressure from the preparations for the school transfer exam and TOEIC so I will start to work harder on learning English next term. After all, the pressure is there... Well... it is stressful but effective for my English

learning.

Ian also pointed out:

I am too busy to study English. My life is filled with part-time jobs. I did want to improve my English and study abroad, but I have no money and my English is not good enough. Now I also have to prepare for taking the College entrance exam again in order to enter another university so I will focus on the exam first.

In other words, these students have established new ambitions of further study, and their English learning motivation was raised from the first round of interviews to the second round of interviews. English competence became more important and relevant to them because they felt the urgent need to improve their English ability in order to realise their visions. They then took immediate actions to study English. As Hank also explained:

I need to take the school transfer exam so I have spent extra time on studying English and doing the previous exams in order to get a good score. This is the short-term goal. Studying abroad may be a long-term target. Well, that means that I have to actually improve my English ability, but not just aim to pass the exams. Now I need to accomplish the short-term goal first. [...] English is not what I pursue but it is a tool to fulfill my future aspirations.

That is, these interviewees had a vision of academic progress, while they were also, or had to be, strongly influenced by the sense of the Ought-to L2 self (e.g. Bad-result prevention, see Section 5.3.9.2) so that they made more effort to study English. At the same time, they were working hard on studying English more for their short-term visions of academic progress because they were under pressure from the obligations of the Ought-to L2 self. Their long-term visions seemed to work less powerfully because those particular future goals seemed not to be that urgent to achieve.

On the other hand, some of the interviewees did not have any vision of studying

abroad or doing further study which required them to study English harder. Therefore, achieving academic progress was not a trigger that motivated them to learn English. For instance, Betty admitted that “I enjoy doing my own thing so even if I am not busy, I will not particularly go for studying English. I will not find a job which requires a good English ability. I do not want to study abroad in the future, either.” Daisy also reflected that she did not have any plan to travel or study abroad in the near future. She said:

I will not study English if there is no English class. I do not need English for now or in future, unless I really want to go abroad or my future job needs it. English seems not that related to my life, although it may be useful someday...

They lacked a vision of academic progress and English ability seemed to be unnecessary to them. Their English learning motivation could not be increased.

All in all, the clearer the vision and the more detailed the plan for pursuing academic progress, the stronger the English learning motivation was likely to be. The goals for the near future might also have more immediate influence on raising their English learning motivation than the ones for the distant future. Additionally, the influence of achieving academic progress on English learning motivation could possibly be different between high and low achievers. That is, high achievers tended not to have only short-term visions of academic progress, but also powerful long-term ones. Low achievers tended to focus more on the short-term ones which arouse the sense of the Ought-to L2 self. Hence, high achievers might be inclined to opt for academic progress mainly because they wanted to so they would be more optimistic about fulfilling their visions via actively making an effort to learn English. In contrast, low achievers might also imagine a vision of academic progress, but the vision might be unable to motivate them to learn English immediately. The vision might need to be accompanied by additional pressure (i.e. the Ought-to L2 self), so then learning

English becomes more important to them and urges them to put the vision into action. They might also have less self-confidence in their English competence or a more uncertain attitude, such as having an opportunity to go abroad. Lastly, people who have had a positive experience of living abroad might also be more likely there to have an overseas vision of academic progress.

5.3.8.2 Future career

A large number of Taiwanese people believe that it is better to have good English proficiency in order to be more competitive when it comes to finding a good job. Various companies and institutions in different industries also regard English ability, especially communication skill, as a must (see full discussion about Taiwan and English in Section 1.2.3). Many of the interviewees also recognised the importance of English competence, particularly when they had visions of a future career. They reflected that most of the jobs required workers who were equipped with better English ability so they would like to learn English well.

For instance, Eva wanted to teach Mandarin in a foreign country, Ian hoped to be a lyrics writer who was capable of writing English lyrics and Lily desired to work for an airline company. Hence, they motivated themselves to keep improving their English in order to realise their goals. Their certain and vivid visions of their future career enabled them to make English learning relevant to them. Likewise, Mina wanted to work in business so she pursued acquiring good English proficiency. She reflected:

Although I like the Korean language and culture, if I do not have time, I will choose to study English first because I will need it in my future job. I want to work for a business company in a foreign country and it is cool to use English in my career so I want to have good English ability.

Her vision of her future career made English learning more important than other language learning.

Furthermore, Gina and Frank both mentioned the impact of globalisation and agreed that English was needed everywhere. Even if they were not sure about their future plans, they stayed positive that they would use English in their future jobs. As Frank reflected, “foreigners will come to Taiwan and I will travel to foreign countries. I also want to work overseas and broaden my horizons. We all need to use English to communicate with each other.” Gina also commented:

It is important to have good English ability because I will use it in my future career. Then, I will have some time to learn other languages and learn them faster. Although I am not sure about what I will do in the future, since English is an international language in the globalised world, I think that I will definitely use English in my job, such as promoting traditional Chinese characters and Taiwanese culture in foreign countries.

As a consequence, they seemed to expand their Taiwanese identity into a global identity (i.e. as a global citizen). Since English is an important global language, they felt that they would need to possess this ability for a better future career, which motivated them to learn.

Nevertheless, some of the participants did not have any vision of using English in their future job so they were not that desperate to master English. For example, Betty avoided finding a job which required English competence. Angel and Carol both thought that they would not need to use English since they would work in Taiwan. Daisy and Kin also indicated that they used to consider English as an essential requirement to finding a good job. However, their goals had changed; their future jobs might not demand good English ability so learning English seemed to be less connected with their future career. Therefore, their English learning motivation

could not be raised or even reduced. As Kin commented:

I used to think that English was very important because I was afraid that I could not find a job in business. But now I want to work for the government. English seems to be less important. English is a plus but not a must. It will be less applied in my future career so I feel that it is not that urgent to make myself learn English, although English is useful.

In other words, a vision of a future career could benefit English learning powerfully. However, this vision could also vanish quickly, which could subsequently have a direct negative impact on the learners' English learning motivation.

5.3.8.3 Personal competence

In addition to the previous two kinds of visions, some of the interviewees also imagined themselves as being capable English users so they felt self-fulfilled. These students had higher expectations, related to their competence in English and in themselves generally. They mentioned self-satisfaction, and they thought that they had learned English more for themselves and to become a better self rather than doing it for others.

For example, Angel reflected that "I want myself to be good at English. If I can speak English fluently, then I will feel that I am awesome!" Eva and Mina also indicated that they had learned English mainly because they could obtain a sense of achievement. They pursued better English ability for themselves, not to please others or earn praise. Meanwhile, Carol also pointed out:

I want to improve my pronunciation and communication skills because if I can understand what others are conveying and reply in English fluently, then I can have a high sense of achievement. It is a very good self-challenge and I really want to have this kind of ability. I am just at the middle level so I feel that it will

take a long time for me to achieve my goal. But... uh... I used to only study English in order to pass exams. Now I also learn English for myself in order to gain better ability. I will not only follow the teacher's instructions but also do extra practice and make extra efforts to achieve this goal.

Similarly, Hank wanted to challenge himself by taking an English course which was designed for students from the English department. He imagined that he would enjoy this challenge and learn a lot. Gina also expressed the view that she knew what her English level was and how to improve it. She expected herself to continue learning and to make progress in order to become a person who can speak fluent English. She regarded this expectation as a positive learning attitude, and as a way of being responsible for herself.

On the contrary, if the learners did not and could not expect or imagine themselves acquiring good English ability, then they might have less aspiration related to personal competence. For example, Betty referred to English as mostly not being related to her future and Daisy reflected that "I did not have any extravagant hope for mastering English like a native speaker. If I do not take a course or no one forces me to learn English, I will not study it". They would tend to view an excellent English competence as an unnecessary or unattainable goal. Therefore, they could not be motivated to engage in learning English by a vision of personal competence.

In other words, the students who had a vision of personal competence pursued better English proficiency in order to gain a sense of self-fulfilment. Thus, learning English was chiefly for them, and not for others. They could imagine themselves mastering English; they were trying to achieve this goal and they gained enjoyment and self-recognition on the road to accomplishment of their vision of personal competence. At the same time, having a vision of personal competence could be also related to possessing higher levels of linguistic interest in English. That is because

many of the learners considered having a stronger linguistic interest as a consequence of being able to have a sense of achievement while learning English (see Section 5.3.5.1 for full discussion about linguistic interest).

5.3.8.4 Role model

Being a fan of someone might be able to make the fan desire to learn the target language in order to know more about, be similar to or feel connected to his or her role model. Nevertheless, the levels of the 88 participants' vision of a role model turned out to be lower than 3.50 according to the results of the main questionnaire. This implied that many of the students might not be motivated to learn English because they had a role model. When some of them shared their feedback in the follow-up interviews, they claimed that they appreciated English culture, such as songs and movies, but they did not then learn English because of their idols or movie stars. Some explained that they used to have role models, but by the time they were interviewed, they were no longer fans.

However, some of the interviewees mentioned that they had role models, especially their classmates. They envied their peers who had good English ability and wished that they could be the same. For instance, Ian reflected:

Some of them [his friends and classmates] have really good English ability. This arouses my ambition to surpass them and encourages me to learn English. I can discover what I lack and this motivates me to make an effort to study English in order to become a capable person like them.

Gina was also motivated to learn English by having a role model. She said, "I really envy my classmates who are good at English. They can even go for learning other languages! I want to be like them. They are my role model now and this makes me want to improve my English". Likewise, Jenny and Kin also made more effort to learn

English because of their role models. They found that their classmates had good English competence so Kin read English magazines which her classmates also read and Jenny went to take other English courses in the Language Centre and a cram school and tried to watch English movies without subtitles.

Moreover, Angel mentioned that she viewed clips on the TED website and admired people who could give an English speech in public. She wanted to be like them so she was not only motivated to learn English, but she also sought to improve her English ability while watching clips.

Hence, the power of being a fan of someone did exist, no matter whether the role model was familiar or unfamiliar. The vision of a role model could prompt the learners to identify the discrepancy in their English competence and motivate them to learn English harder. Since the students were mostly living with their classmates at university, their peers could, therefore, be their influential role models who helped them to generate a vision of having good English achievement. Then, without being requested, their adoration or envy might benefit them when they were learning English actively. As Kin and Mina also suggested, they could even feel 'safer' or more involved because they could learn English with their classmates, who could help them to discuss issues and allow them to solve problems together.

5.3.8.5 Integrativeness

The results of the main questionnaire showed that the participants had lower levels of integrativeness (below 3.50). There were also no interviewees considering that they wanted to become similar to British or American people. They might have interest in English language, people and culture (see Section 5.3.5), travel orientation (see Section 5.3.6) or a vision of a role model (see Section 5.3.8.4), but they were less motivated by integrative orientation.

As reviewed in Section 2.3.2, in Gardner's (1985) theory, integrativeness is concerned with language learners who are motivated to learn a target language because they desire to interact with and become similar to the people of the target community. Therefore, it involves not only linguistic and socio-cultural interest in the target community, but also the recognition of the target identity. This is related to the change or expansion of their original identity and integration into the target society. People who have a higher sense of ethnocentrism or fear of assimilation may, therefore, hold the opposite attitude and point of view to people who have a strong sense of integrativeness.

The results showed that the participants mainly possessed a lower sense of ethnocentrism and fear of assimilation and a higher approval of cultural diversity (see full discussion in Sections 5.3.2, 5.3.3 and 5.3.4). However, it did not necessarily mean that they would desire to integrate into an English community. They tended to appreciate the difference between different cultures and be open-minded, while, at the same time, they had a stronger sense of Taiwanese identity, even though they might not refuse a possible expansion of their identity. Under the circumstances, when they did not have to speak English in their daily life and did not feel strongly connected to English-speaking countries, the students tended to lack a vision of integrativeness.

5.3.9 The Ought-to L2 self

In addition to the Ideal L2 self discussed in the previous sections, learners may also be motivated to learn English because of a sense of the Ought-to L2 self (see Section 2.3.11 for full discussion about the L2 motivational self system). When people have stronger levels of the Ideal L2 self, they may often regard themselves as important selves who take the active role in learning English and who expect

themselves to improve their English ability in order to realise their visions. When people have higher levels of the Ought-to L2 self, they may feel the pressure or expectation from other people or requirements so they decide to take that advice or consider the pressure as a responsibility or obligation. Hence, when people possess a sense of the Ought-to L2 self, they will then learn English in order to (a) meet others' expectations or requests (i.e. 'significant-other effect'), (b) to prevent bad consequences from happening, such as bad marks, negative comments, punishment or losing face (i.e. 'bad-result prevention') or (c) to receive respect or praise from others, to be labelled as better-educated or to please their family (i.e. 'social approval').

As shown in the descriptive statistics in Section 5.3.1, the 88 participants reported themselves as having moderately positive levels of the Ought-to L2 self (Time 1: Mean = 3.83 and Time 2: Mean = 3.80). The mean scores remained similar from Time 1 to Time 2; the difference was non-significant ($t = .53$, $p = .60$). Meanwhile, among these participants, there was no significant difference between high and low achievers regarding the Ought-to L2 self, either at Time 1 ($t = .80$, $p = .43$) or Time 2 ($t = -.30$, $p = .77$). Achievement also showed no significant relationship with this factor (Time 1: $r = -.09$, $p = .43$ and Time 2: $r = .03$, $p = .77$).

Moreover, if we compare the three sub-categories of the Ought-to L2 self (i.e. Significant-other effect, Bad-result prevention and Social approval), the mean values reflect that the participants had higher levels of Social Approval than the other two sub-categories, both at Time 1 and Time 2 (see Table 5-42). Furthermore, the results of the paired-samples t-test analysis showed that the levels of the three sub-categories did not change over time (see Table 5-43). No significant difference was found between high and low achievers regarding all three sub-categories, either at Time 1 or Time 2. Achievement also showed no significant relationship with all of the sub-categories (see Table 5-43 for the statistical comparison of Significant-other effect,

Bad-result prevention and Social approval).

Table 5-42: Descriptive statistics: Significant-other effect, Bad-result prevention and Social approval

Significant -other effect	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	1.40	1.00	1.00	1.20	1.60	1.20
Mean	3.60	3.77	3.69	3.66	3.67	3.67
Maximum	5.40	5.60	5.60	5.00	5.20	5.20
Standard Deviation	0.86	0.86	0.86	0.85	0.80	0.82

Bad-result prevention	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	1.17	1.83	1.17	1.50	1.50	1.50
Mean	3.60	3.76	3.69	3.80	3.70	3.75
Maximum	5.17	5.83	5.83	5.17	5.67	5.67
Standard Deviation	0.90	0.83	0.86	0.74	0.85	0.80

Social approval	Time 1			Time 2		
	High achievers	Low achievers	All	High achievers	Low achievers	All
Minimum	1.00	1.40	1.00	1.00	2.00	1.00
Mean	4.11	4.19	4.15	4.01	3.97	3.99
Maximum	5.80	5.80	5.80	6.00	5.40	6.00
Standard Deviation	0.97	0.96	0.96	0.98	0.88	0.92

Table 5-43: Changes and differences in Significant-other effect, Bad-result prevention and Social approval

	Changes from Time 1 to Time 2	Differences between high and low achievers
Significant -other effect	t = .32	Time 1: t = .88, r = -.09 Time 2: t = .03, r = .00

Bad-result prevention	t = -.88	Time 1: t = .89, r = -.10 Time 2: t = -.60, r = .07
Social approval	t = 2.13	Time 1: t = .39, r = -.04 Time 2: t = -.18, r = .02

*: p < .05

From the correlation and multiple regression analyses reported in Section 5.3.1, the results indicated that some part of the Ought-to L2 self was mainly explained by Ethnocentrism (positively), Interest (negatively), English anxiety (positively) and the Ideal L2 self (positively) (see further discussion about Ethnocentrism in Section 5.3.2, Interest in 5.3.5, English anxiety in 5.3.7 and the Ideal L2 self in 5.3.8). Even though the Ought-to L2 self could not directly predict English learning motivation, it was assumed to not only have a relationship with motivation and other motivational factors, but also be an important factor that predicted Ethnocentrism (positively), Interest (negatively), English anxiety (positively) and the Ideal L2 self (positively). Therefore, the Ought-to L2 self could have influence on the participants' English learning motivation while learning English in multiple ways (see Table 5-44). The dynamic nature of the Ought-to L2 self could also impact on motivation change over time.

Table 5-44: Possible situations when the Ought-to L2 self increases (results from multiple regression analysis in Section 5.3.1)

Interactions between the motivational factors	Possible influences on English learning motivation
(1) Ethnocentrism + → Fear of assimilation + → Interest -	→ Motivation -
(2) Interest -	→ Motivation -
(3) English anxiety +	→ Motivation -
(4) Ideal L2 self +	→ Motivation +

In addition to the statistical results above, the 13 interviewees also gave further comments on the Ought-to L2 self and how this factor could be influential while they

were learning English. The following sections will discuss what views they expressed concerning the significant-other effect (see Section 5.3.9.1), bad-result prevention (see Section 5.3.9.2) and social approval (see Section 5.3.9.3), respectively.

5.3.9.1 Significant-other effect

Some of the interviewees mentioned that they were required to study English by their teachers before entering university. The importance of English was emphasised, especially when they had to prepare for the College Entrance Exam. Some of the students talked about peer influence. These students sometimes studied English with their classmates because they were invited to join a study group. Thus, they could discuss the learning materials together in the group and would not be lazy, unlike if they studied English alone. More importantly, when the interviewees were asked to comment on who their significant others were while learning English, most of them directly replied that they were their family members, particularly their parents.

Many of the students started to learn English because of their parents' request. Their parents had expectations of their children and gave their children an advantage by sending them to a language institution to learn English. The children were expected to have some English ability in order to be competitive at school later on. This reflects a phenomenon of collectivism in Taiwanese norms and values (see Section 1.2.3.2 for full discussion about collectivism). For example, Carol and Hank were requested to go to an English language institution when they were young. That was how they started to learn English. Carol reflected:

I went to an English language institution when I was a child, because my parents thought that the formal education at school would be more rigid and uninteresting. The institution would offer a livelier classroom atmosphere and apply effective teaching methods so I was sent there to learn. It was actually

quite interesting to learn English there.

Carol had a good start because of her parents' expectations and positive learning experiences; her parents' request did not leave her with a negative impression. Nevertheless, Daisy and Ian had a bad impression caused by how they were forced to start to learning English by their parents. Daisy said:

I was sent to an institution to learn English with my older sister when I was a kid. I would say, it was very painful and, not fun at all because the class was taught in English, but I knew nothing about English. The tests were difficult and the teacher was strict! I was almost dead! That was really a terrible experience. I did not want to go, but I had no choice. My parents still requested me to do so.

Ian also indicated that he was forced to go to an institution to learn English. However, the obligation made him want to escape learning. He had been punished because he did not hand in the homework, so he had a negative impression of learning English. In other words, parental influence could be critical, especially when the students were young and trying to make a start in life. It would leave them with a different impression of English learning and affect their English learning motivation.

On the other hand, many of the interviewees expressed the view that their parents encouraged them to study English, but they would not be punished or blamed by their parents if they did not. In particular, they no longer lived with their parents and they were already grown up; the level of parental influence had decreased with their age increasing. As university students, their parents would not and could not have many opportunities to interfere with their learning too much, although the importance of English might be often promoted and reminded. For instance, Angel cared about her parents' expectations. However, that was more of an encouragement to her; she admitted that sometimes she did not follow what they said. Lily also reflected:

My parents ask me to learn English well because English is important and useful.

Their reminding and persuasion more or less works, but I live in the dormitory now. They are far away from me so I am unable to practise English with my mom.

As a consequence, these students' parents might still be their significant others, but the students were less influenced and obliged by them.

Frank was an exception. His parents were his important significant others while learning English and he gained from this hugely. He commented:

My parents always encourage me to learn English. My mom desires to go to America, so she hopes that I can teach her English and encourage me to learn. I have been sponsored by my parents to live in America for a short period of time. They have also offered me a good learning environment and atmosphere at home. Gradually, I have become more interested in learning English and confident in my English ability. Now I usually watch movies without subtitles and read English novels because I want to use English more often in my daily life. I will suddenly talk to my family in English and improve our ability together, such as forcing my younger brother to have English conversations with me or emailing my dad in English because he is working overseas now. Their encouragement did not become a burden; they are supportive. At the same time, I regard learning English as a habit. Only when you make it a habit can find your interest in English enforced, which can further make you learn more and happily and get better.

In other words, the encouragement from his significant others was influential. He viewed the influence as a facilitating effect. In the mean time, he did not merely learn for the sake of his parents, but more importantly, he learned English for himself. He was an active learner and even became his family's significant other.

Overall, significant-other effect could motivate the learners to learn English,

especially when they considered others' expectations as being important and helping them. However, significant-other effect did not always benefit English learning, since the learners might feel the pressure or dislike the sense of obligation. Additionally, the levels of significant-other effect could be dynamic. This was not significantly shown in the findings of the main questionnaire, while the non-significant change could result from the timing of the first and second questionnaire surveys, since the change was mainly found before the students entered university.

5.3.9.2 Bad-result prevention

All of the interviewees indicated that they felt different levels of pressure from exams and courses. No matter how they felt, they mostly found that pressure was not interesting and even made it painful. However, in order to prevent bad results from happening (e.g. low exam scores), pressure enabled them to actually put effort into studying English so it worked immediately and effectively and impacted their English learning motivation. Meanwhile, they also admitted that their English ability might not be improved to a major extent, since sometimes they might only want to pass their exams. Hence, pressure could be both facilitating and debilitating to them: their English learning intensity might be raised, but their Desire to learn English and Attitudes towards learning English could more or less reduce due to them being under heavy pressure.

For instance, Betty and Daisy studied English mainly because they needed to pass exams. They did not want to continue learning English once they no longer had pressure from their exams and courses. Daisy commented:

I used to try to study English, especially training my listening skills via watching English films and listening to English broadcasts because I needed to pass the College entrance exam. I even went to a cram school for extra training. Now I

study English still because of scores and course assignments. After this required English module, I do not want to take another English course. But... I may still take another interesting English course because I know that if I do not take any course, then I will not be able to study English at all, even though taking a course may be stressful... Um... if there is no pressure from exams or courses, my English ability will become worse.

Betty also confessed:

From the past up to now, I have only studied English for passing exams. I only memorise vocabularies and grammar usages before tests and it is only in my short-term memory so I think that my English ability is actually very bad. I know how to read and write, but my oral and listening skills are totally awful. Now the teacher of the English module wants to ask us to answer her questions and to speak English in class. It was really terrible and stressful. I did not understand what they were talking about in English and hated the communication training. Thus, I often did not get involved in the practice, and sometimes I would chat to my classmates instead. Well... So far I have not encountered that much difficulty, but I felt pained while learning English and preparing for passing exams. I think that it is useless and a waste of time to do any extra practice for learning English, since I only need it to pass exams. I will stop taking the course and cease to learn any more English after this module ends.

In other words, these students regarded passing exams as a duty and they did not particularly have other high levels of motivational factors that motivated them to learn. They mainly studied English to meet the demands of their exams and courses. Meanwhile, their communication anxiety and exam and course anxiety could be raised due to pressure from exams and courses. The former anxiety might decrease their English learning intensity and the latter anxiety might increase the learning

intensity (see Section 5.3.7 for full discussion about English anxiety). They could also feel pained and lessened the levels of their Desire to learn English and Attitudes towards learning English. Hence, bad-result prevention could not only influence their English anxiety, but also impact their English learning motivation to a large extent.

