EFL Learning Motivation in Shanghai Upper-secondary Students and the Influence of Important Others

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Abstract

This study aims to investigate the extent and styles of English learning motivation and how it is influenced by three types of important others – parents, teachers and peers – for upper-secondary-level students in Shanghai, one of China's leading cities currently spearheading many of her English reform initiatives. A survey strategy has been used involving seven academic schools of varying status. In the main study, 610 "usable" questionnaire responses were obtained, followed by 64 "usable" interviews. The research design has been mainly informed by two influential perspectives from the field – Gardner's social-educational theory and Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory. The main results from this study are as follows. (1) On a six-point Likert scale ranging from "very high" to "no motivation at all", 4.4% of the survey respondents reported their overall strength of English-learning motivation was "very high", 28.4% "fairly high" and 46.7% "medium". (2) Their regulation was predominantly "external regulatory", followed by "identified regulatory". (3) A factor analysis produced a three-factor solution of the reasons for learning English: integrative, life/career aspects and external pressure. These serve as evidence that the more traditional orientations (integrative and instrumental) can be relevant to a wide range of EFL contexts including the city of Shanghai; additionally, the exam-tied Eastern cultures may have elements unique to that situation. (4) The influence of important others was positive but small, with teachers being viewed as most influential, which is followed by parents and peers. Those groups of people generally illustrate positive but limiting English-related attitudes or reasoning, which is in tune with a collective understanding of the society. (5) Additionally, prevalent means of parental, teacher and peer influences have been identified; specifically in the cases of parents and teachers, the gap between prevalent practices and the "wanted" strategies has been highlighted. (6) Finally, in the aspect of value transmitting, SDT-based data illustrate that parents, teachers and peers appear to have varied degrees of influence on the students' orientations, regulatory styles and certain types of motivated behaviour. The findings have a number of implications for practice, future research and policy.

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List of Abbreviations

AM: amotivation

CBEI: content-based English instruction

CET: Cognitive Evaluation Theory

CL: cooperative learning

EFL: English as a foreign language

EM: extrinsic motivation

ESL: English as a second language

IM: intrinsic motivation

MET: Matriculation English Test

MOE: Ministry of Education (China)

NC: Need for Cognition

NCEE: National College Entrance Exams

OIT: Organismic Integration Theory

SCTMRC: Shanghai Curriculum and Teaching Materials Reform Commission

SDT: Self-determination Theory

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

WTC: Willingness to Communicate

WTO: World Trade Organization

Glossary

Basic education: The term "basic education" in China covers regular pre-school, primary education (five or six years) and secondary education (either three years each, or four years and three years, for lower and upper secondary levels).

Basic needs: A term used within the Self-determination Theory perspective that refers to key psychological "nourishments" necessary for the optimal development of an individual

Cognitive Evaluation Theory: A sub-theory of Self-determination Theory covering intrinsic motivation

External regulation: The least autonomous form of extrinsic motivation; typically, people illustrating this regulation act to obtain extrinsic rewards or to avoid punishments.

Extrinsic motivation: Refers to the doing of an activity for external outcomes

L2: A second, or a foreign, language; a second language is learned in a context where that language is used as the main means of communication by most people of the community, whilst a foreign language is generally learned in formal settings with little interaction with the target languge community.

Identified regulation: A form of autonomous regulation; people influenced by this style of motivation tend to identify with the personal importance of a goal or regulation.

Instrumentality: Instrumentality traditionally refers to the orientation of learning a language for pragmatic incentives; in the case of English as a global language, more inclusive conceptualizations have been attempted by some researchers.

Integrative aspect: Traditionally, learners scoring high on this aspect illustrate a positive outlook on the L2 and its culture to the extent that they may want to integrate themselves into the target culture or become similar to the L2 speakers.

Intrinsic motivation: Refers to the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfaction rather than for external outcomes

Introjected motivation: A regulation still relatively controlled

L2 Motivation: Attitude, desire and effort regarding learning a second or foreign language

Organismic Integration Theory: A sub-theory within the Self-determination Theory

perspective covering extrinsic motivation

Self-determination Continuum: A hypothesized continuum with amotivation and intrinsic motivation forming two of its ends and with different styles of extrinsic motivation aligned in between

Self-determination Theory: An influential theory of motivation interested in the dialectical relationship between an innate integrative tendency within humans and social-contextual factors that can either facilitate or forestall the full development of that tendency through offering or withdrawing basic psychological needs

Significant others: A concept referring to those "others" that exert a major influence in an individual's life on the socialization of behaviour, values, habits and attitudes of a certain culture

Upper secondary level: A three-year education phase following the nine-year phase of compulsory education in China, catering for students aged 16 - 19

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Chapter 1 Introduction

This study focuses on EFL-learning motivation and some of its antecedents in the context of China. An initial interest in the above was fuelled by two seemingly contradictory incidents from the current writer's earlier experiences. The first incident occurred when she worked as a GTA (graduate teaching assistant) teaching English in Shanghai, China. Daunted by the task of teaching separate skills especially listening comprehension, she decided to briefly survey her students' preferences and ideas so as to know her "enemy" better. It was perhaps interesting that in that survey and the resultant casual chats her students expressed different reasons (e.g. going abroad and passing exams) for learning English and preferred different activities (e.g. listening comprehension v.s. mock tests) to achieve their aims. Probably as a result, they sometimes illustrated different scales of improvement in varied areas.

The second incident occurred when the research student was taking an MA course in York, England. A specific module from that course focused her interest on the famous "Chinese learner". Indeed, the "Paradox of the Chinese Learner" (Watkins, 1996, p. 18) highlighted the contradiction of a hierarchical society with educational processes and conditions in every way regarded as unfavourable and demotivating and the outstanding achievements from its students that would make the West feel ashamed.

From the first incident, the current student felt that motivation (or rather one's initial purpose and endorsing beliefs) could lead to different L2 outcomes; whilst the second incident evoked an understanding that perhaps a successful socialization of achievement tendencies, a great emphasis on effort, as well as explicit pressure and monitoring from the authorities would be enough for anyone to succeed, even in the case of L2 learning.

The above contradiction in understanding, when joined by other considerations, led to this current PhD programme on L2 motivation. The research project was launched at a time when China, benefiting from years of internal development, intensified her attempts to be integrated into a globalized society, within which process two specifically influential events, China's entering the World Trade Organization (WTO) and her successful bidding for the 2008 Olympic Games, occurred slightly before (e.g. Niu and Wolff, 2003; Nunan, 2003; Pang *et al.*, 2002).

Indeed, within the context of China, ever since 1978 acquisition of English proficiency has been officially highlighted and has been linked to the achievement of a sustainable national development firstly realised through domestic reform and modernization efforts and later facilitated by securing a salient international role. The above top-down understanding has led to at least two English-related consequences: the launching of reform initiatives to transform China's English instruction and the creation of a social environment championing pragmatic benefits that can be associated to the acquisition of English skills. In terms of the former, multi-layered changes have been introduced to the field of English education in China, affecting the areas of curriculum, syllabus and textbook development in addition to that of testing (e.g. Hu, 2002; 2005a). Coincidentally, many of the nationwide strategies were based on earlier trials (sometimes with only minimal adjustment adopted) often experimented in the city of Shanghai, the current writer's native town and one of China's leading cities with historical advantages where English proficiency is viewed as more relevant. However, perhaps after years of reform what China urgently needs is to evaluate the current situation regarding English instruction; only knowing where she stands could she continue her effort effectively. Unfortunately, research-informed and evidence-based practices are comparatively rare in that context (e.g. Tsang, 2000; Hu, 2005a), sometimes leading to unwanted results. More recent issues of debate include the recommendation of "content-based English instruction" (CBEI) to many of China's wealthier places and the spreading of English instruction to lower primary grades (starting Year 3, aged 9) nationwide. Especially in the case of the latter, different voices can be heard even outside of China as a similar situation has occurred in other countries from the region (e.g. Nunan, 2003).

The argument that China, indeed Shanghai (as China's experimental base), needs to know what is going on has been a strong motive underlying the first aim of this project – exploring the prevalent levels and types of EFL learning motivation, given the fact that L2 motivation is both a social-educational consequence and a key variable leading to future outcomes. With this understanding, upper-secondary students have been specifically targeted since secondary education has been under-researched within China (see discussion in Chapters 4 and 5) despite a reform focus on that level. The decision that only students from Shanghai would be researched came not only from practical

concerns, or the reason that Shanghai had been China's "guinea pig"; it was also based on an understanding that an unequal delivery of English education, intensified by recent reforms, had contributed to very different learner experiences and outcomes (Hu, 2003; 2005b). As such, making vague, sweeping claims nationwide can be misleading.

The second aim of this research has been to explore the role of important others (parents, teachers and peers) for EFL motivation in a Chinese context. A basic feeling from the current student is that figures of authority from China (e.g. parents and teachers) should traditionally bear strong influence on a child's development, whereas a collective ethos might make an individual susceptible to peer-initiated processes. It is only not clear in what direction and at what extent the above people are viewed to exert influence. In fact, the understanding of the existence of a human impact coincides with a general literature from the West on influences of significant others especially at a transitional period. However, given the importance of human factors, it might be a pity that very few Western-based attempts, and no China-based studies, from L2 motivation research have examined and compared mechanisms of human influences, despite the fact that certain motivation theories (e.g. self-determination theory) have highlighted a universal mediative function of "others".

Given the above aims, the design of this study has been especially informed by two motivational stances: Gardner's (e.g. Gardner, 1985) classic understanding embedded in his influential social-educational model; Deci and Ryan's (e.g. Deci and Ryan, 1985; 2002) self-dertermination theory (SDT) perspective suggesting a causal link between antecedents, motivation and outcomes through the idea of basic need satisfaction. Highlighting the above two stances is in line with the understanding that L2 motivation research needs to tackle two processes: intrapersonal and inter-personal (e.g. Spolsky, 2000; Noels, 2005).

Although Gardner's conceptualization has been critiqued since the early 1990s, the research student felt that many of his basic ideas, such as his operationalisation of the concept of motivation and his emphasis of a social dimension of L2 learning, would be relevant despite learning contexts. Consequently, the design of questions pertaining to the first research aim would illustrate influence from him. However, the current writer has also realised the limitations of Gardner's theory when a foreign language learning, rather

than a Second Language Acquisition (SLA), context is involved, as has been argued by many (e.g. Oxford and Shearin, 1994). After all, "the exact nature of the social and pragmatic dimensions of L2 motivation is always dependent on who learns what languages where" (Dörnyei, 1994a, p. 275) and researchers must be prudent and explore the factor structure which underpins student motivation afresh in each new setting (Kyriacou and Benmansour, 1997). Finally, and specifically in the case of English as a global language, the current student agrees with Dörnyei (2005) that the proposed psychological identification process might be affected by a lack of tangible L2 communities, in which case new ideas coping with the less clear-cut orientations and a tendency to identify with a global English identity might be useful.

When the second aim of this study was addressed, Deci and Ryan's (1985; 2002) continuum of motivational styles was used to understand the extent and patterns of influences from important others. The SDT-based data would also be compared with the data based on a more traditional perspective, following Noels *et al.* (e.g. Noels *et al.*, 1999). Additionally, specifically in the case of teacher influence, Dörnyei's (1994) framework would be used to understand the qualitative data.

When it comes to research methodology, it was felt that the survey strategy, including the use of questionnaires and interviewing, was the best choice, not only because the survey approach especially questionnaire surveys have been traditionally used in L2 motivation when either group motivational profiling or SDT-based research is the focus. Additionally, the choice of the above has reflected the current writer's understanding that a combined-method approach, for which the survey strategy is in a good position, will both filter through "facts" and add to each other when attempting to approach "the realm of 'reality'" (Burns, 2000, p. 11). On top of that, the above strategy is most suitable for the design of a multi-staged process of research moving from more open-ended methods to comparatively standardised studies, which was perceived to be necessary for this study.

This study presents an analysis of the motivation of Shanghai's mainstream upper-secondary students, especially in terms of the extent and prevalent types of motivation, orientation substrates and how motivational aspects correlate with each other. This study also yields rich data on the extent and means of influences from important others. The findings from this study have implications for practice, future research and policy.

Chapter 2 Literature Review – Research on General Motivation and L2 Motivation

As Dörnyei *et al.* (2006) have rightly pointed out: motivation is a highly complex phenomenon that permeates an individual's everyday life; consequently, many areas of social sciences have targeted it as a vital link for research that leads to changes in the world. Understandably, research on motivation in various fields has been flourishing; a single search, for example, using the keyword of "motivation", can often bring about thousands of results. Trying not to be lost in the above sea of information, the current research student has followed two threads that are seen as relevant: developments in the main field of research, and in more depth, research work carried out in the L2 field. Her understanding of the above has been greatly helped by works that have reviewed a developed conceptualization of the idea of motivation: e.g. works by Eccles and Wigfield (2002); Eccles *et al.* (1998), Hickey (1997), Weiner (1990) and Wigfield *et al.* (1998) on the main field of research, and works by Ehrman *et al.* (2003), Dörnyei (1994a; 1998; 1999; 2000; 2001b; 2001c; 2003; 2004; 2005), Gardner (1985; 1996), Gardner *et al.* (1997), Gardner and McIntyre (1993), McIntyre (2002), Skehan (1989), Spolsky (2000) and Tremblay and Gardner (1995) on L2 motivation, to only list some studies that have enabled her to have a first taste of the idea. As a result, this chapter will focus on the developments in the two charted fields, attempting to present their research histories in a nutshell, to identify the main trends or theories that are seen as relevant and to discuss about the problems both fields are faced with.

I. Introduction to Research on Motivation

1. A brief history of research on motivation

It is acknowledged that research on motivation in general has undergone vast changes, experiencing two shifts over the second half of the 20th century: firstly, from biologically-based drive perspective to a behavioural-mechanistic perspective, and then to a cognitive-mediational/constructivist perspective (Eccles *et al.*, 1998). However, the major questions asked in this field remain the same. Motivational psychologists are basically interested in what makes people take different actions (goal choice), how much energy individuals

may invest in their goals (intensity) and how long they may continue in pursuing these goals (persistence) (Eccles *et al.*, 1998). This basic framework (goal/direction of behaviour + magnitude of behaviour (subsuming intensity and persistence)) has been key to many studies, including the current one, when approaching the elusive idea of motivation.

Historically, there has been much disagreement among scholars on the nature of motivation (e.g. Pintrich and Schunk, 2002) and on what aspects of motivation to emphasize (Dörnyei, 2001a). The first half of the twentieth century saw the research field dominated by biological views of "instincts" and "drives". Freud, for example, believed that forces within an individual were responsible for behaviour (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002) and the major force that energised that individual's behaviour is the id, the unconscious part of the mind (Eccles *et al.*, 1998). In more detail, Freud believed that each person represents a closed energy system, having a constant amount of energy (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002). Energy develops when a(n) instinct/need arises from the *id*. Since a build-up of energy is unpleasant and causes tension, an individual needs to reduce this tension by engaging in certain type of behaviour, or started an alternative strategy should her initial attempt fail. In short, the constant aim of an individual is to keep a balanced, homeostatic condition, the failing of which may cause problems.

Although today, Freud's theory is not in the spotlight, aspects of his legacy are lasting. In particular, the theory has led to a contemporary argument on the nature of motivation – whether or not to treat motivation as a mainly conscious or unconscious process (Dörnyei, 2001b; Eccles *et al.*, 1998). The notion that there can be unconscious aspects of thoughts and behaviour that one does not have access to is in line with developments in many branches of motivational research (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002). On the other hand, an over-emphasis from Freud on the inner forces that energise an individual that are often unconscious has downgraded the importance of aspects like cognition and environmental factors (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002).

Later, conditioning theories related to behaviourist psychology were prevalent (Dörnyei, 2001a). In contrast to the Freudian emphasis on the unconscious, internal processes, the above concentrated on observable, measurable behaviour (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002). Pintrich and Schunk (2002) have identified three major influences within

conditioning theories: Thorndike's connectionism, Pavlov's classical conditioning and Skinner's operant conditioning. Although embracing different tenets, the above three are identified as sharing the same behavioural foundation, emphasizing the association of stimuli with responses as the mechanism for learning. In addition, they posit an additive view of behaviour: complex behaviour can be segmented into smaller units and vice versa, and a very attractive assumption of those theories is that a same set of principles can be applied to explain behaviour of varied levels (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002).

Within behaviourism, a great deal of research had been carried out to explore the relationship between stimuli, responses and habits, and a considerable amount of acquired knowledge is still relevant to today's research and teaching. For example, reinforcement principles derived from Skinner's (1974, cited in Eccles *et al.*, 1998) work have been widely applied in educational settings: positive reinforcements such as praise have been used to motivate students to engage in learning tasks whilst negative strategies or punishment have been applied to discourage disruptive behaviour.

Although having practical values for education, behavioural theories are seen as offering an incomplete account of motivation (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002). For example, conditioning theories often assume an automatic link between consequence and behaviour. However, the motivating function of either reinforcement or punishment is mediated by students' beliefs, and in cases when their current beliefs conflict with their reinforcement history, the former can override the latter (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002). By failing to recognize the vital position of similar cognitive processes, conditioning theories cannot fully account for the complexity of human motivation.

In the 1960s, major changes continued to occur in the field of motivation (Dörnyei, 2001a; Weiner, 1990). There was a more general shift in psychology away from mechanism towards cognition. For example, as above mentioned, behaviourists believed that a reward would automatically increase the probability of prior response, thereby increasing later motivation in similar situations. However, Deci (1975, cited in Weiner, 1990) argued that only reward regarded as positive feedback would motivate whereas controlling reward undermines an individual's motivation.

Comparing with behaviourist ideas, cognitive theories view motivation as internal: it is not directly observable; what can be observed is its consequence – motivated behaviour

(Pintrich and Schunk, 2002). In addition, these theories stress the causal role of mental structures and the processing of information and beliefs. In other words, they have stepped forward, when compared with the earlier mechanical stance, by allowing the mediating function of cognitions (Stipek, 1998): for them, changes in behaviour subsume changes in cognitions; although they agree that consequences of certain type of behaviour (i.e., reinforcement and punishment) can affect cognitions, it is the cognitions, not those consequences, that make the difference.

The research agendas in the 60s also illustrated different foci. Researchers began to concentrate on human rather than infrahuman behaviour. Of numerous topics that were related to human motivation, issues of success and failure and achievement strivings were at the heart of the research (Weiner, 1990). Because of the emphasis on achievement motivation, the mainstream research had much to commend to educational psychology, which for the first time shook off its peripheral position. In addition to achievement motivation, another important research direction emerged, that of individual differences. Individual difference measures for achievement needs, anxiety, and locus of control were devised to identify persons that were thought to differ in motivationally significant ways (Weiner, 1990). However, some cognitive research in the 1960s still bore some influence of mechanism, opening itself to further refinement of research philosophy and methodology. For instance, researchers interested in balance and dissonance utilized drive theory concepts. In addition, the "grand formal theory" approach (Weiner, 1990, p. 619) of mechanism was adopted when cognitive motivational theorists aimed to isolate the determinants of behaviour and gauge the mathematical relation among these factors.

In summary, the above section has attempted to briefly review the major shifts in research on motivation in the second half of 20th century. It is felt that a focus shift from biology to behaviourism and again to cognition has reflected a healthy tendency of research departing from the "grand theory" tradition in psychology towards a more specific, focused and cognitive agenda (Eccles *et al.*, 1998, p. 1018), the influence of which is still evident and relevant.

2. Contemporary research on motivation

Contemporary research on motivation appears to have been in a flux, with many

perspectives emerging or being vigorously pursued. These perspectives tend to focus on different aspects of motivation and may sometimes overlap with each other. According to Dörnyei (2001b), the current spirit in research on motivation is characterised by the cognitive approach emphasizing an individual's attitudes, thoughts, beliefs and interpretation of factors which influence her behaviour. Eccles *et al.* (1998) note that few current achievement theories explicitly address the issue of unconsciousness. Modern theories tend to view a person as purposeful and goal-oriented: that person is in a constant mental balancing act to coordinate a range of personal desires and goals, guided by her judgment of perceived competence and environmental support. In short, modern theories on motivation regard humans as rational in taking actions.

There have been a couple of good summaries on contemporary theories in the field of motivation. Eccles and Wigfield's (2002) annual review of psychology is in line with Dörnyei's (2001b) above summary of motivational research *status quo*. In Eccles and Wigfield's (2002) review, emphasis has been laid upon theories concerning motivational beliefs, values, and goals. Current theories mainly in developmental and educational psychology have been classified into four groups: theories focused on expectancies for success (self-efficacy theory and control theory), theories focused on task value (the intrinsic motivation theory, the self-determination theory, flow, interest, and goals), theories that integrate expectancies and values (i.e., the attribution theory, the self-worth theory and the expectancy model of Eccles *et al.*) and theories integrating motivation and cognition (i.e., the self-regulation theory) (p. 1). Eccles *et al.* (1998) offered a briefer overview, though it might be easier to grasp as the theories were grouped according to the general research question (one of the three) they each attempted to address: *"Can I do this task?"* (the attribution theory, the self-efficacy theory, the self-worth theory, modern expectancy-value theories and control theories), *"Do I want to do this task and why?"* (theories on values, including task values, intrinsic motivation theories, the self-determination theory, the flow theory, goal theories, etc.), and *"What do I want to do to succeed on this task?"* (e.g. social cognitive theories of self-regulation and motivation, theories linking motivation and cognition and theories of motivation and volition). Wigfield *et al.* (1998) generally followed the above structure when offering a brief review of literature on motivation in school contexts: in their "can-do" section, they discussed

constructs of individuals' sense of competence and control, in their "why-to-do" section, they examined constructs such as intrinsic motivation, interests, values and goals, and finally in their "how-to-succeed" section, they reviewed theories focusing on the two issues of "how motivation is translated into behavior and how motivation and cognition are linked" (p. 81), by including research on self-regulation and co-regulation.

Dörnyei (2001b) identified major contemporary theories in the two traditions of motivational research – motivational psychology, which links behaviour to motives stemming from human mental processes, and social psychology, which places action in the light of a broader social and interpersonal context, though during the last couple of years, the gap between the two trends has decreased. The most influential theories or groups of theories in the first tradition may include expectancy-value theories, goal theories and the self-determination theory (the discussion of which will be presented in the following chapter). In the second trend, Ajzen and Fishbein's (1980) theory of reasoned action and Ajzen's (1988) theory of planned behaviour have been very influential (Dörnyei, 2001b), a good example of whose application in L2 motivation research might be Chambers (1999), although in Dörnyei (2001a), theories on social-cultural influences (e.g. Weiner, 1994; Wentzel, 1999) have also been identified.

Expectancy-value theories may have been the most influential conceptualizations in motivational psychology in the past four decades (Dörnyei, 2001b). These models reflect the cognitive metaphor of the individual as an active and rational decision maker, in contrast to earlier behaviouralistic ideas (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002). This school of theories assumes an innate motivation in humans therefore the theorists are interested in what directs or shapes this kind of motivation (Dörnyei, 2001b).

Atkinson's achievement motivation theory is thought to be the first comprehensive model within this tradition, which has been influential for many years and bits of which are still active in more contemporary theories. His model suggested that behaviour was a multiplicative function of the three components of need, expectancy and value, which were labelled as "motives", "probability for success" and "incentive value" (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002, p. 55). "Motives" referred to learned, stable and enduring dispositions and included two basic elements – "motive to approach success" and "motive to avoid failure" (p. 55). As is shown by their names, the "motive to approach success" referred to

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one's anticipation of success, and a high level of that motive denoted a higher likelihood of individual engagement in an activity. On the contrary, the "motive to avoid failure" was related to one's capacity to experience negative feelings (i.e., shame and humiliation) upon any failure, and naturally a high level of that motive was related to the individual's avoidance of an intended action. In Atkinson's original model, the above two motives were orthogonally charted, whilst later researchers tended to envision a continuum with both ends represented by each of the above motives (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002). Atkinson's "probability for success" was subjective beliefs about expectancy of success; apart from reflecting an individual's own beliefs, it also included environmental influences on motivation (an example maybe an individual's evaluation of task difficulty). His last component ("incentive value of success") involved affective evaluation of an activity, specifically, pride in accomplishment (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002): it has been confirmed by later researchers that this component covaries inversely with task difficulty. To summarise, Atkinson's achievement motivation could be seen as the sum of need for achievement, the probability of success and the incentive value of successful task fulfilling, minus the sum of fear of failure, the incentive to avoid failure and the probability of failure (Dörnyei, 2001b).

Currently, the model developed by Eccles *et al.* has been regarded as a most close and influential descendent of Atkinson's theory (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002). This social cognitive model of achievement motivation highlights the role of students' expectancies for academic success and their perceived value for academic tasks. Below is an illustration of a simplified version of their model (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002).

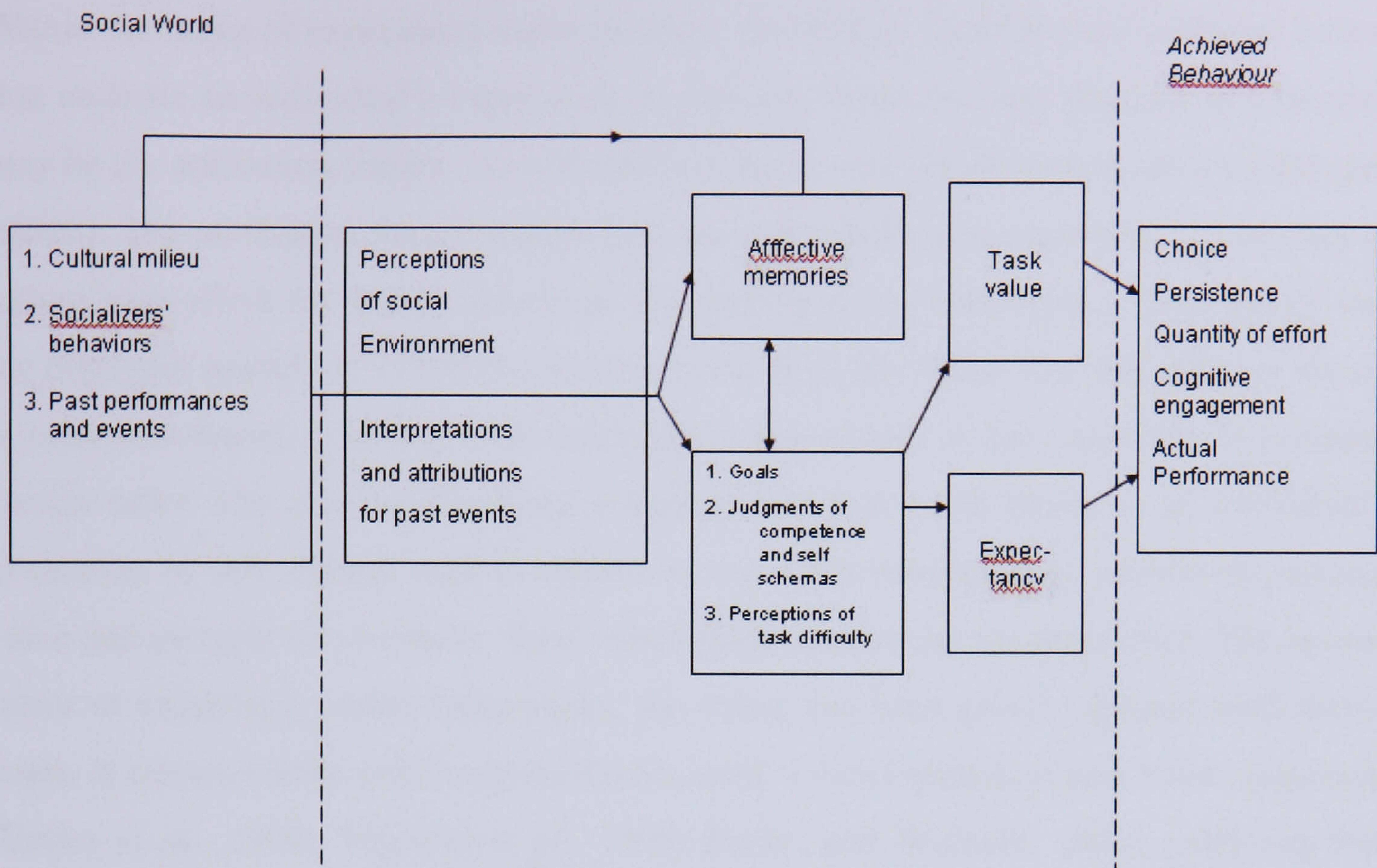


Fig. 2.1.2.1 Summary of Eccles and Wigfield's Achievement Motivation, from Pintrich and Schunk (2002)

As illustrated above, the two primal predictors of achievement behaviour are expectancy and value, echoing Atkinson's "probability for success" and "incentive value". These two constructs are internal, cognitive beliefs of the individual. To put it in very simple terms, "the value construct refers to a student's response to the question, 'Why should I do this task?'" (Eccles, 1983; Eccles, Wigfield and Schiefele, 1998, cited in Pintrich and Schunk, 2002), and possible responses include considerations on attainment value, intrinsic value, utility value and cost. The expectancy construct refers to the question of "Can I do this task?" In more formal words, this construct refers to a student's actual beliefs on her expectancy for success. In the current model, the only departure from Atkinson's original theory is that Eccles *et al.* have not highlighted, but inferred, motives (as a possible part of one's affective memories, which also happens to be a less researched construct), reflecting a more social cognitive and situated perspective (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002).

As is shown above, there are two key constructs in expectancy-value frameworks: an

individual's expectancy of success and the value that individual attaches to success. Within the camp of expectancy-value theories, researchers have stressed different factors that underlie an individual's expectancy to success. Some relevant theories in education may be the attribution theory, the self-efficacy theory and the self-worth theory (Dörnyei, 2001b). The attribution theory studies how an individual's past experience of success or failure may affect her future behaviour via making causal attributions. This theory was the dominant model on student motivation research in the 1980s. The self-efficacy theory is more task-based, referring to an individual's assessment of her capability of pursuing certain tasks. The main motivational component of self-worth theory is an individual's evaluation of self. People tend to behave in ways that enhance their perceived personal value and struggle to save their "face" when their perceptions are threatened. The second factor of expectancy-value frameworks, the value, has been greatly ignored until recent years. A commendable effort may be Eccles *et al.*'s development of task value constructs (Eccles *et al.*, 1998; Wigfield *et al.*, 1998; Eccles and Wigfield, 2002), outlining four motivational components: attainment value, intrinsic value, utility value and cost, as afore-mentioned.

Goal theories have been built upon earlier need hierarchies or constructs. For example, McDougall (1923) and Murray (1938), in earlier motivational research, had tried to develop a taxonomy of either instincts or needs that showed great overlap with some of today's goal theories (cited in Pintrich and Schunk, 2002). Another theory that highlighted needs that have since been re-conceptualized as goals in the current research domain is Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Of course, in comparison with modern cognitive goal theories, the older need or instinct constructs appeared to have a series of problems, including failing to meet the paradoxical demand of parsimony and holding predicative power, and more seriously, adopting a circular logic to explain the relationship between behaviour and need psychology (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002).

Metaphorically, a goal has been seen as the "engine" (Dörnyei 2001b) to fire the action or the "compass" that provides the direction for action (Dörnyei *et al.*, 1996). Among a number of models on goals, researchers tend to highlight the goal setting theory, goal orientation theories and works on multiple goals, as being more influential, especially in the field of education. According to Pintrich and Schunk (2002), Locke and Latham's

(1990) goal setting refers to the important motivational process of establishing quantitative or qualitative standards of performance, that can lead students to experience a sense of self-efficacy when attaining their pre-set goals and engage in activities that are believed to lead to achievement. Given the close relation between goal setting, self-efficacy and attainment, "the motivational benefits of goals depend on learners making a commitment to attain the goals and on the goal properties of *proximity, specificity*, and *difficulty*" (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002, p.165). It has been found that goals that are both proximal (as contrasting distant goals), specific (as contrasting more general goals) and moderately difficult (referring to challenging yet attainable goals) can best promote a learner's self-efficacy and motivation.

Goal orientation theories are based on efforts from developmental, motivational and educational psychologists, attempting to explain children's learning and performance on academic tasks in school settings (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002). Therefore, this theory bloc has been regarded as the most relevant and applicable goal theory for education (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996; 2002), and perhaps understandably research related to the above has been very active within the domain of achievement motivation.

Different from the above goal setting theory laying emphasis on goal properties, goal orientation theories are concerned with the issues of why a learner wants to perform an achievement task and how she approaches and engages in it (the word "she" has often been adopted in this thesis to refer to both genders, as a reaction to critiques presented from a feminist perspective). The main construct of the different variants of goal orientation theories is *goal orientation*, "which concerns the purposes for engaging in achievement behavior" (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002, p. 213); in fact, goal orientation not only involves reasons for achieving, it also reflects standards by which an individual judges her performance, in addition to success or failure of the above achievement task.