On the other hand, many students would also study English because of pressure from exams and courses, although this reason might not be their main purpose for learning English. They could have high levels of other motivational factors, yet pressure could be considerably influential and effective, since they were unwilling to see that the level of their English competence had decreased. They might complain and feel stressed, as they might still need pressure to raise their English learning motivation. After all, they do not use English in their daily life so they might need an extra external force to urge them to learn.

For example, Angel and Eva had interest in English, wanted to travel abroad and perceived having good English ability as possessing a capable and positive self-image and advantage. Therefore, they expected themselves to have superior English competence in the future (i.e. higher levels of Interest, Travel orientation and the Ideal L2 self). At the same time, they considered pressure from exams and courses to be facilitating, in case of laziness. Thus, they were motivated to be involved in learning English by different motivational factors. As Angel reflected,

English is very important and I am interested in learning it. It brings me a sense of achievement. I also want to travel abroad. Although my job may not need it, I care about my parents' expectation. [...] I feel that I have not concentrated on studying English for a long time. I am afraid that my English ability will sneak away! I do not want to lose my advantage! So... I will keep learning English and I will continue taking English courses next year. This will help me to improve my English... well, at least to maintain it!

In other words, many of the interviewees would take English courses in order to make them keep on learning, otherwise, they might be lazy and not make progress. As Carol and Kin also reflected, they disliked being under heavy pressure, such as during high school, and felt that it was more interesting when learning English at university. Nonetheless, the peak level of their English ability was when they were in high school.

Under the circumstances, whether the students regarded pressure from exams and courses as a responsibility, useful learning method or the main purpose of learning English or not and whether pressure was facilitating or debilitating to them, they mostly had experience of bad-result prevention. Their experience also subsequently affected their English anxiety and English learning motivation.

5.3.9.3 Social approval

As previously discussed in Section 1.2.3.2, Taiwanese people tend to protect their face, self-image and self-esteem, therefore, achieving social approval, such as receiving good comments or showing that they are well-educated, may motivate the students to learn English. They may care about how others perceive them. According to the interviews, the 13 interviewees had dissimilar opinions about whether gaining social approval was important to them while learning English or not.

Some of them viewed winning social approval as an influential and important English learning motivation. For example, Ian and Kin thought that people who have good English ability have a better social status and evaluation. As Ian commented, “those who are equipped with good English competence receive better comments and they can get promotions in their job more easily. After all, English is the most common language in this world. Therefore, English is important to me.” Kin also reflected that if her English was not good, then she would feel that she had lost one

professional skill. She hoped to possess competent English ability. She said:

If a person is good at English, it is better because the person will be marked as well-educated and will have a higher social status. I envy those who are good at English. They make me feel that they are capable and awesome. This motivates me to be like them and improve my English.

Similarly, some of the students also cared about social approval, even though this was not their major reason for learning English. For instance, Eva and Jenny enjoyed learning English and gained a sense of achievement while they learn English. Higher social status and praise from others would motivate them to learn, but these extra benefits were not their focus. Carol also expressed her view that “Everyone admires classmates who have good English proficiency. So do I. I hope that I can also become a person who can be adored by others, although this is not the main point that is motivating me to learn.”

On the other hand, some of the interviewees felt great when they received praise from others. Nevertheless, earning social approval was scarcely related to why they wanted to improve their English. As Daisy studied English for passing her exams and as Mina learn English to acquire a sense of achievement, they both reflected that learning English was being conducted regardless of social approval. Frank also commented that “although sometimes I care about the exam results and feel good when I receive positive comments, I cannot learn English well solely because of these reasons. I learn English for myself, not for pleasing others.” Hank gave his opinion as well:

I want to reach a high level of English. I think that I like learning languages. I am capable of learning them. I also want to learn French because I love reading literature. [...] The praise and recognition for my English achievement from others is not that valuable or critical. This may be because I'm grown up now. I

learn English for myself, not for pleasing others.

Consequently, not every interviewee valued the influence of social approval on English learning motivation. Nonetheless, this could be influential, since it worked for some people and since most of the interviewees thought that they would feel happy if they were praised. This could have a positive effect on English learning to some extent.

5.3.10 The L2 learning experience

In addition to the above eight motivational factors identified from the surveys of the main questionnaire and interviews, the researcher also conducted a short weekly questionnaire survey and classroom observation in order to examine the 13 participants' English learning motivation and experience, especially in the classroom setting. The L2 learning experience is another important dimension in Dörnyei's L2 motivational self system, along with the Ideal L2 self and the Ought-to L2 self (see Section 2.3.11 for full discussion about the L2 motivational self system). Hence, the following sections will report the results of the short weekly questionnaire and classroom observation and the participants' feedback about their English learning motivation, experience and behaviours, respectively.

Firstly, the researcher will present the results of the weekly questionnaire survey and classroom observation (see Section 5.3.10.1). Next, the researcher will elaborate the interviewees' opinions about their English learning experience and why they had certain English learning motivation and classroom behaviours during term. The report will cover the four sub-categories of the L2 learning experience as follows: (1) Mental and physical conditions (see Section 5.3.10.2), (2) Learning experience (see Section 5.3.10.3), (3) Test and learning results (see Section 5.3.10.4) and (4) Environment (see

Section 5.3.10.5).

5.3.10.1 Weekly feedback and classroom behaviours

The weekly survey was conducted 14 times during the autumn term (Week 3 to Week 16). The short weekly questionnaire used each week was the same each time (see Section 3.5.2 for the full discussion about the short weekly questionnaire). It contained five 6-point Likert scale questions and space for the participants to write down any comments freely. Three of these questions asked the respondents to express the strength of their English learning motivation, namely English learning intensity, Desire to learn English and Attitudes towards learning English. The remaining two questions were related to how they enjoyed and understood the course (i.e. the L2 learning experience). The 13 participants were requested to fill in this short questionnaire each week after class, except for Week 9 and Week 10 when they had their midterm exam (see the summary of the participation each week in Table 5-45).

Table 5-45: The participation in the weekly survey

Week	Number of participants			Total
	Class X	Class Y	Class Z	
3	4	5	4	13
4	4	5	4	13
5	4	5	4	13
6	3 (absence: Betty)	5	4	12
7	4	5	4	13
8	4	4 (absence: Gina)	4	12
9	3 (absence: Carol)	5	Midterm exam	8
10	Midterm exam	Midterm exam	4	4
11	4	5	4	13
12	4	4 (absence: Frank)	4	12
13	4	4 (absence: Ian)	4	12
14	4	4 (absence: Frank)	4	12
15	3 (absence: Betty)	5	4	12
16	4	5	4	13

Class X: Angel, Betty, Carol and Daisy; Class Y: Eva, Frank, Gina, Hank and Ian;
Class Z: Jenny, Kin, Lily and Mina

The researcher added the participants' responses for all the items in each factor from the questionnaire and then calculated the mean. The internal consistency for both English learning motivation and English learning experience was checked by calculating Cronbach's α in SPSS. Both values were above .70 (English learning motivation: Cronbach's $\alpha = .85$; English learning experience: Cronbach's $\alpha = .83$). The results of the analysis of the level of the students' English learning motivation and experience during the term from the five questionnaire questions are shown in Table 5-46 and Figure 4.

Table 5-46: Descriptive statistics: English learning motivation and experience

	English learning motivation				English learning experience				Week of absence
	Min	Mean	Max	Std.	Min	Mean	Max	Std.	
Angel	4.00	4.64	5.33	0.35	4.50	5.12	5.50	0.30	N/A
Betty	1.00	1.85	3.00	0.64	1.00	2.18	4.00	0.96	Weeks 6 & 15
Carol	3.33	3.89	4.33	0.33	3.00	4.04	5.00	0.62	Week 9
Daisy	2.33	3.46	4.33	0.55	3.00	3.92	4.50	0.57	N/A
Eva	4.33	4.85	5.67	0.37	3.00	3.77	4.50	0.44	N/A
Frank	3.00	3.52	4.00	0.35	3.00	3.73	4.50	0.52	Weeks 12 & 14
Gina	4.00	4.39	5.00	0.28	3.00	4.38	5.00	0.64	Week 8
Hank	3.00	3.90	4.00	0.21	2.50	3.54	4.50	0.56	N/A
Ian	4.00	5.22	6.00	0.57	4.00	4.67	5.00	0.33	Week 13
Jenny	4.33	4.87	5.33	0.32	3.00	4.31	5.00	0.52	N/A
Kin	2.67	3.84	4.33	0.52	3.50	4.23	5.00	0.48	N/A
Lily	3.67	4.62	5.33	0.47	3.00	3.81	4.50	0.38	N/A
Mina	4.33	4.56	5.00	0.29	4.00	4.81	5.00	0.38	N/A

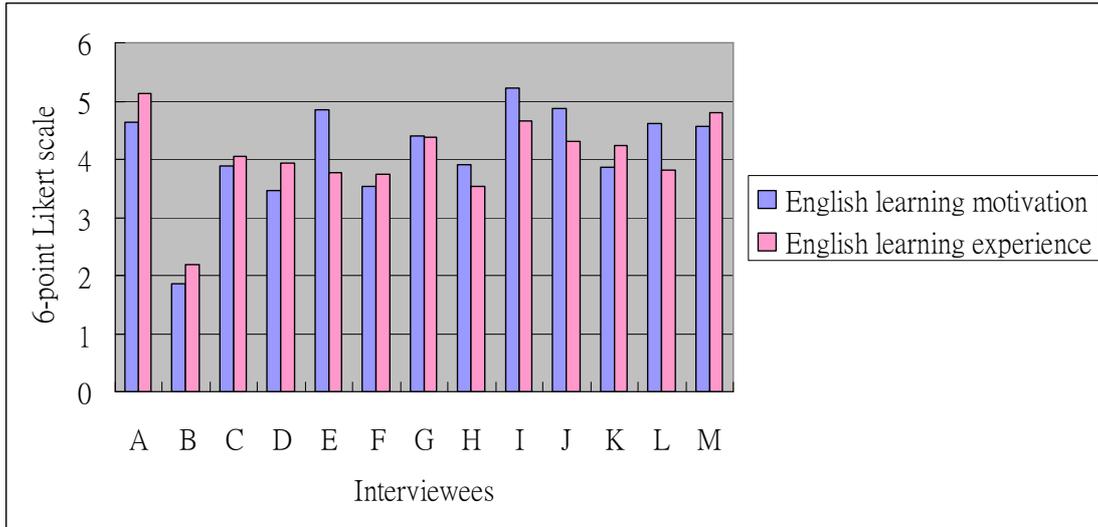


Figure 4: Means for English learning motivation and English learning experience from the weekly survey (the interviewees are shown as their initials)

In Class X, Angel and Carol had positive means for both motivation and experience over the 14 weeks. Daisy had a positive mean for experience, while she had a negative mean for motivation. Only Betty's means for motivation and experience were both below 3.50. All of these four students had higher levels of experience than motivation. In addition (see Figures 5 and 6), the levels of Angel's motivation and experience changed less diversely than did the other three students' during the 14 weeks.

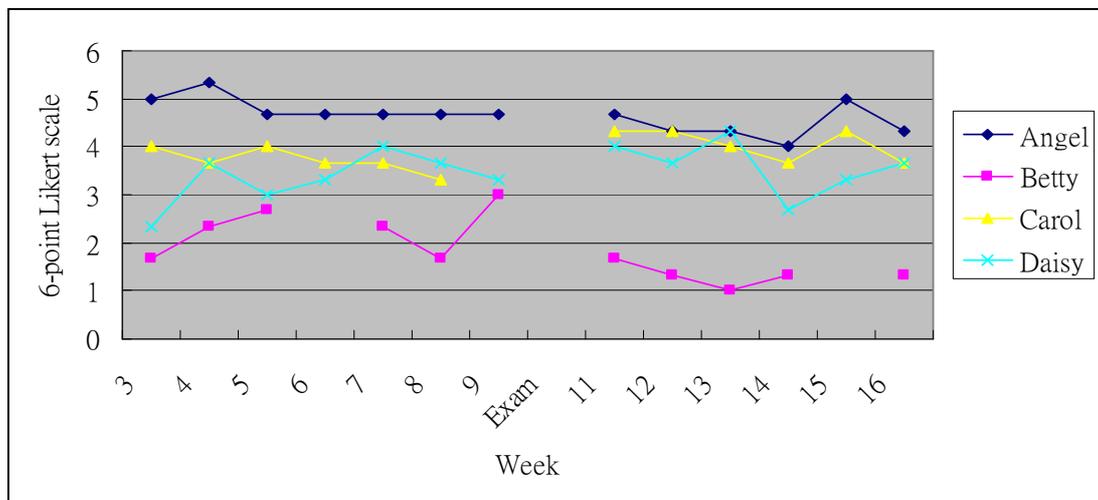


Figure 5: Means for English learning motivation each week (Class X)

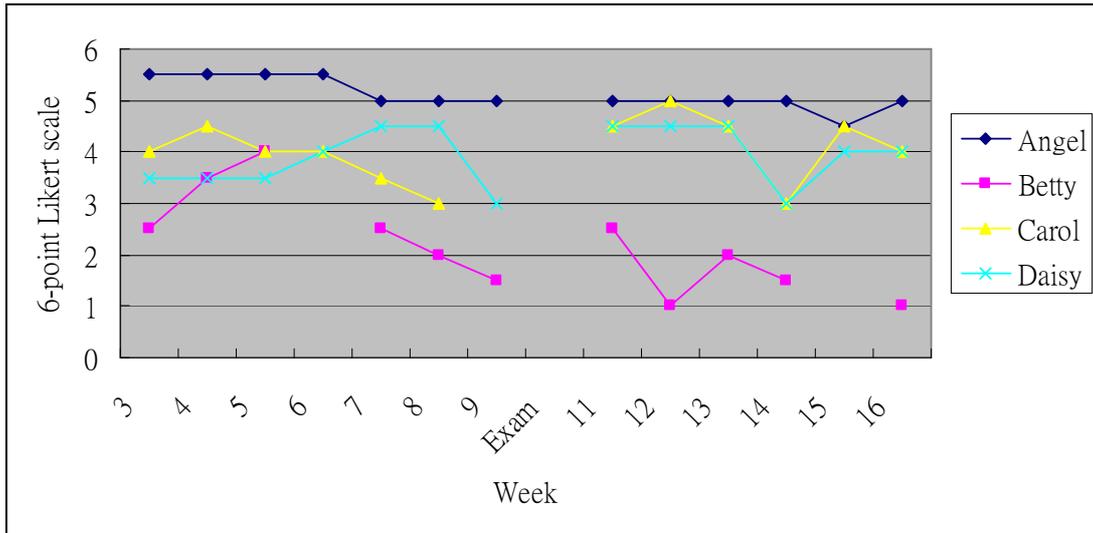


Figure 6: Means for English learning experience each week (Class X)

Meanwhile, only Angel maintained positive levels for both motivation and experience in each week. The others' minimums were below 3.50.

In Class Y, all of the students had positive means for both motivation and experience over the 14 weeks. Among them, only Frank had higher levels of experience than motivation; the other four students had higher levels of motivation. Moreover, the levels of their motivation seemed to be similar during the 14 weeks (see Figure 7). The levels of their experience changed more diversely (see Figure 8).

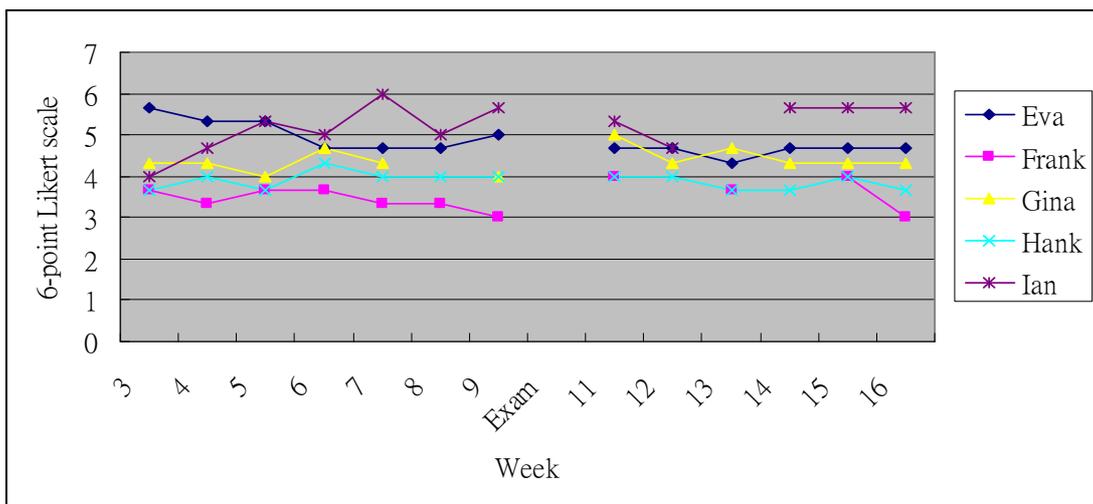


Figure 7: Means for English learning motivation each week (Class Y)

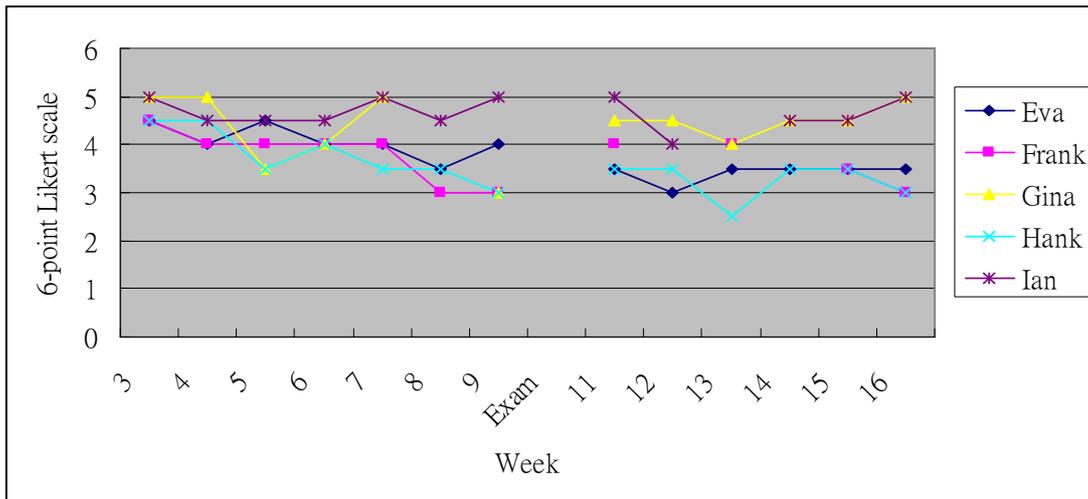


Figure 8: Means for English learning experience each week (Class Y)

In particular, Frank and Hank had a minimum lower than 3.50 for motivation. The four students, except for Ian, they had a minimum below 3.50 for experience.

In Class Z, all of the students had positive means for both motivation and experience over the 14 weeks. Among them, Jenny and Lily had higher levels of motivation, while Kin and Mina had higher levels of experience. Furthermore, the levels of their motivation seemed to be similar during the 14 weeks. Except that the level of Kin's motivation had increased from Week 3 to Week 5 (see Figure 9). The levels of their experience changed more diversely (see Figure 10).

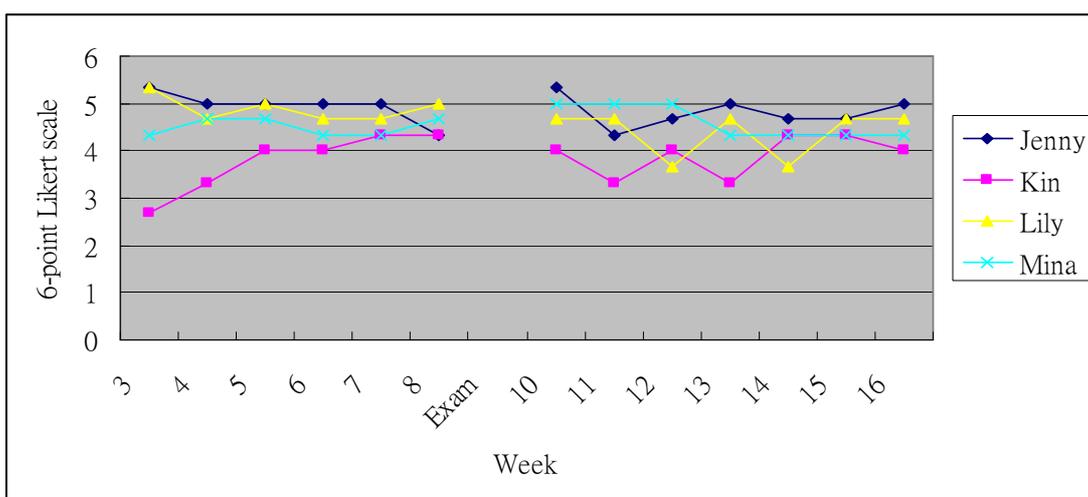


Figure 9: Means for English learning motivation each week (Class Z)

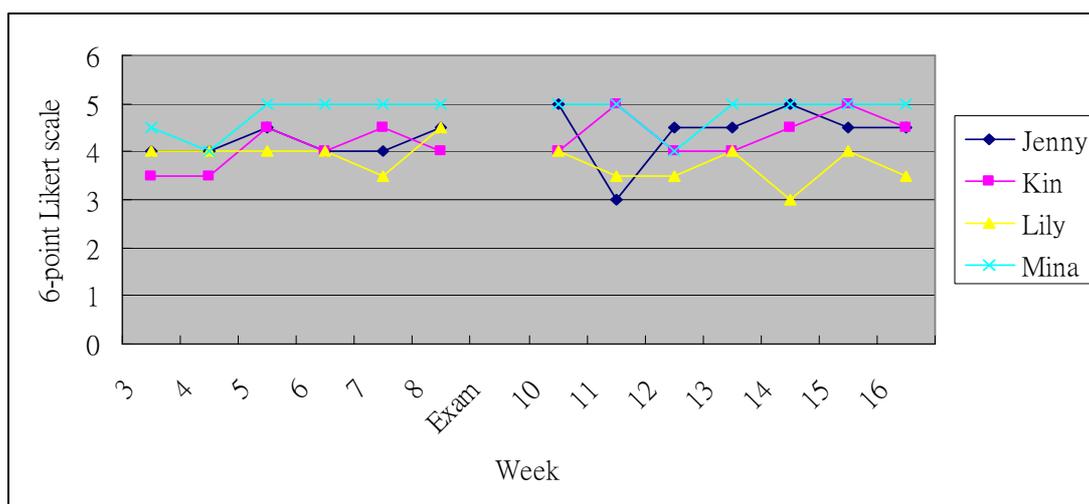


Figure 10: Means for English learning experience each week (Class Z)

In particular, Kin was the only one who had a minimum lower than 3.50 for motivation; the three students, except for Mina, they had a minimum below 3.50 for experience.

In sum, two out of the 13 participants had a mean below 3.50 for motivation and one had a mean below 3.50 for experience over the 14 weeks. For six students, their mean for motivation was higher than their mean for experience, while for the other seven students, the opposite was the case. The levels of their motivation seemed to change to a smaller extent during the 14 weeks. However, the levels of their experience seemed to change more diversely. In addition, six of the learners had a minimum lower than 3.50 for motivation and 10 learners had a minimum below 3.50 for experience. This could imply that there could be more instances where they might be unsatisfied with the learning content and teaching methods (see full discussion in Section 5.3.10.3) or with their learning results (see full discussion in Section 5.3.10.4). Besides, all of their feedback about the quantitative findings above was asked during their interviews. Their opinions and free comments given in the blank space on the questionnaire will be discussed together in Sections 5.3.10.2, 5.3.10.3, 5.3.10.4 and 5.3.10.5.

Next, the following paragraphs will report the results of the classroom observation. The same 13 participants were observed twice in class in order to gain further insights into their learning behaviours. The duration of each observation was 100 minutes. Their classroom behaviours were coded and categorised into four types:

- Motivated behaviours of concentration (MC): e.g. taking notes
- Behaviours of lack of concentration (LC): e.g. falling asleep
- Motivated behaviours of participation (MP): e.g. responding to the teacher
- Behaviours of lack of participation (LP): e.g. not getting involved in activities

Table 5-47 gives the descriptive statistics that show the frequency of the occurrence of each type of behaviour across the two rounds of classroom observation. The higher the number shown, the more frequent the behaviours recorded (see Section 4.3.2 for the details of the whole list of coded behaviour coding and how the frequencies were arrived at.)

Table 5-47: Frequency of observed behaviours during two rounds of observation

	First round observation				Second round observation			
	MC	LC	MP	LP	MC	LC	MP	LP
Angel	16.00	64.00	67.00	0.00	49.00	59.00	49.00	0.00
Betty	13.00	107.50	48.00	0.00	37.00	118.00	42.00	0.00
Carol	15.00	27.50	46.00	0.00	55.00	79.50	42.00	0.00
Daisy	29.00	96.50	47.00	0.00	48.00	96.50	41.00	0.00
Eva	9.00	49.50	65.00	1.00	30.00	61.50	59.00	1.00
Frank	0.00	53.00	46.00	8.00	Frank was absent that day.			
Gina	9.00	49.50	104.00	0.00	26.00	74.00	96.00	0.00
Hank	0.00	53.00	60.00	1.00	5.00	75.50	47.00	12.00
Ian	1.00	92.50	69.00	0.00	19.00	137.00	66.00	0.00
Jenny	6.00	83.50	88.00	2.00	6.00	92.00	74.00	3.00
Kin	3.00	95.50	87.00	0.00	0.00	83.00	64.00	7.00
Lily	1.00	82.00	82.00	4.00	2.00	95.50	67.00	6.00
Mina	5.00	86.50	88.00	0.00	3.00	70.00	66.00	6.00

MC: Motivated behaviours of concentration; LC: Behaviours of lack of concentration; MP: Motivated behaviours of participation; LP: Behaviours of lack of participation

In general, the students were listening to what their teacher instructed and participated in learning and practice. It should be noted that the instances of MC were only recorded when they were taking notes. Nevertheless, the instances of LC were recorded more frequently, since their behaviours were more easily and directly identified, such as eating food, talking to their classmates or falling asleep. Thus, the numbers of LC instances were higher than the ones for MC.

Among these participants, some of them had high instances of LC (over 90 instances during 100 minutes). This was because (1) Betty kept fixing her hair and sometimes was absent-minded during both rounds of observation; (2) Daisy sometimes was absent-minded and was falling asleep during both rounds observation; (3) Ian kept touching his face and sometimes was seen to be talking to others; he got a cold at the second round of observation so he sometimes was absent-minded and sniffed often; (4) Jenny and Lily sometimes were talking to others and yawning during the second round of observation and (5) Kin sometimes was talking to others and falling asleep during the first round of observation.

After each observation, all 13 participants were further interviewed. They were asked to explain why they had certain behaviours with a stimulated recall protocol (see Section 3.5.4 for the full details). Their feedback will be reported in the following sections.

5.3.10.2 Mental and physical conditions

According to the 13 interviewees, they reflected that they would come to the English classes as often as they could. Among these students, five of them showed a record of absence (see Table 5-46 in Section 5.3.10.1). Carol and Gina indicated that they were very sick so they were absent that day. As Gina commented, she would not come to the class if she was too busy, tired or sick. Carol also admitted that “I would

come to the class as often as I could, unless I was sick and felt very uncomfortable. After all, I would feel impolite to the teacher and I would also be recorded as absent in her notes. This will influence my scores.” Likewise, Betty, Frank and Ian pointed out that they were all very busy and not in a good condition when they were absent. Betty said that although she was very busy, she would try to come to the class because she would be afraid that there would be a test taking place unexpectedly. Nevertheless, she might not concentrate on the learning. Frank mentioned that he had part-time jobs so sometimes he would feel too tired to come to the class. Ian felt the same way. He reflected:

If my mental and physical conditions were bad, I would oversleep and miss the class. I am very busy. My life is filled with many events, such as social activities and part-time jobs. However, compared to other subjects, I have shown up quite often in the English class, ha ha.

In other words, their mental and physical conditions influenced all these five students’ English learning motivation to a great extent.

Furthermore, the learners’ mental and physical conditions would not only affect their willingness to attend, but also impact their classroom learning motivation and behaviours. Most of the interviewees expressed the view that they had a busy social life and tight learning schedules from different modules. Thus, they would sometimes feel tired both mentally and physically, which could influence their motivation and be directly noticeable in their behaviours. For instance, they would be not that active in learning and would feel sleepy or even fall asleep when they were tired. As Kin commented, if she was in good condition, she would feel in a mood for learning, while if she was tired and her mind was full of something else, she would be absent-minded. Daisy and Ian also reflected that their learning motivation and behaviours were heavily influenced by their condition. Daisy said:

If I have enough sleep, I will feel happy about coming to the class, otherwise I will feel impatient, sleepy and not in the mood for concentrating. After all, English is not my main subject and I am not particularly interested in it. If I was busy studying other subjects or doing homework and stayed up late the night before, I lose focus easily in class the next day.

Similarly, Ian pointed out that if he was in good condition, he would feel energetic and take a front seat; his learning behaviours would also be more active and involved. On the contrary, he would take a back seat and be passive in learning when he was down.

As a consequence, if the learners were in good condition, then they would be more ready for their learning and be willing to get involved and make some effort. They would also be likely to attend and display more active behaviours in class. The mental and physical conditions could, therefore, affect their English learning motivation critically, especially English learning intensity and Desire to learn English, and subsequently affect their learning behaviours.

5.3.10.3 Learning experience

Overall, the interviewees shared their classroom learning experience in relation to two aspects: one was the topics and training covered in class, and the other was the teacher's teaching methods. These two main aspects would not only influence their in-class English learning motivation and behaviours, but also affect the motivational factor of English anxiety (see Section 5.3.7 for full discussion about English anxiety).

(1) The topics and training covered in class:

First of all, the students commented on the difficulty of the course.

Some of them thought that the course was too easy, compared to what they were taught at high school. Even though the level of the difficulty had been gradually

increased, when they were interviewed at the second round (after the course ended), they still expressed the view that they wanted more of a challenge, especially related to the communication training (i.e. the oral and listening practice). For instance, Eva wrote in her feedback on the questionnaire:

I need more communication training. The teacher was only asking us to practise conversations with our classmates (the dialogues were provided in the textbook). We were just repeating the dialogues and this was not interesting so sometimes I wanted to skip the class. I still come to the class, but it is harder for me to concentrate.

Frank and Hank also expressed the similar view that when they were taught something that they already knew, they might then be absent-minded and start to think about something else. As Hank reflected:

I try to come to the class, but the course is too easy for me. It is good to train our communication skills in class. However, I need more of a challenge. I would be more concentrated during the conversation practice, while I might be absent-minded when the teacher keeps on instructing about what I know already. The course was not motivating me to learn.

Meanwhile, Lily also commented that, to her, the course seemed to be more like reviewing what was taught at high school, which was not stressful but also not interesting. She required more practical training, such as training her writing and conversation skills. She would be more motivated to learn if these kinds of training were offered in class. Under the circumstances, the English course could not enable these participants to gain a sense of achievement, which would not benefit their linguistic interest (see Section 5.3.5.1) or the Ideal L2 self (e.g. academic progress, future career and personal competence, see Section 5.3.8), even though their English anxiety might decrease. At the same time, the level of these students' English learning

motivation was not raised and even dropped. They could also display more behaviours of lack of concentration.

In contrast, some of the interviewees thought that the level of the course was fine for them. Sometimes the topics were easy and sometimes they were difficult. For example, Jenny commented that “the level of the grammatical instruction was easier than the one at high school. However, the content in the course book was all in English and example sentences were provided, which was very useful.” Nonetheless, they reflected that the communication training was hard for them, since they did not have enough training before. This resulted in a rise in their English anxiety, which subsequently impacted their English learning motivation. To some of them, they had higher levels of the Ideal L2 self, which helped them to identify their discrepancy and have higher expectation. Thus, they accepted the difficult task and were motivated to learn in order to get improved. Their exam and course anxiety might continue existing, but their communication anxiety could become lower after a period of time in training. Less communication anxiety was also believed to help the learners to raise their learning motivation to some extent (see Section 5.3.7.1). Nevertheless, to some of them, they felt stressed and pained and wanted to give up learning. As Betty reflected:

I was so stressed when I was asked to do the listening and speaking practice. I hated the practice because I could not understand what they were talking about and did not know how to reply. I would be absent-minded, thinking about something else and not involved, and sometimes I would chat to my partner. I do not want to study English after class, unless there will be a test in the next class. I will not take another course after this module ends.

In other words, all of these students experienced some English anxiety, which they reacted differently to when they were confronted with the difficulty, which affected their English learning motivation. In the mean time, their behaviours were also

influenced by the learning content.

On the other hand, the 13 interviewees commented not only on the level of the course, but also on whether the topics covered in class were interesting or not.

Many of the students mentioned that when their teacher taught about something related to socio-cultural topics, they felt that the class was interesting and motivating, while when the teacher kept on instructing them about the grammar or asked them to do the tasks in the textbook for a long time, they felt bored and unmotivated. For example, Carol reflected:

I feel that the teacher spent too much time on correcting the homework. It was boring, which made me easily distracted. I hope that the teacher can add more activities, provide an additional reading list and combine more trending news and cultural learning to the material. Then I would be more motivated and active while learning.

Gina and Kin also said that when the teacher only explained the articles in the textbook, such as analysing the grammar, structure and vocabulary, it was not that interesting. They felt more motivated to learn when the teacher added some related socio-cultural knowledge or stories in between. This would draw their attention, making them more focused again and prompted them to continue learning.

Hence, whether the learning content was interesting or not would both influence their motivation and behaviours in class. Since many of the students had higher levels of socio-cultural interest (see Section 5.3.5.2) and enjoyed cultural learning (i.e. higher levels of Cultural diversity, see Section 5.3.4), if the learning materials were related to these issues, their English learning motivation would be raised and they would be more involved and focused.

(2) The teaching methods:

In addition to the topics and training covered in class, the other main aspect was

the teaching methods used. Many of the students gave positive comments on their teacher's lively teaching style and the communicative approach applied in class because there were interactions between the teacher and students. They were also provided more opportunity to actually speak English. At the same time, pairwork and role play were also good teaching methods utilised in class. For example, Jenny reflected:

Compared to the English course at high school, there were more interactions and discussions in class at university. The teacher would ask questions and encourage us to answer her questions by adding points. Pair-work and role playing were also motivating. I could learn and improve English together with my partner. It was very interesting to prepare for the role play. I have learned a lot and after the performance, I also got a sense of achievement. However, I wish that the teacher could be more vibrant when she was teaching the grammar; otherwise, I feel sleepy.

Carol, Gina, Kin and Lily also expressed the view that they enjoyed the interactions and communication training. They were motivated to learn and participate in class. Although a few of the students, such as Eva and Hank, thought that the teacher could still have more interaction with the students and make the atmosphere livelier, to them, the course was acceptable. They seemed to expect less from the course because they regarded the teacher-centred approach as a common phenomenon in Taiwan and they were used to it. They appreciated that there were some interactions between the teacher and students, yet they expected more. In other words, many interviewees tended to view the communicative approach as a motivating approach. Even though the communication training could raise their English anxiety, they anticipated that they could improve their oral and listening skills. They could also be more active and involved in learning in class.

Moreover, many interviewees also talked about why they were taking notes (i.e. motivated behaviours of concentration, see Section 5.3.10.1). The most common reasons were because (a) what the teacher said could be tested in exams and (b) the content was interesting and useful. For instance, Lily pointed out:

Sometimes it was difficult to follow what the teacher said, because the contents might be boring, such as grammar, and she might talk about one section in one moment but suddenly jump to another section. When she emphasised what she had taught was important by saying 'this is important' or 'this could be often tested in exams', then this would draw my attention and I would take a note.

As a result, the students' motivation and the motivated behaviours of concentration and participation could be critically influenced by the teachers' teaching methods.

All in all, no matter the topics and training covered in class or the teaching methods used, the participants' teachers were those who took on the decisive role that motivated the students to learn English in the classroom setting. If the learning content met the learners' needs and was interesting, and if the teaching methods were motivating which made the atmosphere lively, then the students would have higher levels of English learning motivation and perform more motivated behaviours. The levels of the students' communication anxiety could also be reduced, once they felt that they had a supportive environment and opportunity to practise. This would subsequently raise their English learning motivation again. That is, the teacher could maximise their potential to create a virtuous circle. However, the results suggested that the English course might not meet some of the participants' needs and expectations, and the students might encounter English anxiety and insufficient teacher-student interactions. Their feedback, to some extent, reflected (1) why the results of the short weekly questionnaire survey showed a larger number of negative (below 3.50) minimums for English learning experience, (2) why the records of the

classroom observation showed high instances of behaviours of lack of concentration and (3) why the results of the main questionnaire survey showed that the means for ‘Anticipation’ (one sub-category of Desire to learn English) and ‘Course’ (one sub-category of Attitudes towards learning English) were both negative (see Sections 5.2.3 and 5.2.4 for full discussion about these two sub-categories) at both Time 1 and Time 2. The mean for Anticipation even decreased significantly from Time 1 to Time 2.

5.3.10.4 Test and learning results

As discussed previously in Section 5.3.9, the interviewees might have some level of the Ought-to L2 self. This implied that they would care about their test and learning results so they were motivated to learn English. At the same time, their achievements would also subsequently influence their English learning motivation. Many of the students indicated that if they could gain a sense of achievement from their test and learning results, they would feel motivated to continue learning English; especially this sense would further contribute to building up their confidence and self-efficacy (i.e. two sub-categories of Desire to learn English, see Section 5.2.4). For example, Eva and Frank both had positive learning outcomes, which enabled them to establish strong confidence and self-efficacy. Therefore, when they got unsatisfactory exam scores sometimes, they were not defeated. Their English learning motivation was less influenced. As Eva commented:

When I was in Grade 3, I was bad at English so I hated English. However, I have got better scores ever since, so I have gained a sense of achievement and turned to liking English. Now I really enjoy learning English and want to learn it well! [...] I am not satisfied with the exam result this time. I am still capable of learning and I am confident in my English ability. I was just not well-prepared

for what the exam covered.

Frank also reflected:

When I went to a foreign country, I found out that my English ability was not bad and this built up my confidence. Then, I have been motivated to keep on learning English. I think that I am good at learning it. I enjoy chatting to foreigners, because I can understand what they are trying to convey and they can understand me when I express myself. This brings me a sense of achievement.[...] I am not satisfied with the exam score. I think I could do better. This result was not consistent with my English competence.

In other words, their English learning motivation was less affected by their negative test and learning results, since they had constructed enough confidence and self-efficacy. They still kept on making their efforts to learn, since they could mostly acquire a sense of achievement from learning English.

On the other hand, many interviewees were still struggling with their test and learning results when it came to improving their English ability. For instance, Lily shared her view as follows:

I can learn Korean efficiently. I have not learned it for a long time, but the level of my Korean is even better than that of my English now. I have no confidence in my English ability. I really want to learn English well; however, I feel that I seem to be unable to do it.

Hence, her negative English learning results could decrease her English learning motivation. Carol also admitted that when she had a good learning or test outcome, she gained a sense of achievement, which was motivating her to learn. Nonetheless, when a task was too difficult for her, she would sometimes give up learning easily. She said,

I really want to have good English competence. When I have made some

progress, I have a sense of achievement. But... compared to mathematics, English is often unable to give me a sense of achievement. I do not understand why I always cannot seem to get a good exam score. This makes me have lower confidence in my English ability. I used to try to read an English novel. However, it was too difficult for me. I needed to keep stopping to look up words in the dictionary, so I gave up reading.

As a consequence, test and learning results could influence the learners' English learning motivation to a large extent.

In contrast, some of the interviewees were affected by their negative test and learning results. Nevertheless, they did not give up but kept on trying to improve. For instance, in the first round of interviews, Daisy commented that "my English exam scores were really unable to bring me a sense of achievement. I did work hard on studying it, but it was useless. Thus, I have low confidence and dislike English." Nevertheless, a few weeks later, she wrote some comments on the questionnaire:

After the mid-term exam, I found out that my English ability was really bad. I needed to rescue it. Therefore, when I went to the English class today, I concentrated and was more focused than before. I am not sure whether I can continue my active and enthusiastic learning effort and attitudes, but I do feel that I have learned a lot from this class and I am not that disliking learning now.

In other words, when the students could not gain any sense of achievement from learning English, their learning motivation decreased. They might behave more passively as well, unless they did not give up trying (motivated by other reasons, such as bad-result prevention). Meanwhile, their linguistic interest might subsequently reduce since they could not gain a sense of achievement (see Section 5.3.5.1 for full discussion about linguistic interest). On the contrary, when the learners could obtain a sense of achievement, this contributed to increasing their English learning motivation,

especially when it came to building up their confidence and self-efficacy. Their learning behaviours might also be more involved in class, and their linguistic interest could be raised. They might even be affected less by the negative results. In short, the students were in need of a sense of achievement established from their test and learning results; the achievement would be an inspiring and motivating force in their English learning.

5.3.10.5 Environment

All of the interviewees expressed the view that they desired a better environment to have more opportunities to actually use English, especially when it came to training their speaking and listening skills. After all, they did not have to communicate with others in English in their daily life; only three of them had experience of living abroad. Mostly, the students practised their communication skills in the English class. However, as discussed earlier in Section 5.3.10.3, many of them felt that the practice was insufficient. In particular, a supportive environment was believed to lessen communication anxiety, which could subsequently raise their English learning motivation (see Section 5.3.7.1 for full discussion about communication anxiety). In reality, their English class was only 100 minutes per week and it was not full of communication training. As Kin also remarked, “there were too many students in one class so the teacher was hard to take care of everyone in oral practice and the training was still not enough to a tremendous extent.”

Thus, the students were trying to create an extra English learning environment by themselves, since they pointed out that if they did not use English very often, then their level of competence decreased quickly. They were motivated to learn by different motivational factors to a different extent. Consequently, a few of them would practise having English conversations with their family or classmates. Some of them

went to English talks or watched clips of speeches online. Some would try to read English news or books or take other English language courses. Most of them would watch films or TV shows and listen to English songs. Even though Taiwan is not an English-speaking country, and even though the training from the formal education at school may need to be improved, the interviewees were making an effort to expose themselves to learning English.

5.3.11 Concluding remarks on research question 2

In Section 5.3, the researcher reported and discussed the results of the motivational factors that influenced the strength of the participants' English learning motivation. Firstly, seven motivational factors were identified from the main questionnaire, namely (1) Ethnocentrism, (2) Fear of assimilation, (3) Interest, (4) Travel orientation, (5) English anxiety, (6) the Ideal L2 self and (7) the Ought-to L2 self. If we compare the seven motivational factors, the mean scores from the highest to the lowest were Travel orientation > Interest > the Ideal L2 self > English anxiety > the Ought-to L2 self > Ethnocentrism > Fear of assimilation, both at Time 1 and Time 2 (see Table 5-48).

All of the scores of the motivational factors were above 3.5 on the 6-point Likert scale, except for Ethnocentrism and Fear of assimilation. In addition, except for the Ought-to L2 self, all of the other six motivational factors showed significant difference between Time 1 and Time 2; their mean scores all decreased. Furthermore, all of the motivational factors showed no significant difference between high and low achievers and no significant relationship with achievement, either at Time 1 or Time 2.

Table 5-48: Means for the seven motivational factors, ranked in order

	Ranking of Means		Changes from Time 1 to Time 2	Differences between high and low achievers and relationships between each component and achievement	
	Time 1	Time 2		Time 1	Time 2
Travel orientation	1 (4.70)	1 (4.39)	t = 3.68***	H = 4.76 L = 4.66 t = -.45 r = .05	H = 4.51 L = 4.29 t = -.95 r = .10
Interest	2 (4.57)	2 (4.35)	t = 3.06**	H = 4.73 L = 4.43 t = -1.78 r = .19	H = 4.52 L = 4.20 t = -1.81 r = .19
Ideal L2 self	3 (4.44)	3 (4.14)	t = 5.16***	H = 4.49 L = 4.40 t = -.57 r = .06	H = 4.24 L = 4.05 t = -1.21 r = .13
English anxiety	4 (4.11)	4 (3.84)	t = 3.49***	H = 4.05 L = 4.16 t = .58 r = -.06	H = 3.77 L = 3.90 t = .60 r = -.06
Ought-to L2 self	5 (3.83)	5 (3.80)	t = .53	H = 3.76 L = 3.90 t = .80 r = -.09	H = 3.82 L = 3.78 t = -.30 r = .03
Ethnocentrism	6 (3.16)	6 (2.97)	t = 2.24*	H = 3.25 L = 3.07 t = -1.06 r = .11	H = 2.93 L = 3.01 t = -.46 r = -.05
Fear of assimilation	7 (2.97)	7 (2.70)	t = 2.63**	H = 2.90 L = 3.04 t = .77 r = -.08	H = 2.59 L = 2.80 t = 1.02 r = -.11

*: $p < .05$; **: $p < .01$; ***: $p < .001$; H: high achievers; L: low achievers

Secondly, the researcher reported the findings generated from the correlation and multiple regression analyses. These seven motivational factors had complex

interrelationships and relationship with English learning motivation (see their summaries in Figures 11, 12 and 13).