Among identified goal orientations, the two that are most constantly discussed are labelled *learning/ mastery* and *performance* goals, or by some researchers, *task-involved* or *ego-involved* goals, or still by others, *task-focused* and *ability-focused* goals (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002). A mastery goal orientation focuses the learner's effort on endeavours, such as learning/mastering a task, improving competence, developing new skills, which will lead to the growth of the self. The above is often judged by internal, pre-set

individual standards. A performance goal orientation, in contrast to the above, channels the learner's effort into ability- or competence-demonstrating endeavours, the judgment of which often involves external, normative standards. Traditionally, mastery goals have been argued to be superior to performance goals, because the former may trigger a person's intrinsic motivation and positive attitudes. More recent research on goals has developed an important distinction within performance goals between approach and avoidance performance goals (Eccles and Wigfield, 2002; Pintrich and Schunk, 2002; Wigfield *et al.*, 1998). The distinction, partly due to inconsistent evidence about the effects of performance goals, parallels the distinction between Atkinson's approach and avoidance components of need-achievement motivation (Eccles and Wigfield, 2002), in that, an individual (with an approach performance goal orientation) can be positively motivated to try to outperform others or illustrate her competence, or she (with an avoidance performance goal orientation) can be negatively motivated to try to avoid failure or to avoid looking incompetent (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002).

In comparison with the above, research work on multiple goals may have presented the most elusive and complex picture within goal theories for the current research student. Of researchers concentrated on developing a multiple goal perspective, works by Ford and Wentzel have often been discussed (e.g. Eccles and Wigfield, 2002; Wigfield *et al.*, 1998; Pintrich and Schunk, 2002). Ford (1992), for example, has proposed a general but complex model that is based on the assumption that humans are goal directed and self-organized; within that model motivation has been seen as subsuming three main components of goals, emotions and personal agency beliefs (cited in Pintrich and Schunk, 2002), with goals being defined as "desired end states people try to attain through the cognitive, affective, and biochemical regulation of their behavior" (Eccles and Wigfield, 2002, p. 7).

About goals, Ford has emphasized two important aspects of goals: goal content and goal processes (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002). Goal content refers to the desired or undesired consequences of a specific goal, and accordingly, Ford and his associates have proposed a taxonomy of 24 general goals, reminiscent of works by earlier researchers such as Murray and Maslow. However, the important points about Ford *et al.*'s taxonomy include the facts that those 24 goals do not form a hierarchy, although in empirical

situations some goals may end up more important than others, that "behavior is generally guided by multiple goals simultaneously, so that the activation of one goal does not preclude the activation of other goals", that the 24 goals may combine into larger units that represent the merging of several goal categories, and finally that personalized representations of those 24 general goals have been recognized, the actualization of which depends on both the individual's traits and the context she is embedded in (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002, p. 200). In addition to goal content, Ford *et al.* have also discussed different methods or styles an individual uses to conceptualize a goal. The above methods or styles are basically the same as goal-setting strategies proposed by Locke and Latham (1990, cited in Pintrich and Schunk, 2002); helpful strategies include setting more specific goals, setting a difficult but attainable goal, and aligning a mastery goal with other types of goal.

Different from Ford's effort on explaining general behaviour, Wentzel has focused on using a goal content perspective to understand student performance and achievement (Eccles and Wigfield, 2002; Pintrich and Schunk, 2002; Wigfield *et al.*, 1998), which is therefore more relevant to school-related studies. Among her findings, Wentzel has made the important points that individuals can and often pursue multiple goals in the same context (e.g. in the classroom, students can try to learn, try to make friends and try to conform to the institutional rules simultaneously) (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002), and that both academic and social goals are important predictors of children's achievement (Wigfield *et al.*, 1998). Further, Wentzel has examined how the pursuit of nonacademic goals can influence learning and achievement outcomes, and has since suggested three models accounting for how the above process is related to academic goals and accomplishments (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002).

As will be mentioned later, a key tenet of social psychological theories is the assumption that attitudes exert a directive influence on human behaviour, and the theories of reasoned action and planned behaviour have become particularly well-known within this domain (Dörnyei 2001b). In the theory of the reasoned action, the major determinant of action is an individual's intention to engage herself, which is influenced by her attitudes towards the behaviour and her perception of the social context. The theory of planned behaviour extends the first theory by further mediation of an individual's

perception of her behavioural control. Weiner (1994, cited in Dörnyei, 2001b) further contrasted social and personal motivation. One possible way to incorporate a social dimension in this tradition is to utilize goal theories. Another theory that shows great potential is the recent model of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation of Vallerand (1997), based on Deci and Ryan's theory.

In summary, this section has attempted to make sense of important contemporary theories in the field of motivational research. In line with review works from Dörnyei (2001a; b), Eccles *et al.* (1998), Eccles and Wigfield (2002), and Wigfield *et al.* (1998), a reductionist view has been adopted, by grouping perspectives into major theory blocs. In particular, expectancy-value theories (in a broad sense) and goal theories have been given specific attention, as there is wide evidence that research from the above domains are both active and productive in the field of education; on top of that, there is increasing evidence that more recent research on L2 motivation has attempted to incorporate elements from cognitive psychology. However, another major theory (the self-determination perspective) from the same field has not been discussed; instead, it will be the focus of the following chapter. Finally, very brief attention has been given to leading theories from the social psychological perspective, which might serve as prologue to more relevant, L2-dedicated frameworks emanating from the same philosophical foundation.

3. Challenges in research

As is illustrated above, contemporary research on motivation has been flourishing. However, the resultant, myriad of motivational constructs or perspectives have made it difficult to understand that field. To better guide research in the new century, a number of reviewers have discussed about challenges facing current theorists (e.g. Eccles *et al.* 1998; Eccles and Wigfield, 2002; Dörnyei, 2000; 2001b; Wigfield, 1998), highlighting issues including a paradox of theoretical integration and reduction, balance of cognition and other elements such as affect, inclusion of the role of context, marriage of a social dimension to motivational research and adoption of alternative methods to collect data.

In line with the above, Dörnyei (2000; 2001b) has summarised the major challenges that face current researchers and that have prevented a consensus in motivational research.

The first challenge, as mentioned before, involves whether one views motivation as a conscious or unconscious process. Earlier research has been strongly influenced by Freudian ideas of viewing unconscious instincts or drives as powerful impetus. The situation has been greatly changed when a cognitive agenda started to dominate the research field. Although such a cognitive spirit has led to great advances in contemporary studies, it is felt that a sole emphasis on rational, cognitive processes in motivation has led to the neglection of less conscious processes, which are shown to have a role in research. Dörnyei (2001b) concludes that this challenge needs further attention, despite a more recent tendency of rekindled interest in the unconscious paradigm of motivation.

The second challenge is cognition versus affect (Dörnyei, 1999; 2000; 2001b; Eccles and Wigfield, 2002). As illustrated above, the current research on motivation has been greatly influenced by a cognitive spirit, placing the focus on an individual's thoughts, beliefs, and representation/interpretation processes. Though the importance of affect (emotional experiences) has been traditionally recognized, the two perspectives have often been separated (Dörnyei, 2001b). In addition, Eccles and Wigfield have discovered an overemphasis on cognition regarding research on belief, values and goal constructs, often at the expense of affective and other processes. Recently, there have been some attempts to address the two issues in combined frameworks (e.g. Ford, 1992, cited in Pintrich and Schunk; Dörnyei, 2001b, and the attribution theory, cited in Eccles and Wigfield, 2002), a systematic study of affect and proper integration of cognition to it needs to be prioritized.

According to Dörnyei (2001a; 2001b), a third challenge may be the paradox of reductionism versus comprehensiveness (also in Eccles *et al.*, 1998; Eccles and Wigfield, 2002, Wigfield *et al.*, 1998). Due to complexity of human motivation, it is impossible to expect any single theory to grasp the full of the idea. What researchers have been doing is to prioritize core influences and study the interrelation of these variables. Dörnyei (2001b) has used a vivid metaphor to describe the segmented, often competing or overlapping theories on motivation. These theories are like different knots of the web of motivation: they have each caught an important part of the concept, but a heuristic and eclectic model representing multiple perspectives may be needed to guide practice. Wigfield *et al.* (1998), for instance, have specifically pointed out that a model to link multiple

antecedents to motivation and multiple types of motivation to behaviour would be greatly useful. On the other hand, the field of research has been plagued by similar constructs adopting a proliferation of different terms (Eccles *et* al., 1998; Eccles and Wigfield, 2002); a high priority, therefore, is to integrate similar theories into a more manageable framework.

The fourth challenge concerns what Dörnyei (2001b, p.13) calls "parallel multiplicity". Very often, motivational theories have been based on isolated conditions. However, in real life, people may pursue a number of actions at a time. The idea of "parallel multiplicity" might be extremely relevant to classroom language teaching, as Ushioda (1998) maintains that students are flesh-and-blood language students who at the same time learn many other subjects. A central concern for depicting student language learning motivation may be to study the interplay of various factors. It can also be the case with other aspects of an individual's life. However, Dörnyei (2001b) also warns us that the idea of "parallel multiplicity" may further complicate the research agenda. For this, not much research work has been done yet.

Dörnyei's (2000; 2001b) fifth challenge concerns consideration of contextual factors in research (also in Eccles *et al.*, 1998; Eccles and Wigfield, 2002). Traditionally, motivational research has placed much emphasis on the individual, which is intuitively appealing and the design and control of which is comparatively easy. Nevertheless, human actions are often embedded in social contexts, which influence an individual's cognition. This point of Dörnyei's may be especially relevant to L2 research (including the current study) due to the social dimension of language learning. Since in many areas of psychology, the role of context has become increasingly important, the complex interaction of context and the individual needs further explication (Eccles and Wigfield, 2002).

Dörnyei's (2000; 2001b; 2005) final challenge stresses the importance of a temporal orientation in motivation research (also in Dörnyei 1999; 2003). Most theories to date have treated motivation as a more or less stable affective or cognitive variable. The two levels that may influence motivation in terms of time are: firstly, motivation often evolves very slowly and involves many subphases, which are probably associated with different motives; secondly, an individual may experience motivational fluctuation when engaged

in long-term activities. The challenge of time has been regarded as the greatest challenge facing L2 researchers and teachers (Dörnyei, 1998a). Fortunately, there have been an increasing number of studies attempting to address this challenge, such as in the field of L2 motivation (e.g. Dörnyei, 2000; Dörnyei and Otto, 1998).

To summarise, the first part of this chapter has briefly reviewed the research history of motivation in the main field, with its emphasis on two major shifts from biologically- to behaviourally- and later to cognitively-based perspectives, the last of which is still dominating. It is then followed by a description of major theory blocs in contemporary research from a mainly cognitive perspective, including expectancy-value theories (in a broad sense) and goal theories, which are viewed to be highly relevant to education. As mentioned before, another major theory, the self-determination theory, has been reserved for specific examination in the following chapter due to its status in the current study. Finally, challenges facing contemporary researchers have been dwelt upon, to conclude the attempt to make sense of the main research field.

II. Research on L2 Motivation

1. Defining L2 motivation

Chambers (1999) notes the frustration a researcher might feel when attempting to define motivation in second or foreign language (L2) learning. A second language is learned in a context where that language is used as the main means of communication by most people of the community, whilst a foreign language is generally learned in formal settings with little interaction with the target language community (e.g. Dörnyei, 1990; Oxford and Shearin, 1994; Oxford, 1996). In either case, building of a structural model is often anticipated to which clusters of variables might be attached (Chambers, 1999). As will be illustrated below, more influential L2-oriented motivational constructs include Gardner and his associates' conceptualization (Gardner, 1985; 2000; 2001; Gardner *et al.*, 1997; 2004; Gardner and McIntyre, 1993; Gardner and Smythe, 1975; Tremblay and Gardner, 1995), which is embedded in their social-educational model, and Dörnyei's developments including his most recent "L2 Motivational Self System" (Csizér and Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei *et al.*, 2006). In addition, the continuum of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, developed by Deci and Ryan (1985; 2002) and

elaborated by Vallerand (1997) in the main research field, has influenced many recent L2 motivational researchers.

The difficulty in defining L2 motivation is caused by at least two reasons (Dörnyei, 1998a). Firstly, and from a more general sense, it is difficult to give a simple and straightforward answer concerning why humans behave as they do (Dörnyei, 1998a; 1999): since human beings are very complex organisms, one can only expect that their thoughts and behaviour are influenced by a wide array of motivational sources. Perhaps apart from a universal acknowledgement of the important function of motivation (e.g. in the field of L2 education, it is agreed that motivation and aptitude are two key learner factors leading to varied rate and success of learning (Dörnyei, 2004), the only other thing most researchers would agree on is that motivation determines three aspects of human behaviour, namely, the choice of a particular action, retention of it and effort exerted for it (e.g. Dörnyei, 1999). Given the central position of motivation, the study of it has traditionally occupied a prominent place within mainstream psychological research, leading to the situation that all major subfields of psychology contain specific theories explaining human motivation and action (Dörnyei, 1999). However, despite the above consensus on the directive and energising functions of motivation, there has been great disagreement on its nature (including the level of analysis to be employed) and on what elements of it to be stressed. Consequently, there is no shortage of competing theories, either within mainstream psychology or branches of educational psychology (including L2 education). Whilst allowing researchers multiple perspectives for approaching the idea of motivation, these competing theories are often segmented, overlapping and confusing.

Secondly, motivation to learn an L2 is further complicated by a multifaceted nature of such a venture and many roles language takes (Dörnyei, 1998a; 2004; Spolsky, 2000; Williams, 1994). Dörnyei (1998a, p. 118), for instance, identifies three main functions of language – "a *communication coding system*", "an *integral part of the individual's identity*" and "the most important *channel of social organization*" embedded in the culture of the community where that language is used (the emphasis is not the current student's). Whilst acknowledging that an L2 is also a "learnable" school subject in that elements of that communication coding system can be taught and learned, it is separated from other school subjects (Dörnyei, 2004; 2005) due to the fact that it has a distinct

social dimension, and the successful learning of it involves internalization of aspects of the target culture (Dörnyei, 2003). Perhaps because of the above, traditional approaches to L2 motivation have been greatly shaped by a social psychological perspective. Echoing Dörnyei's (1998a; 2003) discussion on the social dimension of an L2, Williams (1994, p. 77) describes a possible impact of L2 learning on the social nature of the learner, the end product of which involves "an alteration in self-image, the adoption of new social and cultural behaviours and ways of being…".

Considering the above complexity of defining L2 motivation, Spolsky (2000, p. 166) concludes that to better depict that concept, a two-way process should be considered: "one the embodiment of language acquisition in its neurophysiological location (the brain), and the other, the contextualization of the language acquirer in his or her social situation". What Spolsky (2000) and other L2 researchers have pointed out, in fact, is a more recent, but important, tendency within research on L2 motivation to incorporate developments from mainstream psychology into a more traditional, socially-anchored perspective, so as to better capture the nature of L2 motivation. The above tendency has also mirrored a dilemma facing mainstream educational psychologists who have recently moved to the view that learning is an inherently social activity (Wigfield *et al.*, 1998): if learning is truly a social phenomenon, a social approach to motivation will be complementary; however, such an approach needs to be carefully developed to merge with otherwise incompatible constructs focusing on intra-personal processes.

On defining L2 motivation, various researchers have drawn insights from different theories over time, and a conceptual evolution of the above both indicates shifts in the main field of research and reflects foci changes within the L2 field. If Carroll's (1962, cited in Spolsky, 2000) view that language motivation can be demonstrated by the amount of time a learner is willing to spend on a learning task still bears a strong behavioural influence, Gardner *et al.* (Gardner, 1996; Gardner *et al.*; 1997; Gardner and McIntyre, 1993; Gardner and Tremblay, 1994; Masgoret and Gardner, 2003) have then incorporated a social dimension and a cognitive sense into their conceptualization. "Motivation refers to the individual's attitudes, desires, and efforts to learn the L2 and is measured by three scales: (a) Attitudes toward Learning the Language, (b) Desire to Learn the Language, and (c) Motivational Intensity" (e.g. Gardner *et al.*, 1997, p. 345).

As Dörnyei (2004) sees it, Gardner and his associates' view of motivation can be metaphorically regarded as a central mental engine or powerhouse that subsumes behavioural (effort), cognitive (want/will) and affective (task enjoyment) aspects.

In addition to the above, Pintrich and Schunk's (1996, p. 4) definition that motivation is "the process whereby goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained" has added a more recent, process-oriented perspective to motivation study (noted by Macaro, 2003), which is further developed by L2 motivation specialists including Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) and Dörnyei (2000; 2001b), as a response to a call for incorporation of a temporal orientation into motivational research. In line with the above, Dörnyei (1998a, p. 118) cites Dörnyei (1998b) that motivation is 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".

From the above, it can be summarised that it has been difficult to define L2 motivation; the reasons include complexity involved in accounting for human behaviour and thinking processes, and more importantly, the many facets of an L2 that need to be tackled when making sense of L2 motivation. However, varied attempts have been made historically, reflecting shifts in the main field of research as well as foci changes in L2 motivational research. Gardner *et al.*'s classic, tripartite definition is still influential and more recent definitions by other researchers have also reflected a process-oriented perspective. In addition to that, various constructs have been developed to account for L2 motivation in a fuller sense, including Gardner and his associates' efforts, Dörnyei's contributions and studies built on Deci and Ryan's motivational continuum.

2. Developments in research on L2 motivation

Though subject to other influences, the study of L2 motivation has had its own history (Williams, 1994). For years, linguists and psychologists had been faced with a practical problem – how to select students that would benefit most from the expensive and scarce language learning resources. The traditional view was that language aptitude was the decisive factor that would account for differences in learning outcomes. However, with the development of applied linguistics and particularly due to a strong interest in

thematising second language learning models in the late 1950s, other factors began to attract researchers' attention as having the potential to predict learning outcomes. Carroll (1962, cited in Spolsky, 2000), for instance, added motivation and exposure to the target language alongside aptitude as key factors in L2 learning. Nonetheless, it was Canadian social psychologists Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert that had started a systematic study of L2 motivation, after launching a series of studies (e.g. Gardner and Lambert, 1959) examining how language learners' attitudes towards the L2-speaking community affected their desire to learn that L2 (Dörnyei, 2004). Ever since that period, motivation has been in the spotlight; it has been much favoured because as an affective variable, it is "a tempting target for possible manipulation" (Spolsky, 2000, p. 158).

It is perhaps not surprising that since the early days of research, conceptualization of L2 motivation has been strongly influenced by a social psychological perspective; as was argued before, learning a language is a complicated process which has significant social and psychological dimensions (Ushioda, 1998). Gardner *et al.*, for instance, have highlighted such a perspective, focusing their earlier effort on the influences of the social context and the relational patterns between the language communities (Dörnyei, 2004). Their empirical-based research has been so successful that it has attracted a large number of supporters throughout the world in the years to follow. Even today, when research on L2 motivation has entered yet another era, their legacy is still valid.

Whilst agreeing on the great contribution Gardner and his associates have made, different researchers tend to highlight developments in L2 motivational research from different angles. Edmonson and House (2003), for instance, have recorded two major developmental steps since Gardner and Lambert (1972). Firstly, developments within the theory by Gardner *et al.*: their original conception (distinguishing integrative and instrumental motivations) was relativised and placed in a more broadly-based concept of motivation, with other elements added to it and better defined. One result of the above might be the model in Gardner (1985), having better explaining power and a potential to discover context-specific factors. Secondly, incorporation of classroom-specific motivational factors and viewing motivation as a dynamic, interactive process: due to this, L2 motivation has been regarded as a highly complex phenomenon, subsuming both stable and unstable elements, some of which may be internally decided while others may

be contextually-based. However, for the current research student, a chronological perspective highlighting three stages (social-psychological, cognitive-situated and process-oriented periods) of developments might be easier to follow (cf. Dörnyei, 2005), which will be followed in this literature review.

1) The Social-psychological period (1959 – 1990)

Understanding Gardner et al.'s motivational theory

As above mentioned, the initial impetus in L2 motivational research came from social psychologists working in Canada, most notably Lambert and Gardner, who took an interest in understanding the impact of the unique Canadian ethno-linguistic situation on L2 learners' attitudes, language motivation and learning outcomes (Dörnyei, 2003; 2005). Their introduction of a social dimension to research, based on a central tenet that "'students' attitudes toward the specific language group are bound to influence how successful they will be in incorporating aspects of that language'" (Gardner, 1985, cited in Dörnyei, 2005, p. 67), had great theoretical and empirical significance for L2 motivational research: theoretically, it indicated that study of L2 motivation needed to supplement the mainstream, individualistic perspective with social psychological insights and methods (as mentioned before, only in the 1990s, a mirror effect of incorporating social psychological influences into study occurred in the main field of research, e.g. Wigfield *et al.*, 1998); empirically and from an educational point of view, it separated learning of an L2 from learning other school subjects, due to the social-cultural implications of a language (Dörnyei, 2005). Considering the revolutionary influence of their conceptualization, supported by a rich body of empirical evidence, it is understandable why Gardner *et al.* and their social-psychological approach had dominated the research field for over three decades, till new issues arose in the 1990s.

Despite its popularity, understanding of Gardnerian conceptualization of motivation has been hindered by issues related to the model itself as well as from outside (Dörnyei, 2005). A basic reason leading to earlier misunderstanding might be insufficient attempts from Gardner and his associates to illustrate their highly complex model in a more explicit way. However, a more lasting issue, as Dörnyei (2005) sees it, is to do with two sources of terminological difficulty embedded within their model. The first source echoes

comments from the 1990s (e.g. Oxford, 1996): in her illustration of the Gardnerian conceptualization, Oxford (1996) finds that the prominent element of integrative aspect has appeared at three different levels of the construct (see Fig. 2.2.2.1.1 below for three levels), namely, integrative orientation, integrativeness, and integrative motive/motivation. In earlier years, the relationship between those three elements was not self-evident: although it was made clear that integrative orientation feeds into integrativeness, it was only implicitly stated that integrative motivation subsumes integrativeness. In addition, despite definitions from Gardner *et al.*, the exact nature of the above integrative aspect is difficult to fathom (Csizér and Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei, 2003; Dörnyei *et al.,* 2006), and without obvious parallels from mainstream study, that notion is somewhat elusive.

The second source leading to confusion is to do with the flexible position of the term "motivation" within the Gardnerian model (Dörnyei, 2005). Below is an illustration originally developed by Belmechri and Hummel (1998).

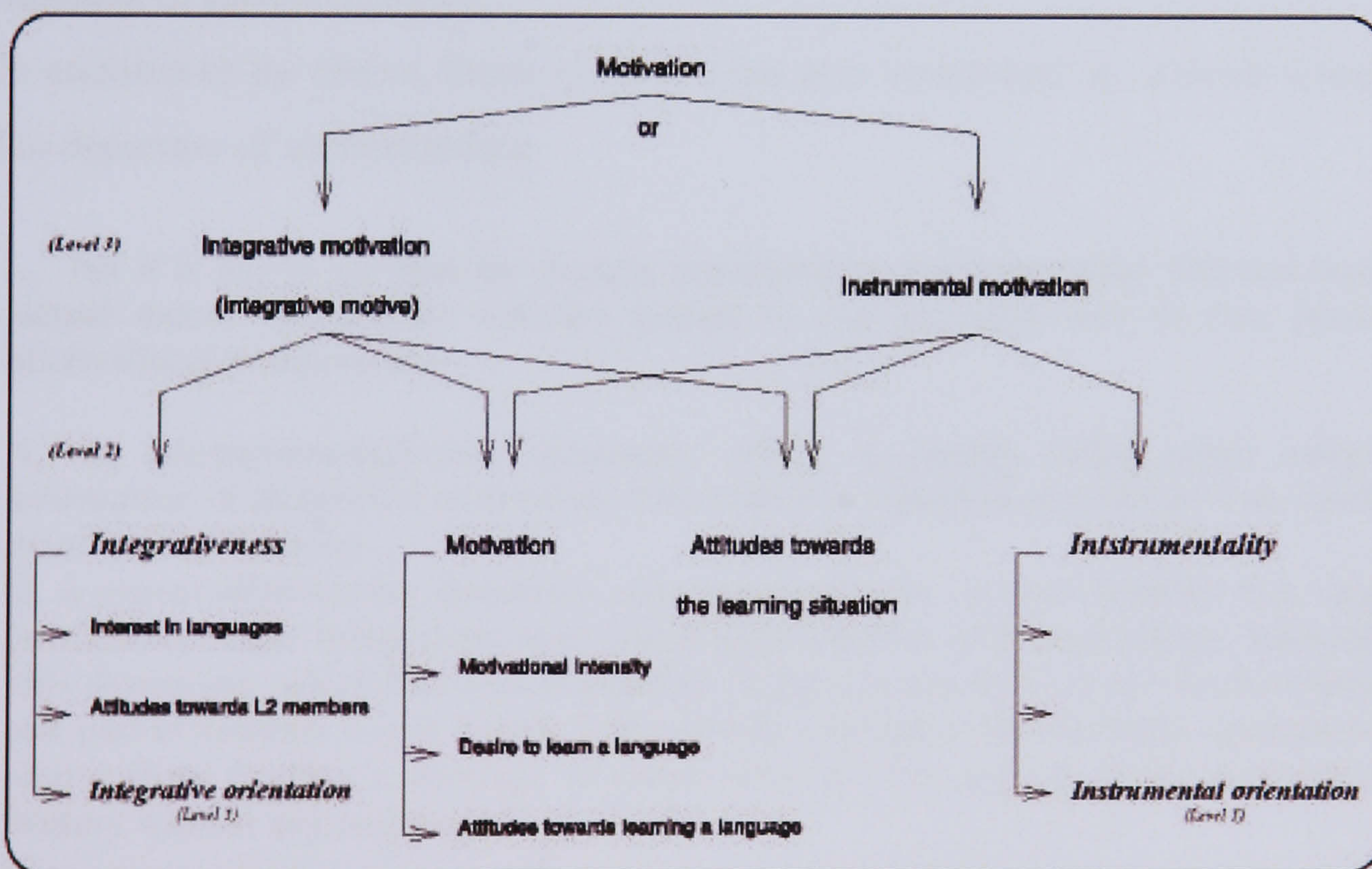


Fig. 2.2.2.1.1 Personal Summary of Gardner's Framework, Adapted from Belmechri and Hummel (1998)

In the above summary (Fig. 2.2.2.1.1), it can be seen that the term "motivation" has appeared at three levels as well. From the lowest level comes the classic conceptualization of motivation within the Gardnerian model: motivation is seen to include motivational intensity, desire to learn a language and attitudes towards learning a language; it is what Dörnyei (2004, p. 426) has metaphorically called "central mental 'engine'", and it can be triggered by motivational antecedents of varied types. At a higher level, one's attention is pointed to integrative and instrumental motivations, both including energising forces and motivational antecedents. Finally, the term "motivation" can be used again, as an umbrella term for different types of motivation. When approaching works by Gardner and his associates, researchers have sometimes found it difficult to understand what the former refer to by "motivation" – the motivation subcomponent of integrative motivation, integrative motivation or L2 motivation in general (Dörnyei, 2005). The case was worsened for some researchers (e.g. Oxford, 1996) by Gardner's (1985) attempt to collapse his conceptualization to "offer a neat heuristic tool" (Hotho, 1999, p. 30), leading to a definition of motivation with an additional component of goal/orientation.

In addition to the above, Dörnyei (2005) has also mentioned an external issue that has led to departure of understanding.

> ... but it is fair to say that the popular interpretation has been rather different from the actual theory because L2 scholars tended to pay attention only to two prominent motivational components:
>
> 1. *An interpersonal/affective dimension*, which is usually called either *integrative orientation* or *integrative motivation*. This notion is indeed in accordance with Gardner's motivational thinking...
> 2. *A practical/utilitarian dimension*, associated with the concrete benefits that language proficiency might bring about (e.g., career opportunities, increased salary). Interestingly, this dimension, which has been referred to as the *instrumental orientation/motivation*, is not part of Gardner's core theory. Although the concept of instrumental orientation does derive from Gardner's writings, in actual terms it only appears in his motivation test battery without any real theoretical clarification.

According to Dörnyei (2005), the misrepresentation of Gardner's theory as the sum of integrative and instrumental motivations has been pervasive even today, due to an understandable human instinct to reduce and simplify. However, it is perhaps fair to point out that Gardner and his associates have never intended to contrast the above; the

traditional dichotomy of integrative and instrumental aspects were intended to occur at a lower level, that of orientations.

Contemporary attempts to understand Gardner's conceptualization often emphasize the central role of the integrative aspect, supplemented by a discussion of other more or less marginalized, or entailed, components such as instrumentality, attitudes toward the L2 speakers and milieu (e.g. Csizér and Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei *et al.*, 2006). In addition, attempts within Gardner and his associates (e.g. Trembley and Gardner, 1995) to incorporate elements from mainstream theories, such as goal theories, have been acknowledged.

Integrative Aspect

Integrative orientation/motivation has been a pivotal part of Gardner's motivation theory (Dörnyei *et al.*, 2006). In fact, integrative motivation is a comparatively well-developed, empirically based construct containing three components, each of which can be further broken down (Dörnyei, 2005). Dörnyei (2005, p. 69) and Dörnyei *et al.* (2006, p. 11) have presented a good schematic representation based on Gardner (1985), which is presented below (Fig. 2.2.2.1.2).

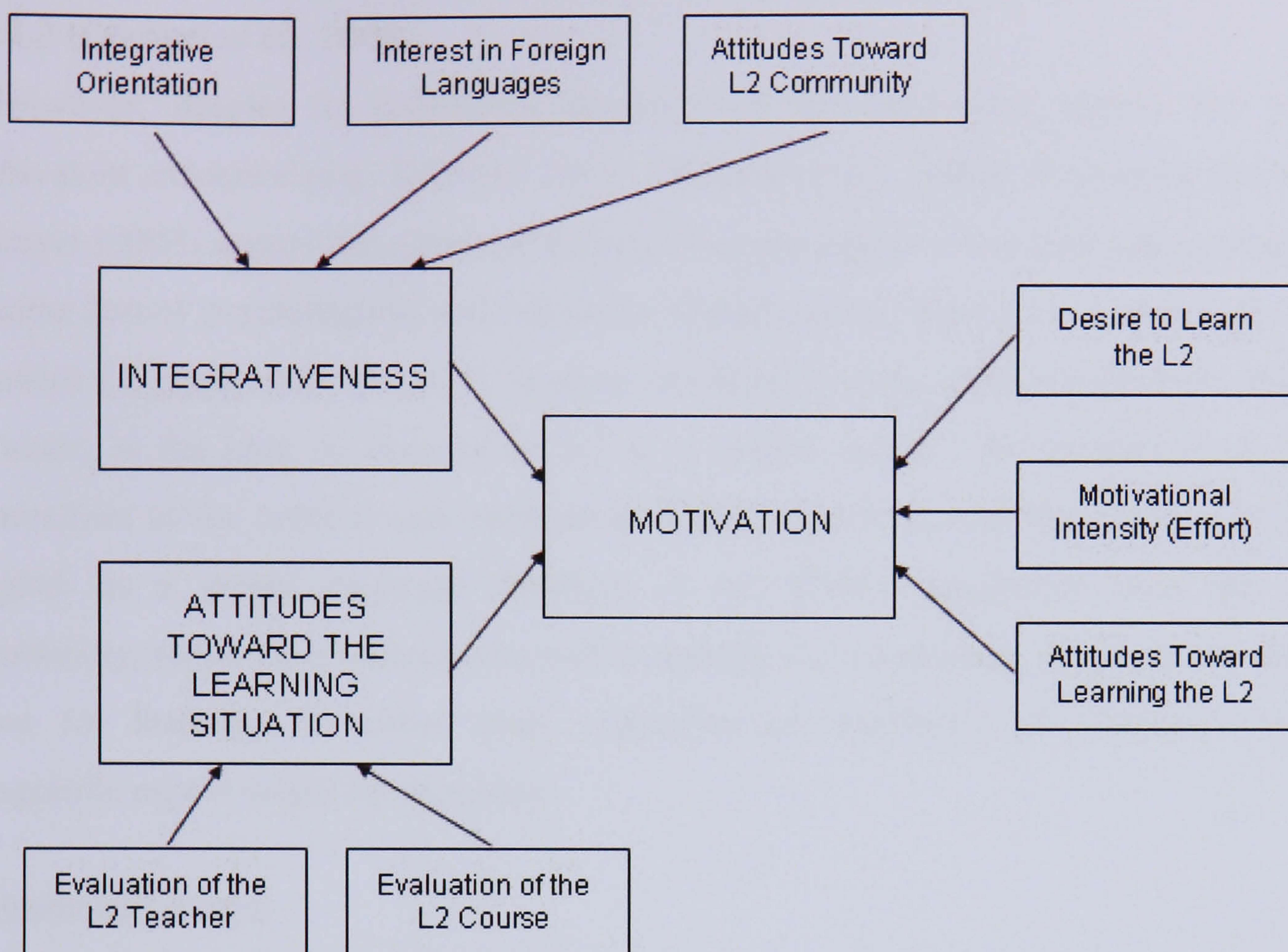


Fig. 2.2.2.1.2 Summary of Gardner's Integrative Motivation, from Dörnyei *et al.* (2006)

The integrative aspect reflects "a positive outlook on the L2 and its culture, to the extent that learners scoring high on this factor may want to integrate themselves into the L2 culture and become similar to the L2 speakers" (Csizér and Dörnyei, 2005, p. 20), is among the most often researched concepts, and consequently has been a principal building block of several theoretical constructs of L2 motivation (Csizér and Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei, 1999; 2003; Dörnyei *et al.*, 2006). As mentioned before, and also from the above representation (Fig. 2.2.2.1.2), the integrative components can be seen as appearing at three different levels. From the lowest level of abstraction, integrative orientation (orientations refer to reasons for L2 learning), plus another two components of interest in L2s and attitudes toward L2 community, form integrativeness. On top of the above operationalisation (of integrativeness) is the even larger construct of integrative motive, which is seen as comprising attitudinal, goal-directed and motivational variables (Dörnyei *et al.*, 2006). It is composed of integrativeness, attitudes towards the learning situation and motivation, the last of which is a latent concept subsuming elements

including the desire to learn the L2, motivation intensity and attitudes towards learning the L2 (Dörnyei *et al.*, 2006).