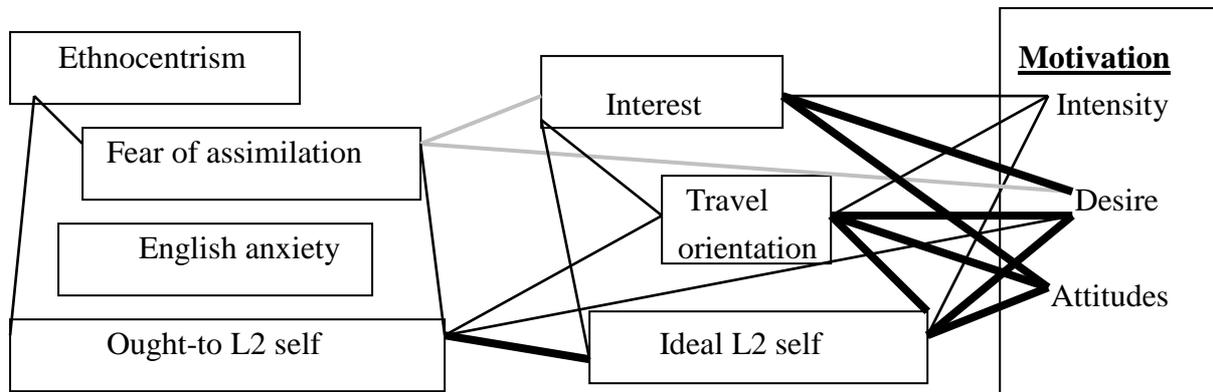


Figure 11: Correlations (Time 1) (Thicker lines: $r \geq .50$; thinner lines: $r < .50$; Black lines: positive correlations; Grey lines: negative correlations)

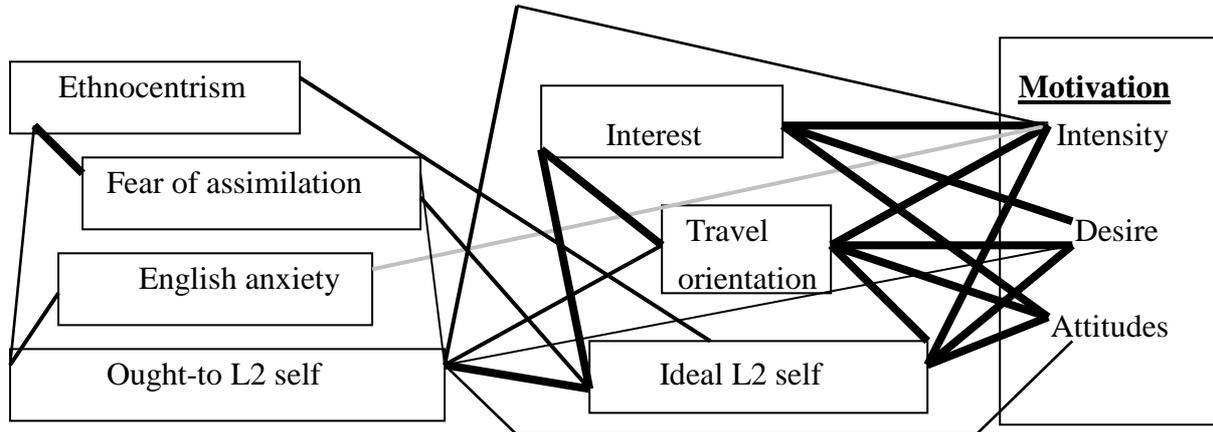


Figure 12: Correlations (Time 2) (Thicker lines: $r \geq .50$; thinner lines: $r < .50$; Black lines: positive correlations; Grey lines: negative correlations)

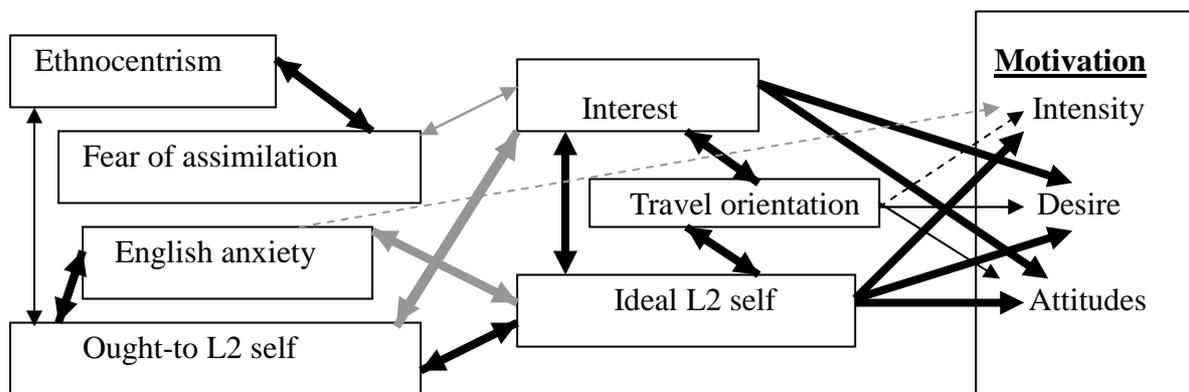


Figure 13: Multiple regression models

‘ \longrightarrow ’: Time 1; ‘ \dashrightarrow ’: Time 2; ‘ \longrightarrow ’: both Time 1 and Time 2
 Black arrows: positive contributions; Grey arrows: negative contributions

Thirdly, the researcher presented the results of the interview, short weekly questionnaire survey and classroom observation. In addition to the seven motivational factors previously identified, six new variables emerged from the analyses. These new variables were further categorised into different motivational factors. In the end, nine motivational factors were established, namely (1) Ethnocentrism, (2) Fear of assimilation, (3) Cultural diversity (new), (4) Interest, (5) Travel orientation, (6) English anxiety, (7) the Ideal L2 self (8) the Ought-to L2 self and (9) the L2 learning experience (new). According to the findings, when the students had a positive English learning experience and higher levels of Cultural diversity, Interest, Travel orientation and the Ideal L2 self, they were likely to have stronger English learning motivation. On the other hand, when the learners had higher levels of Ethnocentrism, Fear of assimilation, English anxiety and the Ought-to L2 self, these factors could have both facilitating effects and debilitating backfire potential on their English learning motivation.

Chapter 6: Discussion and Overall Conclusion

6.1 Introduction

In this final chapter, the researcher will compare the results of the current research with the theoretical underpinnings and empirical studies conducted in a Taiwanese university context reviewed in Chapter Two. Next, the researcher will evaluate the present study. Both the strengths and limitations of the study will be discussed thoroughly. In addition, based on the discussion, further implications for the present thesis and future research suggestions will also be provided. Lastly, the thesis will end with an overall conclusion.

6.2 Research question 1: English learning motivation

- (a) What is the strength of Taiwanese university students' motivation to learn English?
- (b) Does the strength of their motivation change over time?
- (c) Does the strength of their motivation differ between high and low achievers?

6.2.1 The strength of the participants' English learning motivation

6.2.1.1 Summary of the results

From the descriptive statistics, overall the participants of the present research had moderately positive levels of English learning motivation (Time 1: Mean = 4.06 and Time 2: Mean = 3.75); the means were both above 3.5 from the 6-point Likert scale

questionnaire. According to the findings, English learning motivation consisted of three components, namely English learning intensity, Desire to learn English and Attitudes towards learning English. Each component could also be divided into various sub-categories (see Table 6-1).

Table 6-1: Motivation theories and the results of English learning motivation in the current study

English learning motivation in the current study	Variables / sub-categories in the current study	Related aspects of motivation theories
English learning intensity	(1) Effort (2) Hard-work	Motivational intensity (Gardner, 1985) and the degree of learners' effort (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991)
Desire to learn English	(1) Anticipation (2) Willingness (3) Readiness (4) Priority (5) Plan	Desire to learn the language (Gardner, 1985) and the choice learners make (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991)
Attitudes towards learning English	(1) Atmosphere (2) Attraction (3) Liking (4) Self-efficacy (5) Confidence (6) Challenge (7) Course	Attitudes towards learning the language (Gardner, 1985), the learners' experiences (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991) and self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1986)

If we look at the three components of English learning motivation, their means were all positive, except for the mean for English learning intensity at Time 2 (Mean = 3.47). On the other hand, if we examine the different sub-categories of each component together, only the means for Hard-work, Anticipation and Course were negative, both at Time 1 and Time 2. That is, these students were generally motivated to learn English. However, they might not greatly look forward to taking their English course, not regard themselves as working harder than their classmates and not

consider that the English course was interesting enough to motivate them to learn. This reveals room for improvement both concerning the students' efforts and the English course itself.

As shown in Table 6-1, the results reflect Gardner and his associates' (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Lambert, 1972) theory of the three components of language learning motivation, namely motivational intensity, desire to learn the language and attitudes towards learning the language (see Section 2.3.2). The findings also echo Crookes and Schmidt's (1991) concept of language learning motivation, including the degree of learners' effort, the choices learners make and the learners' experiences (see Section 2.3.3). Self-efficacy, as discussed in the work of Bandura (1986) (see Section 2.3.4), also emerged as an important aspect of Attitudes towards learning English.

6.2.1.2 The results and the empirical studies reviewed in Section 2.4

(1) English learning intensity:

In the current research, the participants had a positive mean for English learning intensity at Time 1. Likewise, Study 5 (Hou, et al., 2005) and Study 25 (Sheu, 2016) also reported that their participants showed positive levels of English learning intensity. Moreover, in Study 3 (Chang, 2003), the strength of its participants' English learning intensity was mostly positive as well. It compared the means between three different majors of students. Among the three majors, the students from the Science and Engineering department had the lowest mean for English learning intensity, which was slightly below 3.0 from a 5-point Likert scale questionnaire. This is similar to the current research which had a slightly negative mean for English learning intensity at Time 2.

In particular, Study 8 (Tsao, 2008) showed that the level of its participants' English learning intensity was 2.76, which is lower than 3.0 from a 5-point Likert

scale questionnaire. Nonetheless, its participants were from one technological university. The students' overall English proficiency might be lower than that of the students who were from general universities, such as in the present research. Thus, its lower means could be somewhat expected. Furthermore, among the sub-categories of English learning intensity, the participants in Study 8 did not regard themselves as working harder than others (Mean = 2.34). This is similar to the results of the negative means for Hard-work in the present study.

(2) Desire to learn English:

In the current research, the participants had positive means for Desire to learn English. Study 25 (Sheu, 2016) also reported that the strength of its participants' Desire to learn English was positive, which was 2.67 from a 4-point Likert scale questionnaire. The difference was that its participants were from different grades and from four different universities. The participants of the present study were all freshmen from one university.

(3) Attitudes towards learning English:

Similar to the results of the means for Desire to learn English, the participants of the current research and Study 25 (Sheu, 2016) both had positive means for Attitudes towards learning English. The mean was 2.75 from a 4-point Likert scale questionnaire in Study 25. In addition, Study 5 (Hou, et al., 2005) also indicated that the levels of its participants' Attitudes towards learning English were positive (high achievers: Mean = 2.66; low achievers: Mean = 2.60 from a 3-point Likert scale questionnaire). Its participants were all freshmen from seven military schools.

All in all, compared to the other empirical studies, the present study had similar results of the level of the participants' English learning motivation. The students were generally moderately motivated to learn English.

6.2.2 English learning motivation and its dynamic nature

6.2.2.1 Summary of the results

The researcher ran paired-samples t-test to compare two sets of means of the quantitative data collected at Time 1 and Time 2 respectively. Overall, the strength of the participants' English learning motivation changed over time. The mean decreased significantly from Time 1 (Mean = 4.16) to Time 2 (Mean = 3.91). Among the three components of English learning motivation, all of the means for English learning intensity, Desire to learn English and Attitudes towards learning English reduced significantly from Time 1 to Time 2. The findings reveal the issue of the reduction of the participants' English learning motivation. This also reflects the concept from socio-dynamic perspectives that the strength of English learning motivation could be dynamic and change at anytime (see Section 1.2.2).

On the other hand, if we further look at the sub-categories of each component, most of them also showed significant change, except for Hard-work (one sub-category of English learning intensity), Priority (one sub-category of Desire to learn English), and Self-efficacy, Confidence and Course (three sub-categories of Attitudes towards learning English). Among these five sub-categories, the means for Hard-work and Course remained low (< 3.5), while the other three stayed positive.

6.2.2.2 The results and the empirical studies reviewed in Section 2.4

There were only a few of the empirical studies that focused on investigating the dynamic nature of English learning motivation.

For example, in Study 15 (Wu, et al., 2012), it showed that the means for its participants' confidence were all positive at different time points (Time 1 = 3.06; Time 2 = 3.33; Time 3 = 3.47 from a 5-point Likert scale questionnaire). The means increased significantly from Time 1 to Time 2 and from Time 2 to Time 3. This

implied that the students in Study 15 had gained more confidence in their English ability as time went by. The English course seemed to be helpful for the learners. This is dissimilar to the present thesis, but the means for confidence in the current research were positive at both Time 1 (Mean = 4.27) and Time 2 (Mean = 4.16). The levels remain similar regarding their confidence in English ability.

Likewise, Study 20 (Pan & Wu, 2013) presented the results of its participants' self-efficacy, which are different from the present study. In Study 20, the participants were divided into two groups. One was the experimental group and the other was the comparison group. The former group was taught with the Reciprocal Cooperative Learning method and the latter group was taught using the traditional lecture instruction method. After a period of time in learning, its results showed that the means for the participants' self-efficacy were raised significantly from Time 1 to Time 2 in the experimental group, while there was no significant difference found in the comparison group. In other words, the Reciprocal Cooperative Learning method was helpful to enhance the students' self-efficacy. In contrast, the means for self-efficacy in the present research remained at a similar positive level from Time 1 (Mean = 4.34) to Time 2 (Mean = 4.28).

Although the results are quite different between the current thesis and other studies, all of them reveal the high possibility that the strength of English learning motivation changes over time.

6.2.3 English learning motivation and achievement

6.2.3.1 Summary of the results

In the current research, the participants were divided into two groups: high achievers and low achievers. The means for each variable from these two groups were

compared by independent-samples t-test and point-biserial correlation analyses. According to the results, there was significant difference between high and low achievers regarding the strength of the participants' English learning motivation (high achievers > low achievers) at Time 1, while no significant difference was found at Time 2.

In addition, if we examine the three components of English learning motivation, there was significant difference found (1) in Desire to learn English and Attitudes towards learning English at Time 1 and (2) in English learning intensity at Time 2. High achievers had higher means for all the three components. If we further look at the sub-categories of each component, there was significant difference found (1) in Hard-work, Priority, Attraction and Liking both at Time 1 and Time 2 and (2) in Self-efficacy at Time 2. High achievers had higher means for all these five sub-categories above. In other words, compared to low achievers, high achievers generally tended to consider themselves as working harder than others (Hard-work), to prefer spending time on learning English to learning other subjects (Priority) and to think that learning English is interesting (Attraction), that they are enjoying learning it (Liking) and that they are able to learn it well (Self-efficacy).

6.2.3.2 The results and the empirical studies reviewed in Section 2.4

There were fewer of the empirical studies that focused on comparing the mean between high and low achievers. Among these studies, most of them compared means for English learning motivational factors, but not for English learning motivation. Only Study 5 (Hou, et al., 2005) had results that compared means for both motivation and motivational factors analysed using the t-test as well.

In Study 5, it showed a similar finding, in that significant difference was found between high and low achievers regarding English learning intensity. High achievers

(Mean = 2.61) had higher means than did low achievers (Mean = 2.48) from a 3-point Likert scale questionnaire. It further mentioned that English learning intensity positively predicted its participants' English achievement from a regression analysis. However, there was no significant difference found between high and low achievers regarding Attitudes towards learning English. The means were similar between high achievers (Mean = 2.66) and low achievers (Mean = 2.60).

Even though the empirical results were different from study to study, the findings of the present thesis indicated a tendency that low achievers had lower means for all the three components of English learning motivation, especially the sub-categories of Hard-work, Priority, Attraction, Liking and self-efficacy. This reveals a matter of concern since possessing higher English learning motivation is believed to be related to achieving better learning success (Dörnyei, 2014; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). Consequently, more future empirical research may be needed to explore how to help learners, especially low achievers, to increase their motivation for better achievements. To be more specific, it is important to know how to raise the level of learners' motivational factors in order to boost their English learning motivation, including making English learning to be fun, relevant and important for them and making them think that they are able to learn it well (see further discussion about motivational factors in the following sections).

6.3 Research question 2: English learning motivational factors

- (a) What factors influence the strength of Taiwanese university students' English learning motivation?

- (b) Does the strength of these factors change over time?
- (c) Does the strength of these factors differ between high and low achievers?
- (d) What is the relationship between these factors and English learning motivation?

6.3.1 English learning motivational factors and motivation

6.3.1.1 Summary of the results

In the present research, nine English learning motivational factors were identified from the quantitative and qualitative analyses, namely (1) Ethnocentrism, (2) Fear of assimilation, (3) Cultural diversity, (4) Interest, (5) Travel orientation, (6) English anxiety, (7) the Ideal L2 self (8) the Ought-to L2 self and (9) the L2 learning experience. These nine factors would influence the strength of the participants' English learning motivation. Seven out of the nine motivational factors were analysed by both the quantitative and qualitative analyses; Cultural diversity and the L2 learning experience lacked statistical evidence because they emerged from the qualitative analysis.

From the correlation and multiple regression analyses, it was seen that the seven motivational factors had complex interrelationships and relationship with English learning motivation. This provides evidence to support Ushioda's (2009) person-in-context relational view of motivation that motivation is complex and contextual (see Section 2.3.10). Among the seven factors, the most influential factors that could significantly predict English learning motivation were (1) Interest (positively), (2) Travel orientation (positively), (3) English anxiety (negatively) and (4) the Ideal L2 self (positively).

According to the descriptive statistics, the strengths of Interest, Travel orientation,

English anxiety, the Ideal L2 self and the Ought-to L2 self were all above 3.5 from the 6-point Likert scale questionnaire, while the levels of Ethnocentrism and Fear of assimilation were negative. In other words, on the one hand, the students were mainly motivated to learn English because of (1) Interest: they had linguistic or socio-cultural interest in English; (2) Travel orientation: they would like to travel abroad and (3) the Ideal L2 self: they had a vision of a better future self, such as having further study, a better job or good English ability. In particular, among the sub-categories of these three motivational factors, the levels of Role model and Integrativeness (two sub-categories of the Ideal L2 self) were the only sub-categories below 3.5. That is, the participants might not be motivated to learn English because of their role models or a desire to integrate into American or British societies. On the other hand, the participants also had positive levels of English anxiety and the Ought-to L2 self (e.g. learning English because of being under pressure from exams and courses or meeting requirements). However, these two motivational factors could have both facilitating and debilitating effects on their English learning motivation.

In addition, the results of the seven motivational factors analysed from the interview mostly were similar to those from the main questionnaire, except for the sub-category of Role model. Some of the interviewees were motivated to learn English because they viewed some people, such as celebrities or their classmates, as their role model. They wanted to learn English in order to be capable English users like those they admired. Furthermore, the interviewees shared their opinions about the other two motivational factors, Cultural diversity and the L2 learning experience.

Firstly, many of the students have a positive level of Cultural diversity. They appreciated and respected the existence of different cultures and enjoyed cultural learning. This enabled them to be more open-minded about the possible expansion of their identity when they learned English. English was also a medium for them to

know more about different cultures and international news in the world. Hence, they might have interest in learning English, English culture and communities, which could subsequently increase their English learning motivation.

Secondly, according to the learners' feedback, they had different English learning experiences. In general, when they had a positive English learning experience, they tended to be motivated to continue learning. If they were in good mental and physical condition, if they felt that they were provided with sufficient and motivating training and support, if they gained a sense of achievement from learning and if they had a good learning environment, then they would be more motivated to learn and perform more active learning behaviours.

6.3.1.2 The results and the empirical studies reviewed in Section 2.4

(1) Ethnocentrism, Fear of assimilation and Cultural diversity:

None of the empirical studies explored whether issues related to identity would impact the strength of English learning motivation. However, these three motivational factors are important, especially because the factors imply whether the learners are open-minded about the potential change or expansion of their identity when they are learning English (see full discussion about identity in Section 1.2.3.1). The results of the present thesis showed that when the students had a lower sense of Ethnocentrism and Fear of assimilation and a higher level of Cultural diversity, they tended to be more open-minded and have more interest in learning English. Meanwhile, when the learners connected themselves to the world and expanded their identity into being both a Taiwanese and global citizen, they tended to have stronger English learning motivation. Thus, these three factors could be influential in English learning, which requires and calls for further empirical research in the future.

(2) Interest, Travel orientation and the Ideal L2 self:

In the current research, Interest, Travel orientation and the Ideal L2 self were identified as facilitating motivational factors which enable English learning to be more fun, relevant and important to the learners. The higher the levels of these three factors, the higher the motivation was likely to be. As presented in Table 6-2, the findings reflect motivation theories of integrative and instrumental orientations (see Section 2.3.2), goal-orientation theory (see Section 2.3.6), intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in Self-determination theory (see Section 2.3.7) and the Ideal L2 self in the L2 motivational self system (see Section 2.3.11).

Table 6-2: Motivation theories and the results of Interest, Travel orientation and the Ideal L2 self in the current study

Motivational factors in the current study	Variables / sub-categories in the current study	Related aspects of motivation theories
Interest	(1) Linguistic interest (2) Socio-cultural interest	Integrative orientation (Gardner, 1985) and intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985)
Travel orientation	Travel orientation	Instrumental orientation (Gardner, 1985) and extrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985)
The Ideal L2 self	(1) Academic progress (2) Future career (3) Personal competence (4) Role model (5) Integrativeness	Integrative and instrumental orientations (Gardner, 1985), goal-orientation theory (Ames, 1992), intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and the Ideal L2 self (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011)

Many of the empirical studies, such as Study 8 (Tsao, 2008) and Study 25 (Sheu, 2016), also regarded these three factors as motivating their participants to learn

English. The participants of those studies and the present thesis were likely to be motivated to learn English by their linguistic and socio-cultural interest, travel orientation and visions of a better future self.

In particular, Study 25 also conducted correlation and multiple regression analyses to examine the interrelationships of motivational factors and the relationship between factors and motivation. The results showed that linguistic interest, intrinsic orientation, integrative orientation, identified regulation and attitude toward English-speaking countries positively predicted English learning motivation. This is similar to the current research that these motivational factors are beneficial when it comes to raising the learners' English learning motivation.

Moreover, different researchers might group different variables into different motivational factors for their analysis. For instance, the present researcher divided integrative orientation into three variables, namely (1) linguistic interest, (2) socio-cultural interest and (3) integrativeness which involved a change or expansion of identity. The researcher further classified linguistic interest and socio-cultural interest into the motivational factor of 'Interest' and categorised integrativeness and promotion-oriented instrumentality into the factor of 'the Ideal L2 self' (see Table 6-3).

Table 6-3: Grouping example

	Motivational factors	Variables / sub-categories
The current study	1. Interest 2. The Ideal L2 self	1. Linguistic and socio-cultural interest 2. Promotion-oriented instrumentality and integrativeness
Study 5 and Study 18	1. Integrative orientation 2. Instrumental orientation	1. Linguistic and socio-cultural interest and integrativeness 2. Promotion-oriented instrumentality

Some of the papers, such as Study 5 (Hou, et al., 2005) and Study 18 (Lai, 2013),

categorised linguistic interest and socio-cultural interest into ‘Integrative orientation’ and left promotion-oriented instrumentality in ‘Instrumental orientation’. The grouping would critically lead to different results. Many of the studies did not include their grouping information. Nevertheless, because Study 5 and Study 18 provided the details of their grouping, their findings could be compared with the current thesis.

On the one hand, Study 5 and Study 18 also showed that their participants were motivated to learn English by their linguistic and socio-cultural interest, travel orientation and promotion-oriented instrumentality. This is similar to the present research. On the other hand, although the mean for integrative orientation in Study 18 was positive, there was only one questionnaire question within this factor concerning integrativeness, related to the change or expansion of identity (i.e. learning English because “I would like to live in English-speaking or foreign countries” (Lai, 2013, p. 100)). The other questions within the factor were related to linguistic and socio-cultural interest. In addition, the study did not provide the mean for integrativeness. Thus, there was no direct evidence showing that its participants were motivated to learn English by integrativeness.

In contrast, Study 5 offered more statistical detail so readers could tell whether its participants were motivated to learn English due to integrativeness. According to Study 5, the students were motivated to learn English because they had linguistic or socio-cultural interest. Nevertheless, the mean for integrativeness was negative (below 2.0 from a 3-point Likert scale questionnaire). The learners did not consider themselves as learning English in order “to think and behave like an English-speaking person” or “to leave Taiwan and become a member of American society” (Hou, et al., 2005, p. 254). Likewise, Study 21 (Chang, 2014) also showed that the mean for integrativeness was low (below 3.0 from a 5-point Likert scale questionnaire). As a consequence, the findings of low integrativeness from Study 5 and Study 21 are

similar to the present research. In other words, Taiwanese university students could have positive levels of linguistic and socio-cultural interest and the Ideal L2 self, but mostly they were not motivated to learn English by integrativeness.