However, despite its popularity, research on the integrative aspect has yielded ambivalent evidence (e.g. Dörnyei 2003; Dörnyei *et al.*, 2006). Regarding the above, Dörnyei (2003) argues that given its definition a core aspect of the integrative disposition is some sort of psychological and emotional identification, whereas in contexts devoid of a salient L2 group with whom L2 learners can identify with, other mechanisms might be at work: in the case of learning an L2 as a school subject, the identification can be generalized to the cultural and intellectual values associated with that L2; in the case of English as a global language (Dörnyei *et al.*, 2006), integration with the global community, rather than assimilation with a specific L2 community, might be the fuelling force for learning. In either case, expansion or redefining of Gardner's original integrative aspect might be necessary.

Instrumental Aspect

Alongside the above integrative aspect, instrumentality appears to be another most favoured motivational variable within the field of L2 motivational research. Traditionally, the concept of instrumentality within the Gardnerian theory was not highlighted, perhaps due to the unique ethno-linguistic situation of Canada where integratively oriented students were found to be more prevalent, motivated and successful. Consequently, few early attempts were taken to endorse the above (exceptions may include Gardner and McIntyre, 1991; Gardner and Tremblay, 1994) and the idea was deprived of chance for a fuller development. For instance, Gardner (1985) presented instrumentality strictly as a type of orientation rather than motivation (cited in Dörnyei *et al.*, 2006). More recently, the Canadian group (e.g. Gardner 2000; 2001) started to focus more on the above idea, as a response to critique from outside. They have stressed the possibility that there are other equally legitimate factors, including the instrumental aspect, which may feed into one's motivation, and Gardner (2001) proposes that instrumental motivation can be the sum of motivation plus instrumentality, thereby paralleling it with his definition of integrative motivation, which is reminiscent of a summary of Gardner by Belmechri and Hummel (1998) (see Fig. 2.2.2.1.1 above).

As regards research from outside, instrumentality has been highlighted in a series of studies especially in contexts where English was learned as a foreign language (e.g. Chambers, 1994; Dörnyei, 1990; Edmonson and House, 2003; Kyriacou and Kobori, 1998; Stables and Wikeley, 1999; Warden and Lin, 2000). However, contrary to a popular assumption that the idea is straightforward, instrumentality has been found to contain a degree of ambiguity (Cszier and Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei *et al.*, 2006): for example, the traditional view equalling instrumentality to job prospects might not be directly relevant to young pupils (see Dörnyei, 1994b); in other cases, the above aspect is also connected to a range of incentives like travelling, making friends and understanding target cultural products; still in others, researchers have found the impact of globalization and global Englishes. As such, Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) have redefined the above concept.

> ...Instrumentality concerned the pragmatic incentives that are usually associated with the concept, as well as the importance of the particular L2 in the world and the contribution its proficiency makes to becoming an educationed person. (p. 21)

Attitudes toward the L2 Community and Milieu

"Attitudes toward the L2 community", an integral part of integrativeness, has been an important aspect of the Gardnerian motivational approach. In fact, one of the main tenets Gardner built his theory upon stated that "success in language learning was a function of the learner's positive attitudes towards the linguistic cultural community of the target language" (Dörnyei *et al.*, 2006), in that "attitudes related to the L2 and the L2 community exert a directive influence on one's L2 learning behavior" (Dörnyei, 1999). Due to its central position, Gardner (1985, cited in Csizér and Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei *et al.*, 2006) reviewed studies conducted in varied contexts endorsing the stance that the above attitudes are key constituents of the L2 motivation construct. Perhaps not surprisingly, many studies on L2 motivation have included the above inter-personal variable into their research.

The term "milieu" in L2 motivation research refers to "the social influences stemming from the immediate learning environment as opposed to the broader macro-context, and it is usually operationalised as the perceived influence of significant others, such as parents, family and friends" (Dörnyei *et al.*, 2006). According to the same authors, there is a

consensus in the field of L2 on the impact of significant others, in that their views and beliefs are an important source of L2 motivation. Research on motivational impact of significant others, specifically that of parents, has been yet another area where Gardner has left some legacy. A more detailed discussion on related studies will be presented in the next chapter.

About significant others in L2 education, one thing deserving specific attention is Dörnyei's limitation of the above (e.g. Csizér and Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei *et al.*, 2006) to the "civil sphere" of parents, family and friends; unlike elsewhere, teachers have been singled out. Since the current study has focused on all the above mentioned groups, following an understanding of significant others from the general field of research (also see Williams and Burden, 1997); to show the conceptual difference, the term "important others" has been adopted instead.

Strengths and limitations of Gardner's theory

As illustrated above, most researchers have a high regard for the contribution Gardner and his associates have made. The latter were certainly among the earliest to hypothesize about, research and publish on the relation between language attitudes, motivation and L2 achievements (e.g. Gardner and McIntyre, 1993). Their social psychological approach energised L2 motivation study for decades and generated a considerable amount of empirical work worldwide, making the field one of the most developed areas within the study of SLA (Dörnyei, 2003).

When further summarising the relation between works by Gardner *et al.* and that of a newer generation of international scholars, Dörnyei (1999; 2001c) writes the follows:

> In conclusion, it seems that L2 motivation research has reached maturity and the initial research inspiration and standard-setting empirical and theoretical work coming from Canada have born fruit by 'educating' a new generation of international scholars who applied the acquired expertise in diverse contexts and in creative ways. As a result, we now have a colorful mixture of approaches to understanding L2 motivation, comparable on a smaller scale to the multifaceted motivational arena in psychology. Indeed, the main components of all the influential approaches in motivational psychology have been validated in certain L2 contexts, thus creating a fertile ground for further developments. (Dörnyei, 1999, pp. 530-532)

Such a high regard from Dörnyei (1999; 2003) echoes Oxford's (1996, p. 122)

sentimental remarks made at a time when criticism of Garnder's theory was still intense: "[i]ndeed, we are standing on the shoulders of giants, such as Robert Gardner and his research colleagues, who have given us our earliest views of language learning motivation".

Specifically, researchers often agree that Gardner's research has following strengths: firstly, as mentioned above, there is wide acknowledgement that the integrative motive/motivation within his motivation theory is well developed and researched (Dörnyei, 1998a; 2003; 2005); secondly, Gardner has developed a standardised instrument (the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery, or AMTB) for data collection; that multi-componential motivation questionnaire having over 130 items has been shown to have good psychometric properties and has been widely used in different L2 contexts leading to important discoveries (Dörnyei, 1998a; 1999; 2005; Williams, 1994), although even AMTB is not devoid of criticism (e.g. Dörnyei, 2005); thirdly, Gardner's broader, social-educational model having motivation as a central component has offered useful insights for research of SLA (Dörnyei, 1998a), and that comprehensive model still has the potential to expand when faced with new issues (see Tremblay and Gardner, 1995). However, perhaps for mainstream motivational researchers, the greatest significance of Gardner's work lies in the fact that he has introduced high-standard empirical work (utilizing the above AMTB coupled with advanced data processing techniques leading to high testability and replicability) and a sort of grounded theory approach into a field otherwise filled with assumptions (see below citation from Dörnyei, 1994b; also Dörnyei, 1999).

> Weiner points out that "motivational theories are deficient" (p.288) in that they are typically not built upon reliable and replicable empirical relationships. Garnder and his associates' work, however, is a valuable exception since their theory was formulated in an empirically grounded, explicit, and testable manner. (Dörnyei, 1994b, p.516)

Considering the above, it is perhaps understandable why research work from Gardner *et al.* had passed unchallenged for a long time (early exceptions may include Au, 1988 and Bandura *et al.*, 1981, cited in Dörnyei, 1994a). However, a remarkable shift in thought was evident in early 1990s when some researchers tried to reopen the research agenda on L2 motivation (Crookes and Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1994a; 1994b; Gardner

and Tremblay, 1994; Oxford, 1994; 1996; Oxford and Shearin, 1994). Starting from Crookes and Schmidt (1991), the above writers reevaluated Gardner's perspective, highlighted its limitations and expressed a need for expansion.

Alongside their general criticism of the limiting features of early L2 motivation theories mainly taking the social psychological perspective, Crookes and Schmidt (1991) focused specifically on Gardner's conceptualization: firstly, they seemed to be unconvinced by the superiority of the integrative aspect and a supposed causal link between integrative motivation and L2 outcomes, based on controversial results from L2 research following Gardner's theorisation; in addition, they felt a failure to distinguish attitude and motivation within Gardner had hindered paralleling of L2 motivation conceptualization with its mainstream counterparts, which added to difficulty in linking this type of research with other aspects of L2 learning or research for pedagogical implications. Crookes and Schmidt's (1991) "love and hate" feeling toward Gardner got support from Dörnyei (1994b) and Oxford and Shearin (1994), who furthered their arguments.

Varied criticisms from the above researchers can be summarised into five points. Firstly, there was the problem of limiting legitimate goals of L2 motivation to the integrative and instrumental contrast (Oxford and Shearin, 1994), as Gardner was perceived to do. In more recent years, there had been a number of studies uncovering other equally powerful reasons for L2 learning. In addition, Dörnyei (1994a, p. 275) felt that treating integrative and instrumental orientations as "straightforward universals" was misleading; the above should rather be viewed as two broad tendencies that might include different clusters in different contexts. A good example might be Clement and Kruidenier (cited in Dörnyei, 1994a) that found four distinct general orientations, the three of which (knowledge, friendship and travel) had been traditionally lumped together to form integrative orientation.

The second point criticized a static nature of Gardner's earlier conceptualization. Until recently (e.g. Gardner *et al.*, 2004), Gardner's research seldom considered the developmental dimension of motivation; there also appeared to be a lack of focus on the reciprocal influence between motivation and learning outcomes. In contrast, there had been more interest from other researchers comparing the learner's L2 motivation at

different developmental stages through conducting longitudinal or cross-age-group studies (e.g. Chambers, 1994; Nikolov, 1999).

The third criticism (Oxford and Shearin, 1994) involved a failure within Gardner's efforts to differentiate language situations. Traditionally, researchers argued that second language learning, connected with a rich language input and massive contact with its community, can lead to very different motivational and learning outcomes. A logical assumption could be that integrative tendency (in its classic sense) might be less relevant to foreign language learners who had little chance to meet or form opinions towards a specific language community, which was indirectly supported by research evidence revealing a dominant instrumental tendency among EFL learners. In a broader sense, the above argument also expressed a concern that Gardner's framework may not adequately generalize to other cultures and contexts, which is supported by empirical evidence (Kyriacou and Benmansour, 1997; Kyriacou and Kobori, 1998); after all, "the exact nature of the social and pragmatic dimensions of L2 motivation is always dependent on *who* learns *what* languages *where*" Dörnyei (1994a, p. 275). As such researchers must be prudent and explore the factor structure which underpins student motivation afresh in each new setting (Kyriacou and Benmansour, 1997).

The fourth point accused social psychologists in general of ignoring key motivational and developmental theories from other related areas (Oxford and Shearin, 1994). A social psychological stance generally focuses on the individual-group relations; whilst allowing useful insights, it is less revealing about processes occurring within an individual, for instance. As such, it was suggested to draw from fields particularly including cognitive developmental psychology.

The last point revealed the gap between research and classroom application (Oxford and Shearin, 1994): Crookes and Schmidt (1991) found that teachers' understanding of L2 motivation is often different from that of researchers such as Gardner *et al.*; it was also argued that results from AMTB perhaps are not detailed enough to guide practice (Dörnyei, 1994a). In sum, it boils down to the point that a macro-level theory, such as Gardner's, does not often have the capacity to solve micro-level issues, such as issues in a genuine classroom.

Although today some of the raised points (from over 10 years ago) appear to be dated,

after rounds of clarification/defense (e.g. McIntyre, 2002) from Gardner *et al.*, combined with continuous attempts from them to refine their construct (e.g. Tremblay and Gardner, 1995), the impact of the above critique articles was keenly felt in the early 1990s, leading to expansion of the research field, specifically evident in the incorporation of a cognitive perspective into L2 motivation study.

2) The cognitive-situated period

The common understanding is that the cognitive-situated period in L2 motivation research started with the above Crookes and Schmidt (1991), although similar ideas had started to emerge even slightly earlier (Dörnyei, 2004; 2005). The above article, as well as others following its line, had highlighted two gaps in L2 motivation research – gaps between a social psychological, macro-level research tradition and firstly a need for educationally friendly, micro-level research (Dörnyei, 1999; 2003; 2004) and secondly developments from the main field that adopted a cognitive perspective (Dörnyei, 1999).

In line with the above, Dörnyei (2005) presents a good summary of an intertwining influence of those two broad trends that shaped research in the 1990s.

> (a) The desire to catch up with advances in motivational psychology and to extend our understanding of L2 motivation by importing some of the most influential concepts of the 1980s. These concepts were almost entirely cognitive in nature, which reflected the effect of the ongoing cognitive revolution in psychology. Motivational psychologist representing a cognitive perspective argued convincingly that how one thinks about one's abilities, possibilities, potentials, limitations, and past performance, as well as various aspects of the tasks to achieve or goals to attain (e.g., values, benefits, difficulties) is a crucial aspect of motivation.
>
> (b) The desire to narrow down the macroperspective of L2 motivation (i.e., the broad view focusing on the motivational disposition of whole communities, typically taken by the proponents of the social psychological approach) to a more fine-tuned and situated analysis of motivation as it operates in actual learning situations (such as language classrooms), characterized by a microperspective. (p. 74)

As regards the above first trend, specific interest targeted cognitively-based theories on self-determination, attribution, goals and from neuroscience (Dörnyei, 2001c; 2003). The second trend has generated a growing body of research, yielding useful insights for L2 instruction; the more situated aspects of L2 motivation included task motivation, Willingness to Communicate (WTC) and learning strategies (though a term of

controversy) (Dörnyei, 2003). In addition, changes also occurred in research methodology (Dörnyei, 2001c).

On New Research Themes

According to Dörnyei (2005), the intertwining influences of situating L2 motivation and "borrowing" new cognitive variables from the main field were specifically well illustrated by research adopting the self-determination theory and the attribution theory.

Deci and Ryan's (e.g. 2002) self determination theory focusing on a continuum of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation has been very influential in the main research field. In the 1990s, L2 motivation researchers started to show interest in elements of it. However, its main advocators were Noels and her associates, who executed a series of studies, firstly focusing on merging the above continuum with the more established L2 orientation framework (Dörnyei, 2001c; 2003; 2005) and secondly examining how the learners' level of self-determination is affected by various classroom practices (Dörnyei, 2005). Noels *et al.*'s major contributions included regrouping of orientations into three interrelated substrates (intrinsic, extrinsic and integrative reasons), discovery of a positive correlation between the autonomy-supporting teaching style and student intrinsic motivation, and development of a valid and reliable instrument assessing the various components of self-determination theory in L2 learning (Dörnyei, 2005; and a more detailed evaluation from the current writer will be presented in the next chapter). Due to its fruitfulness, other researchers started to pursue the above perspective, including the current research student.

In Dörnyei's (2003; 2005) view, attribution theory has been highlighted in the main field of research because it was the first theory that succeeded in challenging the position of the classic achievement motivation theory. Subsequently, it became the dominant model in research on student motivation in the 1980s. It is a unique theory in that it has introduced "causal attribution" as the mediating link (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 79), therefore successfully linking one's past experiences with her future achievement efforts. The above attribution process has been argued to be of vital importance since the subjective reasons that one attributes to her past experiences considerably shapes her motivational dispositions deciding her future action (Dörnyei, 2003; 2005). Dörnyei (2003; 2005)

argues that due to a generally high frequency of failure among L2 students worldwide, attribution processes may also play a prominent role in learning of an L2. Following the above line, he (2005) has cited works finding distinctive attributional patterns among L2 students, works on the importance of the above process, and more interestingly studies finding attributional patterns to be partly a function of one's cultural background. Given the importance of the attribution process for a learner's L2 motivation, and holding the assumption that it is a variable allowing for manipulation, it can be concluded that studies on the above will continue to flourish.

In addition to the above, Dörnyei (2001c; 2003; 2005) has also commented on what Dörnyei (2005) calls the most situated research direction in the field, that of task motivation.

From Dörnyei (2002; 2003; 2005), researchers have been attracted to the idea of task motivation due to combined technical and practical reasons: technically, focusing on tasks allows the complex and prolonged L2 learning process to be broken into researchable behavioural units; from a practical perspective, decomposing L2 study into more basic building blocks of classroom learning (tasks) and acknowledging their significance for shaping learner motivation coincides with most teachers' belief in the decisive role of quality of learning activities on student attitudes and motivation. Specifically due to the second reason, the study of task motivation has been regarded as exemplifying the "educational shift" in the 1990s (Dörnyei, 2003).

Among the earlier researchers of task motivation, Julkunen (1989; 2001; cited in Dörnyei, 2003; 2005) contended that students' task behaviour is fuelled by a combination of generalized and situation-specific motives based on the specific task characteristics. The above duality was found to parallel Tremblay *et al.*'s (1995, cited in Dörnyei, 2001c; 2003) distinction of trait and state motivation, seen as involving stable dispositions versus transitory conditions. Dörnyei and Kormos (2000, cited in Dorynei, 2001c, p. 48) built upon the above by further separating situation-specific motives into two aspects, therefore leading to a construct including "(a) generalized motives (e.g., integrativeness), (b) course-specific motives (i.e., the appraisal of the L2 course) and (c) task-specific motives (i.e., attitudes toward the particular task)".

While agreeing that the above distinction has been useful, it is also perceived as

insufficient to imagine learners entering a classroom with a "trait motivation baggage" that simply picks up motivational properties of a specific task (Dörnyei 2005, p. 81; also Dörnyei, 2003). For a comprehensive picture of task motivation, the dynamic interaction between motivational attributes and learner behaviour needs to be considered. For such, Dörnyei (2003; 2005) describes a three-stage processing system – task execution, appraisal, and action control – the interplay of which sees successful execution of a task.

When evaluating the research potential, Dörnyei (2003) concludes that, despite a scanty empirical evidence analysing the motivational basis of L2 tasks (Dörnyei, 2005), study of task motivation will certainly be one of the most fruitful directions for future effort, mainly due to its close relation with educational practices, a good compatibility with other research advances (such as Schumman's idea targeting the appraisal process) and an embedded process-oriented perspective.

On Research Methodology

In addition to the above new themes, Dörnyei (2001c, p. 43) also talked about changes in research methodology, which partly formed what Gardner and Tremblay (1994) had called "'motivational renaissance'" of the 1990s.

Ushioda (1998) commented that study of L2 motivation had been strongly influenced by a quantitative research paradigm. Couched in the social-psychological philosophy, the prevailing research methodology would define L2 motivation as a measurable affective factor. Questionnaires had been developed and used in various occasions, coupled with inferential statistical procedures such as correlation or factor analysis.

> Over the years, this social-psychological perspective has held considerable sway in the study of language learning motivation and generated a remarkable wealth of literature. Researchers have continually striven to identify the components of motivation, to measure its relationships with various attitudinal clusters, L2 achievement or other behavioural outcomes, to test its independence of cognitive ability or aptitude, and to analyze its role in theoretical models of the L2 learning process... To this end, motivation itself has inevitably become defined in terms of components that are to some degree quantifiable, at least in a relative sense, such as strength of desire, or amount of effort or time spent on a task... (p.77)

Whilst the above quantitative research tradition was still strong, in that a number of specifically large scale investigations were reported as late as the turn of the century

(Dörnyei, 2001c), an increasing number of researchers expressed a need to adopt alternative strategies to fully account for the complexity of L2 motivation. Spolsky (2000), for instance, argued that it would be impossible to reduce the learner's orientation, attitudes and motivation to a single scale; the best way to deal with integrative motivation perhaps was to take Lambert's suggestion of sitting quietly and chatting with a learner over a bottle of wine for an evening. Though less dramatic than the above, he also suggested that indirect methods including interviews and observation could be better ways to deal with the elusive ideas such as integrativeness and instrumentality.

In line with the above, other researchers (e.g. Dörnyei, 2001c) agreed that especially within a cognitive framework focusing on one's thinking processes and belief systems, qualitative type of research like in-depth interviews, case studies and longitudinal studies would be better suited to explore the internal dynamics of student motivation. Following this perspective, a number of qualitative studies were conducted leading to useful insights. Ushioda (1996; 1998), for instance, designed a two-stage qualitative study exploring university students' perceived motivational disposition, change of it and possible causes; using open-ended interviews, followed by more scheduled ones, the researcher found cognitive processes to be important for understanding the learner's motivation, which was found to be developmental in quality that could be influenced by factors both from outside and within the L2 context. Another famous study (Nikolov, 1999) followed three groups of children in Hungary for eight years; this longitudinal and ethnographic study looked at reasons for EFL learning and the degree and range of factors influencing it, leading to the conclusion that different age groups illustrated different motivational patterns and needs.

Finally, even within the quantitative research paradigm, changes were detected (Dörnyei, 2001c): the most significant advance might be the increasing application of structural equation modelling (SEM) to interpret large, multivariate datasets. Famous users of SEM included Gardner *et al.* and Dörnyei and his associates.

3) The process-oriented period

Also in the cognitive-situated period, another important aspect of motivation, the temporal dimension, attracted increasing attention, especially considering the fact that L2

learning is a sustained process and given the observation that "within the context of institutionalized learning especially, the common experience would seem to be motivational flux rather than stability" (Ushioda, 1996, p. 240; also cited in Dörnyei, 2001c).

Earlier attempts to deal with this dimension in L2 motivation study included Williams and Burden (1997) who attempted to separate initiation motivation from the process of sustaining motivation and Ushioda's (1998; 2001) work on evolution of new motivational orientations over time (cited in Dörnyei, 2001c; 2005). Dörnyei (2003) also cited one study by McIntyre *et al.* (2001) that discovered a three-factor solution separating process-oriented construct from more traditional constructs of attitudinal motivation and self-confidence, which might serve as evidence of the salience of the process aspect of L2 motivation.

However, the major contributors of this approach are Dörnyei and some of his associates, who have developed and refined a complicated model within this field (cf. Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998; Dörnyei, 2000; 2001a). The essence of such a model can be summarised as follows: it "breaks down the overall motivational process into several discrete temporal segments organized along the progression that describes how initial wishes and desires are first transformed into goals and then into operationalised intentions, and how these intentions are enacted, leading (hopefully) to the accomplishment of the goal and concluded by the final evaluation of the process" (Dörnyei, 2003). Within this line, Dörnyei's model has three distinct phases (preactional, actional, postactional stages), each of which is believed to be associated with largely different motives (cf. Dörnyei, 2003; 2005). An interesting sideline about the above approach is that much of the old argument on different motives might prove to be unnecessary, as those motives can be organized along the progression process of one's motivation.

Although a comparatively new paradigm not devoid of operationalising problems, recently there have been some attempts specifically addressing aspects of motivational change from a process-oriented perspective (cf. Dörnyei, 2005), which has added more evidence to the potential of this field.

In comparison, research on motivational changes from a general sense has had a longer

history and is well recorded. Good examples of the above type of research included two studies conducted in England, although targeting languages other than English. Chambers (1999), adopting a longitudinal methodology covering three age cohorts (aged from 11 to 17) from Northern England, focused on factors from within pupils' outlooks that might affect their motivation to learn German, utilizing two batches of survey data collected between 1992 and 1994. His findings revealed waning of L2 motivation over years in classroom settings, as he wrote: "there is some evidence to suggest diminishment in enthusiasm for the in-school experience of German learning between Year 7 and 9 and again between Year 9 and 11" (Chambers, 1999, p. 132). Unfortunately, his findings were not a lone case. Williams *et al.* (2002), researching L2 (German and French) students in Years 7, 8, 9 from Southwestern England, stated that the general tendency of L2 learning appeared to be a decrease in motivation with age, and found that in comparison with older groups their Year 7 students illustrated considerably more positive motivational dispositions, and reported a higher degree of self-regulation and more positive self concepts. Perhaps more alarmingly, their study found a negative trend in age regarding the perceived importance of learning an L2, which was in line with a major concern of the Britons regarding their reluctance to learn a foreign language, which may jeopardise England's chance of a full participation into an already globalized society (Williams *et al.*, 2002).

In summary, the above section reviewed developments in the field of L2 motivation, mainly following Dörnyei (2005) that separated the research period since 1959 into three stages. From the first stage, Gardner's social psychological perspective was carefully examined; included was a contemporary interpretation of his construct combined with a historical critique of it. It is then followed by a cognitive-situated period, witnessing a flourishing of new themes and research methods emanating from a round of debate started by Crookes and Schmidt (1991); specifically, cognitive-based self-determination and attribution theories were mentioned, and research on the most situated aspect of motivation, task motivation, was also looked at. Finally, a brief overview was presented on the yet developing process-oriented approach.

3. An alternative model of L2 motivation research – Dörnyei's "L2 Motivational Self System"

Specifically since the 1990s, new models for L2 motivation research have been flourishing, among which frameworks from Dörnyei (1994a) and Williams and Burden (1997) have been regarded as the most elaborate (Dörnyei, 2004). Due to their concern and success of incorporating and grouping an extensive range of motivational components from different sources, they have been seen as exemplifying the "paradigm–seeking" spirit of the last decade. However, another trend of development, building upon the existing conceptualization, has also offered valuable insights; this type of work is perceived to culminate in Dörnyei's most recent "L2 Motivational Self System", which is felt to be largely compatible with the research tradition, works from Noels *et al.* (2001) that are seen as relevant and results from the current study.

Dörnyei *et al.* (2006) have introduced that the central issue of their new conception is to align the traditional integrative aspect with the Ideal L2 Self. "The latter refers to the L2-specific facet of one's 'ideal self', which is the representation of all the attributes that a person would like to possess (e.g. hopes, aspirations, desires). If one's ideal self is associated with the mastery of an L2, that is, if the person that we would like to become is proficient in the L2, we can be described – using Gardner's (1985) terminology – as having an 'integrative' disposition" (pp. 16-17). In addition to the Ideal L2 Self, the system contains an "Ought-to L2 Self" (also cf. Dörnyei, 2005), which refers to the attributes that one ought to possess (including perceived duties, obligations, and its like) so as to avoid possible negative outcomes. Finally, the system includes the aspect of "L2 Learning Experience", which concerns situation-specific motives from one's immediate learning environment and experience.

The above conceptualization (the first two elements) was based on consistent evidence from a specifically large-scale, longitudinal study of Hungarian EFL students (Csizér and Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei and Csizér, 2002; Dörnyei *et al.*, 2006). Using SEM, Dörnyei *et al.* have built an interesting structural model illustrating the inter-relationship between motivational variables and the behavioural indicators of effort and language choice (Fig. 2.2.3.1, from Dörnyei *et al.*, 2006).

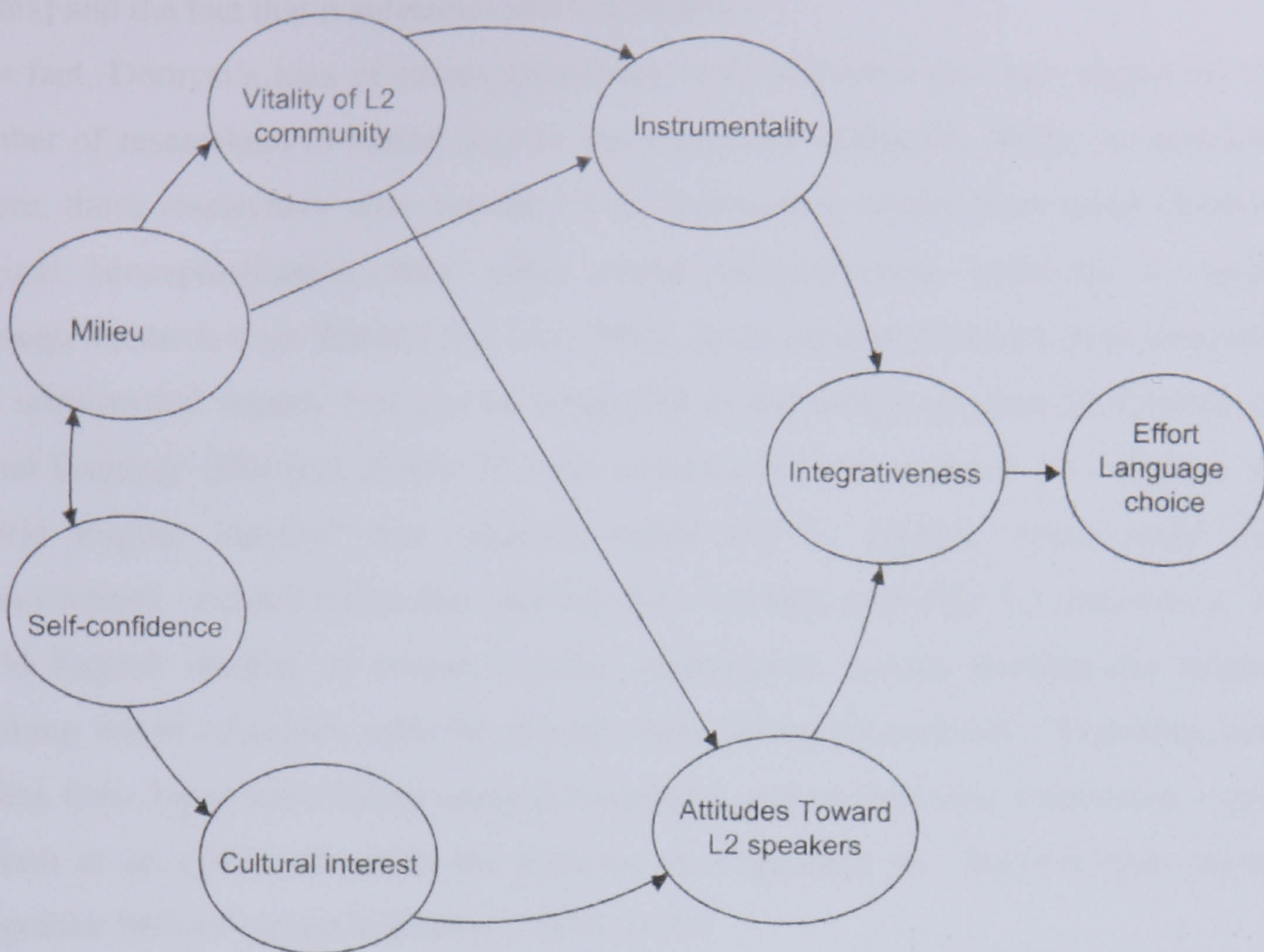


Fig. 2.2.3.1 Structure on the Inter-relationship of Motivational Factors, from Dörnyei *et al.* (2006)

From the above, there are two points that deserve specific attention. Firstly, integrativeness has occupied such a prominent position that it physically mediates the relation between behaviour and all other motivational variables (a similar salience of integrative motivation, though to a less degree, was found in Shaaban and Ghaith, 2000). Perhaps the good thing about it, as Dörnyei *et al.* (2006) argues, is that it is in line with the core position both in Gardner's theory and in empirical studies from his group (Masgoret and Gardner, 2003). Secondly, instrumentality, like "attitudes toward L2 speakers", was found to be a primary contributor of integrativeness. It is not difficult to accept why integrativeness contains positive inter-group attitudes, as has been posited in Gardner's theory. However, more theoretical advance is needed to explain the above relation between integrativeness and instrumentality (although the above two have long ceased to be seen as antagonistic counterparts by many) (Dörnyei *et al.*, 2006). To explain the discovered structural relation, it was felt that, to start with, integrativeness needed to be reconceptualized so as to both account for its dominating position in a FL

context and the fact that it subsumes instrumentality.

In fact, Dörnyei's idea of reconceptualizing integrativeness has been supported by a number of researchers to varied degrees for some time (Dörnyei, 2005). As mentioned before, those researchers were unhappy with inconsistent results from using Gardner's original conceptualization: they either found integrativeness irrelevant to foreign language contexts (e.g. Warden and Lin, 2000), or an entangled impact from integrative and instrumental aspects that can be connected to the unique position of English as a global language (Dörnyei, 2005): In some contexts there is evidence on existence of a "world English identity" that students would like to acquire, which make them internationally oriented rather than gearing them towards a specific L2 community. The world English identity of course includes instrumental aspects because the English-speaking world coincides with the world's most advanced countries. Therefore, some studies from Japan have found merged integrative and instrumental tendencies, leading Kimura *et al.* (2001) to reach the extreme of suggesting an "Intrinsic-instrumental-integrative Motive" (cited in Dörnyei, 2005, p. 97).

To better account for the identification process especially where an L2 group is not available or in the face of globalization (where identification is aimed at an imagined global community), Dörnyei (2005) has borrowed from personality psychology on possible selves that are thought to "give form, meaning, structure, and direction to one's hopes and threats, thereby inciting and directing purposeful behavior" (p. 100). Specifically, he has found Higgins' (1987, cited in Dörnyei, 2005) "ideal self" (concerning attributes one would ideally like to possess) and "ought self" (concerning attributes one believes one ought to possess) very useful.

Now return to the two observations from above, Dörnyei *et al.* (2006) state that the introduction of "Ideal L2 Self" (as an aspect of one's "ideal self") helps to explain why instrumentality appeared as a major contributor of integrativeness. It is firstly because the idealized language self is a cognitive representation of all the incentives associated with mastery of an L2, including professional competence. Secondly, the idea of instrumentality can either relate to the "ideal self" or the "ought self", depending on the extent of internalization of its componential motives. When its motives concern higher-end goals involving a "promotion focus", it feeds into the ideal L2 identity; when its

motives concern mere obligation, duty or fear of punishment involving a "prevention focus", it is associated with the "ought self".

The domination of "integrativeness" ("Ideal L2 Self"), or rather the lack of a salient Ought-to L2 dimension in their model, has also been accounted for (Dörnyei *et al.*, 2006): this could be due to the fact that no items addressing lower-end instrumental motives were included into their study; another suggestion is that pragmatic rewards often connected with learning of an L2 is quite remote to young Hungarian pupils, which is in line with other researchers on the same topic.

Finally, Dörnyei (2005) has compared his new system with Noels *et al.* (2001) that suggested a motivational construct made up of three interrelated types of orientations – intrinsic reasons inherited in the language learning process, extrinsic reasons for L2 learning and integrative reasons. It is felt that "Ideal L2 Self" can explain the integrative tendency from Noels *et al.,* whilst "Ought-to L2 Self" corresponds to the substrate of extrinsic reasons, and "L2 Learning Experience" fits Noels *et al.*'s idea of intrinsic reasons.

In the case of the current study, though to a lesser degree, Dörnyei's conceptualization was found to be relevant. Firstly, when factor analysing EFL orientations from Shanghai, it was found that different tendencies could overlap, therefore the traditional "extrinsic – intrinsic" or "instrumental, integrative and intrinsic" constructs had their problems in that specific context. Specifically, the idea of "integrativeness" from the current study was found to slightly depart from its classic definition, in that firstly it illustrated like of mainly American cultural products and secondly it could be further enlarged to express an international outlook, with English as a medium of communication. Secondly, when aligning orientations along the self-determination continuum, instrumental reasons were found to connect with different styles of motivation (including both less and highly internalized motives), suggesting that instrumentality is not a straightforward construct and there is a possibility to separate lower-end and higher-end instrumental goals that may connect with different L2 selves.

In summary, the above section has briefly looked at Dörnyei's "L2 Motivational Self System", which was based on consistent evidence from one FL learning context. .Its core component, "L2 Ideal Self" was also seen as a necessary advance from the traditional

conceptualization of integrativeness, which was found to be unsuitable for certain EFL contexts. Whilst unable to fully test the above system, due to different research design and aims, the current study has yielded results appearing to support ideas from that system.

4. Brief summary of empirical evidence that relates to the current study

This chapter will be concluded with a brief look at empirical evidence relating to certain themes of interest from the current study: gender differences; motivation change and orientations for L2 study.

1) Gender differences

The issue of gender differences in motivation, behaviour and outcomes has been very well recorded both in the field of SLA and that of L2 motivation research; a good summary might be seen in Dörnyei *et al.* (2006, p. 55):

> We do not think that there are many quantitative studies in the L2 literature that examined boys' and girls' attributes or achievement and did not find any salient differences. It seems that when it comes to foreign language learning, boys and girls behave in a strikingly different way and the results of our survey produce strong evidence for this claim.

The above study reported a consistent, gendered tendency that was summarised into two points: girls indicated superior motivational dimensions and outcomes; L2s, in general, were increasingly seen as a "girly" subject (also see Csizér and Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei and Csizér, 2002), or not "cool" for boys (Williams, 2004), although there is dispute on the second issue (e.g. Barton, 2001).

Specifically, it was found (Dörnyei *et* al., 2006) that girls' scores were generally higher on most motivational aspects (such as integrativeness, instrumentality, attitudes and self-confidence) and behavioural indicators (choice and intended effort). The only aspect that saw no obvious gender difference was "Vitality of L2 Community", leading to the conclusion that the observed female superiority was not a consequence of a differential perception of the importance of an L2 and its communities, which contrasted some studies (e.g. Jones and Jones, 2001, cited in Macaro, 2003; Williams, 2004) that found a gendered perception of importance of L2s. Another interesting point concerns "Language

Choice", where boys gave more endorsement to "masculine languages" such as German, Russian and English and girls preferred "feminine languages" of French and Italian (such a tendency to allocate femininity or masculinity to an L2 was also found in other countries, e.g. Bartram, 2006b; Williams, 2004); however, despite the initial preferences, girls, again, were prepared to exert more effort. Finally, when looking at motivational clusters (4 groups illustrating different motivational strength and profile) across languages, girls were found to dominate all but one of the most motivated clusters.

The above tendency of girls' superiority has been repeated in other studies from different contexts: Shaaban and Ghaith (2000) found that female students from Lebanon were more motivated than their male counterparts. McIntyre *et al.* (2003), in a French immersion course involving grades 7 to 9, discovered gender difference, in that girls' WTC increased over years and anxiety decreased whilst boys' level kept roughly unchanged. In another study on the impact of gender and French immersion, Baker and MacIntyre (2000) found that male nonimmersion students showed the least positive attitudes toward French learning whilst female nonimmersion students showed higher endorsement of most of the L2 orientations.

When it comes to England, in more recent years great attention has been drawn to gender differences, especially boys' underachievement, in L2 learning (e.g. Clark and Trafford, 1995). The Foreign Language Performance in Schools Report (Assessment of Performance Unit 1996, cited in Macaro, 2003) found that boys cited modern foreign languages as a more difficult subject than girls. Perhaps consequently, Colley and Comber (2003) found boys liked L2 even less, whilst girls' attitudes remained more or less unchanged, which is broadly in line with Barton (2001). In terms of achievements, Jones and Jones (2001, cited in Macaro, 2003) found that pupils in languages were doing less well than other subjects and that boys were doing worse. Finally, Williams (2002; 2004), for instance, reported superiority of girls in varied areas of intrinsic motivation, effort, attitudes, and agency (including strategy use and attribution).

2) Motivational change

As illustrated before (in the section on process-oriented period), there is empirical evidence on motivational change over time. For instance, Colley and Comber (2003),

targeting five schools in England, have reported that there is a stronger tendency towards practicality in preferences in both populations aged 11-12 and 15-16. However, more often, researchers, such as Chambers (1999) and Williams *et al.* (2002) from the same country, would report a general tendency of motivational decrease especially over a sustained period within school contexts.

The above tendency has also been found to be valid in other language contexts and age groups. MacIntyre *et al.* (2003), in their study on a French immersion course launched in Canada, found a drop-down of student motivation over years. Hotho (1999) also reported reduced motivational intensity over a German course from a group of British university students. Another study by Tachibana *et al.* (1996) compared samples from Japan and China and found a decline in interest from lower to upper secondary levels.

A specifically interesting study on motivational change over time has been conducted by Gardner *et al.* (2004). With a sample of 197 university students learning French, they targeted student motivational changes from five different areas over a course. Unlike other researchers finding a general tendency of cumulative loss or growth, they discovered that various motivational aspects underwent different rates of change (which perhaps is broadly in line with Ushioda, 1998 that motivational change might illustrate a more individualized and area-sensitive pattern): in specific terms, they found that whilst more stable factors, such as integrativeness and instrumental orientations, lost some of their initial edges, situation-specific motives (attitudes towards learning) illustrated twice as big a change.

3) Orientations to learn an L2

So much has already been said about L2 orientations, from Gardner's original construct emphasizing integrative and instrumental aspects, to a need to separate second and foreign language contexts at research and finally to the necessity for respecting the different cultural and situational characteristics of each context and keeping an open mind for each study. Much has also been done, from focusing on the centrality of integrativeness within Canada, to simply identifying a dominant instrumentality especially in many foreign language contexts, then to incorporating a need to treat different orientations as complex substrates, and finally to discovering the blurred

boundaries between major orientation substrates largely due to the fact that English is a global language (which leads to the introduction of L2 selves). Therefore, this section will only look at a couple of studies that discussed L2 orientations.

A famous and much cited study on L2 orientations was conducted by Clement and Kruidenier (1983) in Canada; four orientations proved to be common to all of the learning groups: travel; friendship; knowledge and instrumentality. The same authors (Krudenier and Clement, 1986, cited in Belmechri and Hummel, 1998) further found that Canadians learning ESL illustrated four orientations that were close to their previous finding: travel, friendship, prestige and knowledge/ respect. Following the above authors, Belmechri and Hummel (1998) investigated orientations among a group of Francophone high school students learning English as a second language in the city of Quebec. They found L2 reasons broadly in line with the above: travel, friendship, understanding/school (referring to understanding L2 speakers' life associated with the instrumental reason of learning English), understanding/ knowledge (referring to learning English to understand English art and acquire knowledge) and career (instrumental). Another study on immersion students learning French as a second language (McIntyre *et al.*, 2001) found orientations similar to Belmechri and Hummel (1998): travel, friendship, job related, personal knowledge and school achievement.

Interestingly, Belmechri and Hummel (1998), like other researchers, did not find a salient integrative orientation within their Canadian L2 populations. What is more important, despite the fact that they conscientiously replicated the Krudenier and Clement's (1986) research tool and requirements, they did not completely replicate the latter's results after a break of 10 years, leading to the useful comment that L2 motivation is context-sensitive (both in the sense of learning situations and time difference).

Outside Canada, there have been an increasing number of studies on foreign language orientations. Dörnyei (1990), for instance, discovered that apart from instrumental and integrative subsystems, there were two other orientations from his study: need for achievement and attributions about past failure, thus including into his study cognitive processes. A good summary on major sources of motivation for pupils to learn a foreign language might be Kyriacou and Kobori (1998) that have identified intrinsic reasons, instrumental reasons and integrative reasons; the above framework might serve as a clear

start for understanding language learning reasons. Based on the above framework, Kyriacou and Benmansour (1997) have discovered five sources of motivation: intrinsic motivation, short-term and long-term instrumental motivations, and social and cultural motivations. Their separation of short-term and long-term instrumental goals have been regarded as specifically useful: in exam-oriented EFL contexts, researchers have also separated short-term instrumental goals from comparative long-term instrumental goals. In a study done by Warden and Lin (2000), the researchers have labelled the exam-related short-term goals as "required motivation", which is thought to partly overlap Kyriacou and Benmansour's (1997) short-term motivation. It is also broadly in line with the current student that separates lower-end and higher-end instrumental reasons, which for Dörnyei (2005) might feed to different L2 selves.

To summarise, this chapter has reviewed theoretical developments and empirical evidence from studies on motivation. It has firstly focused on the field of motivational psychology, briefly following two shifts from the latter part of the last century. A description of major contemporary theories has then been given, followed by issues facing today's researchers. In the second part of this chapter, attempts have firstly been tried to trace historical definitions of L2 motivation, followed by a detailed analysis of Gardner's motivation theory, as a major theme of the social-psychological period. Another two periods, also from Dörnyei (2005), have then been looked at, with some of the major influences identified. Finally, an alternative construct, on L2 selves and seen as relevant to the current study, has been looked at, followed by a brief review of empirical evidence concerning themes identified from this study.

Chapter 3 Literature Review – Self-determination Theory and Research on Important Others

I. Self-determination Theory and Vallerand's Hierarchy

1. Self-determination theory

1) An overview

As stated in the previous chapter, Self-determination Theory (SDT), embedded in an organismic philosophy and an empirical research tradition (Ryan and Deci, 2000a), has been a most widely used theory for research on motivation in many life domains including education (Reeve, 2002), evident in the fact that a large number of research studies have been conducted both by the field's leading laboratories (e.g. http://www.psych.rochester.edu/SDT/index.html) and other individual researchers worldwide. The above meta-theory, developed by Deci and Ryan and starting from an original interest in intrinsic motivation, has undergone changes in conceptualization over years (e.g. Deci and Ryan, 1985a; Deci *et al.*, 1991; Deci and Ryan, 2000; Ryan and Deci, 2002; Reeve, *et al.*, 2004). Perhaps a clearer, more recent presentation of the above can be approached especially from Ryan and Deci (2000a; 2000b), Ryan and Deci (2002) and Deci and Vansteenkiste (2004).

To start with, SDT embraces the basic assumptions that underlie an active-organismic perspective within the positive psychology movement (Deci and Vansteenkiste, 2004). The first element is that all human beings are inherently proactive, having the potential to tap into both internal and external forces they encounter for their growth purposes. The second point is that human beings illustrate innate, constructive tendencies toward growth, development and integrated functioning (Ryan and Deci, 2002); unlike what has been suggested by social learning psychologists, human growth is not a mere passive product of social programming (Deci and Vansteenkiste, 2004). However, the final point, illustrating a dialectical view of SDT, is that although it accepts a general integrative tendency of human beings, this tendency is not seen as occurring automatically. For people to achieve an optimal level of development, basic psychological nutriments (from the social environment) are needed; those exposed to an environment devoid of such

nourishment will suffer negative consequences (Deci and Vansteenkiste, 2004; Ryan and Deci, 2002).

Given the above dialectic relation between a proactive, integrative human tendency and a social environment that can either support or forestall it through offering versus not offering psychological nutriments (in the form of basic needs), need satisfaction appears to be of central importance for SDT. Specifically, three inherent needs have been identified from empirical evidence that are supposed to underlie motivated actions – the needs for competence, relatedness and autonomy (Deci and Ryan, 2000; Ryan and Deci, 2000a; c; 2002; Deci and Vansteenkiste, 2004). "The need for competence" refers to an inherent desire within humans to feel effective when interacting with the environment; "the need for relatedness" concerns a human desire to feel connected to, to care for and to be cared by others; "the need for autonomy" expresses a human propensity to be the perceived origin of an action, to experience volition and to act out of an integrated, authentic self (Ryan and Deci, 2002; Deci and Vansteenkiste, 2004). An important point of the above needs within SDT is that they have been postulated as universal necessities surpassing the boundaries of culture, domain and context (the issue of culture will undergo specific discussion later).

Within SDT, the above need satisfaction (or forestalling) to varied degrees has been seen as leading to important motivational consequences (e.g. Vallerand, 2002). Indeed, two out of four sub-theories (cf. Ryan and Deci, 2002 for a full illustration) from SDT, "Cognitive Evaluation Theory" (CET) and "Organismic Integration Theory" (OIT), are on different types of motivation, seen as a direct consequence of the above process.

2) Cognitive Evaluation Theory – on intrinsic motivation and need satisfaction

CET (Deci and Ryan, 1985a) deals with intrinsic motivation (IM). The mini-theory was elaborated in the early 1980s (Ryan and Deci, 2002), based on evidence from two lines: firstly, it was found that given the motivational significance of contingent events, the social environment in which they occur was found to greatly affect their impact; a good example might be the discovery of a mediating function of environment on motivation when considering the motivational consequence of positive feedback administered within a perceived pressure-exerting climate (Ryan, 1982, cited in Ryan and

Deci, 2002); secondly and dialectically, it was found that people could initiate and regulate their actions that were relatively independent of the social context (Ryan, 1982, cited in Ryan and Deci, 2002), a good example being ego-involved and task-involved tendencies within people leading to diminished versus enhanced IM.

Ryan and Deci (2000b, p. 56) define IM as "the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfactions rather than for some separable consequence. When intrinsically motivated, a person is moved to act for the fun or challenge entailed rather than because of external prods, pressures, or rewards". An important point about IM is that it is an inherent, lifelong inclination within humanity. In other words, what causes IM should not be an issue of study (Ryan and Deci, 2000b); what needs to be cleared, within SDT, is that the maintenance and enhancement of the above propensity requires supportive conditions, which can be termed from the point of need satisfaction (Ryan and Deci, 2000a).

CET argues that the needs for competence and autonomy are integrally involved in IM and that contingencies are likely to affect IM to the extent that they are experienced as supporting or forestalling these needs (Ryan and Deci, 2002). Specifically, the above authors (2000a; 2000b; 2002) have separated two cognitive processes through which contextual factors can affect IM: firstly, "[c]hange in *perceived locus of causality*" (Ryan and Deci, 2002, p. 11), referring to the process relating to the need for autonomy, in which an event causing change towards a more external versus internal perceived locus will lead to either lowered or improved IM; secondly, "change in *perceived competence*", referring to the process in which an event causing increased versus decreased perceived sense of competence will in turn lead to enhanced versus diminished IM. As for whether or not a facilitating versus debilitating change will occur within "perceived locus of causality" and "perceived competence", the relative salience, and perception, of a controlling versus informational aspect of the social context has a decisive effect (Ryan and Deci, 2002).

However, contrasting the strong links established between IM and satisfaction of the needs for autonomy and competence, evidence on the importance of the need for relatedness is comparatively meagre (Deci and Vansteenkiste, 2004; Ryan and Deci, 2000a). More likely, satisfaction of the need for relatedness plays a distal role in terms of maintaining IM, in that "a secure relational base appears to provide a needed backdrop –

a distal support – for intrinsic motivation, a sense of security that makes the expression of this innate growth tendency more likely and more robust" (Deci and Ryan, 2000, p. 235).

3) Organismic Integration Theory – on extrinsic motivation and need satisfaction

Although of great importance, IM is not the only type of motivation; in the later stages of human development, it may even cease to be the most prevalent style of motivation, as the freedom to be intrinsically motivated becomes increasingly curtailed by social demands (Ryan and Deci, 2000b). Indeed, in the field of education, one research tradition on motivation involves differentiating IM and extrinsic motivation (EM), and SDT is no different in this sense. However, what makes it stand out is the fact that SDT views EM (i.e., performing an action for separable outcomes) as a complex of different motivations that "reflect differing degrees to which the value and regulation of the requested behavior have been internalized and integrated" (Ryan and Deci, 2000a, p. 71).

Given the above importance of EM and the fact that it is not typically originated out of an inherent aspect of humanity, it is perhaps reasonable to expect research emphasis on processes and factors that lead to varied types of EM and the range of outcomes that can be linked to them. Within SDT, the processes of internalization and integration have been used to differentiate different styles of EM. Internalization is a process of taking in a value or regulation and integration involves a fuller transformation of the above into the self, leading to experience of volition in action (Ryan and Deci, 2000a; b). Within Organismic Integration Theory (OIT), it is discovered that degrees of need satisfaction or non-satisfaction are key for understanding an enhanced or forestalled internalization/integration process (Deci and Vansteenkiste, 2004; Ryan and Deci, 2002), which in turn affect motivational outcomes. Again, the needs held as important are the needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness.

It is suggested that the original impetus for people to take in regulations is because they want to feel related to important others who advocate certain values and behaviour (Deci and Vansteenkiste, 2004; Ryan and Deci, 2000b). Of course, the above can be realised only when an individual is cognitively and psychologically ready. In other words, one needs to feel efficacious to internalize an action or a value (Ryan and Deci, 2000b). On top of that, a higher degree of internalization/integration can be achieved only when

support for perceived autonomy is evident.

Due to the degree of internalization/integration, caused by need satisfaction or forestalling to varied extent, OIT differentiates four styles of EM which, together with amotivation and IM, can be seen as forming a self-determination continuum (see Fig. 3.1.1.3.1 below, from Ryan and Deci, 2000a; b).

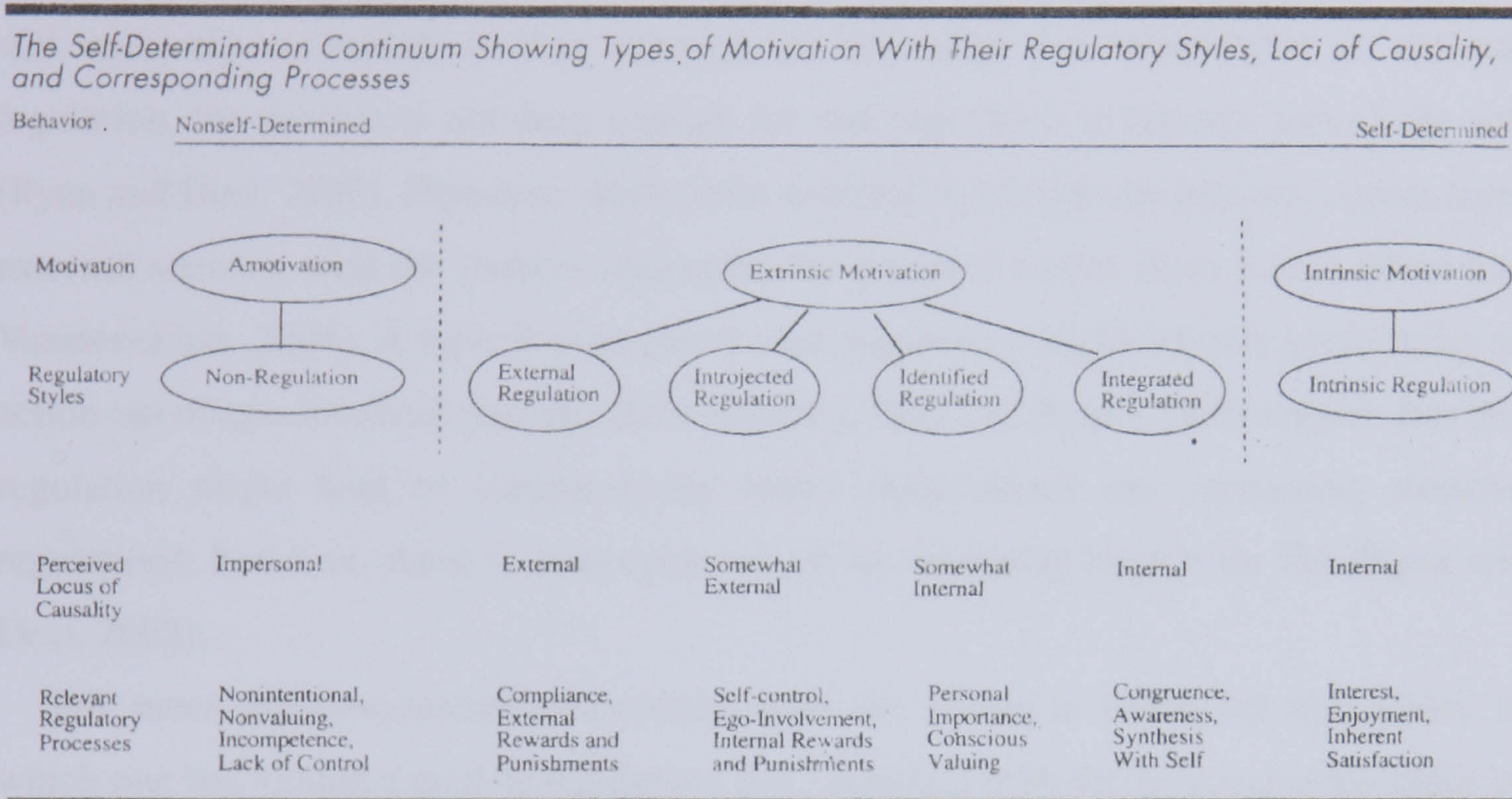


Fig. 3.1.1.3.1 The Self-determination Continuum, from Ryan and Deci (2000a; b)

At the left end of the above continuum lies amotivation, illustrating a lack of intentionality or a sense of personal causation. Its direct motivational outcome is that people either do not act at all or act passively (i.e., merely going through the motion) (Ryan and Deci, 2002). From the figure above, it is clear that amotivation occurs when people do not value the action or its outcomes or feel incompetent to perform it, which is supported by empirical evidence. The exact opposite of amotivation, located at the far right of the continuum, is IM, which is the prototype of autonomous or self-determined regulation. There has been massive evidence linking intrinsic motivation to outcomes including better learning, performance and well-being (e.g. Deci and Ryan, 2000).

In between the above extremes are four styles of EM, reflecting different degrees of regulation. External regulation is the least autonomous form of EM; classic examples of such regulation can be seen when people act to obtain extrinsic rewards or to avoid punishments (Ryan and Deci, 2002). Individuals typically experience externally regulated

behaviour as controlled or alienated and illustrate an external perceived locus of causality (Ryan and Deci, 2000b). Behavioural outcomes of the above regulation include contingency-dependent, thus poorer maintenance or transfer (Deci and Ryan, 2000). Finally, this regulation has been traditionally perceived as contrasting IM and undermining it (Deci and Ryan, 2000; Ryan and Deci, 2000b; 2002).

One step above the ladder (of self-determination) lies introjected regulation, which is still relatively controlled, in that although an individual has internalized an external regulation, the process is not deep enough for that regulation to become part of the self (Ryan and Deci, 2002). However, whilst with external regulation the pressure comes from external sources, with the current regulation the pressure comes from within (Deci and Vansteenkiste, 2004). A typical example of such regulation might involve performing an action out of ego-involved reasons. Behaviourally, Deci and Ryan (2000) suggest that this regulation might lead to comparatively better maintenance (as contrasting external regulation); however, there is also evidence on its hindering impact on IM (Ryan and Deci, 2002).

Still more autonomous/self-determined than the above is identified regulation, in which one has valued a goal or regulation, has identified with the personal importance of it and has thus accepted its regulation as her own. Behaviour out of this regulation is accompanied with personal endorsement and a high degree of perceived autonomy. However, SDT also suggests that some of identified regulation may be relatively compartmentalised, separating it from one's other belief/value systems (Ryan and Deci, 2002). Behaviourally, Deci and Ryan (2000) suggest that this regulation may lead to higher commitment and performance.

Finally, integrated regulation is the most autonomous type of EM, in that one not only identifies with the personal importance of a goal/regulation, she also integrates the above with other aspects of the self. It is suggested (Ryan and Deci, 2000a) that actions endorsed by this type of regulation share many qualities with IM; the greatest difference lies in the fact that the former is in action when one intends to attain separate outcomes (thus instrumental) whilst the latter is in evidence when the reward is within the activity itself.

There has been much evidence on different educational experiences and outcomes

connected with varied styles of EM (Koestner and Losier, 2002; Ryan and Deci, 2000a; Vallerand, 1997; Vansteenkiste *et al.*, 2005a) in the West: more generally, the more external regulations led to less interest, value endorsement or achievement effort, among other negative experiential and well-being outcomes; on the contrary, an opposite tendency was connected with a range of outcomes including better engagement and performance, lower dropout and higher quality learning. Specifically, introjected regulation, though connected to a higher level of effort, might lead to negative experiences like heightened anxiety and worse coping, whilst identified regulation was connected with more interest, effort and enjoyment of school as well as better coping styles (Ryan and Deci, 2000a). However, an unexpected point from Koestner and Losier (2002) stated that identified regulation was more salient even than IM in predicting certain types of outcomes including psychological adjustment.

To conclude on OIT, there are a couple of points that needs to be mentioned. Firstly, the above continuum of self-determination does not suggest a developmental sequence; in other words, people can internalize a new regulation at any point along the continuum, depending on experiential and contextual factors (Ryan and Decia, 2000a; b); however, the issue of development does make sense in that the range of values and behaviours that can be internalized increase with growing cognitive and mental capacities and people's general regulatory styles tend to become more self-determined over time (Ryan and Deci, 2000b). Secondly, although satisfaction of all three needs is important, perceived autonomy plays an exceptionally salient role in the processes of internalization/integration, finally deciding the level of regulation (Deci and Vansteenkiste, 2004; Ryan and Deci, 2002). As such, some empirical researchers have operationalised the concept of motivation following the autonomous versus controlled dichotomy (Vansteenkiste *et al.*, 2005a), creating a controlled motivation composite (including external and introjected regulations) and an autonomous motivation composite (including identified and integrated regulations plus IM) (Deci and Ryan, 2000; Ryan and Deci, 2000a). Finally, although the concept of integrated regulation appears to have its theoretical base, it is difficult to operationalise in empirical research, for instance in education (Vallerand, 1997); as such, many studies tend not to include it in research (e.g. Vansteenkiste *et al.*, 2005a).

4) On the cultural validity of SDT

From the above, it can be concluded that SDT has offered a parsimonious framework for understanding varied types of motivation, their relation to basic psychological factors and possible outcomes connected with a supporting versus non-supporting environment. However, it has to be pointed out that development of SDT had been based on evidence mainly from the West. As such, a logical question for studies conducted in non-Western contexts (such as the current study) would be that whether or not the above framework holds cross-cultural validity.

Specifically, researchers have questioned that whether or not there are universal psychological needs (Deci *et al.*, 2001) and if the links between a need-supportive environment, perceived satisfaction of needs and well-being can also be established in non-Western countries. In more recent years, there appears to have been an increasing body of evidence endorsing the above hypotheses.

Research on perceived autonomy has been especially flourishing and fruitful, given its overarching importance, and the fact that the needs for competence and relatedness are widely researched in psychology and are consequently more acceptable to many (Ryan and Deci, 2000c). For instance, Deci *et al.* (2001) focused on the impact of autonomy-support on employee perceptions and behavioural outcomes. Taking samples from Bulgaria, a country still reflecting an authoritarian, collectivist past, they made findings in line with similar studies from the U.S.: autonomy-supportive work climates predict satisfaction of the intrinsic needs for competence, autonomy and relatedness, which in turn predict task motivation and psychological adjustment on the job. Chirkov *et al.* (2003; 2005) also hypothesized relations between autonomy and well-being across cultures. In their first study (2003), they drew samples from the four cultures of the U.S., South Korea, Turkey and Russia, with the latter three being viewed as being collectivistic or vertical in nature. The results suggested that the issue of autonomy can be similarly understood across diverse cultures, and across diverse practices autonomy is associated with well-being. The second study of Chirkov *et al.* (2005) both supported their early study on the link between autonomy and well-being among Brazilian and American samples, and extended the latter by finding the importance of autonomy support (from

parents and teachers) for promoting well-being.

Finally, Vansteenkiste *et al.* (2005a) conducted a series of studies focusing specifically on outcomes and support of autonomy from mainland Chinese EFL educational settings, which is of specific significance for the current study. In their first study, they found that autonomous study motivation positively predicts adaptive learning attitudes, academic success and personal well-being, whilst controlled motivation is associated to higher drop-out rates, maladaptive learning attitudes and ill-being. The above is direct evidence that the idea of autonomy does make sense to Chinese students. Indeed, Littlewood (1999, p. 89) has generalized the above point to include students from East Asian contexts, by proposing that "East Asian students have the same capacity for autonomy as other learners", only that as a group they might illustrate different attitudes towards aspects of autonomy, arisen from a strong importance attached to the interdependent self and the group, and that they might have different opportunities to exercise choices in their learning, due to crucial factors embedded in their cultural/educational traditions.

In their second study (Vansteenkiste *et al.*, 2005a), they found that perceived autonomy support from Chinese parents is related to more adaptive learning strategies and higher well-being, although those effects appeared to be mediated by students' relative autonomy for studying.

In summary, when pooling evidence from the above lines, it can be tentatively concluded that Deci and Ryan's basic needs do make sense for a range of cultures and domains, and their perception of fundamentally universal routes between need support, need satisfaction and well-being outcomes also appear to be valid.

Apart from envisioning universal processes underlying need support, satisfaction and well being, SDT has also attempted to incorporate the impact of culture (Ryan and Deci, 2000a; 2002): it suggests that there can be differences in the relative salience of those needs, their modes of expression and the means through which people satisfy them, all of which are seen as bounded by cultures embracing different values and goals. Given the above, a line of research vigour has focused on cross-cultural goals, seen as an expression of needs and the pursuit of which has offered routes for need satisfaction. An interesting study by Grouzet *et al.* (2005) looked at the basic structures of goal contents across 15 cultures, including those of Hong Kong and mainland China. Their results suggested that

the 11 types of goals in question could be consistently organized in a circumplex fashion across 15 cultures, which was well described by positing 2 primary dimensions underlying those goals – intrinsic versus extrinsic (as in line with the position of SDT) and self-transcendent versus physical. However, differences were found from wealthier to poorer cultures regarding the goal of financial success aspirations, which had a less extrinsic or physical character and was closer to the goal of affiliation in the poorer cultures. This suggests a dual position in line with SDT that within life goals, there can be culture-independent, deep structures that are closely connected to universal psychological needs, and the specific expression of some goals can be bounded by social-cultural factors. Other researchers interested in the causal link between goal-setting, need satisfaction and perceived well-being have adopted the idea of "self-concordance", in which people feel that they pursue their goals because they fit with their personal interests and endorsed values (Sheldon *et al.*, 2004). In other words, self-concordant goals are goals underlain either by IM or identified regulation (Sheldon, 2002), from an SDT perspective. In Sheldon *et al.* (2004), samples from four cultures including mainland China and Taiwan were drawn, and results indicated that the Chinese sample experienced an equal level of self-concordance when compared with its Western counterpart, which predicted subjective well-being, indicating the importance of setting intrinsic goals across cultures. In summary, the above studies on cross-cultural goals have added to evidence pointing to SDT's position acknowledging the existence of universal deep structures in human psychic whilst allowing differences in culturally-bound, surface practices.