(3) English anxiety and the Ought-to L2 self:

In the current thesis, the participants were motivated to learn English by the factors of English anxiety and the Ought-to L2 self. As presented in Table 6-4, the findings mirror motivation theories of instrumental orientation (see Section 2.3.2), goal content and multiplicity theory (see Section 2.3.6), extrinsic motivation in Self-determination theory (see Section 2.3.7) and the Ought-to L2 self in the L2 motivational self system (see Section 2.3.11).

Table 6-4: Motivation theories and the results of English anxiety and the Ought-to L2 self in the current study

Motivational factors in the current study	Variables / sub-categories in the current study	Related aspects of motivation theories
English anxiety	(1) Communication anxiety (2) Exam and course anxiety	Instrumental orientation (Gardner, 1985), goal content and multiplicity theory (Wentzel, 2000), extrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and the Ought-to L2 self (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011)
The Ought-to L2 self	(1) Significant-other effect (2) Bad-result prevention (3) Social approval	Instrumental orientation (Gardner, 1985), goal content and multiplicity theory (Wentzel, 2000), extrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and the Ought-to L2 self (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011)

Many of the empirical studies, such as Study 5 (Hou, et al., 2005), Study 8 (Tsao,

2008) and Study 21 (Chang, 2014), also mentioned that their participants were motivated to learn English by pressure, such as passing exams and meeting course requirements.

Nevertheless, English anxiety and the Ought-to L2 self were identified as motivational factors which had both facilitating and debilitating influences on English learning motivation. The participants might be motivated to learn English because of requirements of other people, being under pressure from exams and courses, preventing negative consequences or having a desire to earn social approval, accompanied by different degrees of English anxiety, such as communication anxiety and exam and course anxiety. Under the circumstances, the level of their English learning intensity might be raised since they were urged by these external forces or it might be reduced because they experienced too much anxiety and gave up learning. At the same time, the levels of their Desire to learn English and Attitudes towards learning English might decrease since they might be unable to learn English happily or not gain enough of a sense of achievement. Some of the papers also discussed the debilitating impacts of pressure and investigated how it influenced English learning motivation. The following paragraphs will give further explanation from two dimensions of motivational issues.

The first issue is concerned with the Ought-to L2 self and communication anxiety. The current research pointed out that when the participants were asked to be equipped with communication ability, they encountered different levels of communication anxiety because they did not communicate with others in English in their daily life. They were motivated to learn English because of a stressful requirement or anticipation of the requirement. Nonetheless, they might not want to or dared not to actually practise their oral skills because this might expose their inability. That is, the level of their learning motivation could change at any time and be affected

by different internal or external forces. Furthermore, after a period of time in learning and practising, if they felt that they were provided with enough opportunity and a supportive environment to practise their communication skills, they would be more motivated to speak English and continue learning. Otherwise, they might give up. In other words, in order to avoid too many negative impacts, the facilitating influence should not be over-emphasised or abused.

Similarly, Study 15 (Wu, et al., 2012) and Study 22 (Liu & Cheng, 2014) also showed that if the learners had a lower level of communication anxiety, they tended to have a higher level of motivation. Study 15 mentioned that its participants' confidence had gradually increased after they took a course for a period of time. The training and teacher's encouragement and assistance helped them to reduce their anxiety and made them feel motivated to learn English in order to achieve better learning outcomes at the end of the course. Study 22 also indicated that a negative correlation was found between anxiety and motivation; anxiety also negatively predicted motivation in the multiple regression model. Therefore, Study 22 suggested that a reduction of anxiety had the potential to increase English learning motivation. The results are similar to the present research, which indicated that English anxiety could backfire on motivation so this should be taken into consideration in English teaching and learning.

The second issue is concerned with the Ought-to L2 self and exam and course anxiety. When the participants in the current research had higher levels of exam and course anxiety, which meant that they were under pressure from exams and courses, the level of their English learning intensity might be raised (e.g. studying English in order to pass exams), but the levels of their Desire to learn English and Attitudes towards learning English might decrease (e.g. disliking learning). Study 7 (Lin, 2008) and Study 18 (Lai, 2013) showed similar results.

Study 18 found that external pressure (e.g. exams and courses) was weakly but

significantly and negatively ($r = -.19, p < .01$) related to its participants' interest in learning English (e.g. considering themselves as enjoying learning English and regarding English as an interesting subject). However, the Ought-to L2 self (e.g. the influence of significant others and achieving social approval) was weakly but significantly and positively related to the Ideal L2 self ($r = .24, p < .01$) and Travel orientation ($r = .22, p < .01$) which were two factors believed to increase English learning motivation. The findings are similar to the present study. The current research showed that the Ought-to L2 self negatively predicted Interest and positively predicted the Ideal L2 self.

Likewise, Study 7 indicated that its participants were required to pass exams so they were motivated to learn English. The force of exams facilitated their English study, but they were bearing pressure. When they did not gain a sufficient sense of achievement, they lost their confidence and felt frustrated, which made them lose interest in learning English, although they had to keep going. Its participants had a similar experience to some students in the current research.

Furthermore, Study 25 (Sheu, 2016) emphasised the negative impact of motivational factors on English learning motivation. It pointed out that external regulation (e.g. in order to have a good grade or avoid punishment) and introjected regulation (e.g. in order to achieve honour or prevent themselves from feeling guilty) both negatively predicted English learning motivation from the multiple regression analysis. As a consequence, the participants were not motivated to learn English by potential benefits of the Ought-to L2 self. Their motivation even decreased.

In sum, pressure may be necessary and benefit English learning. Nevertheless, in order to avoid negative effects of the Ought-to L2 self and English anxiety on English learning motivation, educators and policy makers should not neglect the possible threat of these motivational factors. After all, the aim of English teaching is to help

learners, not to create a vicious circle.

(4) The L2 learning experience:

The results of the present study showed that if the participants were in good condition, obtained a sense of achievement while learning and were provided with a good environment and sufficient and inspiring training and teaching, they would have a higher level of English learning motivation and displayed more active learning behaviours. The findings echo Crookes and Schmidt's four course-specific motivational components (see Section 2.3.3), Dörnyei's learning situational level in the three-level framework of L2 motivation (see Section 2.3.8) and the L2 learning experience in the L2 motivational self system (see Section 2.3.11).

Many of the interviewees in the current research provided positive comments on the English course they took because there was communication training and positive interactions between the teacher and students. Their communication anxiety decreased since they could practise their oral and listening skills in class. A few of them had positive experiences of intercultural encounters so they had more opportunities to actually use English in their daily life. After a while in practising and learning, they had gradually found out that they were capable users. Therefore, they tended to have higher English learning motivation, especially a positive level of Attitudes towards learning English (e.g. higher confidence and self-efficacy and regarding learning English was interesting). This also helped them to have higher levels of the other motivational factors, such as Interest, Travel orientation and the Ideal L2 self.

Nevertheless, the interview findings also indicated that the English course might not meet the needs of some of the students and that the learning environment in Taiwan still needed to be improved. The students did not have many opportunities to speak English in their daily life so they mostly did the practice in their English course. However, they might not have enough time to practise and some of them might still

be under pressure and feel stressed about speaking English in class. Hence, the course might not be motivating to some extent. This also reflects the negative means for Anticipation (looking forward to going to the English class) and Course (considering that the English course is motivating) from the questionnaire investigation. Moreover, since they wanted to improve and needed to pass exams, they were under pressure and in need of gaining a sense of achievement to continue learning. The degree of anxiety and whether they are improving would largely impact their learning motivation. Meanwhile, in order to motivate the students to learn and to help them to pass exams, their teacher might also face the dilemma of using an exam-oriented teaching method or applying other methods and lecturing using interesting content which might not have been tested on previous. The teaching methods and content also had influence on the students' learning motivation and behaviours in class. Consequently, the L2 learning experience can be very influential when it comes to affecting the strength of English learning motivation.

Study 7 (Lin, 2008) also discussed the issues of a lack of having a good English learning environment and exam-led teaching and learning. The participants did not have enough of an opportunity to use English in their daily life and they were required to pass exams. Thus, they were mainly motivated to learn in class when their teacher was teaching something that would be tested. Otherwise, they tended to withdraw into themselves and not be involved in learning. At the same time, they felt frustrated when they did not gain a sense of achievement while learning (e.g. receiving bad scores). They might then lose confidence and learning interest, but they still needed to keep on learning, which became a vicious circle.

In addition, Study 15 (Wu, et al., 2012) and Study 19 (Lai & Ting, 2013) also emphasised the importance of a supportive learning environment and sufficient meaningful training. In Study 15, its participants had built up their confidence because

they had opportunities to really speak English in class and their teacher and classmates were helpful. They were encouraged and motivated to learn and had expectations of achieving good learning results. In Study 19, its participants felt more motivated to learn English when their teacher encouraged them to learn, instructed them in what they needed and made the atmosphere and teacher-student interactions lively. It also mentioned that when the students had more experience of social encounters with meeting foreigners, travelling or living abroad and / or having foreign friends, they would have a higher level of English learning motivation. When the students did not have any intercultural encounter, a lack of a good English learning and using environment might make the students question the importance of English since they did not need it daily and Chinese is becoming increasingly popular and important. This could also reduce their English learning motivation.

In other words, since in Taiwan most university students do not need to use English in their daily life and they may not have many opportunities to have intercultural encounters, the in-class learning experience is very important and has tremendous influence on students' English learning motivation. The English class is the main field for students to have communication practice, where they can check their improvement and where they can gain a sense of achievement. Therefore, teachers and policy makers are the ones who play a critical role in the classroom setting. On the one hand, they are the ones who can make English learning interesting, relevant and important to their students. On the other hand, when learners are taught supportively, they would feel less anxious and be willing to keep on learning because they are improving as well as not being afraid to learn from mistakes.

6.3.2 English learning motivational factors and its dynamic nature

6.3.2.1 Summary of the results

The researcher ran paired-samples t-test to compare two sets of means of the quantitative data collected at Time 1 and Time 2. Overall, the strengths of the participants' English learning motivational factors changed over time. The means for Ethnocentrism, Fear of assimilation, Interest, Travel orientation, English anxiety and the Ideal L2 self all reduced significantly from Time 1 to Time 2. Only the means for the Ought-to L2 self at Time 1 and Time 2 remained at a similar level. The findings reveal the issue of the decrease of the participants' English learning motivational factors. Since these factors mutually affected and subsequently influenced the strength of English learning motivation, this reflects why the students' motivation also changed over time. However, the good news was the reduction of the levels of Ethnocentrism, Fear of assimilation and English anxiety. These factors were believed to have some negative impacts on English learning motivation.

6.3.2.2 The results and the empirical studies reviewed in Section 2.4

There were fewer of the empirical studies that focused on investigating the dynamic nature of English learning motivational factors. Some of the studies found out that the levels of motivational factors were changing while some of the studies did not.

For instance, in Study 7 (Lin, 2008), the level of the interviewees' instrumentality had decreased because they changed their mind about their future career, which would be less related to acquiring good English ability. Likewise, Study 15 (Wu, et al., 2012) also reported that the participants' instrumental orientation changed significantly from Time 2 to Time 3 according to the repeated contrast results. On the other hand, Study 21 (Chang, 2014) had levels of some factors that changed after a course, but levels of some factors did not. In contrast, Study 20 (Pan & Wu,

2013) showed that the means for both the participants' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation did not significantly change over time from the paired-samples t-test analysis.

All of the studies above and the current research showed different results of the dynamic nature of motivational factors. This could be caused by different participants, research designs and dissimilar timings and duration of investigation. For example, in the present thesis, the level of the Ought-to L2 self did not show significant change, but from the qualitative analysis, the interviewees reflected that the level of parental influence (one dimension of the Ought-to L2 self) had decreased as their age increased. Hence, the findings of the current research and Studies 7, 15 and 21 reveal the high potential that motivational factors can change over time, which empirically proves the dynamic nature of motivational factors from socio-dynamic perspectives (see Section 1.2.2 for discussion about socio-dynamic perspectives).

6.3.3 English learning motivational factors and achievement

6.3.3.1 Summary of the results

In the current study, the participants were divided into two groups: high achievers and low achievers. The means for the seven motivational factors from these two groups were compared by independent-samples t-test and point-biserial correlation analyses. According to the statistical results, there was no significant difference between high and low achievers regarding the strength of each motivational factor.

6.3.3.2 The results and the empirical studies reviewed in Section 2.4

There were fewer of the empirical studies that focused on comparing means between high and low achievers. Among these studies, Study 5 (Hou, et al., 2005),

Study 8 (Tsao, 2008) and Study 14 (Tsai, 2012) had results of comparing means for motivational factors analysed using the t-test as well.

Study 5 showed a similar finding that no significant difference existed between high and low achievers regarding English learning motivational factors, including instrumental orientation and integrative orientation. On the contrary, Study 8 and Study 14 reported that there was significant difference between high and low achievers in motivational factors. In Study 8, some of the factors showed significant difference, including required course, exams, making foreign friends, educational and social status, expressing oneself, being interested in English and following fashion. Low achievers had higher means for required course and exams, while high achievers had higher means for the remaining five variables. In Study 14, the means for intrinsic motivation, integrative orientation and instrumental orientation significantly differed between high and low achievers. High achievers had higher means for all the three variables.

The findings varied widely from study to study. This could result from not only different participants and research methods, but also diverse groupings and factors included in the analysis. As discussed earlier in Section 6.3.1.2, different groupings can influentially lead to generating different results. What factors are tested can also show dissimilar outcomes. For example, in the present research, no significant difference was found between high and low achievers regarding the seven motivational factors. However, if we further examine the sub-categories of the motivational factors, Linguistic interest and Academic progress were the two variables that showed significant difference between high and low achievers. High achievers had higher means for both variables.

Based on the current thesis, Study 8 and Study 14 discussed above, high achievers might have higher levels of interest and instrumentality when it comes to

learning English. This can somewhat explain why the quantitative results of English learning motivation in the present study showed that low achievers had lower means for Hard-work, Priority, Attraction, Liking and Self-efficacy. In other words, since low achievers in this research tended to have lower means for Linguistic interest and Academic progress (a vision of further study), this could possibly cause low achievers to make less effort and be unable to feel that learning English is important and relevant, to enjoy learning it or to believe that they can learn it well. As a consequence, after the difference between high and low achievers has been identified, it is a good topic for future research to investigate how to help learners to raise the levels of facilitating motivational factors in order to increase their motivation and subsequently lead to better achievements. Implications for the application of motivational factors will be discussed in Section 6.4.3.

6.4 Contributions, limitations and implications

6.4.1 Contributions

This study paid close attention to the issues with which Taiwanese undergraduate students are potentially confronted when they learn English. Therefore, the relationships between English learning motivation and achievement, identity, English anxiety and English learning experience were investigated in the present study. In particular, the current research is original in the Taiwanese university context that it aimed to examine the influence of the issues related to identity and globalisation on English learning motivation and other motivational factors.

In addition, the study conducted the investigation from a socio-dynamic perspective. Thus, it focused on the complexity of motivation and “its dynamic

interaction with a multiplicity of internal, social and contextual factors in our modern and increasingly globalised world” (Dörnyei, 2014, p. 529). Fewer empirical studies have explored the interrelationship of motivational factors and how their dynamic interactions subsequently affect the level of English learning motivation. Additionally, fewer empirical studies have applied a mixed methods approach and multiple data analysis methods. Most of them have applied a quantitative approach (e.g. questionnaire survey) and basic analysis (e.g. descriptive statistics analysis). The present investigation, has not only provided insights into the complexity and dynamic nature of motivation, but it has also collected both quantitative and qualitative data via four kinds of instruments at different time points and analysed the data using various methods (e.g. correlation analysis, multiple regression analysis, interview analysis and classroom observation analysis). Because of the utilisation of a mixed methods approach, some new codes also emerged from the qualitative data. This not only provided rich elements for discussion, but also indicated that these new variables can be further investigated through quantitative analysis in the future research. It also implied that there could be more variables awaiting to be explored via different methods.

As a result, this study contributes empirical evidence which fills a research gap. It also provides detailed information for future research in related fields. Further implications arise from it as well, such as the need to establish teaching pedagogy, curricula and policies which benefit both learners’ English learning motivation and English educational development in Taiwan. (See more discussion for implications in Section 6.4.3).

6.4.2 Limitations

The current study has two main limitations due to the application of convenience sampling.

First, there were a limited number of participants for the quantitative analysis. Especially in the multiple regression analysis, the amount of shrinkage of a model, which aims to be as small as possible, is influenced by the sample size and the number of predictor variables: the larger the sample size and the fewer predictor variables, the less the shrinkage. If there could be more students participating in this research, the generalisability could be enhanced. However, the 88 participants in this thesis exceeds the minimum requirement of 70 people for the seven predictor variables in the multiple regression analysis (Field, 2013). Therefore, the sample size would be better if it were larger but it is acceptable as it is.

Second, there were fewer males (31.8%) than females (68.2%) among the 88 participants who took part in the main questionnaire survey. There were also fewer males (23.1%) than females (76.9%) among the 13 participants who were involved in the short weekly questionnaire survey, interview and classroom observation. Thus, this might influence the results.

6.4.3 Implications

6.4.3.1 Implications for future research

Based on the limitations of the present study, firstly, the researcher hopes to have a larger number of participants and more balanced proportion of males and females in future work.

Secondly, if more time and more diverse participants are available, researchers can conduct a longer longitudinal study and cross-sectional research in order to gain richer data to compare between the data collected at different time points and between

different groups, such as those based on gender, level of achievement, age, educational background, social background, overseas travelling or living experience, intercultural encounters, etc.

Thirdly, most researchers have applied a quantitative approach. Nonetheless, qualitative investigation and mixed research designs are also encouraged since researchers can gain new ideas and deeper thoughts from participants' personal stories. If a smaller scale qualitative investigation or questionnaire survey consisting of a few open-ended questions was conducted before the main study, this would even help researchers to discover unexplored areas, construct better research instruments and collect plenty of data for analysis.

Fourthly, if a quantitative approach is applied, more advanced level analysis, such as multiple regression analysis or linear mixed effects, might be fruitfully carried out, with a suitable sample size..

Lastly, when researchers report their findings, it is important that they clarify in detail how they group and analyse their variables. This would benefit not only readers to avoid misunderstanding, but also researchers for further study.

6.4.3.2 Implications for theories of motivation

Based on the results and discussion of the present study, motivational factors are dynamic and mutually influenced which subsequently affects the level of English learning motivation and possibly leads to different achievements. Future research can, therefore, aim to analyse how to increase and sustain learners' English learning motivation through different motivational factors and how to avoid producing a vicious circle because some factors would backfire on both other motivational factors and English learning motivation.

Furthermore, English learning motivation is complex and contextual. English

learning is not only related to the learners themselves, but also concerns the influence of others, the educational system and socio-cultural context in Taiwan and even the whole world. Thus, in order to solve the problems of lower motivation and the unsatisfactory aspects of English courses and the learning environment, the whole educational system and learning phenomenon in Taiwan need to be improved. The following sections will discuss implications for improvement from two aspects, including (1) classroom practice and (2) policy and curriculum design.

6.4.3.3 Implications for classroom practice

Crookes and Schmidt (1991) suggested that teachers need to draw students' attention and curiosity before the lesson starts and teaching materials have to meet students' needs, values and goals. Meanwhile, using various activities and cooperative learning methods were recommended in order to increase learning motivation and build up learners' self-efficacy and confidence. The interviewees in the present study also considered that whether the content, relevance and interest level of lessons met their needs had an impact on their English learning motivation. Pair-work and group-work were viewed positively in that respect.

Dörnyei and his associates (Dörnyei, 2018; Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011) also suggested that teachers could help students to raise their learning motivation through the following steps:

- (1) "Creating the basic motivational conditions" (p. 107), such as applying appropriate teacher behaviours, providing a supportive atmosphere and arranging a cohesive learner group.
- (2) "Generating student motivation" (p. 107), such as making teaching materials relevant and interesting, reducing language anxiety and enhancing learners' L2 values and attitudes, expectancy of success,

goal-orientedness and realistic visions and beliefs.

- (3) “Maintaining and protecting motivation” (p. 107), such as utilising motivating teaching methods, strengthening learner goals and visions and transforming them into action, protecting learners’ self-esteem and promoting self-motivating strategies and cooperative learning.
- (4) “Encouraging positive self-evaluation” (p. 107), such as promoting attributions to effort, providing motivational feedback and rewards and increasing learners’ satisfaction.

These aspects above were also valued by the interviewees in the current thesis. The students were in need of supportive and motivating teaching and training and gaining a sense of achievement while learning English. They looked forward to not only appropriate challenge and self improvement but also expectations for a better English course and learning environment.

6.4.3.4 Implications for policy and curriculum design

In addition to classroom practice, in order to raise students’ English learning motivation and provide a better learning context, the changes should also be made by establishing a series of appropriate policies, making consistent and achievable curriculum objectives, hiring enough qualified teachers, improving and inventing good teaching methods and materials, promoting multiple reliable and valid proficiency assessments and providing sufficient teaching and learning resources (Chang, 2006). Meanwhile, teacher development should also be taken into account. The government needs to provide supportive teaching training and sustain “the flame of teacher vision” (Dörnyei, 2018, p. 5). This is essential since “transforming classroom into engaging environments for language learning demands more than a repertoire of innovative principles and techniques – it requires teachers who will be

motivated to put the knowledge into practice” (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014, p. 71).

Moreover, the current study hopes to draw more attention to the importance of the issues of identity in English education. After all, in such an EFL context as there is in Taiwan, foreign language learning reminds us of the fact that “issues of identity are massively present” (Riley, 2006, p. 296) and that English is “likely to be perceived by learners as more or less ‘foreign’” (Lamb & Budiyanto, 2013, p. 23). In particular, (1) Taiwanese people tend to have a negative level of integrativeness and a strong sense of Taiwanese identity; (2) many learners are motivated to learn English because of external pressure and internal anxiety and (3) the world is changing: Chinese is becoming increasingly popular, which is both advantageous and disadvantageous because, on the one hand, more foreigners will come to Taiwan to learn Chinese so there can be more intercultural encounters, but on the other hand, foreigners understand Chinese so there is no need for people to communicate in English.

Under the circumstances, it is very important to know how to help students to learn to be open-minded, respect diversity and expand their identity into both a Taiwanese and global identity via English and cultural learning. In order to both improve people’s English ability and raise Taiwan’s international competitiveness, it is advisable to raise learners’ “awareness of the developments of English as a global language in the world today [...] and of the possibility to approach English as an additional language resource to be part of the globalisation processes” (Zheng, 2014, p. 38). In other words, when the awareness has been cultivated, English learning can then become more important and relevant to Taiwanese people because they are more connected with the world. At the same time, English becomes less foreign and more than a language that is only used in the English class and learned as a required subject. Consequently, the theme of identity requires more research and to be taken into consideration in English education.

6.5 Overall conclusion

The present study investigated the strength of Taiwanese university students' English learning motivation and how their motivational factors influence the level of motivation in the certain context. The complexity and dynamicity of motivation and motivational factors were examined via a mixed methods approach and various analyses. Meanwhile, the thesis not only collected data at different time points but also compared the data between different achievement groups.

According to the results:

- (1) Both English learning motivation and motivational factors were complex, contextual and dynamic. The motivational factors were mutually affected and their interactions subsequently impacted the level of motivation.
- (2) The participants were generally moderately motivated to learn English. However, the strength of their motivation was decreasing and they might not greatly look forward to taking their English course, not regard themselves as working harder than their classmates and not consider that the English course was interesting enough to motivate them to learn. This reveals that the students' motivation needs to be increased via different motivational factors and that the English course requires to be improved.
- (3) When the students had a positive English learning experience and higher levels of Cultural diversity, Interest, Travel orientation and the Ideal L2 self, they tended to have stronger English learning motivation. Nevertheless, when the learners possessed higher levels of Ethnocentrism, Fear of assimilation, English anxiety and the Ought-to L2 self, these factors could

have both facilitating and debilitating effects on their English learning motivation.

- (4) Low achievers tended to have a lower level of English learning motivation. In particular, they had lower means for Hard-work, Priority, Attraction, Liking and self-efficacy. Hence, in order to achieve better learning outcomes, researchers, educators and policy makers may need to explore how to help learners, especially low achievers, to make English learning to be more fun, relevant and important for them and to make them think that they are able to learn it well.

The current research aimed to contribute to providing insights into the understanding of English learning motivation and motivational factors and to add empirical evidence to the related field. In addition, it hoped to draw more attention to the issues related to identity and the facilitating and debilitating effects of the motivational factors on English learning motivation. These concerns could benefit learners and help them to produce a virtuous circle of English learning.

Last but not least, as final motivational suggestions, it is important to not only make possible goals, but also try to make goals possible. This includes looking at how ambitious our vision is and then how powerful we can possibly be. We should not limit our potential or narrow our vision by the existing disadvantageous situations. It is better late than never to start making some changes and to not lose our faith and hope. Furthermore, we are English learners who not only have expectations for ourselves, but also could be others' inspiring and motivating role model or significant other. Thus, learners could always think this way for both the self and socio-educational development:

- The level of motivation is changeable.
- English learning is meaningful.

- My vision is possible.
- I am powerful.

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Appendix A: The main questionnaire

English Learner Questionnaire

Part I

In this part, we would like you to give your opinions by simply circling a number from 1 to 6. Please do not leave out any items.

not at all	not so much	so-so	a little	quite a lot	very much
1	2	3	4	5	6

(Example) If you like "curry" very much and "green pepper" not very much, write this:

Do you like curry?	1	2	3	4	5	6
How much do you like green pepper?	1	2	3	4	5	6

1	Do you like the atmosphere of your English classes?	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	How tense do you get if you have a conversation in English with a native speaker of English?	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	How uneasy do you feel if you speak English with a native speaker of English?	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Do you like the music of the UK or the USA (e.g., pop music)?	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Do you like the people who live in the UK or the USA?	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Do you find learning English really interesting?	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	How tense do you get if you have a conversation in English with a foreigner who is a non-English native speaker?	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	How important do you think learning English is in order to learn more about the culture and art of its speakers?	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Do you like British or American films?	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Do you like meeting people from the UK or the USA?	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Do you always look forward to the English course (the current module)?	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	How nervous do you get when you are speaking in your English class?	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	How much do you like English?	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	Do you like British or American TV programmes?	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	Do you like to travel to the UK or the USA?	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	Do you really enjoy learning English?	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	How afraid are you of sounding stupid in English because of the mistakes you make?	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	Would you like to know more about British or American people?	1	2	3	4	5	6

Part II

These are new questions but please answer them the same way as you did before. Please do not leave out any items.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

(Example) If you strongly agree with the following statement, write this:
I like skiing very much.

1 2 3 4 5 **6**

	1	2	3	4	5	6
19 Learning English is important to me because I would like to travel internationally.						
20 My parents/family believe that I must study English to be an educated person.						
21 I think that I am doing my best to learn English.						
22 Studying English can be important to me because I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job.						
23 I study English because close friends of mine think it is important.						
24 I can imagine myself living abroad and having a discussion in English.						
25 I have to study English because I don't want to get bad marks in it.						
26 I think that there is a danger that Taiwanese people may forget the importance of Taiwanese culture, as a result of internationalisation.						
27 I would be happy if other cultures were more similar to Taiwanese.						
28 Studying English is important to me because English proficiency is necessary for promotion in the future.						
29 Studying English is important to me in order to bring honours to my family.						
30 I consider learning English important because the people I respect think that I should do it.						
31 I would like to spend lots of time studying English.						
32 I think that I am a person who can learn English well.						
33 Most other cultures are less advanced compared to my Taiwanese culture.						
34 Studying English is important to me because I think I'll need it for further studies.						
35 I hope that my level of English proficiency can be as high as native speakers of English.						
36 Studying English is important to me because, if I don't have knowledge of English, I'll be considered a weak learner.						
37 Learning English is necessary because people surrounding me expect me to do so.						
38 Studying English is important to me because without English I won't be able to travel a lot.						
39 I must study English to avoid being punished by my parents/relatives.						
40 Studying English is important because with a high level of English proficiency I will be able to make a lot of money.						
41 I am prepared to expend a lot of effort in learning English.						
42 Other cultures should learn more from my culture.						

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6
43	Studying English is necessary for me because I don't want to get a poor score or a fail mark in English proficiency tests.				6
44	Because of the influence of the UK and the USA, I think the morals of Taiwanese people are becoming worse.				6
45	Studying English is important to me in order to gain the approval of my peers/teachers/family/boss.				6
46	The things (job) I want to do in the future require me to use English.				6
47	I am confident in communicating with others in English.				6
48	Being successful in English is important to me so that I can please my parents/relatives.				6
49	I would like to concentrate on studying English more than any other topic.				6
50	I find it difficult to work together with people who have different customs and values.				6
51	I have to learn English because I don't want to fail the English course.				6
52	I think the cultural and artistic values of English are coming in at the expense of Taiwanese values.				6
53	Studying English is a good and important challenge in my life.				6
54	It will have a negative impact on my life if I don't learn English.				6
55	Compared to my classmates, I think I study English relatively hard.				6
56	I can imagine myself speaking English with international friends or colleagues.				6
57	It would be a better world if everybody lived like the Taiwanese.				6
58	My family put a lot of pressure on me to study English.				6
59	Studying English is important to me in order to achieve an academic goal (e.g., to get a degree or scholarship).				6
60	Studying English is important to me because an educated person is supposed to be able to speak English.				6
61	Studying English is important to me, because I would feel ashamed if I got bad grades in English.				6
62	I think that, as internationalisation advances, there is a danger of losing the Taiwanese identity.				6
63	If an English course was offered in the future, I would like to take it.				6
64	Whenever I think of my future career, I imagine myself using English.				6
65	I want to become similar to British or American people socially and culturally.				6
66	Studying English is important to me in order to attain higher social respect.				6
67	The English course (the current module) is interesting and motivating me to learn.				6

Part III

Please provide the following information by ticking (✓) in the box or writing your response in the space so that we can interpret your previous answers better.

- Male Female
- Your major and class: _____
- Your age (in years): _____
- Your score in the English exam given in the first round of the College Entrance Exam: _____
- Have you ever had or do you have now a native English-speaking teacher?
 Yes No
- Have you spent a period in English-speaking countries (e.g., travelling, studying)?
 Yes, I've spent _____ (for how long) in English-speaking countries for
_____ (purpose)
 No
- Have you learn any other language besides English?
 Yes, such as _____ (language(s) you've learned);
among these language, including English, which do you like the most? I like _____ the
most because _____
 No.
- Do you think that your proficiency in English is the best among all foreign languages you've learned?
 Yes.
 No.
 I didn't learn any other foreign languages except English.
- In addition to statements and questions in the previous parts, do you think there are any other reasons that motivate you to learn English? (If the answer is no, please put "No" below.)

- Please rate your current overall proficiency in English by ticking one.
 - Upper Intermediate level and over** — Able to converse about general matters of daily life and topics of one's specialty and grasp the gist of lectures and broadcasts. Able to read high-level materials such as newspapers and write about personal ideas.
 - Intermediate level** — Able to converse about general matters of daily life. Able to read general materials related to daily life and write simple passages.
 - Lower Intermediate level** — Able to converse about familiar daily topics. Able to read materials about familiar everyday topics and write simple letters.
 - Post-Beginner level** — Able to hold a simple conversation such as greeting and introducing someone. Able to read simple materials and write a simple passage in elementary English.
 - Beginner level** — Able to give simple greetings using set words and phrases. Able to read simple sentences, grasp the gist of short passages, and to write a simple sentence in basic English.

Thank you very much for your cooperation!

Appendix B: The interview questions

Guiding Questions:

1. Why and when did you choose to learn English? Have you learned any other languages?
2. Did you like English at that time and how about now?
3. Before entering the university, did you feel you are motivated to learn English? (E.g. Why do you think so? Have you enjoyed learning? How were your past experiences?)
4. Do you think you are good at English and why?
5. Did you do anything (i.e. time, effort, confidence, language exchange, cram school, TV, living in foreign countries...) to develop your English skills and motivation? Did you enjoy doing so? What have been the effects?
6. Any particular family background features? (e.g. Have members of your family also learnt English or Any of them are from other countries? Have you spoken English to your family members and how often? Have your family members encouraged you to learn English?)
7. Examine classroom motivated behaviours with the participants. Asking questions like why you change your facial expressions significantly, why you have certain verbal and non-verbal behaviours, and why do you have certain extent of involvement and motivation of your learning during the whole class.
8. How much do you understand what you have learned during the class? Any happy / unpleasant feedback or difficulties to share?
9. How hard have you tried to learn English during this class? Did you do anything (i.e. time, effort, confidence, focus...) to develop your English skills and

motivation during this class or give up? Did you enjoy doing so? What have been the effects?

10. Did you enjoy the class today? Can you comment on to what extent and in which way your new teacher, new classmates, new syllabus, new environments, and your new ID, and so on influence you in English learning?

11. Are you looking forward to the following English classes and to using English outside of class? Any goals, plans, or changes? Do you think you will use English a lot in your future life / career and why? Do you think you will continue to learn English after this last year of studying English as a required subject and why?

Appendix C: The short weekly questionnaire

Please give your opinions by simply circling a number from 1 to 6. Please do not leave out any items.

not at all	not so much	so-so	a little	quite a lot	very much
1	2	3	4	5	6

(Example) If you like “tea” very much and “coffee” not very much, write this:

Do you like tea?	1	2	3	4	5	6
How much do you like coffee?	1	2	3	4	5	6

1 How hard have you tried to learn English during this class?	1	2	3	4	5	6
2 How much do you understand what you have learned during this class?	1	2	3	4	5	6
3 How much did you enjoy the class?	1	2	3	4	5	6
4 How much do you enjoy learning English now?	1	2	3	4	5	6
5 How much do you think you are going to learn English by yourself after the class?	1	2	3	4	5	6

You are free to leave any comments here:

Name: _____ Date: _____

Thank you very much for your cooperation!

Appendix D: The observation sheet

Observation date: _____

Name of the observation target: _____

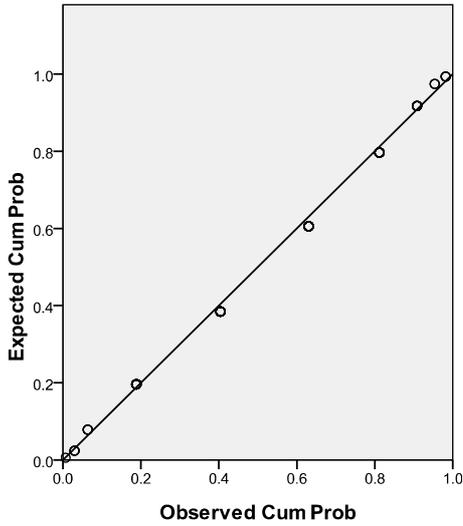
Activity	
Motivated behaviours of concentration	____:____ _____ ____:____ _____ ____:____ _____
Behaviours of lack of concentration	____:____ _____ ____:____ _____ ____:____ _____
Motivated behaviours of participation	____:____ _____ ____:____ _____ ____:____ _____
Behaviours of lack of participation	____:____ _____ ____:____ _____ ____:____ _____
Comments or notes	

Appendix E: The results of the P-P plot test

1. English learning intensity

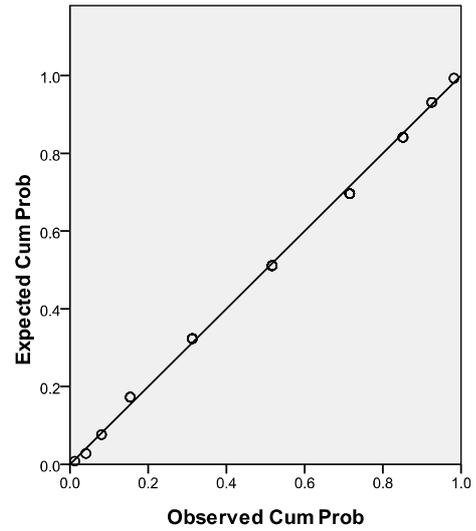
[Time 1]

Normal P-P Plot of intensity_1_mean



[Time 2]

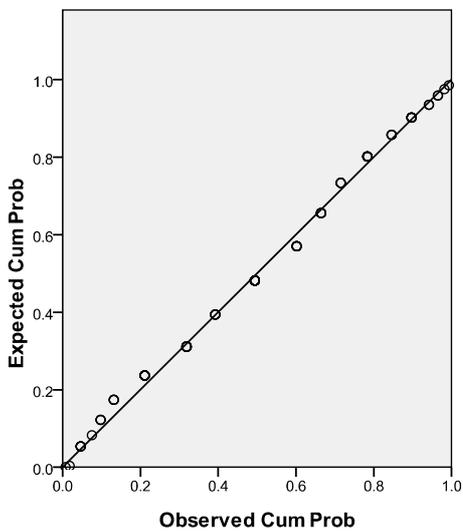
Normal P-P Plot of intensity_2_mean



2. Desire to learn English

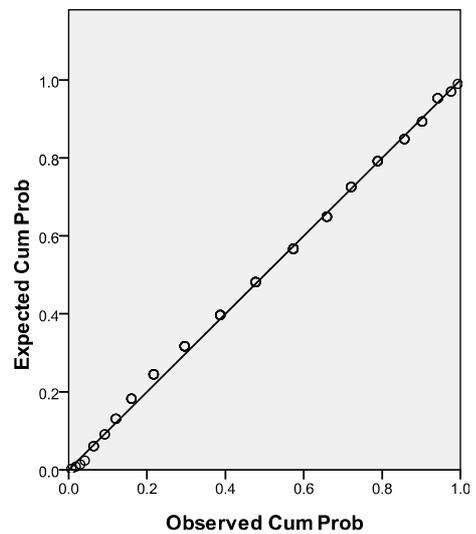
[Time 1]

Normal P-P Plot of desire_1_mean



[Time 2]

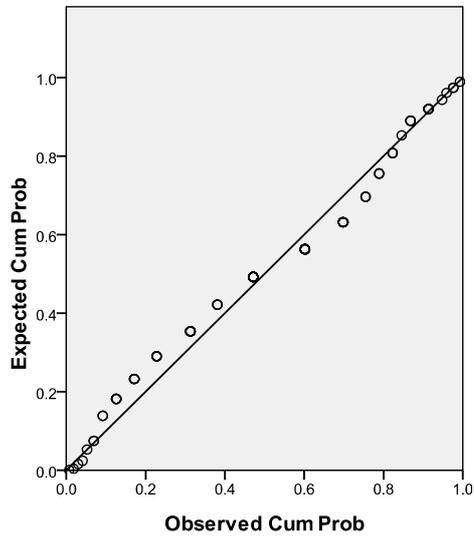
Normal P-P Plot of desire_2_mean



3. Attitudes towards learning English

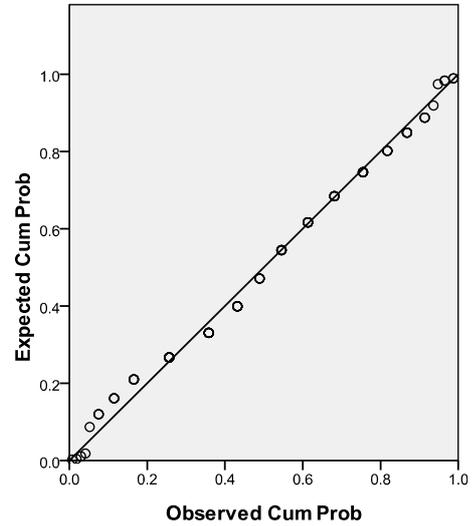
[Time 1]

Normal P-P Plot of attitudes_1_mean



[Time 2]

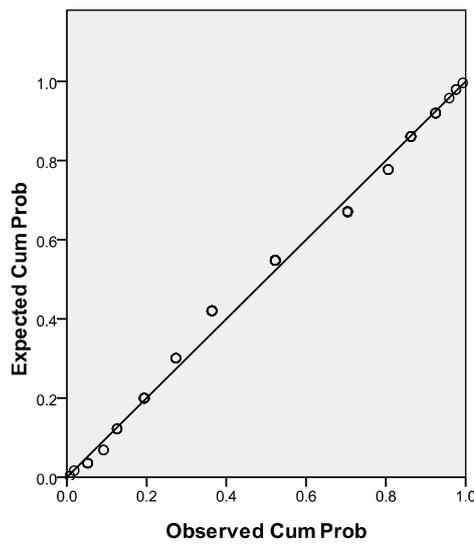
Normal P-P Plot of attitudes_2_mean



4. Ethnocentrism

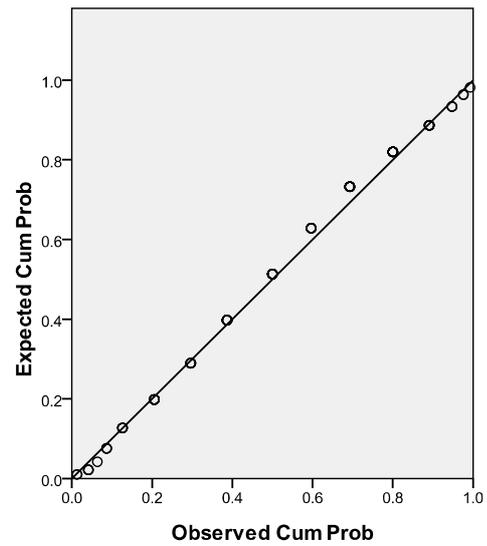
[Time 1]

Normal P-P Plot of Ethnocentrism



[Time 2]

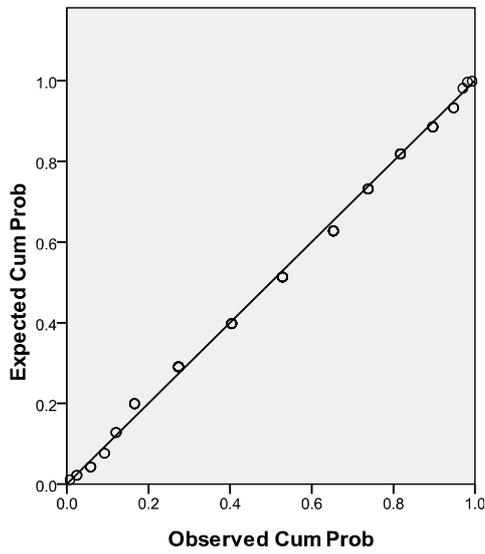
Normal P-P Plot of Ethnocentrism_2



5. Fear of assimilation

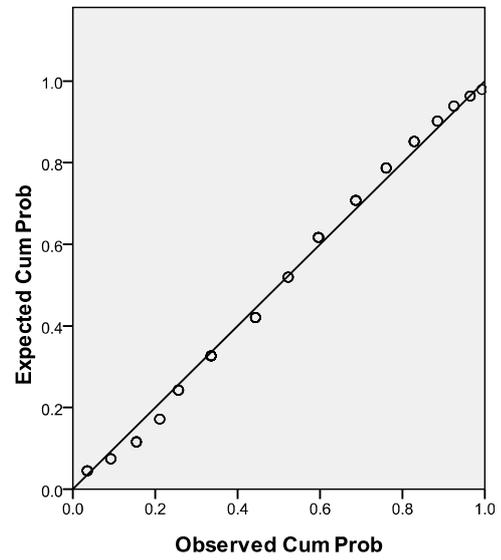
[Time 1]

Normal P-P Plot of Fear_of_assimilation



[Time 2]

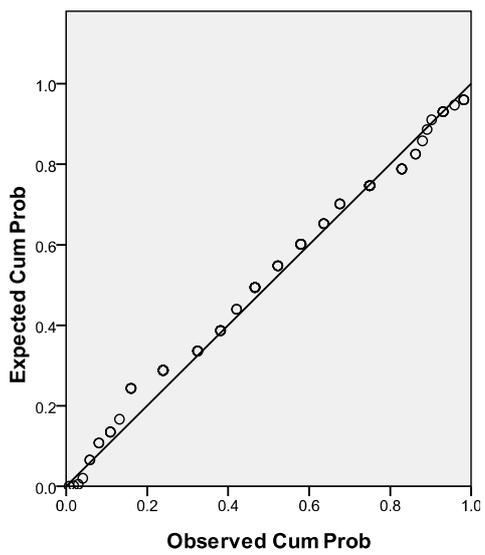
Normal P-P Plot of Fear_of_assimilation_2



6. Interest

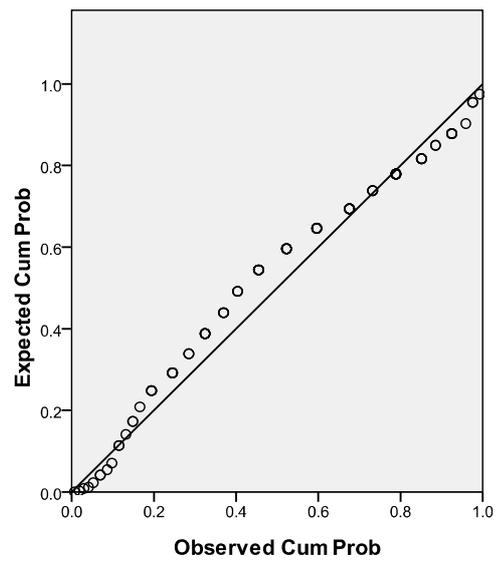
[Time 1]

Normal P-P Plot of Interest



[Time 2]

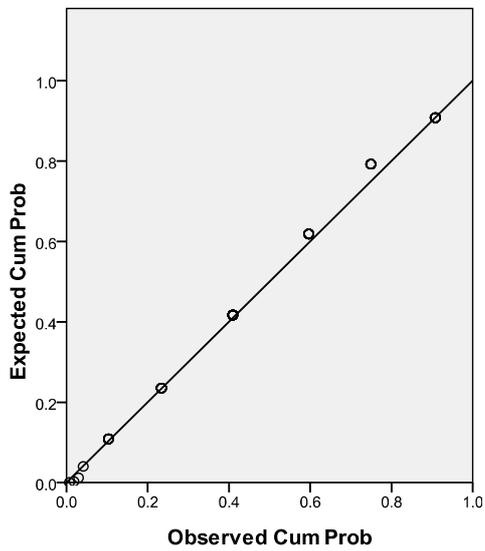
Normal P-P Plot of Interest_2



7. Travel orientation

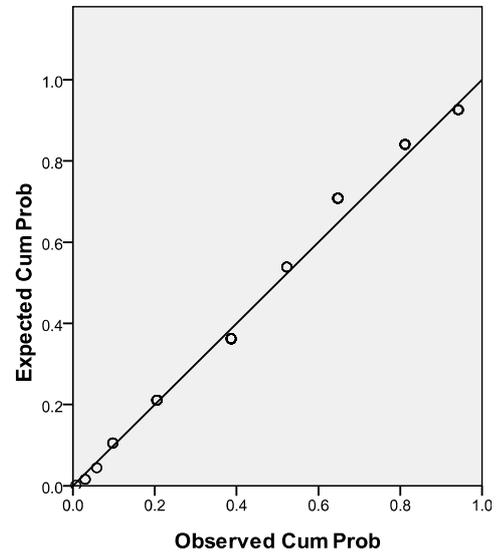
[Time 1]