Finally, despite increasing evidence on the cultural validity of SDT, there has been criticism especially launched at the relevance of autonomy, or the consequent need to understand it, within Eastern cultures (Vansteenkiste *et al.*, 2005a). The above is based on observations that Eastern cultures (such as China) emphasize collectivistic values, interdependent self-concept and related practices channeling human behaviour towards the above tendency, which are seen as debilitating the sense of autonomy. In terms of evidence, d'Ailly (2003), for instance, found that extrinsic study regulation, rather than more autonomous regulations, positively predicted achievement strivings from a Taiwanese sample. Whilst d'Ailly (2003) was found to have a flawed methodology (Vansteenkiste *et al.*, 2005a), observations rejecting the importance of autonomy for non-

Western cultures was seen as originated from theoretical confusion (Ryan and Deci, 2000a; c; Vansteenkiste *et al.*, 2005a), in that many researchers tend to equal the idea of autonomy to ideas such as independence and individualism, among others: in SDT, autonomy concerns the extent to which people authentically and genuinely concur with the forces that do influence their behaviour; in this sense, it does not imply that people's behaviour is determined independently of social influences or total independence of action or free will (Ryan and Deci, 2000c).

2. Vallerand's hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

Before concluding the section on SDT, the current research student felt it necessary to briefly look at Vallerand's (1997; 2000) hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, a framework sharing the same rationale with SDT and extending it in meaningful ways. Vallerand's model emphasizes a causal link between motivational determinants, motivation and outcomes, taking an SDT perspective acknowledging the mediative function of perceived need satisfaction, suggesting a construct of motivation that can be arranged along a continuum of self-determination and relating a range of cognitive, affective and behavioural outcomes, from negative to positive, to increasingly autonomous motivation.

The greatest difference, however, is that Vallerand has also addressed the complexity of motivation by looking at it from different levels of generality, which corresponds with the spirit within L2 research on differentiating motivational levels. Below is an illustration of the concept of motivation formed from three different levels, including how varied links at each level work horizontally and vertically (Fig. 3.2.1).

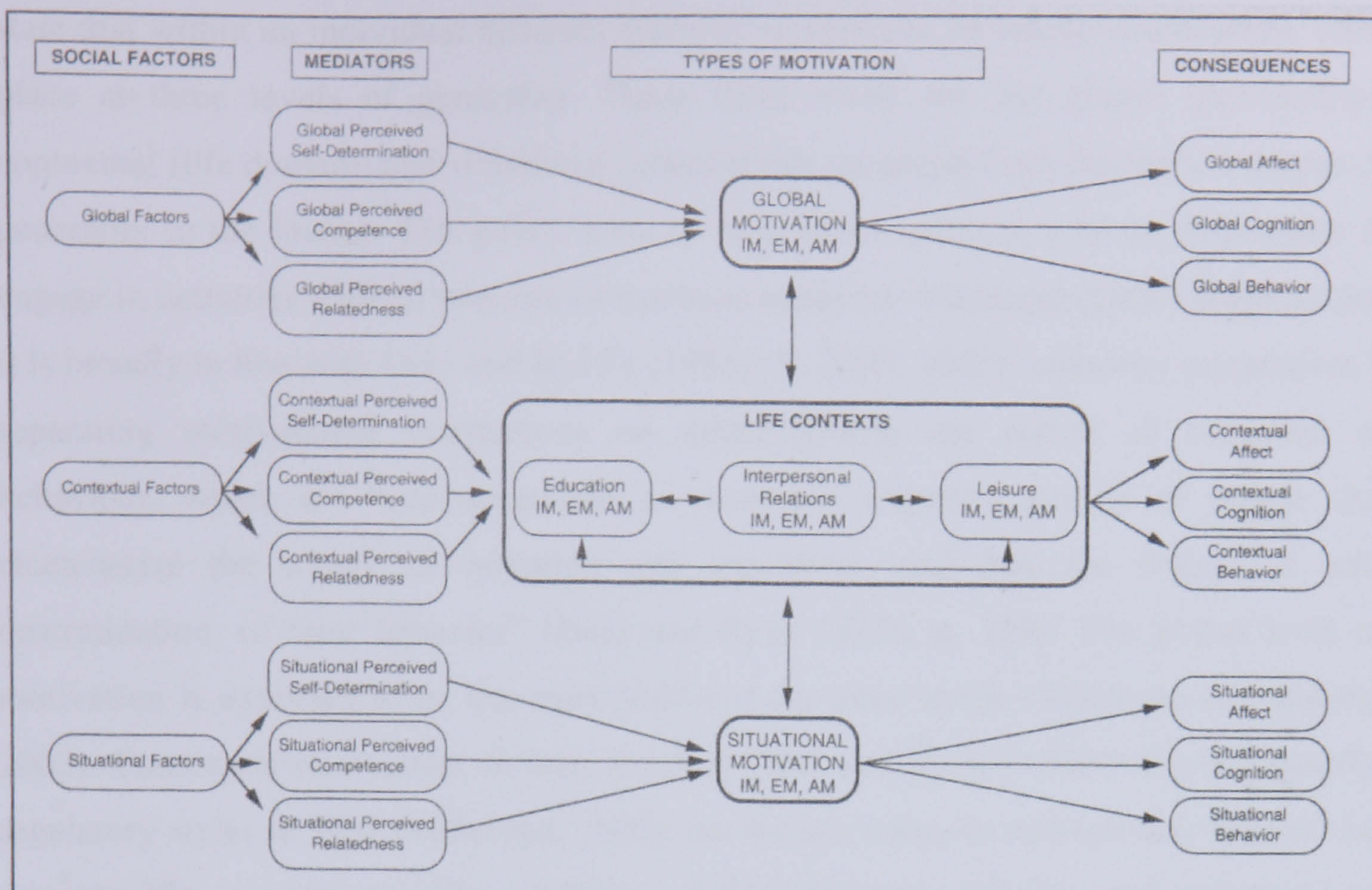


Fig. 3.2.1 Vallerand's Hierarchical Model of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation, from Vallerand and Ratelle (2002)

From the above figure, there are a couple of developments (from SDT) that need to be explained. Firstly, in addition to viewing EM as comprising varied styles of regulation, intrinsic motivation is viewed as a construct subsuming varied components. Specifically, three components have been suggested: intrinsic motivation to know, to accomplish and to experience stimulation (Vallerand, 2000). IM to know means engaging in activities for the pleasure and satisfaction derived from learning and understanding new things; IM to accomplish refers to taking an action for the pleasure and satisfaction of surpassing oneself or accomplishing something; IM to experience stimulation means doing something for the stimulating sensations associated with it (Vallerand and Ratelle, 2002). The research student feels that it has empirical significance to treat IM as a multi-faceted construct and to identify the basic elements of it. For instance, in her research, she also encountered students expressing a desire to study hard so as to surpass the self. Without referring to the above operationalisation on IM (e.g. Vallerand, 2000), she would have had difficulty categorising motivation to accomplish.

Secondly, Vallerand (2000) and Vallerand and Ratelle (2002), as mentioned before,

state that within an individual different types of motivation, including amotivation, takes place at three levels of generality. These three levels are the global (personality), contextual (life domain) and situational (state) levels, arranged from the highest degree of generality to the lowest. The global level of motivation refers to a broad disposition to engage in activities with an intrinsic or extrinsic tendency. Vallerand (2000) suggests that it is broadly in line with Deci and Ryan's (1985a; b; 2000; 2002) "causality orientations", separating motivational orientations on understanding the nature of causation of behaviour, which are "conceptualized as relatively enduring aspects of people that characterize the source of initiation and regulation, and thus the degree of self-determination, of their behavior" (Deci and Ryan 1985a, p. 109). The global level of motivation is expected to be the most stable of the three levels (Vallerand and Ratelle, 2002). Contextual motivation, in turn, parallels Deci and Ryan's (2000) domain-specific regulatory styles in SDT (Vallerand, 2000); the former refers to motivational aspects that are specific to various life contexts, with education, leisure and interpersonal relationships being singled out as the three most significant domains for young adults (Vallerand and Ratelle, 2002).The lowest level of the hierarchy involves situational motivation, dealing with "the here and now of motivation" (Vallerand, 2000, p. 313). As such, it might be familiar to researchers of L2 motivation who also separate general and state motivations.

A third point of interest concerns Vallerand's (2000) motivational determinants. Firstly, it is found that motivation at a given level can result from social factors of matching generality, i.e., global factors can impact on the global motivation, and similarly, contextual and situational factors can affect contextual and situational motivations respectively. Situational factors refer to transient influences occurring within a specific activity; contextual factors concern recurrent influences that occur systematically within one life context, teachers being a good example that exert influence in the domain of education; global factors concern factors whose influence can be felt across life domains, in which case parents can be regarded as a typical example. Secondly, the impact of social factors on motivation is found to be mediated by perceptions of need (autonomy, competence and relatedness) satisfaction, which is in line with Deci and Ryan: however, it is also stressed that perceptions of the above needs mediate the relation between social

factors and motivation at three distinct levels.

Regarding the above point, the current student understands the logic of ideally separating parents and teachers since they can be argued to exert a mediative influence from varied levels, which is in line with Dörnyei (e.g. 2005) who singles out teachers from the idea of significant others, arguing influence from teachers are embedded in context-specific environments. However, she also feels it possible to align the above groups, when the research focus is on the socializing impact of the above within one domain, such as L2 learning. Indeed, there has been argument supporting the idea of domain-specific impacts from parents, pertaining specifically to school, future plans and career goals (Meeus, 1989; Younnis and Smollar, 1985; cited in Lake and Eastwood, 2005). In addition, emphasis both from SDT and Vallerand on the mediative link of perceptions is found to offer further support for the current study, having an interest in perceived, rather than "actual", impact from others.

A fourth point of interest concerns the dynamic aspect of motivation, with regard to the relations between motivational levels (which has also been discussed within L2 motivation research). For instance, there could be a top-down effect, in that a higher level of motivation can impact on motivation at the next lower level. Further, there could be a bottom-up effect, in that a lower-level of motivation in time can have a feedback effect on motivation at the next higher level. What is more, as shown from the above figure (Fig. 3.2.1), within contextual motivation, there can be an interplay among motivation from varied domains.

A final point is that motivation produces psychological outcomes at different levels: in line with SDT, those outcomes are hypothesized to range from most negative to most positive, dependent on the type of motivation (from least to most self-determined) conducive to them. However, moving forward from SDT, the above model suggests that consequences also take place at different levels, corresponding to the specific level of motivation (global, contextual or situational) that energised activities of goal pursuit and achievement, and within the level of contextual motivation, domain-specific outcomes can also been linked back to a corresponding, domain-specific motivation.

In summary, Part I of this chapter has looked at a highly regarded theory of motivation, SDT, as well as Vallerand's hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. SDT

can be viewed as a meta-theory interested in the dialectical relationship between an integrative tendency within humans and social-contextual factors that can either facilitate or forestall full development of that tendency through offering or withdrawing basic psychological nourishments. Due to varied degrees of nourishment provision versus withdrawal, humans display a range of motivation that can be arranged along a continuum of self-determination, which in turn lead to varied outcomes and experiences. As such, SDT has offered a good framework for understanding the chain of antecedents, motivation and outcomes, which is also what Vallerand has aimed to do. Sharing the same spirit, Vallerand has detailed SDT and extended elements of it for empirical purposes. Specifically, he has highlighted a hierarchy of motivation within an individual, and how this hierarchical perspective can impact on understanding of firstly interaction between different levels of motivation, and secondly interaction between motivation and their antecedents and outcomes from different levels of generality, which appears to have empirical evidence (e.g. Guay *et al.*, 2003). The above is highly relevant to the current study, through offering a framework for researching on the mediating impact of significant others on Chinese EFL students' motivation, which is hypothesized to form a continuum illustrating varied degrees of self-determination.

II. Research on Significant Others

1. The idea of, and research on, significant others

1) The idea of significant others

In more recent years, the idea of significant others has been researched on many occasions in varied disciplines often illustrating a slightly different emphasis due to its fluid boundary. However, it is generally accepted that this term, having a social psychological origin, refers to those "others" that exert a major influence in an individual's life on the socialization of behaviour, values, habits and attitudes of a certain culture. As such, parents, teachers and peers are often targeted as core categories forming the above idea, especially concerning the domain of education. A good example might be Harter (1985) that identifies four sources of such influencers: parents, teachers, classmates and close friends. In the socializing process, the above groups of people exert

an influence by

> (1) communicating the norms, values, and expectations of the culture or society in which they live; (2) defining the behavior that is considered to be appropriate to the culture or society in which the individual resides; (3) modeling the appropriate attitudes and behaviors; and (4) providing the necessary information about the environment to the individuals under their influence (Woefel and Haller, 1971). (cited in Shade, 1983, p. 137)

The above socializing function might be specifically relevant to the case of L2 learning, a process with an obvious social-cultural dimension, within which communication of views and beliefs by significant others are seen as an important source of motivation (e.g. Dornyai *et al.*, 2006). However, despite that consensus, it is felt that research on significant others in L2 motivation is not always explicit; quite often, researchers have illustrated a passing interest in certain categories of the above, and more typically, impact from them are seen as embedded in a more familiar idea of "milieu" or "context". In addition, understanding of the boundary of significant others in L2 can be divergent from the main field of education: Dörnyei and his colleagues (e.g. Csizér and Dörnyei, 2005) have explicitly limited this idea to include parents, family and friends, arguing that teacher influences are embedded in a different sphere of life. As stated before, this current study follows a main research tradition as well as L2 researchers such as Williams and Burden (1997) on the idea of significant others by considering all three categories of parents, teachers and peers; however, the term of "important others" has been used instead to acknowledge possible conceptual differences within L2 motivation research.

Another point about the idea of significant others is that perceived impact from them illustrates a developmental change. Juhasz (1989), for instance, reported a change in the order of importance of influences: the Years 5 and 6 pupils ranked mother, father, siblings and friends as forming a rank of decreasing importance; the Years 7 and 8 groups found friends to be more important; whilst university freshmen identified teachers as having the strongest influence, with friends and parents on a par.

A similar line of argument is presented in Lake and Eastwood (2005), with their review focus on the period of early adolescence. Those researchers cited widely on a consensus of parents being the most important influencers of most children; they then moved to the fact that as adolescence starts, individuals start to extend their relations with non-parental others, mostly evident in the increasingly significant role peer groups play, perhaps

followed by other categories such as teachers, coaches and relatives from other domains and activities. In the early adolescence, Kroger (2000), for instance, found that parents, followed by peers, appear to be the primary influencers in terms of identity development, although all other groups contribute influential socialization experiences. The above tendency was also supported by McInerney *et al.* (2006) who argued for a primary function of parental psychological support in children's educational expectancy, as well as a considerably increased peer influence on shaping of pupil personalities and beliefs starting early adolescence due to the increasing amount of time one spends with her peers.

However, although there is evidence that the role played by peer groups is not necessarily to the detriment of the parent-child relationship, or the parental influence, in the emerging adolescence, there are arguments that the relationship provided by other categories may be qualitatively different from that provided by peers or parents (Lake and Eastwood, 2005). As such, it may be meaningful to differentiate youngster-significant other-relationships and their changes throughout adolescence. A good start for understanding different roles groups of significant others play may be to follow the argument that the situation young people find themselves in, or the particular problem they are facing, may affect from whom they seek assistance (Lake and Eastwood, 2005). Research following the above found evidence that peers are more likely to influence adolescents through modelling and parents are more likely to influence by developing norms and standards. However, the above does not suggest that impact from significant others can be neatly categorised; it is more likely that "there may be some level of specialization but there is a considerable degree of overlap in the functions filled by different people" (Munsch and Blyth, 1993, cited in Lake and Eastwood, 2005).

2) Studies on significant others

It is exactly the assumption that influences from different people can overlap to some degree that makes researching groups of significant others together possible. Within this vein, McInerney *et al.* (2006) suggested that significant others (parents, teachers and peers) play an important role on the formation of students' self-esteem, academic behaviour and performance, amongst other outcomes, through informing and reinforcing the latter's expectancies and beliefs (e.g. on the importance of a certain subject); a

negative impact would be in evidence should there be any incongruence between beliefs and expectancies from students and their influencers, according to a certain person-environment fit theory (cf. Kristof, 1996 for a review, cited in McInerney *et al.*, 2006). Other studies of the influence of significant others on self-concept and self-esteem include Joubert (1991), Scher (1990) and Burnett and McCrindle (1997), with an earlier emphasis on the link between statements from significant individuals, pupil self talk and their self perceptions. In addition, there have been studies ranging from researching the influences of significant others on development of values (e.g. Astill *et al.*, 2002) to school transition (e.g. Mangione and Speth, 1998).

Across the school curriculum, more research emphasis has been on the field of Maths (Bishop and Brew, 1996; Watt, 1997) and sports/physical education (P. E.) (e.g. Carr and Hussey, 1999; Carr and Weigand, 2001; White *et al.*, 1998). Especially in the field of sports/P. E., there has been an increasing emphasis on the embedded social contexts, formed by parents, teachers and peers, which bear great influences on one's motivational dispositions. White *et al.* (1998) examined American urban students' (aged 10 to 14) goal orientations in P. E. and their socialization experiences. They found that their students perceived the motivational climate created by significant others as important, and specifically, coaches and parents were perceived to be essential in creating task oriented or ego oriented climates, impacting on the students' dispositional goal orientations. Carr and Weigand (2001) also looked at the relationship between secondary school students' goal orientations for P. E. and perceptions of the motivational climate. Their findings confirmed earlier studies that perceived influences from significant others correlate with demonstration of different types of student goal orientations (task versus ego); a task orientation is more likely to be adopted when significant others emphasize learning and mastery, whereas the opposite will be in evidence when those influencers emphasize comparison and demonstration of competence. Consequently, the above researchers (2001) suggested significant others to exert caution in socializing values and expectations, as the latter appear to have a twofold influence – both on the student's situational goal setting and on their dispositional orientations. Carr and Hussey (1999) also recognized the important role of beliefs, expectations and encouragement (from significant individuals) on motivating students to attend physical activities. Their results, from two

age groups in England, identified parents, especially fathers, as a major socializing influence during middle through late childhood; they also found a mixed influence from peers and teachers during adolescence, suggesting that perhaps in early adolescence, the students were not mature enough to solely rely upon peer group for adjustment of their behaviour.

However, empirical research on the mediating role of significant others in L2 education has been comparatively scarce, and the results can be ambiguous. In their review on L2 related individual differences, Ehrman *et al.* (2003) both identified studies emphasizing the influence from significant others as a strong motivator, and located works finding a marginal input from teachers and peers especially in the cases of high achievers.

Diffy *et al.* (2001) compared 150 Scottish and Canadian secondary students' (aged 13 to 15) motivation to learn French as an L2 and reported both combined and separate influences from significant others. The researchers identified contextual reasons leading to higher motivation from Canadian students: those students were found to have a higher dependence on their teachers; parental reinforcement was also shown to play a role for their higher L2-related interest and instrumental motivation, whereas Scottish parents often failed to elaborate their reasons for persistence in L2 learning; finally, peer comparison from both samples was suggested to offer crucial information for a student's evaluation of sense of competence. When the issue involves comparing the relative strength of impact from different groups of significant others, Speiller (1988) discovered that her sample of secondary students rated faculty, family and peers as having a decreasing level of impact on their decisions to continue or discontinue L2s, even though those human factors as a whole exerted a comparatively weaker influence than other factors.

In summary, it is evident that more research on significant others in L2 education is necessary to better account for varied results from earlier literature and to understand the divergent, and convergent, routes parents, teachers and peers may take to exert influence.

3) Cultural/contextual constraints of the idea

For the current writer. a final point on research about significant others, as Lake and

Eastwood (2005) imply, is to be sensitive to the contextual, cultural impact on the above idea. Even in the West, there was conflicting evidence on which groups of others were highlighted (Lake and Eastwood, 2005) for adolescence: a number of studies from both England and America found an increasing amount of time adolescents spent with peers over years, which moved them away from parental influence; however, other studies, such as one conducted in Norway, instead of a dominating peer influence, found multiple groups of significant adults and had adolescents viewing adolescent-adult relationships as important. Similarly, teachers appeared to exert vastly different influence (Lake and Eastwood, 2005): one study found a central role of teacher support and encouragement, whereas a number of other Western studies found a marginal teacher influence, despite the expectation on a high teacher profile due to extended time they spend with adolescents and their key positions for human development. Championing the second point, McInerney *et* al. (2006) highlighted teacher influence on the formation of academic self-esteem and development of academic behaviour, acknowledging teachers as a most salient source of feedback for an adolescent's academic proficiency. A final example of students across cultures highlighting different influence groups is given by Nairiai *et al.* (2003): when comparing students' perceptions of whom they learned most from in six countries, they were surprised that most students did not immediately think of teachers and parents, except Japan; generally teachers were mentioned less than parents or friends, although Scottish students rated them as on a par with parents.

As stated elsewhere, the current study concentrated on a culture greatly different from the West, consequent differences in perceived influences of significant others had been expected and were found.

2. Research on parental influence

1) A general look at parental influence – research from developmental and educational psychology

The impact of parental influence on a range of more general outcomes, including academic engagement and achievement, self-perceptions and identity and value formation, has been well documented (e.g. Abbas, 2002; Astill *et* al., 2002; Jiang, 2002; Lakeland and Eastwood, 2005; Martin, 2003; Spera, 2005; Zhao and Carrasquillo, 1995).

To account for the above, positive parental behaviour, such as guiding and directing, setting limits and appropriately disciplining their teenage children, have been stressed as playing a part in the development of adolescents (Lakeland and Eastwood, 2005), whereas in academic achievement contexts, four components of positive parenting have been identified: developmentally appropriate timing of achievement demands/pressure, high confidence in the child's abilities, a supportive, affective family climate and highly motivated role models (Eccles *et al.*, 1998). Perhaps presented from a broader angle, Kyriacou (1997) has also separated two important processes in which parents and the home bring influence to bear on students' academic motivation: firstly, the role of the home and parental encouragement, specifically in terms of developing the child's confidence in their own abilities, psychologically preparing her for schooling and achieving in terms of value and attitude socialization, and offering her help with school-related tasks both in the pre-school and school years; secondly, the tendency for students to identify with and take on the aspirations of their parents, to the extent that many students are willing to exert great efforts and take specific learning strategies to secure academic success, which leads toward a lifestyle/career taken by their parents or idealized by their parents. Also on the more recently researched link between parental involvement and student motivation, Gonzalez-DeHass *et al.* (2005) reviewed works from the U.S. and concluded that possible routes of parental impact on achievement might include the mediation of students' perceived control and competence, perceived sense of security and connectedness as well as internalization of educational values.

In the specific case of identity formation, Lakeland and Eastwood (2005, p. 1) have reviewed a well-grounded model of parenting (Barber, 1997), within which, three aspects of parental socialization were identified as necessary for healthy development: a sense of connectedness with significant others; parental regulation of behaviour; and facilitation of psychological autonomy through being responsive to the need to separate from parents. The above framework, like results from Gonzalez-DeHass *et al.* (2005), appears intuitively convincing, as it taps into the key SDT tenet of satisfying three basic needs of autonomy, relatedness/connectedness and competence (perhaps facilitated by parental regulation) for psychological development.

Indeed, within the SDT perspective, research on parental influence has been

traditionally emphasized. An area of such influence under specific examination has been the link between parental autonomy support, motivational outcomes and other derivative results for adolescence, perhaps due to the fact that "the developmental tasks individuals are confronted with during adolescence are primarily centered around issues of individuation and autonomy", and that socialization practices, particularly by parents, play a key role in the development of autonomy (Soenens and Vansteenkiste, 2005, p. 589). Parental autonomy support, characterised by an empathetic attitude and choice and help offering strategies, has been linked to a range of positive motivational/affective outcomes: IM (Ryan and Deci, 2000a); mastery goal orientation (Ryan and Deci, 2000b); self-determination (Soenens and Vansteenkiste, 2005; Niemiec *et al.*, 2006), adaptive learning attitudes (Vansteenkiste *et al.*, 2005a) and psychological well-being (Niemiec *et al.*, 2006) from different age groups and contexts. Conversely, parental control has been linked to multiple maladaptive outcomes (e.g. Grolnick and Apostoleris, 2002).

Specifically, Soenens and Vansteenkiste (2005) examined the impact of perceived parenting on Belgian students' (average age = 17) degree of self-determination in three life domains (school, peer competence and job-searching), which in turn influenced domain-specific outcomes. As a result, both of their sub-studies supported the idea that autonomy-supporting parenting contributed significantly to the prediction of self-determination specifically in life domains, which is replicated in Niemiec *et al.* (2006), though covering a different context. Niemiec *et al.* (2006) focused on secondary-level students' (both from Belgium and the U.S.) perceived need support (autonomy and relatedness) and psychological well-being (e.g. affect, life satisfaction and depression), and unsurprisingly established the causal link between the above perception and outcome.

A second result from Soenens and Vansteenkiste (2005) is interesting: influences from mothers and fathers appeared to be evident in different domains: whereas the former were found to influence the domains of friendships and school, influence from the latter were specifically related to job-search self-regulation. The result pointed to the specialised roles that mothers and fathers may play in their children's socialization and development (Soenens and Vansteenkiste, 2005), which is also recorded elsewhere (e.g. Lake and Eastwood, 2005). Perhaps broadly in line with the above, Niamiec *et al.* (2006) found difference in impact strength from mothers and fathers, with mothers perceived to have

more influence; d'Ailly (2003) also identified maternal involvement and autonomy support to be important for Taiwanese children's autonomy and perceived control. As such, in the domain of education, mothers are often perceived to have a more salient influence, which was observed in the current study.

A study (within SDT) of specific importance was conducted by Vansteenkiste *et al.* (2005a), as has already been discussed before. The significance of the above study lies in the fact that it targeted Chinese EFL learners from the Northeastern area (average age = 24). Its results included finding the important causal links between autonomy and optimal learning and between lack of autonomy and negative consequences for Chinese students, and more importantly, finding that "the autonomy-supportive parenting style that is characterized by the offer of choice, empathetic perspective-taking, and the minimal use of guilt- and shame-inducing tactics promotes adjustment and learning, by enhancing Chinese students' relative autonomy with respect to study" (Vansteenkiste *et al.*, 2005a, p. 478). The above results are crucial especially considering the fact that the Chinese parenting style has typically been viewed as controlling (e.g. Zhang and Carrasquillo, 1995). The high academic achievements of Chinese students, perhaps resulting from positive aspects of Chinese parenting (including high parental expectations, stress of effort for success and education-related values, as well as high parental involvement) would easily cover the incongruent scores of social and psychological costs related to a controlling parenting style, which has been better recorded in recent years (e.g. Jiang, 2002).

As for what makes parents control, Grolnick and Apostoleris (2002) have offered insightful explanations: it could be due to pressure from without, below and within; the use of controlling techniques is not necessarily a result of ignorance about parenting. Very briefly, "pressure from without" pointed to factors such as economic hardship and other stressful life events; "pressure from below" referred to child-related factors such as child misbehaving; and "pressure from within" referred to internal pressure parents feel. A typical example of the last may be parents' ego-involvement in their children's performance: when some parents feel evaluated or feel their children are being evaluated, they may relieve their own pressure by pushing their children towards positive outcomes. In manipulated conditions, it is discovered that the ego-involvement tendency affects

parents who are controlling, but barely those who are autonomy-supportive (Grolnick and Apostoleris, 2002). As such, the last point might be specifically relevant to controlling Chinese parents, who are embedded in a culture with rampant competitive cues and where ideas like "face" and "family glory" are big issues.

Additionally, there was a study focusing on the impact of parental attribution on parenting style (Georgiou, 1999). That study, conducted in Cyprus, found that parents who believed their role to be important for the child's achievement tended to be more controlling and keener in fostering the child's interests. In addition, the parental attribution of the child's achievement to her own effort was positively related to that child's achievements, which was directly related to the parental interest-developing behaviour.

2) Discussion on, and evidence of, parental influence from L2 motivation research

Perhaps few people will challenge the idea that parents can play a significant part in an individual's L2 learning, greatly due to efforts from Gardner and his associates (e.g. Gardner, 1985), whose social-psychological perspective emphasizes firstly the key link between language attitudes and proficiency, and secondly the fact that the former is largely a consequence of the social-cultural milieu that subsumes one's home environment (e.g. Gardner *et al.*, 1999). From the above it is not difficult, therefore, to assume a causal link between parental input and one's L2 proficiency (Bartram, 2006), via the mediation of language attitudes, which appears to have empirical support. For instance, Gardner *et al.* (1999, p. 423) cites Coletta *et al.* (1983) who suggested that parental support mediates L2 proficiency through its influence on students' motivational characteristics. Although it might sound too grand to assume a direct link between parental effort and L2 proficiency, Noels (2001b) also agreed that there is wide evidence on its impact on student persistence, motivational intensity and certain L2-related attitudes.

Whilst it is comparatively safe to assume parental input as affecting their children's attitude development, how the above occurs is a less obvious matter (Bartram, 2006). Again, Gardner (1985) has offered useful ideas, suggesting a twofold role parents can play. Firstly, there is an *active* role parents can assume. The active role relates to physical

and emotional involvement from parents into their children's L2 learning. It can be further categorised as negative or positive (Bartram, 2006a): parents taking a positive active role would monitor their children's language learning, encourage them to do well and reward their success, whereas a negative active role would have parents adopt varied behaviours that discourage students from learning an L2. Secondly, there is a *passive* role parents may play. The passive role requires parents to exert influence by modelling and communicating attitudes related to L2 learning and the target language community (Gardner *et al.*, 1999). Again there can be negative and positive passive roles (Bartram, 2006a), leading to different outcomes. When weighing the above two roles, Gardner (1985) suggests that the passive role can be of specific significance; in cases of role conflict, impact from the passive role can override that from the active. In other words, even in the case of parents illustrating behavioural support, i.e., when they take a positive active role, the effect can be overruled by their latent negative attitudes.

Gardner's (1985) perception has certainly influenced a number of empirical studies (e.g. Fisher, 2001; Sung and Padilla, 1998; Bartram, 2006a). Fisher (2001) examined reasons from English Year 12 students for not continuing with foreign languages and found lack of parental involvement to be one contributing factor. In more detail, it was discovered that although more students perceived their parents to value L2s (55%) than not to value them (14%), only a small number of them (33%) reported to have received help with their language learning. From the above study, parents can be thought to have taken a positive passive role by communicating the message that they valued L2s. However, they failed to take a positive active role with a limited level of help offered, following the argument from Chambers (1999) who found a high correlation among his English samples between received help from parents with homework and perceived parental encouragement. Consequently, it could be assumed that the mismatch between Gardner's two parental roles, coupled with a myriad of other negative factors, led to insufficient L2 motivation to continue learning.

Also influenced by Gardner's perception, Sung and Padilla (1998) examined parental influence on learning of East Asian heritage languages (Chinese, Korean and Japanese) as L2s among a group of 600 American students ranged from 4th to 12th grade. They collected data both from students and their parents. Their most interesting finding might

be that elementary level students perceived their parents as more involved in their language study than did secondary level students, which matched a higher level of motivation among younger students. In addition, parental reports matched student perceptions across year groups (primary versus secondary): elementary school parents had more positive attitudes toward FL learning and were more involved in the child's language study than their secondary school counterparts. As such, the above can be seen as evidence of the positive link between parental input (both passive and active), perceptions and student motivation.

Another study conducted by Gardner *et al.* (1999) also looked at the parental influence among a group of college students. However, a special point about this study is that it attempted to link past factors with current outcomes, for which the students were asked to recall degrees of parental encouragement embedded in their secondary school years. It was found that parents do play a role in the development of students' reactions toward the learning situation and their language learning efforts. As Noels (2001b) pointed out, parental encouragement contributes to the development of motivational intensity especially in the early years, which in turn is predictive of motivational intensity as an adult. For the current research student, this is perhaps another piece of evidence that parental influence on one's L2 attitudes and motivation can be a complicated process: apart from an array of other factors that coexist and interplay with parental influence in an individual's present, the temporal dimension also needs to be considered.

A study of particular relevance has been conducted by Bartram (2006). It looked at perceived routes of parental influence on learning orientations from the three countries of England, Germany and the Netherlands. About 400 students (aged 15 – 16) of French, German and English as foreign languages participated in this qualitative study, leading to results greatly in line with those from the current study. Parental influence was found to operate in a number of ways. Firstly, positive parental influence was reported due to the practical help (such as support and guidance with homework) and encouragement offered. Secondly, parental role modelling (such as in the case of parents learning an L2) could also be an affecting factor. However, of specific importance was perceived parental influence on communicating the utilitarian value of language learning (possible reasons included learning an L2 for business and travel purposes), which was tied specifically

strongly to English (as a foreign language). In the author's words, the "most important influence ... appears to be the ways in which parents help to construct their children's understandings of language importance, utility and status" (Bartram, 2006a, p. 220).