Normal P-P Plot of Travel_orientation



[Time 2]

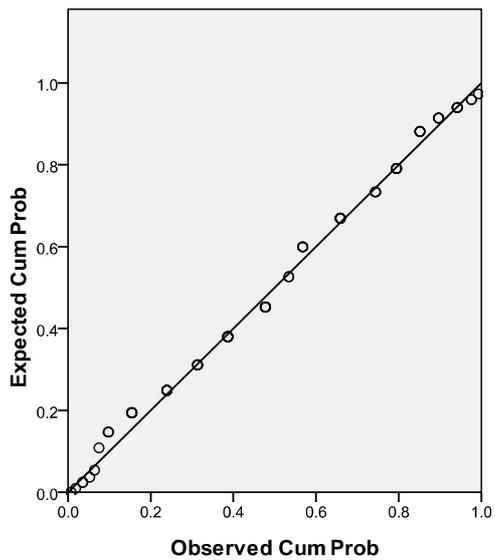
Normal P-P Plot of Travel_orientation_2



8. English anxiety

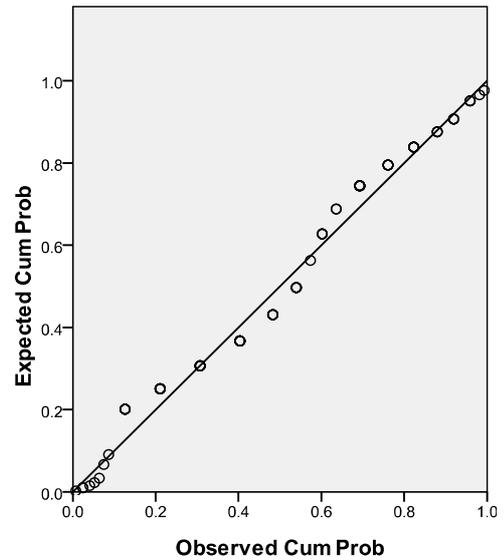
[Time 1]

Normal P-P Plot of Anxiety



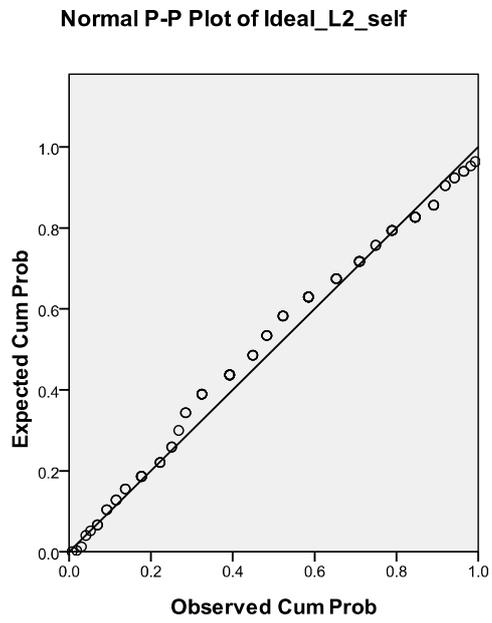
[Time 2]

Normal P-P Plot of Anxiety_2

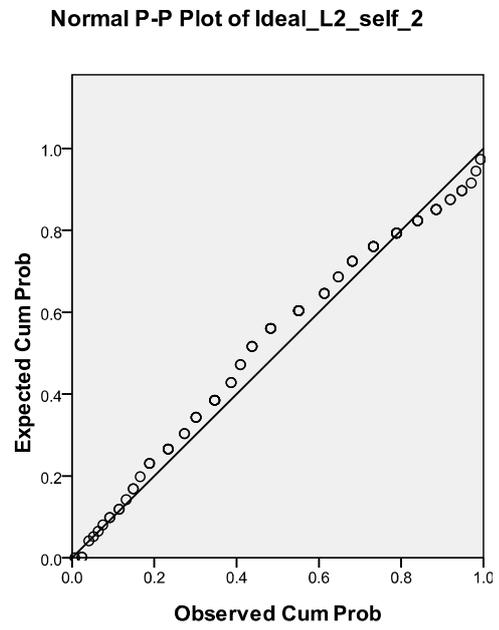


9. The Ideal L2 self

[Time 1]

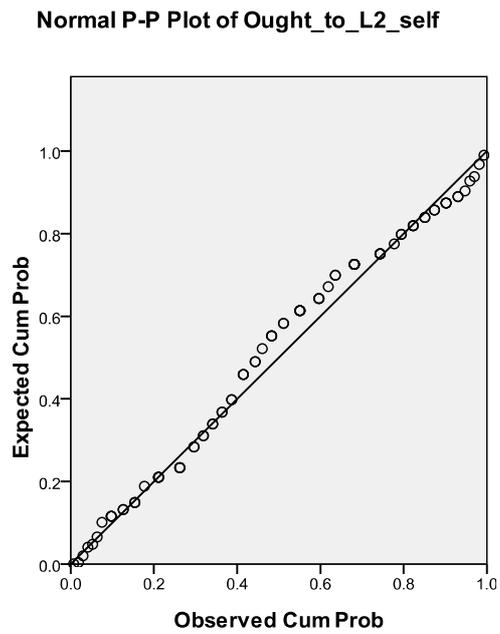


[Time 2]

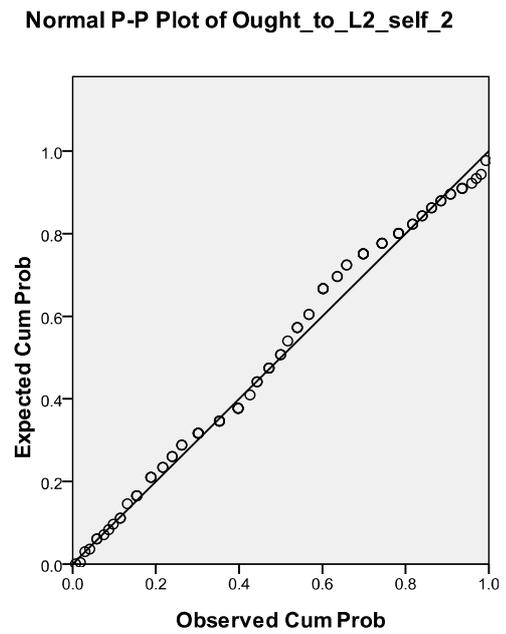


10. The Ought-to L2 self

[Time 1]



[Time 2]



Appendix F: Director ethical documents

(Pilot study A)

Director information sheet

Research Project: A pilot study of language learning motivation: A study of the dynamic nature from socio-dynamic perspectives

Email Contacts: Miss Chu, Fang-I: f.chu@pgr.reading.ac.uk
Professor Suzanne Graham: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk

We would like to invite your School to take part in a research study about language learning motivation.

What is the study?

The study is being conducted at the University of Reading as part of Fang-I's PhD thesis. Its aim is to investigate how university students' language learning motivation has been formed and whether and how it changes over time and differs between high and low achievers. It hopes to make recommendations regarding how language learners' motivation can be best recognised, maintained and increased.

Why have my students been chosen to take part?

I previously contacted Teacher A informally to discuss the possibility of me conducting a pilot research in your institution. Your students have been selected because your institution has a range of foreign language learners and I am interested in seeing how motivation develops in different types of learners in the foreign language learning context.

Do my students have to take part?

It is entirely up to you whether your students participate. You and the students may also withdraw consent to participation at any time during the project, without any repercussions to you or your students, by contacting Chu, Fang-I on: Tel: 07832806344. Email: f.chu@pgr.reading.ac.uk

What will happen if my students take part?

Your students will be observed in class and interviewed respectively after the classroom observation. With their permission as well as yours, the interviews will be recorded and

transcribed. During the classroom observation, I will film and focus on the target students only so the teacher and the rest of the students will not be filmed or observed. I will, however, also gain the consent of those not being observed for my presence in the classroom.

What are the risks and benefits of taking part?

The information the students give will remain confidential and will only be seen by me and by my supervisor. Neither you, the teacher, the students or the School will be identifiable in any published report resulting from the study. Information about individuals will not be shared with the School.

Participants in similar studies have found it interesting to take part. We anticipate that the findings of the study will be useful for students' language learning and for teachers in planning how they teach the language. An electronic summary of the findings of the study can be made available to you by contacting the researcher.

What will happen to the data?

Any data collected will be held in strict confidence and no real names will be used in this study or in any subsequent publications. The records of this study will be kept private. No identifiers linking you, the teacher, the students or the School to the study will be included in any sort of report that might be published. Research records will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet and on a password-protected computer and only the research team will have access to the records. The data will be destroyed securely once the findings of the study are written up, after five years. The results of the study may be presented at national and international conferences, and in written reports and articles.

What happens if I change my mind?

You can change your mind at any time without any repercussions. During the research, you can stop completing the activities at any time. If you change your mind after data collection has ended, we will discard the School's data.

Who has reviewed the study?

This project has been reviewed following the procedures of the University Research Ethics Committee and has been given a favourable ethical opinion for conduct. The University has the appropriate insurances in place. Full details are available on request.

What happens if something goes wrong?

In the unlikely case of concern or complaint, you can contact Professor Suzanne Graham at University of Reading by phone on 01183782648 or by email on s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk

Where can I get more information?

If you would like more information, please contact Chu, Fang-I by phone on 07832806344 or by email on f.chu@pgr.reading.ac.uk

What do I do next?

We do hope that you will agree to your participation in the study. If you are happy to take part, please complete the attached consent form and return it as a scanned file to me by email, or contact me directly for collection.

Thank you for your time.

Yours sincerely,

Miss Chu, Fang-I

Research Project:

A pilot study of language learning motivation: A study of the dynamic nature from socio-dynamic perspectives

Director Consent Form

I have read the Information Sheet about the project and received a copy of it.

I understand what the purpose of the project is and what is required of me. All my questions have been answered.

Name of Director: _____

Name of Institution / Course: _____

Please tick as appropriate:

I consent to the involvement of my institution in the project as outlined in the Information Sheet.

I consent to the filming of the lesson as outlined.

I consent to the recording of interviews as outlined.

Signed: _____

Date: _____

Appendix G: Director ethical documents

(Pilot study B)

Director information sheet

Research Project: A pilot study of language learning motivation: A study of the dynamic nature from socio-dynamic perspectives

Email Contacts: Miss Chu, Fang-I: f.chu@pgr.reading.ac.uk
Professor Suzanne Graham: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk

We would like to invite your School to take part in a research study about language learning motivation.

What is the study?

The study is being conducted at the University of Reading as part of Fang-I's PhD thesis. Its aim is to investigate how university students' language learning motivation has been formed and whether and how it changes over time and differs between high and low achievers. It hopes to make recommendations regarding how language learners' motivation can be best recognised, maintained and increased.

Why have my students been chosen to take part?

I previously contacted Teacher B informally to discuss the possibility of me conducting a pilot research in your institution. Your students have been selected because your institution has a range of foreign language learners and I am interested in seeing how motivation develops in different types of learners in the foreign language learning context.

Do my students have to take part?

It is entirely up to you whether your students participate. You and the students may also withdraw consent to participation at any time during the project, without any repercussions to you or your students, by contacting Chu, Fang-I on: Tel: 07832806344. Email: f.chu@pgr.reading.ac.uk

What will happen if my students take part?

Your students will be asked to complete a questionnaire. The questionnaire will be about English learning motivation and students' perceptions of learning experiences. This should

take about 10 to 15 minutes to complete. In addition, these students will also be asked to fill in a similar but very simple and short questionnaire. It will take about one minute to complete.

What are the risks and benefits of taking part?

The information the students give will remain confidential and will only be seen by me and by my supervisor. Neither you, the teacher, the students or the School will be identifiable in any published report resulting from the study. Information about individuals will not be shared with the School.

Participants in similar studies have found it interesting to take part. We anticipate that the findings of the study will be useful for students' language learning and for teachers in planning how they teach the language. An electronic summary of the findings of the study can be made available to you by contacting the researcher.

What will happen to the data?

Any data collected will be held in strict confidence and no real names will be used in this study or in any subsequent publications. The records of this study will be kept private. No identifiers linking you, the teacher, the students or the School to the study will be included in any sort of report that might be published. Research records will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet and on a password-protected computer and only the research team will have access to the records. The data will be destroyed securely once the findings of the study are written up, after five years. The results of the study may be presented at national and international conferences, and in written reports and articles.

What happens if I change my mind?

You can change your mind at any time without any repercussions. During the research, you can stop completing the activities at any time. If you change your mind after data collection has ended, we will discard the School's data.

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Where can I get more information?

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What do I do next?

We do hope that you will agree to your participation in the study. If you are happy to take part, please complete the attached consent form and return it as a scanned file to me by email, or contact me directly for collection.

Thank you for your time.

Yours sincerely,

Miss Chu, Fang-I

Research Project: A pilot study of language learning motivation: A study of the dynamic nature from socio-dynamic perspectives

Director Consent Form

I have read the Information Sheet about the project and received a copy of it.

I understand what the purpose of the project is and what is required of me. All my questions have been answered.

Name of Director: _____

Name of Institution / Course: _____

Please tick as appropriate:

I consent to the involvement of my institution in the project as outlined in the Information Sheet.

Signed: _____

Date: _____

Appendix H: Teacher ethical documents

(Pilot study A)

Teacher information sheet

Research Project: A pilot study of language learning motivation: A study of the dynamic nature from socio-dynamic perspectives

Email Contacts: Miss Chu, Fang-I: f.chu@pgr.reading.ac.uk
Professor Suzanne Graham: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk

We would like to invite your students to take part in a research study about language learning motivation.

What is the study?

The study is being conducted at the University of Reading as part of Fang-I's PhD thesis. Its aim is to investigate how university students' language learning motivation has been formed and whether and how it changes over time and differs between high and low achievers. It hopes to make recommendations regarding how language learners' motivation can be best recognised, maintained and increased.

Why have my students been chosen to take part?

I previously contacted you informally to discuss the possibility of me conducting a pilot research in your institution. Your students have been selected because your institution has a range of foreign language learners and I am interested in seeing how motivation develops in different types of learners in the foreign language learning context.

Do my students have to take part?

It is entirely up to you whether your students participate. You and the students may also withdraw consent to participation at any time during the project, without any repercussions to you or your students, by contacting Chu, Fang-I on: Tel: 07832806344. Email: f.chu@pgr.reading.ac.uk

What will happen if my students take part?

Your students will be observed in class and interviewed respectively after the classroom observation. With their permission as well as yours, the interviews will be recorded and

transcribed. During the classroom observation, I will film and focus on the target students only so the teacher and the rest of the students will not be filmed or observed. I will, however, also gain the consent of those not being observed for my presence in the classroom.

What are the risks and benefits of taking part?

The information the students give will remain confidential and will only be seen by me and by my supervisor. Neither you, the teacher, the students or the School will be identifiable in any published report resulting from the study. Information about individuals will not be shared with the School.

Participants in similar studies have found it interesting to take part. We anticipate that the findings of the study will be useful for students' language learning and for teachers in planning how they teach the language. An electronic summary of the findings of the study can be made available to you by contacting the researcher.

What will happen to the data?

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Thank you for your time.

Yours sincerely,

Miss Chu, Fang-I

Research Project: A pilot study of language learning motivation: A study of the dynamic nature from socio-dynamic perspectives

Teacher Consent Form

I have read the Information Sheet about the project and received a copy of it.

I understand what the purpose of the project is and what is required of me. All my questions have been answered.

Name of Teacher: _____

Name of Institution / Course: _____

Please tick as appropriate:

I consent to the involvement of my students in the project as outlined in the Information Sheet.

I agree to the classroom observation conducted in class.

I agree to filming during the classroom observation.

Signed: _____

Date: _____

Appendix I: Teacher ethical documents

(Pilot study B)

Teacher information sheet

Research Project: A pilot study of language learning motivation: A study of the dynamic nature from socio-dynamic perspectives

Email Contacts: Miss Chu, Fang-I: f.chu@pgr.reading.ac.uk
Professor Suzanne Graham: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk

We would like to invite your students to take part in a research study about language learning motivation.

What is the study?

The study is being conducted at the University of Reading as part of Fang-I's PhD thesis. Its aim is to investigate how university students' language learning motivation has been formed and whether and how it changes over time and differs between high and low achievers. It hopes to make recommendations regarding how language learners' motivation can be best recognised, maintained and increased.

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I previously contacted you informally to discuss the possibility of me conducting a pilot research in your institution. Your students have been selected because your institution has a range of foreign language learners and I am interested in seeing how motivation develops in different types of learners in the foreign language learning context.

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Participants in similar studies have found it interesting to take part. We anticipate that the findings of the study will be useful for students' language learning and for teachers in planning how they teach the language. An electronic summary of the findings of the study can be made available to you by contacting the researcher.

What will happen to the data?

Any data collected will be held in strict confidence and no real names will be used in this study or in any subsequent publications. The records of this study will be kept private. No identifiers linking you, the teacher, the students or the School to the study will be included in any sort of report that might be published. Research records will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet and on a password-protected computer and only the research team will have access to the records. The data will be destroyed securely once the findings of the study are written up, after five years. The results of the study may be presented at national and international conferences, and in written reports and articles.

What happens if I change my mind?

You can change your mind at any time without any repercussions. During the research, you can stop completing the activities at any time. If you change your mind after data collection has ended, we will discard the School's data.

Who has reviewed the study?

This project has been reviewed following the procedures of the University Research Ethics Committee and has been given a favourable ethical opinion for conduct. The University has the appropriate insurances in place. Full details are available on request.

What happens if something goes wrong?

In the unlikely case of concern or complaint, you can contact Professor Suzanne Graham at University of Reading by phone on 01183782648 or by email on s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk

Where can I get more information?

If you would like more information, please contact Chu, Fang-I by phone on 07832806344 or by email on f.chu@pgr.reading.ac.uk

What do I do next?

We do hope that you will agree to your participation in the study. If you are happy to take part, please complete the attached consent form and return it as a scanned file to me by email, or contact me directly for collection.

Thank you for your time.

Yours sincerely,

Miss Chu, Fang-I

Research Project:

A pilot study of language learning motivation: A study of the dynamic nature from socio-dynamic perspectives

Teacher Consent Form

I have read the Information Sheet about the project and received a copy of it.

I understand what the purpose of the project is and what is required of me. All my questions have been answered.

Name of Teacher: _____

Name of Institution / Course: _____

Please tick as appropriate:

I consent to the involvement of my students in the project as outlined in the Information Sheet.

Signed: _____

Date: _____

Appendix J: Student ethical documents

(Pilot study A)

Student information sheet

Research Project: A pilot study of language learning motivation: A study of the dynamic nature from socio-dynamic perspectives

Email Contacts: Miss Chu, Fang-I: f.chu@pgr.reading.ac.uk
Professor Suzanne Graham: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk

We would like to invite you to take part in a research study about language learning motivation.

What is the study?

The study is being conducted at the University of Reading as part of Fang-I's PhD thesis. Its aim is to investigate how university students' language learning motivation has been formed and whether and how it changes over time and differs between high and low achievers. It hopes to make recommendations regarding how language learners' motivation can be best recognised, maintained and increased.

Why have I been chosen to take part?

You have been invited to take part in the project because you are a foreign language learner who is exactly the target group of my research interests.

Do I have to take part?

It is entirely up to you whether you participate. You may also withdraw consent to participation at any time during the project, without any repercussions to you, by contacting Chu, Fang-I by email on f.chu@pgr.reading.ac.uk

What will happen if I take part?

You will be observed in class during a Chinese lesson and interviewed after the observation. The interview will last around an hour. During the classroom observation, you will be filmed and notes taken, and during the interview, all conversations will be audio-recorded, transcribed and notes taken, with your permission.

If you choose NOT to take part in the study, some of your classmates will be filmed and observed during one Chinese class as stated above but you will not be filmed or observed at all.

What are the risks and benefits of taking part?

The information you give will remain confidential and will only be seen by the research team listed at the start of this letter. You will not be identifiable in any published report resulting from the study. Information about individuals will not be shared with the school or teachers. Taking part will in no way influence the grades you receive on your course.

Participants in similar studies have found it interesting to take part. We anticipate that the findings of the study will be useful for students' language learning and for teachers in planning how they teach the language. An electronic summary of the findings of the study can be made available to you by contacting the researcher. If you agree to take part in the follow-up interview, I will be able to offer £15 to express my appreciation. Hopefully these small rewards will recompense you in some way for your time.

What will happen to the data?

Any data collected will be held in strict confidence and no real names will be used in this study or in any subsequent publications. The records of this study will be kept private. No identifiers linking you to the study will be included in any sort of report that might be published. Research records will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet and on a password-protected computer and only the research team will have access to the records. The data will be destroyed securely once the findings of the study are written up, after five years. The results of the study may be presented at national and international conferences, and in written reports and articles.

What happens if I change my mind?

You can change your mind at any time without any repercussions. During the research, you can stop completing the activities at any time. If you change your mind after data collection has ended, we will discard your data.

Who has reviewed the study?

This project has been reviewed following the procedures of the University Research Ethics Committee and has been given a favourable ethical opinion for conduct. The University has the appropriate insurances in place. Full details are available on request.

What happens if something goes wrong?

In the unlikely case of concern or complaint, you can contact Professor Suzanne Graham at

University of Reading by email on s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk

Where can I get more information?

If you would like more information, please contact Chu, Fang-I by email on f.chu@pgr.reading.ac.uk

What do I do next?

We do hope that you will agree to your participation in the study. If you are happy to take part, please complete the attached consent form and return it to me.

Thank you for your time.

Yours sincerely,

Miss Chu, Fang-I

Research Project: A pilot study of language learning motivation: A study of the dynamic nature from socio-dynamic perspectives

Student Consent Form

I have read the Information Sheet about the project and received a copy of it.

I understand what the purpose of the project is and what is required of me. All my questions have been answered.

I understand that it is my choice to help with this project and that I can stop at any time, without giving a reason and that it won't have any effect on my grades.

I have received a copy of this Consent Form and of the Information Sheet.

Please tick as appropriate:

I am willing to take part in the classroom observation.

Under the circumstances, I agree to the observation being filmed.

I am willing to take part in the interview.

Under the circumstances, I agree to the interview being audio-recorded.

▶ I agree to the use of anonymised quotes in subsequent publications.

▶ I agree to the classroom observation conducted in class.

Name: _____

Signed: _____

Date: _____

Appendix K: Student ethical documents

(Pilot study B)

Student information sheet

Research Project: A pilot study of language learning motivation: A study of the dynamic nature from socio-dynamic perspectives

Email Contacts: Miss Chu, Fang-I: f.chu@pgr.reading.ac.uk
Professor Suzanne Graham: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk

We would like to invite you to take part in a research study about language learning motivation.

What is the study?

The study is being conducted at the University of Reading as part of Fang-I's PhD thesis. Its aim is to investigate how university students' language learning motivation has been formed and whether and how it changes over time and differs between high and low achievers. It hopes to make recommendations regarding how language learners' motivation can be best recognised, maintained and increased.

Why have I been chosen to take part?

You have been invited to take part in the project because you are a foreign language learner who is exactly the target group of my research interests.

Do I have to take part?

It is entirely up to you whether you participate. You may also withdraw consent to participation at any time during the project, without any repercussions to you, by contacting Chu, Fang-I by email on f.chu@pgr.reading.ac.uk

What will happen if I take part?

You will be asked to complete a questionnaire. The questionnaire will be about English learning motivation and students' perceptions of learning experiences. This should take about 10 to 15 minutes to complete. In addition, you will also be asked to fill in a similar but very simple and short questionnaire. It will take about one minute to complete.

What are the risks and benefits of taking part?

The information you give will remain confidential and will only be seen by the research team listed at the start of this letter. You will not be identifiable in any published report resulting from the study. Information about individuals will not be shared with the school or teachers. Taking part will in no way influence the grades you receive on your course.

Participants in similar studies have found it interesting to take part. We anticipate that the findings of the study will be useful for students' language learning and for teachers in planning how they teach the language. An electronic summary of the findings of the study can be made available to you by contacting the researcher.

What will happen to the data?

Any data collected will be held in strict confidence and no real names will be used in this study or in any subsequent publications. The records of this study will be kept private. No identifiers linking you to the study will be included in any sort of report that might be published. Research records will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet and on a password-protected computer and only the research team will have access to the records. The data will be destroyed securely once the findings of the study are written up, after five years. The results of the study may be presented at national and international conferences, and in written reports and articles.

What happens if I change my mind?

You can change your mind at any time without any repercussions. During the research, you can stop completing the activities at any time. If you change your mind after data collection has ended, we will discard your data.

Who has reviewed the study?

This project has been reviewed following the procedures of the University Research Ethics Committee and has been given a favourable ethical opinion for conduct. The University has the appropriate insurances in place. Full details are available on request.

What happens if something goes wrong?

In the unlikely case of concern or complaint, you can contact Professor Suzanne Graham at University of Reading by email on s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk

Where can I get more information?

If you would like more information, please contact Chu, Fang-I by email on f.chu@pgr.reading.ac.uk

What do I do next?

We do hope that you will agree to your participation in the study. If you are happy to take part, please complete the attached consent form and return it to me.

Thank you for your time.

Yours sincerely,

Miss Chu, Fang-I

Research Project: A pilot study of language learning motivation: A study of the dynamic nature from socio-dynamic perspectives

Student Consent Form

I have read the Information Sheet about the project and received a copy of it.

I understand what the purpose of the project is and what is required of me. All my questions have been answered.

I understand that it is my choice to help with this project and that I can stop at any time, without giving a reason and that it won't have any effect on my grades.

I have received a copy of this Consent Form and of the Information Sheet.

Please tick as appropriate:

I am willing to take part in filling out the main questionnaire.

I am willing to take part in filling out the short questionnaire.

► I agree to the use of anonymised quotes in subsequent publications.

Name: _____

Signed: _____

Date: _____

Appendix L: Head of English Department ethical documents (Main study)

Head of English Department information sheet

Research Project: English learning motivation in a Taiwanese university context: A study of its dynamic nature from socio-dynamic perspectives

Email Contacts: Miss Chu, Fang-I: f.chu@pgr.reading.ac.uk
Professor Suzanne Graham: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk

We would like to invite your department to take part in a research study about language learning motivation.

What is the study?

The study is being conducted at the University of Reading as part of Fang-I's PhD thesis. Its aim is to investigate how university students' English learning motivation has been formed and whether and how it changes over time and differs between high and low achievers. It hopes to make recommendations regarding how language learners' motivation can be best recognised, maintained and increased.

Why have my students been chosen to take part?

I previously contacted you informally to discuss the possibility of me conducting research in your institution. Your students have been selected because your students have a range of English language proficiency and I am interested in seeing how motivation develops in different types of learners.

Do my students have to take part?

It is entirely up to you whether your students participate. You and the students may also withdraw consent to participation at any time during the project, without any repercussions to you or your students, by contacting Chu, Fang-I on: Tel: 07832806344. Email: f.chu@pgr.reading.ac.uk

What will happen if my students take part?

Three classes of your students will be asked to complete a questionnaire twice (one at the beginning of this term and the other at the end of the term). The questionnaire will be about

English learning motivation and students' perceptions of learning experiences. This should take about 10 to 15 minutes to complete each time. Furthermore, I would like to interview 10 to 14 of these students twice and observe them in class during two English lessons to gather further information. With their permission as well as yours, the interviews will be recorded and transcribed. During the classroom observation, I will film and focus on the target students only so the teacher and the rest of the students will not be filmed or observed. I will, however, also gain the consent of those not being observed for my presence in the classroom. Lastly, these target students will be asked to fill in a very simple and short weekly questionnaire after every English lesson ends. It will take about one minute to complete each time.

What are the risks and benefits of taking part?

The information the students give will remain confidential and will only be seen by me and by my supervisor. Neither you, the teacher, the students or the School will be identifiable in any published report resulting from the study. Information about individuals will not be shared with the School.

Participants in similar studies have found it interesting to take part. We anticipate that the findings of the study will be useful for students' language learning and for teachers in planning how they teach the language. An electronic summary of the findings of the study can be made available to you by contacting the researcher.

What will happen to the data?

Any data collected will be held in strict confidence and no real names will be used in this study or in any subsequent publications. The records of this study will be kept private. No identifiers linking you, the teacher, the students or the School to the study will be included in any sort of report that might be published. Research records will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet and on a password-protected computer and only the research team will have access to the records. The data will be destroyed securely once the findings of the study are written up, after five years. The results of the study may be presented at national and international conferences, and in written reports and articles.

What happens if I change my mind?

You can change your mind at any time without any repercussions. During the research, you can stop completing the activities at any time. If you change your mind after data collection has ended, we will discard the School's data.

Who has reviewed the study?

This project has been reviewed following the procedures of the University Research Ethics Committee and has been given a favourable ethical opinion for conduct. The University has the appropriate insurances in place. Full details are available on request.

What happens if something goes wrong?

In the unlikely case of concern or complaint, you can contact Professor Suzanne Graham at University of Reading by phone on 01183782648 or by email on s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk

Where can I get more information?

If you would like more information, please contact Chu, Fang-I by phone on 07832806344 or by email on f.chu@pgr.reading.ac.uk

What do I do next?

We do hope that you will agree to your participation in the study. If you are happy to take part, please complete the attached consent form and return it as a scanned file to me by email, or contact me directly for collection.

Thank you for your time.

Yours sincerely,

Miss Chu, Fang-I

Research Project: English learning motivation in a Taiwanese university context: A study of its dynamic nature from socio-dynamic perspectives

Head of English Department Consent Form

I have read the Information Sheet about the project and received a copy of it.

I understand what the purpose of the project is and what is required of me. All my questions have been answered.

Name of Head of English Department: _____

Name of University: _____

Please tick as appropriate:

I consent to the involvement of my institution in the project as outlined in the Information Sheet.

I consent to the filming of the lesson as outlined.

I consent to the recording of interviews as outlined.

Signed: _____

Date: _____

Appendix M: Teacher ethical documents

(Main study)

Teacher information sheet

Research Project: English learning motivation in a Taiwanese university context: A study of its dynamic nature from socio-dynamic perspectives

Email Contacts: Miss Chu, Fang-I: f.chu@pgr.reading.ac.uk
Professor Suzanne Graham: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk

We would like to invite your students to take part in a research study about language learning motivation.

What is the study?

The study is being conducted at the University of Reading as part of Fang-I's PhD thesis. Its aim is to investigate how university students' English learning motivation has been formed and whether and how it changes over time and differs between high and low achievers. It hopes to make recommendations regarding how language learners' motivation can be best recognised, maintained and increased.

Why have my students been chosen to take part?

I previously contacted you informally to discuss the possibility of me conducting research in your class. Your students have been selected because your students have a range of English language proficiency and I am interested in seeing how motivation develops in different types of learners.

Do my students have to take part?

It is entirely up to you whether your students participate. You and the students may also withdraw consent to participation at any time during the project, without any repercussions to you or your students, by contacting Chu, Fang-I on: Tel: 07832806344. Email: f.chu@pgr.reading.ac.uk

What will happen if my students take part?

Your students will be asked to complete a questionnaire twice (one at the beginning of this term and the other at the end of the term). The questionnaire will be about English learning

motivation and students' perceptions of learning experiences. This should take about 10 to 15 minutes to complete each time. Furthermore, I would like to interview three to five of these students twice and observe them in class during two English lessons to gather further information. With their permission as well as yours, the interviews will be recorded and transcribed. During the classroom observation, I will film and focus on the target students only so the teacher and the rest of the students will not be filmed or observed. I will, however, also gain the consent of those not being observed for my presence in the classroom. Lastly, these target students will be asked to fill in a very simple and short weekly questionnaire after every English lesson ends. It will take about one minute to complete each time.

What are the risks and benefits of taking part?

The information the students give will remain confidential and will only be seen by me and by my supervisor. Neither you, the teacher, the students or the School will be identifiable in any published report resulting from the study. Information about individuals will not be shared with the School.

Participants in similar studies have found it interesting to take part. We anticipate that the findings of the study will be useful for students' language learning and for teachers in planning how they teach the language. An electronic summary of the findings of the study can be made available to you by contacting the researcher.

What will happen to the data?

Any data collected will be held in strict confidence and no real names will be used in this study or in any subsequent publications. The records of this study will be kept private. No identifiers linking you, the teacher, the students or the School to the study will be included in any sort of report that might be published. Research records will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet and on a password-protected computer and only the research team will have access to the records. The data will be destroyed securely once the findings of the study are written up, after five years. The results of the study may be presented at national and international conferences, and in written reports and articles.

What happens if I change my mind?

You can change your mind at any time without any repercussions. During the research, you can stop completing the activities at any time. If you change your mind after data collection has ended, we will discard the School's data.

Who has reviewed the study?

This project has been reviewed following the procedures of the University Research Ethics Committee and has been given a favourable ethical opinion for conduct. The University has the appropriate insurances in place. Full details are available on request.

What happens if something goes wrong?

In the unlikely case of concern or complaint, you can contact Professor Suzanne Graham at University of Reading by phone on 01183782648 or by email on s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk

Where can I get more information?

If you would like more information, please contact Chu, Fang-I by phone on 07832806344 or by email on f.chu@pgr.reading.ac.uk

What do I do next?

We do hope that you will agree to your participation in the study. If you are happy to take part, please complete the attached consent form and return it as a scanned file to me by email, or contact me directly for collection.

Thank you for your time.

Yours sincerely,

Miss Chu, Fang-I

Research Project: English learning motivation in a Taiwanese university context: A study of its dynamic nature from socio-dynamic perspectives

Teacher Consent Form

I have read the Information Sheet about the project and received a copy of it.

I understand what the purpose of the project is and what is required of me. All my questions have been answered.

Name of Teacher: _____

Name of University: _____

Please tick as appropriate:

I consent to the involvement of my students in the project as outlined in the Information Sheet.

I agree to the classroom observation conducted in class.

I agree to filming during the classroom observation.

Signed: _____

Date: _____

Appendix N: Student ethical documents

(Main study)

Student information sheet

Research Project: English learning motivation in a Taiwanese university context: A study of its dynamic nature from socio-dynamic perspectives

Email Contacts: Miss Chu, Fang-I: f.chu@pgr.reading.ac.uk

Professor Suzanne Graham: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk

We would like to invite you to take part in a research study about language learning motivation.

What is the study?

The study is being conducted at the University of Reading as part of Fang-I's PhD thesis. Its aim is to investigate how university students' English learning motivation has been formed and whether and how it changes over time and differs between high and low achievers. It hopes to make recommendations regarding how language learners' motivation can be best recognised, maintained and increased.

Why have I been chosen to take part?

You have been invited to take part in the project because you are Taiwanese university English learners who are exactly the target group of my research interests.

Do I have to take part?

It is entirely up to you whether you participate. You may also withdraw consent to participation at any time during the project, without any repercussions to you, by contacting Chu, Fang-I by email on f.chu@pgr.reading.ac.uk

What will happen if I take part?

You can choose to take part in category A or B as follows.

(A) You will be asked to complete a questionnaire twice (one at the beginning of this term and the other at the end of the term). The questionnaire will be about English learning motivation and your feedback of learning experiences. This should take about 10 to 15 minutes to complete each time.

(B) In addition to category (A), you will also be asked to fill out a very simple and short weekly survey (around 1 minute to complete) after every English lesson ends. Moreover, you will also be asked to complete two follow-up interviews (around one hour per interview) after two questionnaire surveys. All the interviews will be audio-recorded, transcribed and notes taken, with your permission. Lastly, you will also be observed in class twice. During the classroom observation, you will be filmed and notes taken, with your permission.

If you choose to take part in category (A), some of your classmates will be filmed and observed during two English classes but you will not be filmed or observed at all.

What are the risks and benefits of taking part?

The information you give will remain confidential and will only be seen by the research team listed at the start of this letter. You will not be identifiable in any published report resulting from the study. Information about individuals will not be shared with the school or teachers. Taking part will in no way influence the grades you receive on your course.

Participants in similar studies have found it interesting to take part. We anticipate that the findings of the study will be useful for students' language learning and for teachers in planning how they teach the language. An electronic summary of the findings of the study can be made available to you by contacting the researcher. If you agree to take part as category (A), we will give you a small goody bag of sweets and tea bags after the return of the questionnaire as a small 'thank you'; for those who are willing to take part in the additional weekly surveys, interviews and observation as category (B), I will be able to offer £30 to express my appreciation. Hopefully these small rewards will recompense you in some way for your time.

What will happen to the data?

Any data collected will be held in strict confidence and no real names will be used in this study or in any subsequent publications. The records of this study will be kept private. No identifiers linking you to the study will be included in any sort of report that might be published. Research records will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet and on a password-protected computer and only the research team will have access to the records. The data will be destroyed securely once the findings of the study are written up, after five years. The results of the study may be presented at national and international conferences, and in written reports and articles.

What happens if I change my mind?

You can change your mind at any time without any repercussions. During the research, you can stop completing the activities at any time. If you change your mind after data collection has ended, we will discard your data.

Who has reviewed the study?

This project has been reviewed following the procedures of the University Research Ethics Committee and has been given a favourable ethical opinion for conduct. The University has the appropriate insurances in place. Full details are available on request.

What happens if something goes wrong?

In the unlikely case of concern or complaint, you can contact Professor Suzanne Graham at University of Reading by email on s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk

Where can I get more information?

If you would like more information, please contact Chu, Fang-I by email on f.chu@pgr.reading.ac.uk

What do I do next?

We do hope that you will agree to your participation in the study. If you are happy to take part, please complete the attached consent form and return it to me.

Thank you for your time.

Yours sincerely,

Miss Chu, Fang-I

Research Project: English learning motivation in a Taiwanese university context: A study of its dynamic nature from socio-dynamic perspectives

Student Consent Form

I have read the Information Sheet about the project and received a copy of it.

I understand what the purpose of the project is and what is required of me. All my questions have been answered.

I understand that it is my choice to help with this project and that I can stop at any time, without giving a reason and that it won't have any effect on my grades.

I have received a copy of this Consent Form and of the Information Sheet.

Please tick as appropriate:

I am willing to take part in **(A)** filling out the questionnaire twice

I am willing to take part in **(B)** filling out the questionnaire twice, completing the weekly survey, two follow-up interviews and two rounds of classroom observation.

Under the circumstances, I agree to the interview being audio-recorded.

Under the circumstances, I agree to the observation being filmed.

▶ I agree to the use of anonymised quotes in subsequent publications.

▶ I agree to the classroom observation conducted in class.

Name: _____

Signed: _____

Date: _____

Appendix O: Ethical approval form

University of Reading
Institute of Education
Ethical Approval Form A (version September 2013)



Tick one:

Staff project: ___ PhD

Name of applicant (s): Chu, Fang-I

Title of project: English learning motivation in a Taiwanese university context: A study of the dynamic nature from socio-dynamic perspectives

Name of supervisor (for student projects): Professor Suzanne Graham and Dr. Daguo Li

Please complete the form below including relevant sections overleaf.

	YES	NO	
Have you prepared an Information Sheet for participants and/or their parents/carers that:			
a) explains the purpose(s) of the project	√		
b) explains how they have been selected as potential participants	√		
c) gives a full, fair and clear account of what will be asked of them and how the information that they provide will be used	√		
d) makes clear that participation in the project is voluntary	√		
e) explains the arrangements to allow participants to withdraw at any stage if they wish	√		
f) explains the arrangements to ensure the confidentiality of any material collected during the project, including secure arrangements for its storage, retention and disposal	√		
g) explains the arrangements for publishing the research results and, if confidentiality might be affected, for obtaining written consent for this	√		
h) explains the arrangements for providing participants with the research results if they wish to have them	√		
i) gives the name and designation of the member of staff with responsibility for the project together with contact details, including email. If any of the project investigators are students at the IoE, then this information must be included and their name provided	√		
k) explains, where applicable, the arrangements for expenses and other payments to be made to the participants	√		
j) includes a standard statement indicating the process of ethical review at the University undergone by the project, as follows: "This project has been reviewed following the procedures of the University Research Ethics Committee and has been given a favourable ethical opinion for conduct".	√		
k) includes a standard statement regarding insurance: "The University has the appropriate insurances in place. Full details are available on request".	√		
Please answer the following questions			
1) Will you provide participants involved in your research with all the information necessary to ensure that they are fully informed and not in any way deceived or misled as to the purpose(s) and nature of the research? (Please use the subheadings used in the example information sheets on blackboard to ensure this).	√		
2) Will you seek written or other formal consent from all participants, if they are able to provide it, in addition to (1)?	√		
3) Is there any risk that participants may experience physical or psychological distress in taking part in your research?		√	
4) Have you taken the online training modules in data protection and information security (which can be found here: http://www.reading.ac.uk/internal/imps/Staffpages/imps-training.aspx)?	√		
5) Does your research comply with the University's Code of Good Practice in Research?	√		
	YES	NO	N.A.
6) If your research is taking place in a school, have you prepared an information sheet and consent form to gain the permission in writing of the head teacher or other relevant supervisory professional?	√		
7) Has the data collector obtained satisfactory DBS clearance?			√
8) If your research involves working with children under the age of 16 (or those whose special educational needs mean they are unable to give informed consent), have you prepared an information sheet and consent form for parents/carers to seek permission in writing, or to give parents/carers the opportunity to decline consent?			√

9) If your research involves processing sensitive personal data ¹ , or if it involves audio/video recordings, have you obtained the explicit consent of participants/parents?	√		
10) If you are using a data processor to subcontract any part of your research, have you got a written contract with that contractor which (a) specifies that the contractor is required to act only on your instructions, and (b) provides for appropriate technical and organisational security measures to protect the data?			√
11a) Does your research involve data collection outside the UK?	√		
11b) If the answer to question 11a is "yes", does your research comply with the legal and ethical requirements for doing research in that country?	√		
12a. Does the proposed research involve children under the age of 5?		√	
12b. If the answer to question 12a is "yes": My Head of School (or authorised Head of Department) has given details of the proposed research to the University's insurance officer, and the research will not proceed until I have confirmation that insurance cover is in place.			√
If you have answered YES to Question 3, please complete Section B below			

PLEASE COMPLETE EITHER SECTION A OR B AND PROVIDE THE DETAILS REQUIRED IN SUPPORT OF YOUR APPLICATION, THEN SIGN THE FORM (SECTION C)

A: My research goes beyond the 'accepted custom and practice of teaching' but I consider that this project has no significant ethical implications.	√																	
Give a brief description of the aims and the methods (participants, instruments and procedures) of the project in up to 200 words. Attach any consent form, information sheet and research instruments to be used in the project (e.g. tests, questionnaires, interview schedules).																		
Please state how many participants will be involved in the project: <i>This form and any attachments should now be submitted to the Institute's Ethics Committee for consideration. Any missing information will result in the form being returned to you.</i>																		
<p>The study aims to investigate how and why Taiwanese university students' English learning motivation has been formed and whether and how it changes over time from a socio-dynamic perspective. It hopes to make recommendations regarding how language learners' motivation can be best recognized, maintained, and increased.</p> <p>The planned schedule of each aspect of the research taking place is displayed in the table below.</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>RESEARCH POINT</th> <th>TIMING</th> <th>ACTIONS</th> <th>NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td rowspan="4">Term 1 (September to January 2014)</td> <td>Week 1</td> <td>a new start of a college life / after the university entrance exam</td> <td>Questionnaire survey and follow-up interview</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Week 5</td> <td>students having taking classes and being college students for six weeks</td> <td>Classroom observation and follow-up interview</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Week 18</td> <td>after students taking the final exam</td> <td>Questionnaire survey and follow-up interview</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Weekly</td> <td>After every lesson ends</td> <td>Short weekly questionnaire survey</td> </tr> </tbody> </table> <p>The same questionnaire will be carried out twice and the target participants will be two classes of first-year university students (approx. 70 students in total). Among these two classes of students, students in ones will have better English proficiency than the other ones. In addition, a semi-structured interview investigation will be conducted three times; the interviewees will be two selected group of learners (approx. two to four students per group) from the two classes respectively to not only report their current motivation at different time points but also explore their previous learning histories and experiences. The classroom observation will be filmed and notes taken for the follow-up interviews, and the interviewees will be asked about why and how they had certain reactions and motivations; changes in motivation will be discussed. Short weekly questionnaire surveys will also be administered to this smaller group of learners to explore the pattern of the motivation change in more detail through more frequent investigation between the two main questionnaire surveys. Details regarding student gender, age, and perceived proficiency will be requested through the questionnaire in order to be able to map the make-up of the sample. All the data will be collected in L1.</p> <p>Prior to the start of the project, I intend to pilot the research instruments. The relevant consent and information sheets in English will be distributed to those participants.</p>		RESEARCH POINT	TIMING	ACTIONS	NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS	Term 1 (September to January 2014)	Week 1	a new start of a college life / after the university entrance exam	Questionnaire survey and follow-up interview	Week 5	students having taking classes and being college students for six weeks	Classroom observation and follow-up interview	Week 18	after students taking the final exam	Questionnaire survey and follow-up interview	Weekly	After every lesson ends	Short weekly questionnaire survey
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B: I consider that this project may have ethical implications that should be brought before the Institute's Ethics																		

¹ Sensitive personal data consists of information relating to the racial or ethnic origin of a data subject, their political opinions, religious beliefs, trade union membership, sexual life, physical or mental health or condition, or criminal offences or record.

Committee.	
<p>Please provide all the further information listed below in a separate attachment.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. title of project 2. purpose of project and its academic rationale 3. brief description of methods and measurements 4. participants: recruitment methods, number, age, gender, exclusion/inclusion criteria 5. consent and participant information arrangements, debriefing (attach forms where necessary) 6. a clear and concise statement of the ethical considerations raised by the project and how you intend to deal with them. 7. estimated start date and duration of project <p><i>This form and any attachments should now be submitted to the Institute's Ethics Committee for consideration. Any missing information will result in the form being returned to you.</i></p>	

C: SIGNATURE OF APPLICANT:

I have declared all relevant information regarding my proposed project and confirm that ethical good practice will be followed within the project.

Signed: Print Name...Chu, Fang-I..... Date...6 February 2014.....

STATEMENT OF ETHICAL APPROVAL FOR PROPOSALS SUBMITTED TO THE INSTITUTE ETHICS COMMITTEE

This project has been considered using agreed Institute procedures and is now approved.

Signed: ... Print Name...Daisy Powell. Date...7 February 2014
 (IoE Research Ethics Committee representative)*

* A decision to allow a project to proceed is not an expert assessment of its content or of the possible risks involved in the investigation, nor does it detract in any way from the ultimate responsibility which students/investigators must themselves have for these matters. Approval is granted on the basis of the information declared by the applicant.