In addition to the above, Bartram (2006) also found that some parents, despite their low L2 skills, positively affected their children with successful communication of educational regrets. However, low L2 skills could be a double-bladed sword; in other cases, it was associated with viewing L2s as unimportant. In fact, there was evidence suggesting an association of greater parental language knowledge to positive attitudes, although such an advantage, in itself, might not be sufficient to nurture positive attitudes in students, which boils down to Gardner's point that latent, parental attitudes are of key importance.

Finally, Gao (2006) targeted a group of Chinese students close to the sample of the current study. The study (Gao, 2006) researched EFL learning memories on family (mainly parental) support from 20 mainlanders just starting undergraduate studies in universities in Hong Kong, China. It has to be pointed out (as the author has also admitted) that the researched students, being top L2 learners, coupled with prosperous family backgrounds leading to material and L2 contact advantages, can not be regarded as typical of today's mainland EFL learners. However, the results have still shed important light. Perhaps a finding of wide support is that Chinese parents (and other family members) are very closely involved in their children's development as EFL learners: even in the cases of parental L2 deficiencies, Chinese parents often take great pains to be directly involved in their children's learning. Secondly, there is ample evidence that Chinese parents' involvement has a deep impact not only on the students' L2-related attitudes and motivation, but also on the latter's strategy use and learning beliefs, which are crucial to learner development. The above can be argued to have direct implications for language teachers and researchers. Thirdly, China's parental involvement does not always lead to good results; there are cases where parental roles (e.g. as in the cases of parents as coercers) and beliefs have negatively interfered with L2 learning.

Finally, in line with Bartram (2006a), Gao (2006) has also identified direct and indirect parental involvement; Gao's (2006) parents have exerted an indirect influence on their children's development as L2 learners through being L2 learning advocates, facilitators

and teachers' collaborators, whereas they have exerted a direct influence through being L2 learning advisors, coercers and nurturers. The role of parents as advocates, involving a proactive socialization of the importance of English as well as other positive attitudes towards L2 learning in early years, an active parental role modelling and the reproduction of the target communities especially from those having foreign experiences, have been argued to have profoundly influenced the students' learning attitudes and motivation.

3. Research on teachers

The importance of the teacher as a key factor for L2 motivation has been widely acknowledged. Indeed, Fisher (2001, p. 38) had English A-level students regarding teacher impact on L2s as more important than on other subjects, perhaps due to "the communicative nature of the subject where the emphasis is on input from the teacher and where only a good communicator can draw good communication from pupils". As such, some models of L2 motivation research have explicitly addressed the issue of teacher influence. Gardner (1985), for instance, regards "Evaluation of the L2 Teacher" as an important antecedent leading to students' L2-related attitudes. Some of the best evidence perhaps came from Chambers (1999), having English students learning German as a foreign language rating teachers as a top factor affecting their attitudes towards learning that L2. Dörnyei (1994) has also presented a situated model organizing motivational components that are specific to learning situations, in which teacher influence is an integral part. However, despite a consensus on the influence the teacher holds over L2 motivation, how such an impact is brought to bear has been a highly complex issue; it is perhaps due to the fact that teachers have multiple roles to play in a language classroom (e.g. Kubanyiova, 2006), and research on their influence can be approached from different levels, macro versus micro and individual, classroom versus school (cf. Eccles *et al.* for a summary), and from different perspectives (e.g. social-psychological; SDT; achievement motivation).

To start with, Eccles *et al.* (1998) has given a good overview on earlier research attempts targeting teacher influence from across the curriculum. Indeed, the treatment of the above focus has been greatly diversified due to analyses presented from individual, group/classroom, or even school, levels. At the individual level, earlier interest had

focused on the impact of a teacher's personality and teaching style on children's academic achievement, motivation, satisfaction and self-concept. More recent research at the group/classroom level tended to separate teacher characteristics from instructional and management practices: there had been attempts examining effective classroom management, the relation between student autonomy support and different teaching styles, and related classroom/instructional environment. In addition, there had been more integrated approaches linking multiple aspects of teaching practices.

In summary (Eccles, *et al.*, 1998), at an individual level, teachers were believed to influence student motivation via impacting on a range of student variables including their ability beliefs, understanding of task value, expectations for success and personal sense of efficacy, through giving feedback or other forms of socialization or interaction. Consequently, it was suggested that student motivation can be optimised when challenging tasks are provided in an autonomy-supportive, mastery-goal oriented environment where sufficient emotional and cognitive support, in addition to meaningful material, is offered, which has, in more recent years, received support specifically from L2 motivation research.

In the field of L2 motivation, a later, situated model (Dörnyei, 1994, p. 278) comprising three teacher-specific components has been very influential. Within that model, the most important motive has been labelled in educational psychology as "affiliative motive", referring to the need within students to do well so as to please teachers. The author comments that despite its extrinsic aspect, it can lead to intrinsic interest with appropriate teacher support. The second component regards the teacher's "authority" type; in other words, it concerns whether or not that teacher is autonomy-supportive or controlling. It is stated that practices like responsibility sharing and choice offering will lead to student self-determination and IM. Finally, a third component involves the teacher's role in "direct and systematic *socialization of student motivation*". There are three channels for the above socialization process: Firstly, modelling – teachers, as group leaders, embody "group conscience", and the consequent student attitudes and orientations toward learning will be modelled after them; secondly, task presentation – efficient teachers channel students' attention to important aspects like task value, potential interest and appropriate strategies so as to enhance student interest and sense of

metacognition; thirdly, feedback – two types of feedback, informative versus controlling, have been identified, and the latter has been warned against as it destroys IM.

The above model (Dörnyei, 1994) has paralleled, or drawn from, SDT and general research interest in effective teaching (e.g. Kyriacou, 1997), in that all of them have targeted teacher authority and relationship in the classroom as key factors. Especially in the case of SDT, recent research effort on the impact of the teaching style (controlling versus autonomy-supportive) has been considerable. For instance, Ryan and Deci (2000a; b) and Reeve *et al.* (1999) summarised earlier research involving different cultures, life domains and age groups tying the autonomy-supportive teaching style to a range of positive motivational, emotional, achievement and well-being outcomes, whilst the controlling teaching style was connected with multifold maladaptive outcomes. Perhaps more recent examples of the above include Black and Deci (2000), Soenens and Vansteenkiste (2005), Vansteenkiste *et al.* (2005b).

Black and Deci (2000) examined the perceived instructors' autonomy support on adjustment and academic performance among a sample of university chemistry majors. They found that perceived autonomy support accounted for increases in a range of outcomes including autonomous self-regulation, perceived competence and level of interest and enjoyment; it was also associated to decreases in anxiety over the course. In line with them, William and Deci (1996) found that among their college students, perceived autonomy support made students more autonomous in learning and caused significant increase in both perceived competence and course-specific beliefs (psychosocial beliefs). Soenens and Vansteenkiste (2005) replicated the above with a group of Belgian adolescents (aged 17): autonomy-supportive teaching added greatly to the prediction of self-determination in the domains of school and job-seeking behaviours, which in turn was associated with adjustment in the specific life domain under investigation. Vansteenkiste *et al.* (2005b) examined the combined effect of goal framing (intrinsic versus extrinsic) and teacher communicating style (autonomy-supportive versus internally controlling) for early adolescence (aged 11 and 12). Their results included that both extrinsic goal framing and controlling communicative style undermined integrative, conceptual learning; whilst positive effects on conceptual learning from autonomy-supportive communicating style and goal framing were respectively mediated by relative

autonomous motivation and task involvement.

As such, it appears that studies from the SDT perspective can be very eloquent about the link between autonomy-supportive teaching style and positive results in education. Indeed, there has also been explicit research on the opposite link. Assor *et al.* (2005) looked at the potential effects of directly controlling teacher behaviour (DCTB), such as giving frequent directives, on Israeli 4th and 5th graders. They built a schematic graph illustrating how DCTB leads to significant educational and emotional costs: DCTB directly contributes to EM and Amotivation, which in turn affects engagement; it also leads to anger and anxiety that contributes to EM and amotivation; furthermore, EM and amotivation, as children's adaptive response to teacher controlling, appears to introduce further controlling in the long run. The above researchers finally expected DCTB to increase in middle/high schools and to be used specifically on occasions when teachers are pressured (i.e. in systems using frequent comparative achievement tests).

In addition, SDT also had studies interested in what specific behaviour in autonomy-supportive teachers leads to adaptive outcomes (e.g. Reeve *et al.*, 1999; Reeve and Jang, 2006). Reeve *et al.* (1999), for instance, identified a range of things good teachers do, which supports many educators' hunch on student-centred, empathetic perspectives that nurture student IM, and internalization. Broadly in this line, a study (Wu, 2003) targeting young Chinese EFL learners had looked at the influence of classroom learning environment on those children's intrinsic motivation (teachers can be argued to play a crucial role in creating the above environment, Kubanyiova, 2006). The results showed that effective ways to enhance young learners' perceived L2 competence included providing predictable learning environment, moderately challenging tasks, necessary instructional support and evaluation that emphasized self-improvement, in addition to attributing success or failure to controllable variables, whereas freedom provided for choosing the content, methods and performance outcomes of learning, as well as integrative strategy training, led to improved perceived autonomy, both of which led to L2 intrinsic motivation.

To conclude, the above studies both targeting L2 and other subjects may serve as testimony to the unique position SDT holds over research upon the link between certain teacher-specific elements and their impact on student motivation, via the universal link of

need satisfaction in the classroom. Further L2-related evidence can be seen from Noels (2001a) and Noels *et al.* (1999).

One purpose of Noels *et al.* (1999) was to examine how perceived teachers' communication styles, particularly regarding the extent of students' autonomy support and informative feedback provision, related to the latter's intrinsic and extrinsic orientations and other constructs like effort, anxiety and L2 competence. From a group of Canadian French immersion students (average age = 22) illustrating mixed levels of proficiency, the results firstly linked IM to perceptions of teachers' communication styles, in that the more controlling and the less informative students perceived teachers to be, the lower their IM. Another result in line with SDT was that IM was related to positive learning outcomes, including greater effort, perceived competence, coupled with reduced anxiety. Perhaps one point deserving future attention is that despite a connection (negative or positive) between teaching style and amotivation, identified regulation and IM, student perceptions were not related to external and introjected regulations. Finally, Noels (2001a) replicated Noels *et al.* (1999) in a much larger sample learning Spanish as an L2 in America (mean age = 20). The study looked at the link between perceptions of teaching styles, student autonomy and competence as well as varied types of motivation. Unsurprisingly, a more controlling communication style from the teacher was associated with lower levels of IM and perceived autonomy from the students at study, which is in line with the SDT perspective. In a similar manner, informative feedback and teacher encouragement were positively connected with student effort and perceived competence, with perceived competence positively correlated to IM.

4. Research on peers

In educational psychology, the motivational and achievement consequences of peer influence might have been yet another field undergone much research. Indeed, Eccles *et al.* (1998) has presented a good summary on earlier studies concerning peer influence in varied forms: the role of social comparison in self-evaluation, the link between social competence and motivation/achievement; peers as co-learners; the reinforcing and socializing mechanism within peer groups and the coordination of multiple goals.

In the case of peer comparison (Eccles *et al.*, 1998), the body of research evidence had

pointed to age and gender differences in terms of the extent and contents of comparison, for instance. Cultural background and social contexts had also been found to influence the comparing process. Specifically, older children had been found to use peer comparison more often and probably more efficient with regard to their ability levels. The groups of children especially vulnerable to the motivational consequences of peer comparison might have been those at a transitional phase, both physical and social environmental. As such, early adolescents had been targeted as such a group and had been under careful examination.

Another well-established area of peer influence had emphasized the relation between social competence and motivation (Eccles *et al.,* 1998). Much of the research following this tradition had documented children who had been accepted by their peers, who had had good social skills and who had demonstrated positive academic achievement motivation. However, socially maladaptive children had been found to be at risk for negative motivational outcomes. Although the underlying mechanisms were yet to be fully understood, earlier research had also found the facilitative function of social competence and support on school transition.

In addition, Eccles *et al.* (1998) also noticed an intense interest in the motivational consequences of the cooperative learning (CL) approach having peers as co-learners. Learning activities in this type of milieu had been regarded as more intrinsically interesting and peer collaboration (such as sharing resources, peer teaching) had been found to enhance learning outcomes. It had been suggested that peers from such a context might affect one's achievement via impacting on her motivational characteristics including expectation for success, assessment of task value and goal setting. Other mechanisms could include reduction of social isolation, thereby mitigating the effects of peer rejection or lack of belonging. This important thread of research was finally picked up by L2 motivation researchers who have since conducted a great number of studies on benefits and psychological mechanisms of CL, as the optimal form of peer cooperation (e.g. Dörnyei, 1997; Ehrman and Dörnyei, 1998; Dörnyei and Murphey, 2003).

Given the importance of peer influence, one interesting question would be to ask how peer groups are formed. It had been stated that children who share similar motivational orientations and activity preferences cluster together, which in turn reinforces and

strengthens the above tendencies over time (Eccles *et al.*, 1998). To use lay people's words – birds of a feather do flock together – and then group dynamics are in action. It had also been stated that a peer group's initial motivational orientation decides what type of influence (positive versus negative) it would have on its members' motivation. In addition, peer group influences appear to vary in extent and character across age groups, with adolescents seen as more susceptible to such influences due to the long hours they spend with their groups and a stronger psychological reliance on peers. The area of goals, interests, attitudes and values had been one such area where adolescents can be influenced by their peers.

An interesting example of the above "birds of a feather" issue might be Altermatt and Pomarantz (2003), on similarity and influence among friends regarding competence and motivational beliefs. Their 929 American 4 – 6 graders reported that their friendships were based, in part, on psychological similarity in the academic domain. It is interesting that how classmates' self-evaluation of competence beliefs and their resultant decisions on the level of academic involvement are important for children when they are to form close relationships with peers. However, it also needs to state that evidence for friends' influence is generally modest, as illustrated in the above study (Altermatt and Pomarantz, 2003) that only modest concordances between friends, especially reciprocated friends, in terms of competence and motivational beliefs, were discovered.

A cross-cultural study on peer influence has specifically looked at the strength of such an impact. Nariai *et al.* (2003) compared the opinions of students from six countries (Scotland, Sweden, Czech, Germany, South Africa and Japan) on whom they thought they had learned most from. Mainly European countries had identified friends as a significant, positive influence: Sweden had 80% respondents rating peer encouragement as a strong/fairly strong influence, followed by Germany and Czech. To add to the above, Hufton *et al.* (2002) examined and compared types of peer influences in achievement contexts across cultures: England, America and Russia. Russia did not find an anti-school peer culture; in fact, in class and out-of-class peer tutoring was a common practice and peer influence was generally perceived as pro-learning. In contrast, both England and America, from the West, felt the impact of peer counter-culture from outside of the school, which negatively affected the students' school work.

The above are reminiscent of other studies that have found an impact of peer cultures especially in the West; however, researchers need to be sensitive to different contexts (such as some Oriental countries) where family ties are strong and where students have fewer channels for peer socialization.

Specifically in the field of goals, researchers had also emphasized the role peers play when one deals with multiple goals (Eccles *et al.*, 1998). Peers had been thought to influence goal salience and desirability, and again adolescence is an ideal time for research on such a process. An interesting example on multiple goal pursuit came from Mansfield (2001), who investigated how contextual factors, such as the peer context, influenced the nature of the academic and social goals Year 7 students in Australia pursued over the course of an academic year. The above study argued that perceptions held of peer contexts and peer support can interplay with perceptions of other contexts, which as a whole provide a "lens" through which students view, interpret and construct meaning about family, schools and peers, and which in turn influence their multiple goal pursuit. In line with the above, the study found that students' perceptions of the context had a significant influence on the nature of their multiple goals; their goals seemed to emerge from a consistent series of negotiations that occurred between goals from varied contexts (family, school and classroom, and peers); students "filter" contextual information and endorse behaviour and goals that correspond with their personal priorities and agendas. Specifically with regards to peers, those students linked peer support to sense of school belonging, and those with supportive peer relations appeared to pursue social responsibility and relationship goals whereas those without had difficulty pursuing the above goals; instead, they would pursue social status goals as a form of protecting their self-worth within the peer group.

A final point Eccles *et al.* (1998) picked up was the increasing attention on the interaction between multiple contexts on motivation (as the above example has illustrated, Mansfield, 2001). Until more recently, research on peer influence had typically focused on the impact of one social context (e.g. a child's family) on another (e.g. school), whereas later attempts started to rely on more complex models: examples might include research on the impact of school on family involvement, or the role of the teacher on shaping parental perceptions of the child's competence, which mediate student

motivation (Eccles *et al.*, 1998). A good example of research on the interaction between multiple contexts might be Steinberg *et al.* (1992), having launched a large scale study (n = 15,000) in America focusing on the interplay of parental and peer factors on student achievement and motivational outcomes. They found that although parents generally had the most salient impact, peers were the most potent influence on the students' day-to-day behaviour at school. Their findings also illustrated a complex interaction of varied contexts on students' motivation and achievement: generally, those adolescents with authoritative parents achieved more in school; however, this link was found to be moderated to a large extent by the peer context from school, especially in the form of peer values and norms, in that strong peer support for academic achievement could offset the ill effects of authoritarian parenting, whilst insufficient peer support might offset benefits from authoritative parenting.

Another example of research on multiple contexts came from Hammouri (2004). In their study including 3,736 13-year-old Jordanian 8th-graders, they targeted the mediative function of contextual factors on students' Maths attitudes and motivational dispositions. Given a close link established in the literature between attitudes, educational aspiration and self-perceptions, and outcomes of motivation and Maths achievement, the researchers found firstly that significant others did have a significant influence in shaping the above attitudes and perceptions in students, and secondly Jordanian mothers appeared to have a stronger impact than friends on students' perception of Maths importance. When friends were considered alone, their perceptions could both have a positive and a negative influence.

In comparison with evidence from other disciplines, effort from the L2 field on peer influence appears to be less abundant. Fewer studies, apart from those on CL and group dynamics, have explicitly dealt with peer influence in detail. As a brief summary, Dörnyei (2001b) notes that there have been a growing number of studies into group-specific cognitive constructs, such as group efficacy and group goals. Other studies have focused on the relation between interpersonal processes and student behaviour within groups, utilizing the ideas like peer pressure (cf. Ehrman and Dörnyei, 1998 for an overview of the role of group dynamics).

Graham (2002), on French-related attitudes of students from years 11 – 13 in England,

cited Cavani (2000) who reported peer pressure as one source of peer influence on L2 attitudes. Within this vein, Bartram (2006b) examined peer group influences on L2 attitudes from three European countries: England, Germany and the Netherlands. Specifically in England, the above author found an anti peer culture pressuring the students against learning of German. McIntyre *et al.* (1998) also offered some sweeping comments on the possible role peers could play: they cited Gardner (1968; 1985) who suggested that parents' attitudes towards the L2 community are more influential on their children's integrative motivation, rather than on instrumental orientations; they then suggested that the influence of parents on attitudes formation and maintenance eventually could be superceded by the influences from peers and the media.

Specifically in the vain of peer impact from CL, Dörnyei (1997) has given a good summary. The success of CL is dependent on two interrelated processes, the group dynamics of CL classes and the motivational system generated by peer cooperation. He concludes that the strength of CL lies in the small group learning format accompanied by positive interdependence among the learners, which leads to intensive interaction and a process of cooperation. In this light, CL can be seen as optimising the benefits of peer collaboration. Related to the above, Clement *et al.* (1994) assessed Hungarian 11th graders' EFL learning attitude, anxiety, motivation and their perceived classroom atmosphere and group cohesion. It was found that group cohesion was associated with a positive evaluation of the learning environment, which emerged as a motivational subsystem independent of integrative motivation and self-confidence.

III. Research on Significant Others in the Field of L2 Motivation Taking an SDT Perspective

Although SDT has generated a great number of studies in many domains, including subjects like P. E., comparatively little has been done in the field of L2 motivation. The research interest in the use of SDT on L2 motivation study has mainly followed two threads (Dörnyei, 2001b; 2005). The first concerns the importance of IM in the L2 classroom (Dörnyei, 2001b, 2005; McIntosh and Noels, 2004), whilst the second, mainly pursued by Noels *et al.* (McIntosh and Noels, 2004; Noels, 2001a; b; 2005; Noels *et al.*, 1999; 2000; 2001), has followed the two objectives of relating motives from SDT with

orientations from the L2 research tradition and of examining how one's degree of self-determination can be affected by contextual factors such as teachers (Dörnyei, 2005).

Firstly, Noels *et al.* (2000) examined the empirical relevance of SDT's scale of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation for L2 learning. Involving 159 Anglophone students from a French-English bilingual university from Canada, Noels *et al.* (2000) confirmed that L2 motivation could be assessed by the above scale. In addition, there was obvious distinction between amotivation, less self-determined forms of motivation (external and introjected regulations) and more self-determined motivation (identified regulation and IM), which is in line with the SDT perspective on the predictive power of varied degrees of self-determination. Perhaps an unexpected finding, also deserving attention, was that identified regulation, rather than IM, was found to be more strongly related to criterion variables, which could suggest the importance of not only convincing students that L2 learning is enjoyable, but persuading them that it is also personally relevant and important.

Still within this domain, one study conducted by researchers other than the above-mentioned is specifically interesting, since it has targeted a sample close to that of the current study. Green (1999) surveyed 1,978 college-level, Cantonese speakers as EFL learners from Hong Kong. Using Deci and Ryan's four types of EM, the researcher found that identified regulation was dominant, with nearly half of the students rating it; integrated regulation was not fully developed within the sample, with only 15% of students rating it, and consequently the principal challenge facing teachers and students would be to facilitate the transition from identified to integrated regulation. It has to be pointed out that whilst the above study has confirmed a strong prevalence of instrumentality (though an autonomous form) amongst a group of Chinese EFL learners, the study itself had problems in design, in that it failed to include either amotivation or IM. As such, possible students having IM were not identified, and the author reinvented the wheel by suggesting a new category (Avoidant) to cover amotivation. Roughly in line with the above, Noels *et al.* (2001) also found a prevalence of identified and external regulations from Canadian Francophone and Anglophone students.

Another early study using SDT on subjects including language learning (English as L1 in England) was conducted by Norwich (1999). Although not in the field of L2, the study

had aims close to the current study, that of examining the impact of socialized parental and teachers' reasons on student behaviour. Involving secondary-level students (Years 7 – 9) from London, the study found that parental introjected reasons were the most highly rated for learning and behaving whilst teacher introjected and intrinsic reasons were rated the lowest.

Within works conducted by Noels and her associates, some studies (Noels, 2001a; b; Noels *et al.*, 1999) concentrated on finding the link between support for need satisfaction (e.g. perceived L2 teachers' communication styles) and mainly students' motivational outcomes. Noels *et al.* (2001), researching a group of Canadian ESL learners attending a university immersion course, had findings suggesting a positive link between IM and support of learners' sense of autonomy and competence by relevant others, and a correlation pattern between intrinsic/extrinsic orientations and behavioural outcomes (effort and persistence), and eventually L2 achievement, similar to one that has been suggested by the SDT perspective. Specifically with regards to the teacher's influence, as mentioned before, Noels *et al.* (1999) found a positive correlation between an informative, autonomy-supportive teaching style and students' IM, and a positive correlation between IM and learning outcomes of effort, perceived competence and anxiety. Noels (2001a) replicated the above study, though in a much larger sample learning a different L2. Its results included firstly that a more controlling communication style from the teacher was associated with lower levels of student IM and perceived autonomy and secondly that the teacher's informative feedback plus encouragement were positively connected with student effort and perceived competence.

A more resent study by McIntosh and Noels (2004) has attempted to build upon the above effort on motivational antecedents for self-determination in L2 learning. One of their purposes was to examine whether or not individual difference variables, that is Need for Cognition (NC), can be linked to different degrees of self-determination. NC, conceptualized by Cacioppo and Petty (1982, p. 116; cited in McIntosh and Noels, 2004, p. 4), refers to "'the tendency for an individual to engage in and enjoy thinking'". Prior studies suggest a positive link between high-NC persons and partaking of effortful cognitive activities for their intrinsic enjoyment, and a positive link between higher-NC and outcomes like greater persistence and performance. In the study (McIntosh and Noels,

2004), the result pointed to a significant and positive association between NC and self-determination in L2 learning. Consequently, it suggested that certain personality characters, in addition to the learning environment, should be considered for better support of students' self-determination.

Finally, other studies from Noels *et al.* were interested in integrating orientations from the L2 research tradition with those from the SDT perspective, so as to make sense of the different bodies of research studies emanating from the two different traditions. Noels (2001b) suggested that integrative orientation is more closely related to identified regulation and IM (also see Noels, 2001a; Noels *et al*, 2001), whereas instrumental orientation is highly related both to external regulation and more self-determined regulations such as IM and identified regulation. However, the close relation between IM and integrative orientation does not suggest that they are conceptually the same. Rather, IM points to outcomes such as attitudes towards L2 learning, whilst integrative orientation is a better predictor of various intergroup contact plus ethnolinguistic identify variables. As such, it was suggested that they represent two separate motivational substrates (Noels 2001b; Noels *et al.*, 2001; Noels, 2005), pertaining to immediate learning situation and intergroup situation respectively.

Based on earlier efforts, Noels (2003) suggested that it might be more sensible to think of at least three interrelated types of orientations:

> The first group included reasons inherent in the language learning process, such as whether learning the language is fun, engaging, challenging, or competence enhancing. The second category included extrinsic reasons for language learning lying on a continuum of self-determination, including external pressures. Following the results of Noels *et al.* (1999), the instrumental orientation would likely be a member of this group. The third group comprised integrative reasons relating to positive contact with the language group and perhaps eventual identification with that group. Stated otherwise, the first two types of orientations might be described as an interpersonal motivational substrate, and the last type as an intergroup substrate. (pp.98 – 99)

The above was confirmed by Noels (2005), suggesting that at least two motivational substrates (processes) are relevant to language learning: the intergroup substrate, whose relative salience can be a consequence of multicultural settings; the self-determination substrate, the existence of which is independent of social contexts.

In summary, this chapter has firstly reviewed Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-

determination theory, with emphasis specifically laid on its sub-theories of Cognitive Evaluation Theory and Organismic Integration Theory, as well as a cultural relevance of the SDT perspective. It is then followed by a brief look at Vallerand's (1997) hierarchical model, both as a confirmation and extension of the SDT position. Next, the SDT's much emphasized contextual factors, as formed by significant others (parents, teachers and peers), have been separately dealt with, often incorporating evidence from other related fields, such as developmental and educational psychology, to present a broader background. However, each section has been finished with more relevant L2-related findings. Finally, the focus has been on L2-related studies adopting an SDT perspective. When conducting the above literature review, the current research student has been convinced of the relevance of the SDT perspective for L2 learning in a context different from the West. In addition, she has also located encouraging, yet insufficient, research effort on L2 motivation from the above perspective. For instance, given the importance of impact from significant others, very few people have closely examined and compared them together using the above, whereas other subjects, such as P. E./sports, might have seen a better established tradition. As such, she hopes that her study could further the understanding of L2 motivation from the above angle.

Chapter 4 Research Background

In recent years, international attention has been increasingly on aspects of China, including its great educational potential, having a student population of over 320 million, surpassing the combined population of the U.S and Canada (Wang, 2003). However, research on China's education may have been affected by factors including a comparative dearth of statistics, a vast land illustrating regional differences and frequent changes of policies in recent years for modernization of education and coping with the ever growing economy. As such, perhaps a broad overview of China's basic education, followed by a focused introduction to her L2 education, might provide the needed background for relevant research. Additionally, situations in Shanghai, at the forefront of China's English educational reforms, will also be discussed, to set the tone for the current study.

I. Brief Introduction to Basic Education in China

Very broadly, China's education is run by governments of varied levels, with the Ministry of Education (MOE) and provincial governments directing general institutions of higher learning, regional and provincial governments managing secondary and primary education, and finally local authorities responsible for primary schools (Yang, 2002). Perhaps it can be pointed out that governments of the directly administrated municipalities, such as Beijing and Shanghai, are seen as equals to their provincial counterparts (Tsang, 2000).

Since 1978, the Chinese government has increasingly realised the significance of education as "an important force that boosts the economic and social development in China, promotes science and technology advancement and improve the overall national strength" (Chinese National Commission for UNESCO, 2004, p. 1). Consequently, great resources have been appropriated for the reform and development of China's education. However, not all historical periods, since the founding of new China, have seen conducive policies or salient developments; more often than not, there have been clashes over opposite educational goals/agendas – redness versus expertise; educational equality versus educational quality; suppressing or enlisting the effort of intellectuals and highly-skilled personnel – as an important illustration of the different political ends factions of

China's leadership have attempted to achieve (Tsang, 2000).

In China, the term "basic education" covers regular pre-school, primary (five or six years) and secondary education (either three years each, or four years and three years, for lower and upper secondary levels) (Hu, 2002; Wang, 2003). Regular primary and secondary education, like the broader area of education (Tsang, 2000), has gone through four stages of development since 1949 (Wang, 2003). Phase 1 – the eight years before 1957 (Anti-Rightist Struggle): the State concentrated on popularization of primary education, though witnessing low quality of primary and secondary education despite a great growth in the number of primary schools. Phase 2 – 1958 to 1966: the State continued to develop primary education as well as spreading secondary schools, yet leading to poor results. Phase 3 – 1966 to 1976: the initial stage of "Cultural Revolution" saw all trades of China, including education, paralysed; there was a short revival of basic education in 1971-1972, which was replaced by chaos again; all in all, China's primary and secondary education suffered great loss in the above period. Phase 4 – 1976 till now: Deng's rising to power accompanied economic and educational restoration and development, which has led to obvious growth in primary and secondary education.

Currently, China has 609,600 primary schools and 63,900 lower secondary schools (Yang, 2002). Greatly due to a 1986 policy, "*Compulsory Education Law*" (Wang, 2003), that targets China's younger population for a nine-year compulsory education covering primary and lower secondary years, the current (by 2003) enrolment ratio for primary and lower secondary education has reached 98.7% (net) and 92.7% (gross) respectively (Chinese National Commission for UNESCO, 2004), although there are regional differences between less developed, interior areas, and larger cities and coastal areas (Wang, 2003). In addition, China has 13,900 general (academic) upper secondary schools, 4,109 specialised secondary schools and 4,395 vocational schools (Yang, 2002). Those students with academic strengths are often admitted to general upper secondary schools; those who are not admitted to the above may choose specialised or vocational schools to receive vocational training in various fields (Yang, 2002).

China's government has equalled high literacy with economic development (Wang, 2003), and understands the significance of basic education for the above. Consequently, great emphasis has been on reforming and developing primary and secondary education.

Tsang (2000, p. 9) has highlighted three important phases of reform after the seminal redirection of educational policy by Deng in 1978: "the 1985 policy for systemic reform of education, the 1993 Outline of Educational Reform and Development, as well as the 1999 Action Plan for Educational Development". The 1985 reform aimed to achieve nine-year compulsory education by 2000, as well as targeting the structural reform of secondary education. The 1993 outline consolidated the earlier compulsory education aim and raised the issue of educational quality enhancement. The 1999 action plan highlighted implementation of quality-oriented (competence) education at all levels, further popularization of compulsory plus upper secondary education, and development of private educational institutions (Tsang, 2000).

Wang (2003) has identified four wide-reaching changes from waves of educational reforms that mainly reflected better sensitivity to local needs and international trends. At the top of Wang's (2003) list was governmental effort on devolution of administrative power over primary and secondary education since the 1980s, leading to results like local interest in supporting and establishing schools, which was expected to partially release the tension between educational quality and equality. A second change, also flowing from devolution of central power, concerned curriculum changes that aimed at accommodation of local economic and social development reality. The 1993 "*Teaching Scheme (Curriculum) for Fulltime Primary and Secondary Schools*" (Wang, 2003, p. 135) divided school subjects into the two categories of state-stipulated and locally arranged; in the case of upper secondary schools, a bank of locally decided electives were included to supplement the state's core subjects. Governmental guidelines also led to experimentation of courses and updating of teaching materials (e.g. the MOE's 2000 teaching scheme) and teaching methods. In terms of objectives, the 1999 reform had highlighted creation of a comprehensive course sensitive to local needs, amongst others (Chinese National Commission for UNESCO, 2004). Guided by the 1999 objectives, a new round of course reform started in 2001, involving 42 national level course reform experimental areas in 29 provinces, and when the report was written (Chinese National Commission for UNESCO, 2004), it had covered 57% of all the counties and districts in the country; it was planned that by 2007, all students in initial years should take up new courses.

A third trend reflected China's fundamental goal change towards quality or competence

education, with the acknowledgement that exam-oriented education only produced students with high marks but low competence or skills for employment (Wang, 2003; Yang, 2002). Indeed, the above 1999 objectives prioritized the need to foster a learning attitude cherishing meta-learning ability and competence-based, not knowledge-based, outcomes (Chinese National Commission for UNESCO, 2004). Governmental strategies perhaps included reduction of students' workload, revision of curriculum, abridgement of required academic courses and inclusion of practical and high-tech courses (Wang, 2003). A final wave of nation-wide reforms concerned structural changes (e.g. grade structures and the entrance exam system) in primary and secondary education. Varied measures (Wang, 2003, p. 143) included allowing some localities (e.g. in rural areas) to adopt the alternative "five-four-three" or "five-three-three" education system through primary and lower and upper secondary stages, and cancellation of junior secondary school entrance examinations in 70% of China's cities.

Additionally, and related to the above first point, the gap between China's educational resources and demands (1% of the world's educational budget versus 15% of the world's population needing education, Yang, 2002) has been better addressed with increasing investment from the private quarter. Between 2000 and 2004, China's educational policies have emphasized the usefulness of privatization and foreign cooperation (Chinese National Commission for UNESCO, 2004). The above source (2004) states that, consequently, there are respectively 5,676, 3,651 and 2,679 private regular primary, elementary secondary and senior secondary schools, accommodating the needs of over 6 million students. Starting in the 1990s, many international primary and secondary schools have also appeared in large cities and special economic zones, which may serve to introduce an international outlook into China's basic education (Wang, 2003). In terms of outcomes, China's official source (Chinese National Commission for UNESCO, 2004, p. 7) states that "the development of private schools has promoted the competitions in education, elevated the efficiencies and vitalities of education, and contributed to the coming into being of a diversified pattern of education development". Whilst private schools have certainly impressed people in more developed areas, its overall impact on education, like outcomes of many other policies, needs empirical-based enquiry (e.g. Tsang, 2000).

From the above, China's great emphasis on her basic education, so as to catch up with the world and better accommodate her needs, has been clear at least from the policy level. Perhaps what is encouraging is that China's goodwill appears to be matched with macro – level results like further popularization of compulsory education (Yang, 2002; Chinese National Commission for UNESCO, 2004). However, researchers have also rightly warned that there can be gap between a nation's policy and its micro-level, educational reality (e.g. Hu, 2005a). In addition, many of the expected results, such as educational effectiveness and change of the educational culture, are long-term, or subtler, outcomes the examination of which needs time and caution. As such, specifically designed empirical studies are needed to fully evaluate China's ongoing reform (Tsang, 2000). Indeed, systematic, evidence-based assessment may be particularly pertinent to the context of China, since on top of the above, the decision-making process for educational development in that country was greatly top-down (in fact, highly dependent on the whims of the top leadership), which had led to inconsistency of policies and considerable costs (Tsang, 2000).

Finally, despite great achievements and change that have been brought along by China's educational reforms, her basic education still faces thorny issues, amongst which pressure caused by population peaks and regional imbalance of educational development are prominent (Chinese National Commission for UNESCO, 2004). Due to the peaks of the school age population between 2000 to 2010, excessive class size remains to be a serious problem for secondary schools, and the above peaks can also pressure on either educational restructuring or the allocation of educational resources in China. The second issue (of regional imbalance) has been picked up by an increasing number of works (Chinese National Commission for UNESCO, 2004; Tsang, 2000; Wang, 2003). The increasing educational disparities in regions of China has been caused by at least two sets of reasons: historical factors, including cultural, economical and natural characteristics, leading to retardation of countryside and interior areas (e.g. the Western regions); earlier waves of educational reform, coupled with economical policies, that favoured further development of larger cities and China's coastal provinces. Despite varied measures to relocate and strengthen educational resources (e.g. Chinese National Commission for UNESCO, 2004) in the underdeveloped regions in China, educational disparities, such as

in the case of EFL learning and teaching (Hu, 2003; 2005b), remains to be substantial and needs further addressing, so as to lead to higher social stability. Tsang (2000), for instance, cites that the GINI coefficient shows a slight increase from 1994 to 1997 in inequality for both levels of compulsory education across China, especially regarding educational input and teacher quality.

II. Introduction to China's EFL Education

1. A current "craze", and motivation, for English learning in China

Perhaps it is not exaggerating to state that the world has been amazed by a trend in China swiftly transforming her EFL education. Starting from 1978, and heated by events like China's entering WTO and her successful bidding for the 2008 Olympics (e.g. Lin, 2002; Niu and Wolff, 2003; Nunan, 2003; Pang *et al.*, 2002), this trend is indicative of a generally positive official agenda in China desiring national modernization and a more salient role in international affairs, the achievement of which has been closely related to the enhancement of English proficiency amongst Chinese (e.g. Hu, 2003; 2005a). A great official emphasis on the importance of English perhaps can be seen from below:

> "'...With China's accession to the World Trade Organization and the approaching Olympics in 2008 more than ever is it a priority for young Chinese to learn and improve their language skills'" (excerpt of a 2002 speech from Vice Minister of the MOE, Xinsheng Zang, printed in an article entitled "Government Encourages Public to Learn English" from *China Daily*, 10-25-02; cited in Niu and Wolff, 2003, p. 10)

The above agenda has been transformed into a conducive social environment which has, using Spolsky's theory (1989, cited in Pang *et al.*, 2002), impacted on Chinese learners' attitudes and motivation towards English learning as well as on social provision of learning situations and opportunities. Consequently, the number of China's EFL learners/users has greatly expanded since the late 1970s. In 1990, it was estimated that 200 to 300 million people were learning and using English in China (Dzou, 1990, cited in Zhao and Campbell, 1995), which was confirmed by Zhao and Campbell (1995) that by mid-1990s, about 200 million Chinese had some form of English proficiency. More recent data state that over 200 million school children plus about 13 million college students are learning English in China (Jiang, 2003). Outside of education, the

Government is also persuading other groups to learn English. For example, Beijing's authorities had started a campaign called *Beijing Speaks English* long before the city won the bid to host the 2008 Olympics (Jiang, 2003); resultantly, about 2.42 million people in Beijing alone could communicate in English, which would raise to 4 million by 2008 (Taylor, 2002, cited in Jiang, 2003). Policemen, taxi drivers, and people from other trades are expected to help in English at the Olympics, with the popularization of materials including *English for Policemen*, *English for Citizens* and *Taxi Drivers' English*, and such a "craze" for English proficiency is also happening in Shanghai due to the 2001 Shanghai APEC Conference and the 2010 World Fair (Jiang, 2003; Bolton, 2002). The above heat for English learning has led Taylor (2002, cited in Jiang, 2003, p. 3) to exclaim that:

> "'It seems there are more people learning to speak English in China than there are English speakers in the whole of the United States.'"

In terms of motivation to learn English in current China, Hu (e.g. 2002; 2005a) has summarised many writers' impressions both from the national and individual levels:

> On the national level, English is perceived by the government as a necessary means for helping the nation to further open up, a valuable resource for realizing its modernization programme, and an important cornerstone of international competition. (Hu, 2002, p. 30)

> On the individual level, proficiency in English can lead to a host of economic, social and educational opportunities: that is, it can provide access to both material resources and 'symbolic capital' ... for the betterment of personal well-being. For example, it is a passport to higher education at home or abroad, lucrative employment in a public or private sector, professional advancement and social prestige... (Hu, 2005a, p. 6)

From the above, a strong sense of instrumentality can be detected, which perhaps has been the first, and major, theme researchers would pick up whenever the Chinese context is under discussion, although such an instrumentality should not be regarded as unitary – at different times, it covers different contents and is endorsed by varying feelings or attitudes.

Such an instrumentality was clearly evident when China started her limited trade and diplomatic relations, through English, with the West in the late Qing Dynasty. However, one could argue that EFL learning/use reasons underlying such an instrumentality had to be narrow in scope and external in nature, since English had very low official status and there was a divorce of positive, English- or English community-related feelings from

perception of its utilitarian values (Adamson, 2002). Of course, things changed over time, and English gradually played a more versatile role, accompanied with more supportive feelings.

Immediately after the Cultural Revolution (1966-76), Cowan *et al.* (1979) summarised China's reasons for learning English as "[t]he Chinese view English primarily as a necessary tool which can facilitate access to modern scientific and technological advances, and secondarily as a vehicle to promote commerce and understanding between the People's Republic of China and countries where English is a major language" (cited in Boyle, 2002). This basic motivation was found to be mainly unchanged when Boyle (2002) cited Bowers' (1996, p. 3) summary that "[t]hey learn English because it is the language of science, specifically perhaps of the majority of research journals. They learn it because it is the neutral language of commerce, the standard currency of international travel and communication. They learn it because you find software in English than in all other things put together".

The above functional role of English "being a window unto the Western world of art, science and technology", or more broadly, being "a *necessity* for wider communication in today's world" has also been commented by motivation researchers such as Teweles (1995, p. 17). In addition, agreeing with Hu (2002; 2005a), Teweles (1995, pp. 17 – 18) comments that because of the multi-faceted role of English in today's China, "proficiency in English is increasingly seen as a 'passport' to opportunity – a means of diversifying one's livelihood and increasing one's pay, and also essential to seeking educational and economic opportunities overseas".

In recent years, there appears to be evidence of the prevalent instrumentality even from works by motivation researchers within China. Two good examples might be Hua (1998) and Shi (2001), both targeting college students in different cities that were learning English as a college subject. Both of them found a dominant (about 80% of the populations) type of instrumentality, which was labelled as "certificate motive" (Hua, 1998), referring to the official requirement that college students pass CET (College English Test), hence reminiscent of what Warden and Lin (2000) found in the context of Taiwan ("required motivation") (also see Gao *et al.*, 2004). Together with other "homemade" studies (e.g. Liu, 2001; Qing and Wen, 2002; Wen, 2001; Yang, 2002;

Zhang, 1998), these studies have presented an interesting, insider's view. However, an issue weakening some home-conducted studies is that they often fail to present their methodology clearly, although many of them appear to follow a certain model from abroad (Gao *et al.*, 2004).

Apart from an interest in issues like relation between motivation and learning outcomes (especially proficiency) (e.g. Liu, 2001), and between motivation, beliefs and learning strategies (e.g. Hua, 1998; Wen, 2001), there are emerging (and mainly home-published) studies investigating the internal structure of motivation (Qing and Wen, 2002) and types of motivation (e.g. Gao *et al.*, 2004). Gao *et al.* (2004) have been particularly interesting: like this current study, the researchers have recognized the importance of an inductive approach with regards to the motivation types from a non-Western context. They have used a stratified sample producing a large pool of undergraduates from throughout China. Their conclusion classifies motivation into the two groups of instrumental and cultural reasons; the former complex includes incentives of "individual development", "immediate achievement" and "information medium", the second complex subsumes "intrinsic interest", whilst the incentives of "going abroad" and "social responsibility" are "shared" by both complexes (Gao *et al.*, 2004, p. 13).

On summarising China's research on motivation (1980-2003), Wang and Zhang (2005), concentrating on major EFL journals, have expressed impressions that are shared by the current writer. Firstly, there is a considerable body of motivation-related research, especially from local journals of varied credibility. Secondly, focusing on better-quality studies from mainstream journals (cf. Ling *et al.*, 2005), one can see that since 1980, the number of studies is increasing and the research content and population is also increasing in scale; in addition, most of the studies have used a cross-sectional design, targeting college-level students (Wang and Zhang, 2005). The above authors (2005) then suggest that despite development, home-based research can be further improved with a broadened research angle, more diversified samples as well as more reliable measurements. Perhaps in line with the above suggestion, in more recent years there are attempts introducing alternative theories from abroad (Qing, 2002); targeting secondary-level students (Ge, 2006), researching multi-faceted relationships (Ge, 2006) and using complex statistical models (e.g. Gao *et al.*, 2003; Huang and Wen, 2005).

From the above, one can conclude that China has greatly improved her motivation research since 1980, which is better informed by developments from abroad. However, there is still much left to be desired (e.g. Wang and Zhang, 2005). In addition, what now faces Chinese researchers is the challenge of interfacing two bodies of research: perhaps it is a loss that comparatively little of China's research has been known internationally whilst that country boasts the world's largest EFL learning population from highly diversified contexts; when aiming to catch an international audience, Chinese researchers can also benefit from a heightened awareness of international research and publishing standards, which can be missing within China due to a different tradition or different practices (e.g. Ling *et al.*, 2005).

Finally, returning to the above "craze" for English, the fact that there is a huge number of people consuming English in China (which is still growing) led to greatly different emotions: some researchers caution against the shaping function of a language on a nation's consciousness (e.g. Niu and Wolff, 2003); whereas others have boldly argued for the legitimacy of "[t]he Chinese variety of English ... [as] an important component of world Englishes" (Jiang, 2003, p. 7; also Hu, 2004).

In fact, similar, contrastive feelings towards English has accompanied China's history of EFL education: when there were clashes between her political, social and economical agendas underlying language learning (Adamson, 2004), EFL education suffered; when China viewed herself as more related to/dependent upon the world, EFL education boomed.

2. A more remote history of EFL education in China

Gu (2003) states that China's L2 teaching has a long history, due to the frequent contact between China and other regions since the 2nd century BC. Such a tradition can be reliably traced back to as early as the Yuan Dynasty, with official documents on "*hui hui guo zi xue* (School of the Persian Language)" as the earliest school specialising in the training of foreign languages (Persian, Estifi and Arabic, see Gao, 2005) personnel; it was followed by "School of Foreign Languages" from the Ming Dynasty and "School of the Russian Language" from the last dynasty (Gu, 2003, p. 5).

By contrast, the teaching of English started in China much later; it was found that the

earliest attempts might come from English missionary schools in the first half of the 19th century (e.g. Gu, 2003), although a common consensus is that Chinese official initiatives in teaching English began with the Imperial College (*jing shi tong wen guan*), established in Beijing in 1862, and with similar schools from Shanghai (1863) and Guangzhou (1867) (Adamson, 2002; Bolton, 2002; Bolton and Tong, 2002; Gu, 2003).

As Bolton and Tong (2002) state, China's reception of the West in the late 19th and much of the 20th centuries had been ambivalent. Such an attitude, resultant from struggle between reformist and conservative agendas, had affected China's relevant attitudes and policies. To better illustrate, Adamson (2002) has summarised the earlier role and status change of English in China.

Table 4.2.2.1 Summary on Role and Status of English in China prior to 1949

Period		*Role and status*	*English language education*
Late Qing Dynasty	1759-1860	English only permitted to be spoken (in pidgin form) by the despised *compradores*; perceived as a barbaric tongue; low official status	Private study by *compradores*
	1861-1911	Technology transfer; English as a vehicle for gaining access to Western science and technology; helpful to the development of China's international diplomacy; conduit to remunerative jobs in Treaty Ports; later a fad in Shanghai; medium official status	On the curriculum of institutions set up to facilitate transfer of scientific knowledge; later (after 1903) included on the curricula of secondary and tertiary institutions
The Republican Era	1911-23	The intellectual Revolution: English as a vehicle for exploring Western philosophy and other ideas; opportunities for study abroad; high official status	On the curricula of secondary and tertiary institutions
	1924-49	English as a vehicle for diplomatic, military and intellectual interaction with the West; resistance from nationalistic scholars and politicians fearing unwanted cultural transfer; medium/high official status	On the curricula of secondary and tertiary institutions

(Adapted from Adamson, 2002, p. 233)

It is evident, from the above, that the late Qing Dynasty (1759-1911) witnessed a policy shift from minimal engagement with, to controlled utilization of, the English language (Adamson, 2002). At first, English was only learned informally by local agents (*compradores*) in the port of Canton, and the use of English was restricted to trade and foreign affairs, perhaps due to a sinocentric view and a concern over preserving cultural

integrity. However, the defeat of China in the Opium War (1839-42) revealed a need to learn from the Western technology for security and well-being. As such, the Qing Government set language institutes, and the status of either language school or English study was obviously raised when earlier graduates started to enter a high profile career, or enjoy economic benefits specifically in the treaty ports. Nevertheless, such a positive attitude towards English was not shared by all, especially amongst the more conservative nobility group. In 1902, however, the modernizers got the upper hand, although transient. There were top official efforts to modernize China's educational system; one result was to add English to the mainstream curricula of secondary schools (although English was recommended to be taught only to upper secondary students). Further 1904 regulations accentuated the importance of assimilating Western ideas, apparently through English.

The study of English was still controversial in the Republican era (1911-1949). For instance, in the earlier days, there had been concern over preservation of China's cultural heritage, when there was a vacuum created by the removal of an emperor, and more importantly, with the understanding that a language "acted as a conduit for the introduction of new philosophies, religions and social theories" (Adamson, 2002, p. 235). Debates around English were prominent during the "Intellectual Revolution" (1917-23) (Hsu, 1990, cited in Adamson, 2002, p. 235), since despite the illustrated importance of English (or other L2s) in education as one of the three core subjects in the secondary curriculum, the wider role of English as shaping national consciousness was resisted. However, in 1922, English assumed greater proportions in China's education, due to an official desire to be more internationalized and especially to align with the West. Nevertheless, political reasons interfered again soon, afraid of foreign intervention. In summary, the tension between reformers and traditionalists was never resolved during the Republican era (Adamson, 2002), leading to constant shifts of policies; however, in comparison with the previous period, English was believed to play multiple roles and it generally enjoyed a much higher status.

3. EFL education since 1949

1) Periods of EFL education since 1949

When tracing the development of L2 education in China since 1949, a broad, three-

period division is often used to recognize the historical upheaval caused by the Cultural Revolution (CR, 1966-76) (Lam, 2002; 2005). However, in terms of English education, perhaps a more fine-tuned division can better depict the frequent policy swing and its different outcomes. In this vein, both He and Zeng (2004) and Lam (2002; 2005) have given useful frameworks.

Table 4.2.3.1 Periods of English Education since 1949 from Lam (2002; 2005) and He and Zeng (2004)

<table>
<tr><th></th><th colspan="2">1949-65 (Pre-CR)</th><th colspan="2">1966-76 (CR)</th><th colspan="2">1977 onwards (Reform and Open-up)</th></tr>
<tr><td>He and Zeng (2004)</td><td rowspan="2">1949-56</td><td rowspan="2">1957-65</td><td colspan="2">1966-76</td><td colspan="2">after 1978</td></tr>
<tr><td>Lam (2002; 2005)</td><td>1960-70</td><td>1971-76</td><td>1977-90</td><td>1991 onwards</td></tr>
</table>

The above authors both subdivided the pre-CR period into two parts; however, they differed from each other in subdividing the later periods. Here, mainly Lam (2002; 2005) would be followed for an illustration.

Emphasis of Russian: (1949-56)

New China initially aligned herself with the USSR; consequently, the high-key L2 was Russia. From 1952 on, a number of Russian tertiary institutes/sections were established; Russian courses were also added to the curriculum of most secondary schools and some primary schools (He and Zeng, 2004). However, the over-expanding of Russian programmes over time (He and Zeng, 2004), as well as tensed relation with the U.S.S.R (Lam 2002; 2005), had led to a policy adjustment: other L2s, especially English, started to be accentuated. By 1956 English departments/sections were reestablished in universities (He and Zeng, 2004), and the 1956 draft syllabi for English teaching in upper secondary schools were also distributed (Lam, 2002).

The back-to-English movements: (1957-65)

In this period, development of English education was rapid. In 1957, a draft syllabus for lower secondary schools was distributed (Lam, 2002); in 1961 and 1962, varied syllabi were prepared for English majors and other students from higher education (He and Zeng, 2004; Lam, 2002). However, researchers appear to identify slightly different

years as the start of English supremacy: Lam (2002) focused on around 1961, whilst He and Zeng (2004) pointed to the Ministry of Education's 1964 identification. Finally, from 1960 to 65, foreign-language schools, though small in number, were established (Lam, 2002).

Repudiation of foreign learning: (1966-70)

The earlier part of CR saw a collapse of English education, when it suffered the same fate with learning of anything foreign, or more broadly, with any form of scholarly studies (Lam, 2002).

English for renewing ties with the West: (1971-76)

However, in the early 1970s, a changed international position of China positively affected English education. The noteworthy events included increased diplomatic ties with many countries, including the U.S., and China's rejoining the U.N. (Lam, 2002; He and Zeng, 2004). A consequent, increased need for personnel with English skills led to measures like reopening of some university and college sections after 1971, which was again disturbed in 1974 (Lam, 2002; He and Zeng, 2004).

English for modernization: (1977-90)

Deng's intention to modernize the country had attached strategic importance to education, including English education. In 1978, a couple of important events occurred: resumed university recruitment, and more relevantly, an MOE symposium on the overall planning for L2 teaching (Lam 2002; He and Zeng, 2004). That symposium claimed that

> "[t]he high level of foreign language education is not only an important component for promoting the scientific and cultural standard of the whole Chinese nation, but also a necessary precondition of being an advanced country and race" (cited in He and Zeng, 2004; p. 101).

Influenced by the above vision, in 1982 English was announced as the main L2 in secondary education, and throughout 1980s, efforts on syllabus design and materials development, largely from within the country, could be seen (Lam, 2002).

English for international stature: (1991 onwards)

The world's power shift in the late 1980s, as well as a swift pace of globalization, led China to adopt a more international stance. The above orientation was articulated, for instance, through her endeavours to enter WTO and bid for the Olympics, both of which were realised in 2001 (Lam, 2002). Such an international outlook requires further openness to foreign learning, and throughout the 1990s, syllabi and materials were designed/revised, often with help from abroad (Lam, 2002). Other achievements also included holding of symposiums, use of modern technology as well as increased research from home and abroad (Lam, 2002; He and Zeng, 2004).

In summary, from 1949, favour of Russian was short-lived and mostly English has been the dominating L2. In addition, much of the time, the English language has acquired a fairly high official status, especially after 1978 (Adamson, 2002) when the language has been closely tied to China's development.

4. Recent developments in EFL education

From the above, on the national level, English has been perceived by the Chinese government as a necessary means for the nation to modernize and internationalize since 1978, and driven by a pressing sense of urgency to catch up with, and serve, China's rapidly developing economy, persistent efforts have been taken to provide English education in formal education system (Hu, 2002; 2005a), leading to multiple outcomes.

Because of limited resources and an inherited, weak infrastructure, efforts to expand English provision have been constantly in tension with attempts to improve the quality of English education, which was more keenly felt in the first decade of modernization (Hu, 2005a). To cope with the situation, makeshift strategies were employed, including staffing primary and secondary education with people having some English proficiency or training, often causing poor results. In mid-1980s, there were increasing criticisms of the low quality of English education (Hu 2002; 2005a), which were sharpened by a growing awareness of developments from abroad (Hu, 2002). Together with the newly launched 1985 educational reform, those criticisms led to a national survey conducted between 1986 and 1987 (Hu, 2002; 2005a). That survey, involving 57,000 secondary students from 139 schools in 15 provinces, revealed a miserable scene: apart from a

massively under qualified teaching force, after years of study, most students merely acquired a fragmentary knowledge of English plus very limited capacity to communicate; the result was especially disheartening considering the fact that two thirds of the surveyed schools were key schools, representing the upper-end of English education in China at the time (Hu, 2005a).

Multiple causes were identified, and improvements covering areas such as curriculum, syllabus, textbooks and testing have been consequently carried out, as an important part of the wider, educational reforms starting 1985 (Hu, 2002; 2005a). Gaining force over years, those improvement measures firstly focused on secondary education, both as a support of the general reform with much of its weight on that level, and because of the greater proportion of learners involved at that level, amongst other reasons (Hu, 2002).

1) Curriculum reform

Criticisms leveled at outdated, centralised curriculums were sharp. Considering the fact that the widening regional differences, giving rise to diversified needs, required attention in curriculum preparation, an important measure was to gradually decentralise decision making, and allow regional autonomy in reform, which was in accord with the guiding spirit of the 1985 reform (Hu, 2002; 2005a). Educational authorities from seven more developed provinces were allowed to develop their own curricula, syllabi or textbooks. Amongst them, Shanghai and Zhejiang Province pioneered curricular changes, whose experiences were to be used nationwide.

In 1988, Shanghai set up its Curriculum and Teaching Materials Reform Commission (SCTMRC) and started its reform (Hu, 2002; 2005a). The SCTMRC created separate curricula to cover compulsory and upper secondary educations in the early 1990s, which were extensively updated in 1998 (Hu, 2002; 2005a). The curricula developed by Shanghai have introduced three changes to improve the quality of English education (Hu, 2005a), hoping to provide an education that can meet the municipal government's ambition to develop Shanghai into a world metropolis (Hu, 2002). Firstly, English has been given greater prominence than in the national curriculums (Hu, 2005a). For instance, Shanghai's 2003 nine-year basic education curriculum required 1,052-1,200 hours for English teaching, in comparison with the national curriculum's 672-808 hours. One route

to achieve the above is to increase weekly instruction time. Another is related to a second change in Shanghai's curriculum reform, the expansion of English education to lower grades of primary schooling. To add further weight to English education, the grade level for start of English education has been officially lowered from grade 5 to grade 1. By 2000, about 85% of Shanghai's primary schools had provided English education from grade 1; starting the Autumn of 2001, all the remaining schools have achieved the above (Hu, 2002). Perhaps encouraged by Shanghai's action, MOE had guidelines recommending primary schools to start English education from primary grade 3 starting 2001 (Hu, 2002; Lin, 2002; Nunan, 2003), and in that year, there were eight million primary school pupils learning the subject of English for 2 to 3 hours per week (Hu, 2002).

The third key change, "which has had a significant impact on the current landscape of ELT in China", involved the introduction of "content-based English instruction" ("CBEI"), which was labelled by Chinese educators as "bilingual education" (Hu, 2005a, p. 14). The above CBEI, trialled in Shanghai and adopted by other developed regions, requires the teaching of subjects like Maths, physics and IT through the use of English. Such programmes were first introduced to some key primary and secondary schools, which were felt to have achieved impressive results (Hu, 2002). Encouraged by the above, Shanghai planned to involve most schools by 2005.

2) Syllabus development

Efforts to improve instruction of English through syllabus development have paralleled the above curricular reforms, and again Shanghai and Zhejiang Province were chosen to trial their own syllabi, as part of the greater initiative to encourage educational innovation and provision of localized instruction for local needs (Hu, 2005a). Shanghai's 1998 syllabi defined primary and secondary instructional goals as:

> (1) helping students acquire essential knowledge of English and develop basic communicative competence through training in listening, speaking, reading, and writing; (2) helping students develop good study habits and master basic language learning methods so as to lay a solid foundation for their further study and use of English; (3) fostering interest in learning English and inculcating the right purposes for learning English; and (4) developing students' abilities to memorise, observe, think, and imagine. (Hu, 2002: pp. 36 – 37).

In addition, the above syllabi had guidelines expecting textbooks to illustrate principles of language learning, in that an eclectic pedagogy should be developed incorporating elements from the range of audiolingual, functional, notional and communicative approaches/methods (Hu, 2002). There were also specified teaching objectives and guidelines which, together with the above, reflected a conscious attempt to "reconcile" new developments from abroad and Shanghai with traditional practices from the Chinese context (Hu, 2002, p. 37).

Meanwhile, MOE also quickened its pace for syllabus updating; between 1988 and 2001, eight versions of national syllabi were issued (Hu, 2005a). Whilst the initial versions could be argued to centre more on the issue of syllabus adjustment (e.g. adjustment from an earlier accentuation of political needs to economic and technological orientations; adjustment of unrealistic teaching objectives and contents) (Hu, 2002), the later versions (Hu, 2002) have been motivated by a desire to interface with international developments in general and English educations:

> [t]hat is, syllabus renewal has been utilized as a key strategy to incorporate progressive and scientific thinking on education; to apply new theories and findings in the field of foreign language education from around the world; and to improve learning materials, pedagogical practices and methods of evaluation (Hu, 2005a; p. 14)

Hu (2005a) finally summarises four trends shared by national and local syllabi: (1) an increasingly obvious embrace of the communicative approach; (2) a move-away from detailed prescription towards guiding principles regarding teaching recommendation; (3) better specified teaching objectives for better instruction; and (4) considerably increased language input.

3) Textbooks

Hu (2002) states that in China English textbooks are crucial to the quality of English education, partly because they provide the most important source of input to many students. In line with curriculum and syllabus reforms, great attention has been subsequently paid to new textbook development, for which decentralised efforts have also been encouraged. In 1986, the authorities set up a steering committee evaluating the quality of locally developed textbooks, following which several agencies and institutions

from throughout China were commissioned to develop textbook series for different regions (Hu, 2005a). Hu (2002) identified two stages of textbook development, and in the more recent one, home institutions and publishers have often been collaborating with overseas agencies in producing textbooks that have incorporated new theories and ideas. For example, the People's Education Press collaborated with Longman and the United Nations Development Program in the preparation of the nationally used (70% of schools) series of *Junior English for China* and *Senior English for China*, which adopted an eclectic approach combining CLT principles with existing practices (Hu, 2002).

Another successful example might be the new series of textbooks, *Oxford English (Shanghai edition)*, which were jointly produced by SCTMRC and Oxford University Press starting 1996 (Hu, 2002). That series, used in Shanghai, has incorporated some of the latest developments (Hu, 2002). The textbook developers conceptualize communicative competence as comprising the four dimensions of cognitive skills, linguistic knowledge, personal experiences and interpersonal communication strategies (Hu, 2002); to help students acquire communicative competence, the writers have adopted innovations supporting a learner-centred and communication-oriented approach (Hu, 2002; Hu, 2005a).

4) Testing

Due to the low rate of tertiary level enrolment, a fundamental task for regular upper secondary schools has been to help students pass the National College Entrance Examinations (NCEE); therefore, exam-oriented teaching has been prevalent (Hu, 2002), and for years, the NCEE encouraged narrowness and dependency by testing segmented textbook knowledge at the expenses of abilities or use of knowledge (Ross, 1992; cited in Hu, 2002), which perhaps held more grains of truth for the Matriculation English Test (MET), as a part of the NCEE (Hu, 2002). Indeed, the MET has been identified as a major cause for many teachers' resistance to educational innovation; and the above criticism, with others, led to an MOE conference on reforming the NCEE (Hu, 2002). A resultant, 4-part decision was made to guide future reform: (1) experimenting with competency exams in upper secondary schools for a more well-rounded assessment as well as to guard against exam-oriented education; (2) reducing the number of subjects in

the NCEE to lower the pressure from students; (3) improving the validity and reliability of the NCEE; and (4) strictly basing exam contents on the syllabi and highlighting the assessment of abilities (Hu, 2002). In terms of the MET, Hu (2002) concludes that there is evidence that reform measures have resulted in changes in ELT.

Like in other areas of improvement, the role of Shanghai in test reforms has been salient. In fact, Shanghai spearheaded some of the above measures, especially the first two (Hu, 2002). Shanghai developed a system of senior secondary competency examinations, which was later adopted with minimal adjustment nationwide (Hu, 2002). The above system consists of nine subjects, including the "core" of Chinese, Maths and L2 (mainly English), which are taken upon the completion of a particular subject. Those who pass all the nine tests are awarded a certificate, which is a prerequisite for sitting the NCEE. Hu (2002) comments that whilst competency exams have not fully stopped exam-oriented education, they are, nevertheless, illustrative of the nation's desire to reform tests and have drawn attention to some previously neglected subjects.

In addition, Shanghai was also allowed to develop its new NCEE system starting 1987, which is still in use (Hu, 2002). The new system requires the students to sit only four exams – the compulsory three core subjects plus another one from the bank of competency exams subjects, depending on what type of tertiary institution a student is to attend. The above has been based on arguments including reducing pressure from the students and further discouraging exam-oriented education, which have been found to be evidence-based to varied extent (Hu, 2002).

Finally, Shanghai has contributed in a third way: Shanghai's third English test system, Banded English Proficiency Test for primary and secondary students has been gaining popularity (Hu, 2002). For English educators and testers, the potential of that system lies in the fact that it can link up with higher education and non-formal education; it was estimated to replace the competency exam and the MET fairly soon, and with due success, other parts of China could be expected to replicate the case (Hu, 2002).

5. Issues in EFL education

From the above, China's reform initiatives, often starting in Shanghai, have clearly benefited aspects of English education including the development of curriculums, syllabi,

textbooks and testing, and statistical increases in areas like teacher education and IT resource allotment may also illustrate a strategic importance China has attached to English instruction. In fact, China's impressive progress has invited outside observations such as "the country 'is gaining English-language competence much faster than any other country in the region'" (Hertling, 1996; cited in Hu, 2005b).

However, despite progress, a range of issues deserve instant attention (e.g. Hu, 2005a; Niu and Wolff, 2003; Wu, 2001), the solving of which may require research efforts (Wu, 2001) and an ecological approach that considers multiple factors (Hu, 2003; 2005b). Within this aspect, problems highlighted by Hu (2005a) may be more relevant to China's basic English education.

The first issue involves the rapid spread of English teaching to primary schools (Hu, 2005a; Lin, 2002; Nunan; 2003). However, there are constraints regarding the above. Firstly, theoretical considerations. Abroad, some scholars question the effectiveness of early exposure to an L2 in the classroom; in fact, what is the critical period for SLA is still a question of contention (Hu, 2005a). Domestically, researchers (e.g. Wu, 2001) question the consistency and evidence base of language planning policies. Secondly, contextual constraints (e.g. Peng, 2003). Hu (2005a) sees that the success of primary English education is highly dependent on the existence of facilitating factors. However, at present, China does not have conditions such as sufficient qualified teachers, rich opportunities for authentic communication, ample instruction time, and consistent and well-designed follow-up instruction. To make matters worse, spreading of English education to lower primary grades, often at the expenses of Chinese instruction and other activities, may lead to consequences that China cannot afford (Hu, 2005a).

As for the much acclaimed CBEI, Hu (2005a) sees the success of it as reliant on a range of optimal conditions (Hu, 2002), which again are largely missing from the current Chinese context. The only justification for CBEI is to "provide students with extended and intensive exposure to English so that their proficiency in the language can be raised" (Hu, 2005a, p. 19), which appears to be a costly undertaking (for example, there is the need to create an artificial, bilingual school environment) and which might well be a doomed case if Hong Kong's effort and lament is to be considered as a pertinent example (Hu, 2002).

Regarding the third issue of teacher education, despite past effort and achievements, the current teaching force is still inadequate, both in number and quality, for the needs of China's English education, especially faced with the spread of compulsory primary English education (Hu, 2005a). Indeed, apart from training more personnel, one challenge facing teaching education is to better construct teacher training programmes (Wu, 2001), with a clearer, updated definition of professional qualifications (Hu, 2005a). The past practice of divorcing educational level and professional development has caused far-reaching problems, and without a competent force of teachers, there will always be some gap between policy rhetoric and classroom reality (Hu, 2005a).

Hu's (2005a) last issue concerns China's widening regional differences in terms of English provision (also Hu, 2003; 2005b; Wu, 2001), which is also plaguing provision of basic education (e.g. Tsang, 2000; Wang, 2003). According to Cortazzi and Jin (1996, cited in Hu, 2005a), the differences lie between the major cities and small cities, between rural towns and countryside, between coastal and inland areas, between north and south and between key schools and non-key schools. However, research studies often highlight the more obvious differences between less developed areas and economically developed coastal provinces plus other provincial capitals (e.g. Hu, 2003). The above differences have been traced to the interplay of a range of historical and current factors, social, economical and cultural; therefore, only an ecological solution based on a consideration of all those compounding factors will likely take effect (Hu, 2003; 2005b), which may be a task of difficulty for China which is faced with resource shortage and is trapped by the dilemma of educational efficiency and equality. However, given the material benefits and social prestige attached to English proficiency, unequal access to English education not only perpetuates but exacerbates educational inequality, which is posing threat to social stability and continued national development (Hu, 2005a).

In summary, this chapter has aimed to present firstly a brief introduction to China's basic education and secondly, and in more detail, a picture of China's basic English education, both of which have been swiftly changing due to rounds of top-down reforms gradually in place since 1978. Especially with regards to English education, the situation in Shanghai has been introduced, being a city spearheading and influencing many of the reform initiatives. The chosen of the city is believed to have solid reasons, including a

comparatively long history of English use and education, a mostly positive attitude towards the language throughout its history, and more importantly, Shanghai's unique position as China's economic centre and a leading city of international relations, hence a high relevance of English proficiency. Finally, this chapter was concluded with thorny issues facing China's English instruction, so as to present a balanced scenario.

Chapter 5 Methodology

"Research is best conceived as the process of arriving at dependable solutions to problems through the planned and systematic collection, analysis, and interpretation of data" (Mouly, 1978, p. 12). Perhaps within the above process, and among numerous decisions to make, choosing appropriate methods for data collection can be regarded as of specific importance: it is because the extent to which the adopted methods match the research questions decides whether or not a study has a chance to succeed; in addition, decisions upon data collection can shape future stages of research.

As such, reasons for why particular methods have been chosen, and the specific strengths and weaknesses of each method, will be discussed, which will be placed in a slightly broader background of research in social sciences. Following it will be a description of three research stages, with problems the research student came across raised and discussed. Next will be an account on the sampling, data analysis process, and finally issues of validity and reliability, of the main research. However, perhaps it is more sensible to start the journey with consideration of the research aims and questions.

I. Research Aims and Questions

1. Research aims

This research study has two main aims regarding student motivation. Firstly, it aims to explore the prevalent levels and types of EFL motivation amongst year 2 senior middle schools (aged 17 – 18) in Shanghai, China. Secondly, it aims to explore the role that important others (parents, teachers and peers) play in influencing their motivation.

The rationale for the first aim can be approached from different levels. On the national level, my literature review has identified developments from China's motivation research. However, there is much left to be improved (e.g. Wang and Zhang, 2005), including the issues of study rigour, complexity and sample diversification. For example, research on more complicated topics such as different types of motivation and how their components associate with each other and with the overall strength of one's motivation is only emerging (e.g. Gao *et al.*, 2003; 2004) . To make the scene worse, related research often targets the narrow scope of college-level populations (with a possible exception of Ge,

2006), which is typically conducted by university lecturers, isolated from both an international audience and China's main body of consumers. Within China, consequently, despite an increased research effort, students, parents and school teachers in general appear to have limited understanding of the idea of L2 motivation, whereas abroad, the main corpus of China's research, published in Chinese, is difficult to access. On the regional level, it is realised that English education in Shanghai is comparatively advanced, due to historical and recent reform reasons. Coupled with the fact that English use is more relevant than in many regions of China, it can be argued that students in Shanghai would have very different learning experiences, motivational profiles and outcomes, which is in line with Hu (2003; 2005b). As such, being sensitive to the widening regional differences, rather than drawing sweeping conclusions nationwide, as has been done by most studies, may help to produce more accurate results. Therefore, it is hoped that through this study a picture of secondary students' motivation in Shanghai can be presented, to both facilitate local school practices and add to the domestic and international literature.

Within the first aim, the above age group was targeted due to following reasons: Firstly, the existing literature has identified adolescence as an important phase of transition and change, which may impact on human belief systems. In comparison with an early period, the late adolescence (including the targeted age group) has been insufficiently researched. Secondly, in the context of China, despite an assumption that after years of learning, upper secondary students should have formed stable reactions towards English and the immediate learning environment in addition to a fairly realistic evaluation of themselves as learners, those students are faced with a series of choices that may affect their whole life. It can be argued, and has been illustrated in my own research, that pressure from making choices can still influence student motivation and behaviour. Therefore, it would be meaningful to examine how, and to what extent, late adolescents are still subject to external influences. Within the above context, specific attention had been on senior year two classes because hopefully they are a group that have formed opinions towards teachers and peers, after a year of being together; they are also accessible, since the National College Entrance Exams (NCEE) is still more than a year away.

The second aim was chosen because many studies have illustrated the considerable

impact of parents, teachers and peers on student motivation. Furthermore, despite its Western origin, the idea of "important others" is also found to be relevant to Asian contexts, specifically Confucius heritage countries: students in those countries appeared to show different autonomous needs as well as a stronger inter-personal dependency (particularly upon those regarded as bearing authority) for decision. However, in comparison with the general field of motivation, a much smaller number of L2-related studies have been conducted worldwide, and none of them have looked at and compared the influences from the above groups in depth. It is hoped that this study, using Deci and Ryan's (1985) continuum of motivational styles, may shed light on how and how much important others are perceived to influence EFL motivation, and how such influences and strategies correlate with reported students' motivation-related mentality and behaviour. Based upon the above, suggestions will be made to better support EFL learning in Shanghai.

Finally, because this study is to drawn from literature reflecting different origins, (Gardner *et al.*'s classical understanding of L2 motivation v.s. Deci and Ryan's self-determination theory from the general field of motivation), a minor aim will be to see if the latter works in the researched context, which has been rarely attempted in China (except Wu, 2003; Vansteenskiste *et al.*, 2005a), and how the two sets of results compare with each other, following pioneering work on combining the above two traditions (e.g., Noels *et al.*, 1999, 2000; Noels, 2005).

2. Main research questions

From the main aims, there are two main research questions adopted. The first question is "**What kinds of motivation are prevalent among senior year two students in Shanghai?**"

The following subsidiary research questions were designed to better operationalise it:

1. **What strength and type of EFL motivation is prevalent and how does it compare with other school subjects?**
2. **What are the students' motivational beliefs such as why they learn English?**
3. **How do components of motivation correlate to each other?**
4. **Are there any gendered differences regarding student motivation?**

The second question is **"To what extent do the students perceive important others to influence their EFL motivation?"** Again, a group of sub-questions were asked to set the boundary of research.

1. **What are the perceived strengths of parental, teacher and peer influences on motivation?**
2. **What are the perceived beliefs of parents, teachers and peers as to why English should be learnt?**
3. **In what ways do parents, teachers and peers influence the students?**
4. **How do the influences of important others correlate with components of student motivation and with each other?**

It needs to be pointed out that student perceptions are the only focus of research.

II. The Research Strategy

1. A critical overview

It is perhaps understandable why researchers want to categorise research methods into different paradigms (a cluster of beliefs in a scientific discipline deciding the content and method(s) of study and approaches to data analysis), following Kuhn (1962; 1970; e.g., cited in Bryman 1992; 2004; Husen, 1999). Despite arguments on the suitability of the word "paradigm" in social sciences, the above practice (of grouping research methods) has offered researchers a manageable framework to look at the philosophical underpinnings of each methodology (Bryman, 2004). Guba and Lincoln (1994, 2005), Lincoln and Guba (2000) and Mertens (1999), for example, have identified three major paradigms in their frameworks – positivist/postpositivist, interpretive/constructivist and critical/emancipatory – and have summarised characteristics of each, taking Guba and Lincoln's (1994) suggestion that the questions of ontology, epistemology and methodology are key in defining a paradigm. Below is a summary table.

Table 5.2.1.1 Research Paradigms

Basic Questions	Positivist/ Postpositivist		Critical/ Emancipatory	Interpretive/ Constructivist
	Positivism	Postpositivism (refined positivism)		
Ontology (nature of reality)	Naïve realism – "real" reality but apprehendible	Critical realism – "real" reality but only imperfectly and probabilistically apprehendible	Historical realism – virtual reality shaped by social, political, cultural, economic, ethnic and gender values	Relativism – local and specific constructed and co-constructed realities
Epistemology (nature of knowledge)	Objectivist; findings true	Modified objectivist; critical tradition/community; findings probably true	Transactional/ subjectivist; value-mediated findings	Transactional/ subjectivist; created findings
Methodology (inquiry approach)	Experimental/manipulative; verification of hypotheses; chiefly quantitative methods	Modified experimental/manipulative ; falsification of hypotheses; may include qualitative methods	Dialogic/dialectical	Dialectical

(Adapted from Guba and Lincoln, 2005, p. 193)

Whilst a useful tool for comprehension, the idea of "paradigm" has nevertheless caused a false impression that methodologies from different realms, based on their different origins and underpinnings, are mutually exclusive, and that a supporter of one school of thought should not and cannot utilize methods from another at the same time, which has been best illustrated in the heated, decade-long and yet-to-be-settled debate on the quantitative versus qualitative divide. Those sharing the above attitude in the debate are summarised as having an epistemological stance, seeing quantitative and qualitative research as based on incompatible epistemological and ontological principles and thus being divergent (Bryman, 2004). A potential danger of this attitude is that it exaggerates the differences between the two research strategies, which have been briefly presented in Bryman (2004).

> Thus, quantitative research can be construed as a research strategy that emphasizes quantification in the collection and analysis of data and that:
>
> - entails a deductive approach to the relationship between theory and research, in which the accent is placed on the testing of theories;
> - has incorporated the practices and norms of the natural scientific model and of positivism in particular; and
> - embodies a view of social reality as an external, objective reality.
>
> By contrast, qualitative research can be construed as a research strategy that usually emphasizes words rather than quantification in the collection and analysis of data and that:

- predominantly emphasizes an inductive approach to the relationship between theory and research, in which the emphasis is placed on the generation of theories;
- has rejected the practices and norms of the natural scientific model and of positivism in particular in preferences for an emphasis on the ways in which individuals interpret their social world; and
- embodies a view of social reality as a constantly shifting emergent property of individuals' creation. (pp. 19 – 20)

To Bryman (2004, p. 438), the above differences and numerous others, had better been viewed as a tendency, rather than being deterministic; "[r]esearch methods are much more free-floating than is sometimes supposed" and both types of research may sometimes exhibit features normally associated with the competing strategy.

To further his argument, Bryman (2004, pp. 443 – 446) has discussed in more detail the problems with the quantitative and qualitative divide. Firstly, some researchers overstate the distinction between a focus on behaviour and a focus on meaning, seen as characteristic of quantitative and qualitative research respectively. The argument is that both quantitative and qualitative researchers have interest in what people do and what they think; the difference merely lies in the fact that the above strategies tend to take different investigation methods. Secondly, there is a tendency to characterise quantitative research as solely driven by a theory-/ concept-testing agenda. It is acknowledged that whilst it can be the case with experimentation, it is certainly limiting in terms of surveys, which are often exploratory and consequently offer opportunities for the generation of theories and concepts. What is more, it has wiped out the possibility that findings from quantitative research can also suggest new departures and theoretical contributions. The third argument concerns a general misunderstanding that quantitative research is all about numbers while qualitative research is only about words. It has often been noted that quantification of varied degrees is involved in qualitative research, and in fact, what quantitative researchers do is to inject greater precision through the use of probability-based statistics. Finally, Bryman (2004) also comments on the artificial versus natural divide, seen as relevant to quantitative and qualitative research respectively. Evidence has been given that qualitative studies can also employ methods that set an artificial environment for research, such as in the case of interviews.

Fortunately, it seems to be the current trend to question the above divide (e.g. Bryman, 1984; 1992; Howe, 2003) and to promote research work that combine methodologies or

elements of methodologies (Bryman, 2004; Cohen *et al.*, 2000; Gorard and Taylor, 2004; Mansoor, 2004; Mertens, 1999; Sale, *et al.*, 2002), corresponding to Bryman's (2004, p. 454) "technological version", a position giving greater prominence to the strengths of the data collection and analysis techniques connected respectively to quantitative and qualitative research and seeing these as capable of being fused.

There has been an increasing body of writings on multi-strategy work, including those discussing approaches to such research (e.g. Bryman, 2004; Gorard and Taylor, 2004; Morgan, 1998). Bryman (2004, pp. 454 - 462), for instance, has commented on the idea of triangulation, how both research can facilitate and/or complement each other and how the two types of research are employed to study different aspects of a phenomenon. As regards the two types of research facilitating each other, qualitative research is argued to be instrumental in providing hypotheses, and aiding measurement, (which occurred in the current project when information from qualitative studies were used to help the design of survey questions); in turn, government statistics and survey data have been used to identify trends or respondents for qualitative research. In terms of different strategies complementing each other, Bryman (2004) has listed the occasions when information cannot be yielded from one method alone, when different methods lead to different views that form a fuller picture and when different methods yield different kinds of result and voice. Bryman's (2004) suggestion that different strategies study different aspects of a phenomenon overlaps bits of his previous argument, though presented at a higher level: quantitative and qualitative research have been respectively related to the investigation of macro and micro phenomena; they are also thought to be suited to different phases in a study.

From the above, the idea of combined-method research does appear to be plausible and beneficial, for which, some lecturers rightly suggest that new researchers be simultaneously taught both quantitative and qualitative techniques, so as to enable those apprentices to envision their future work in a mixed methodological framework (Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2005a, b).

2. The research strategy

The above debate on research paradigms, especially the more recent arguments for

combined-method research has had an impact on the current research student, who agrees with Burns (2000, p. 11) that

> [t]here is more than one gate to the kingdom of knowledge. Each gate offers a different perspective, but no one perspective exhausts the realm of 'reality' – whatever that may be.

Consequently, the survey strategy has been chosen as the overall methodology, due to the considerations that it is an approach having the potential to incorporate both quantitative and qualitative elements in data collection, that it leads to a multi-staged process of research often moving from more open-ended methods to comparatively standardised studies, and of course, that it is a strategy seen as suitable for answering the research questions from the current project.

Coinciding with the research student's sentiment, de Vaus (2002) writes that a survey is not just a particular technique for data collection; rather, it is distinguished by features of data form and the method of analysis. In more detail, surveys are characterised by producing a systematic set of data forming a "variable by case" data grid (p. 3), which is fundamental for survey analysis that is based on case comparisons; more typically, survey analysis seeks to describe the characteristics of a series of cases or understand the relationships between different traits of those cases. It has been particularly pointed out (de Vaus, 2002) that data can be collected through a range of quantitative and qualitative methods within the survey strategy and very often researchers see it as appropriate to adopt a multi-strategy approach. Because of the above, perhaps linking the survey strategy solely to the quantitative end is misleading and limiting.

Cohen *et al.* (2000, p. 171) have furthered the list of characteristics or attractions of the survey strategy. The points seen as most relevant have been adapted and listed below:

- It often collects data on a one-shot basis and is therefore straightforward and efficient;
- A wide target population is often covered in research;
- It generates systematic data on traits of cases that allow for easy access, analysis and comparison, often through the use of statistics;
- The results usually describe a phenomenon and/or reveal relationships between bits of that phenomenon;
- The strategy often generates accurate instruments through the built-in piloting and revision stages;
- It often enables generalizations to be made, through the use of a large sample from a wide population.

On the other hand, the above authors (2000) have also pointed out limitations of that strategy, mainly in that it is less suitable for portraying the specificity of a situation, its uniqueness and particular complexity, and it can be a time-consuming and resource-hungry approach with comparatively higher demands for preparatory stages. In addition, cross-sectional designs, perhaps the most popular amongst survey studies, do not permit analysis of causal relationships. On top of the above, Denscombe (1998) has cautioned against the depth of the data collected in most surveys. He is also worried about the accuracy and honesty of survey data.

The current research student, whilst agreeing that the above can be potentially limiting, did not feel them to have hampered her study: firstly, her research aims on EFL motivation were not about specificities but were more on trends and relations; secondly, although her research was costly, it was cost-effective; thirdly, it would have been tantalizing to aim at causalities in her study; however, it would be difficult in the field of motivation whichever strategy one employs; fourthly, the depth of her data was improved by including individual interviews and questionnaire open-questions; finally, the issue of data accuracy and honesty was not seen to be inherited with the survey strategy; rather, it is an issue that concerns researchers of all strategies and is more to do with sensitivity of research questions.

3. The research methods

The use of the questionnaire

Cohen *et al.* (2000, p. 245), following Wilson and McLean (1994), write that "the questionnaire is a widely used and useful instrument for collecting survey information, providing structured, often numerical data, being able to be administered without the presence of the researcher, and often being comparatively straightforward to analyze". Although variations of self-administered questionnaires, rather than postal ones as implied by the above writers, were used as a main research tool in the current project, the choice was regarded as sound and plausible at the time of design, capable of answering the questions on motivation- and important others- related trends, of fitting into the busy schedule of upper secondary schools in Shanghai (and causing comparatively less disruption) and of covering as large a population as possible within the time available.

One of the most widely used methods, the questionnaire has a range of advantages over other research tools. The overwhelming argument might be the low cost in time and money (Gillham, 2000a). A good example might be the main study of the current project, where one school trip, with about thirty minutes from each respondent, could produce nearly 100 finished questionnaires, and where the financial cost on administration was reasonable. Another obvious advantage (also mentioned above) is that the questionnaire is a method allowing for easy and swift access to information from a large population, often spreading over a wide piece of land (Gillham, 2000a; Oppenheim, 1992). Whilst it could be argued that it did take a long time for the results of the preliminary questionnaires, administered by friends/links in Shanghai, to reach the research student; the main study managed to target a large sample (n = 700) from a number of widely-spread schools in the above city within a short period of time (three months).

Another pay-off of using questionnaires is that it is easier to arrange (Denscombe, 1998) and use. Although many of the questionnaires were administered far before the term exams, the participating schools still had a very busy schedule. In the case of questionnaires, what the school authorities needed to do was merely allocating a time and a venue, and then led the classes to the occasion; no other method would be so straightforward or less demanding and in fact, most schools were explicit that observation or other disruptive methods would not be welcome. On top of that, questionnaires adopt standardised questions that allow easier categorization and the use of statistics; they also introduce minimal contact between the researcher and the researched; finally they make it possible for the participants to be anonymous, perhaps leading to more valid data (Gillham, 2000a). All such can be argued to add rigour to a study or to impact upon the validity of its data.

However, questionnaires also have embedded limitations that can affect a piece of research. The more obvious ones include the need for brevity and relatively simple questions, the difficulty in clearing misunderstandings or gap of information, the fact that only questions are used for seeking information, the difficulty for people to write down their thoughts, and the possibility that question wording can have a major effect on answers (Gillham, 2000a). Nonetheless, some of the shortcomings listed in Gillham (2000a, p. 8) were thought to have been avoided: the response rate was good due to the

use of "captive" samples; data quality was generally high due to standardisation of research and taking everything on board with the participants; the main questionnaire design was cautious and tested, especially in the sense of saturation of categories and question wording.

In summary, it could be stated that the use of questionnaires was based on careful judgement, and the research student was aware of and prepared for the potential limitations connected with that method. Perhaps her sentiment had been grasped by Gilllham (2000a, p. 4):

> [There is always] tension between the originality and discovery and validity of the verbal data, and the economy of time and effort and money in gathering the data. The only answer is a compromise; but that compromise has to be kept in mind.

The use of the interview

Alongside questionnaires, interviews were used in the current project. Kvale (1996, p. 2) has depicted interviews to be "an *inter view*, an inter change of views between two persons conversing about a theme of mutual interest". Apart from pointing out the constructivist aspect of an interview, Kvale (1996) has also hinted about its mundane quality as a conversation. Because of that and also because of its good adaptability, interviewing has been used ever since the ancient Egyptian period and has become one of the most common and powerful ways for understanding one's fellow human beings (Fontana and Frey 1998; 2005).

Interviewing has a wide variety of forms and a multiplicity of uses (Fontata and Frey, 1998), and can be categorized in different ways (see the number of works on classification: e.g. Bogardus, 2003; Bryman, 2004; Cohen *et al.*, 2000) and into different grades, mainly by its purpose and structure. The current student found it comfortable to imagine a continuum of interviews ranging from highly structured and standardised to informal, conversational interviews, and in her study, she adopted varied styles of individual interviews at different stages, following Cohen *et al.*'s (2000) "fitness-for-purpose" principle.

The main study interviews were expected to contextualize the research, to triangulate trend-based data from the main questionnaires, and to provide in-depth data especially in terms of influences from important others. As such, open questions were adopted to

collect qualitative data. However, the number of interviews (n = 64) and the time allowed by most schools (20 minutes) decided that her interviews had to be standardised and straightforward, so as to produce cost-effective and manageable results as well as to reduce research errors. In comparison, her pre-pilot and pilot interviews were moved toward the unstructured end: in the case of pre-pilot interviews, a semi-structured schedule was designed to cover major points of interest, but a conversational style of interviewing was adopted often encouraging the respondent to follow her/his thread of thought, the reason being that, still in twilight, the research student tried to better envision the scene through the respondents' views; in the case of pilot interviews, a rough agenda was set to illustrate the main foci, but the respondents were invited to make as many points as possible, with few interruptions.

When designing her project, the research student was aware of arguments over interviews and other methods, often questionnaires. For example, according to Gillham (2000b), the overwhelmingly positive feature of the interview is the rich, vivid and contextualized data one can get. However, what prevent one from using the method are often extraneous reasons, such as costs and pressure of time (Oppenhiem, 1992). As such, perhaps it is better not to view one method to be superior to any others; rather, it is better to make it explicit that the most appropriate solution is which best accommodates one's research aims and resources. On top of that, it is also important to bear in mind the limitations of the chosen method. In the current project, the research student needs to pay specific attention to the reliability of interview data, due to variation in interview contexts, the possible inhibitions on the respondent (such as the use of a recorder and obvious invasion of privacy) (Denscombe, 1998, p. 137) and other types of errors/variations that could have been introduced in the lengthy research and data analysis process.

In addition, the research student was also aware of the more micro-level controversy over the standardised and non-standardised divide within the interview method (e.g. Beatty, 2003; Schober and Conrad, 2003). Standardisation was originally developed to gain tighter control of errors produced by interviewers in survey research (Beatty, 2003). It is still alive in practice as a cheaper, faster and effective style of interviewing whilst the exact opposite has been connected with unstructured interviews (Beatty, 2003). In addition, it makes data analysis easier and yields comparable data. As such, it might be

greatly favoured in the context of a large sample with limited resources and when comparison is aimed at.

On the contrary, those taking a qualitative view have insisted that traditional standardisation, connected mainly with closed questions, force the respondents to fit their experiences and feelings into the researcher's categories; therefore, interviews can be perceived as impersonal and limiting (Patton, 1980, cited in Cohen *et al.*, 2000), leading to interviewer-respondent rapport problems (Beatty, 2003) that can jeopardize the communication process. In addition, Schober and Conrad (2003, p. 142) have also discovered that "there are circumstances under which the costs of standardization do outweigh the gains, if high response accuracy is the goal... [in that] [f]lexible interviewing led to nearly 60 percent greater accuracy when the mapping between the question and the respondent's situation was complicated". However, that accuracy was achieved at a real cost, with a more than threefold increase in time.

In summary, it seems that again the question boils down to the issue of how the main aim of a study dictates what style of research to be adopted (Oppenhaim, 1992); the researcher just has to live with the limitations of that research method. Or, at least according to Beatty (2003, p. 117), some compromise might be needed in some cases, to both keep the benefits of standardisation – "practical simplicity, timeliness and greater statistical power" – and to solve the problem of rapport and communication. In the case of the current project, adopting open-ended questions to let people speak their mind was seen as key to relieve the above dilemma.

4. Design of the main study tools

Main questionnaire design

The main questionnaire (2004) was based on the pilot questionnaire that was designed in 2003, drawing insights from the literature, the pre-pilot stage and the pilot exploratory survey. The main questionnaire also benefited from feedback and suggestions from the pilot questionnaire survey and interviews.

Like the pilot version, the main questionnaire had an introduction. However, it was briefer, mainly explaining the research purpose and giving a working definition of the idea of "foreign language motivation". It also appeared above the main text, rather than in

a separate cover letter.

The body of the main questionnaire had three parts (see Appendix 5), covering demographic data and the two research aims and dropping the last section on student feedback used in the pilot questionnaire (see Appendix 4).

Both of the pilot and main questionnaires had four questions on key personal information in the first part. However, the wording of questions 3 and 4 was slightly different in the main. Above all, the last type of class, in question 4, had been better explained, including a possibility otherwise uncovered before.

The second section (questions 5-9) dealt with the students' motivational types and strength, their attitudes towards English and their reasons for English learning. Question 5 explored the respondents' attitudes towards 12 school subjects. It must be mentioned that this list of subjects was not intended to be exhaustive; rather, it included key courses and those offered by most middle schools in Shanghai at that time. The list was double-checked by a middle school teacher in that city. A five-point Likert scale was designed to rate the answers. Question 6, also adopting a five-point Likert scale, looked at the respondent's reactions towards 15 reasons for EFL learning. These reasons, apart from the reason of travel, came from the pilot open-ended survey and were rearranged and tidied according to suggestions from the pilot stage. An example of the above reasons might be "It will help me seek employment". The reason of "It will enable me to make more money and have a better life in future", from the pilot questionnaire, was dropped due to its vagueness. Though the above "orientation of travel" was not explicitly mentioned in the pilot survey, it was regarded as possible in today's China. Question 7 was an open question, inviting the respondents to list any additional reasons to learn English.

In the main questionnaire, another major change occurred within question 8, having five behavioural indicators on EFL motivation that were based on Morris (2001). In the final version, all the statements were phrased in a positive way, to reduce the chance of misreading. An example of the five statements might be "Outside of class, I make an effort to learn English". Question 9 asked the respondent to evaluate her/his overall strength of motivation. In the main study, the original scale was broadened to include six ratings, following suggestions from the pilot interviews.

In addition to the above, minor changes also occurred in the second section from the pilot questionnaire to the main, including the wording of the section title, the introduction to question 6, and statements in question 8. The layout of questions 5 and 6 was also changed, which was found to be effective in the main study.

Section three included questions (11 – 19) evaluating the influences of important others. Question 10, based on Noels *et al.* (1999, 2000), explored the respondents' self-regulatory styles. There were five statements symbolizing a continuum that included amotivation, external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation and intrinsic motivation (Deci and Ryan, 1985). An example might be that "Learning English is not important at all. There is no need to put in any effort" (amotivation). Another might be "Students should learn English because it will be good for their future life and job prospects" (external regulation). In the main study, the third statement was phrased in a different way, with the issue of "face" emphasized, and the Chinese translation of an important phrase "intellectual development" in the fourth statement had been altered to better match the concept. The above alterations had also affected questions 11, 14 and 17, adopting the same statements.

Questions 11, 14 and 17 assessed the perceived reasons for EFL learning from parents, English teachers and peers of the respondents. It had been assumed that within the range of factors affecting one's regulatory style(s), how her/his parents, English teachers and peers justified EFL learning should be regarded as an important source of influence. The reason why "English teachers" had been singled out as a category in both the pilot and main questionnaires was based on the pre-pilot interview findings: the English teacher was found to have the strongest influence on student motivation; the influence from other teachers was inconsistent and negligible.

Questions 12, 15 and 18 evaluated the strength of parental, teacher and peer influences on student motivation. A five-point scale was used in each case; the measurements were arranged from negative towards positive, like elsewhere in the main questionnaire. Questions 13, 16 and 19 were open questions, asking the students to write down in what ways the researched groups of people influenced their motivation to learn English.

In the third section, minor alterations of wording also occurred from the pilot questionnaire to the main, such as in the cases of section title and introductions to some

items, to better explain or to emphasize certain requirements.

Before this small section is to be concluded, a specific note upon the use of different Likert-type scales in the main study is needed. Whilst the most common form of Likert scale is a five-point scale labelled from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree", this study also employed Likert-type scales with four-point and six-point scales. However, these involved different types of scale labelling. For example, a six-point scale labelled from "not at all" to "very high" was used for the students to rate their overall motivational level for English learning; whilst a four-point scale labelled from "not true at all" to "very true" was used regarding students' rating of their own regulatory style. The decision to adopt different scale-point response scales was taken in response to user comments concerning the meaningfulness of different scale points and the need to avoid response scale saturation (viz. too many points can require the distinctions to be made between points as being too fine).

It also needs to be borne in mind that the questionnaire was completed in Chinese. The labels used in the English version match as closely as possible the meaning of the Chinese version. However, in some cases the wording in English may appear particularly close or even overlapping. For example, the distinction between "not very true" and "slightly true". This was not perceived to be a problem for students using the Chinese version, but we do need to be aware of such possible overlaps in scale labels, and the implications this can have for the reliability and validity of scale responses.

In summary, apart from the afore-mentioned pilot stage studies, the research student also benefited greatly from her supervisor and other TAG (Thesis Advisory Group) members, when redrafting the pilot questionnaire. In addition, a couple of her friends checked the Chinese translation of the questionnaire before she went back for her field work. Perhaps due to the above, the main questionnaire was felt to be successful, because the respondents generally completed the survey swiftly, and only very occasionally did they ask for clarification. It could also be assumed that failure to answer the open questions, in most cases, was not due to misunderstanding.

Main interview design

A semi-structured interview schedule (Appendix 6) was designed in March, 2004 for

the main study; it was adapted in the field work when the research student realised that a standardised style of interviewing, with clearly-worded questions, was necessary due to the time limit set on most interviews. The final version included two parts: an introduction and the main body. At the top of the sheet was a brief explanation of the purpose and foci of the main interviews, which was followed by a working definition of L2 motivation and that of peers.

The main interview schedule, having eight questions (or question groups), was based on the pre-pilot work and aimed to add to and triangulate the main questionnaire data on student EFL-related attitudes and attitudes, strength and ways of influences from important others. In the final version, the first question (having four sub-questions), explored the respondent's attitudes towards English: the respondents were asked how much they liked or disliked English, how they viewed English as a subject and as a language and what their learning experiences were regarding attitude/motivation change. The second question dealt with the perceived motivational strength. The students were also asked how much time they spent on English outside school and what activities they did. The third question explored parental attitudes towards English as a subject and as a language. The respondents were asked to separate their mothers from their fathers when applicable, which was also the case with the following question. The fourth question looked at the strength of parental influence and how it had been exerted. Suggestions upon parental improvement were also required. The fifth question studied English teachers' attitudes towards English as a subject and as a language. The students were asked to separate their current teachers from their former teachers, which also happened in the next question. The sixth question investigated the strength of teacher influence and how such an influence had been exerted. The respondent was also asked to offer her/his current teacher(s) suggestions to improve student motivation. Question 7 and 8 focused on two peer groups: friends and classmates. Question 7 invited the respondent to comment on peer attitudes towards English as a subject and as a language. Question 8 evaluated the extent of peer influence.

Finally and additionally, the respondents were also asked to rank influences of important others and to attribute the current source of motivation either to the self or the immediate surrounding (with important others at the core). The latter was designed to

investigate whether or not important others were regarded as influential by the majority at the researched stage.

5. Ethical issues

There has been an enhanced awareness of the attendant moral issues in the field of social sciences (Cohen *et al.*, 2000), perhaps with its recent root grown out of concerns for biochemical studies conducted since WWII (Berg, 2004). Such an awareness is evident in the bulk of work dedicated to discussion of ethical issues; in addition, often books on research methods in social sciences would be regarded as insufficient without a chapter/section on ethics (e.g. Bryman, 2004; Burns, 2000; Denzin and Lincoln, 2005; de Vaus, 2002). The current research student is also aware of the body of useful guidelines offered by sociological/psychological societies: e.g. "Statement of Ethical Practice for the British Sociological Assiciation" (BSA, 2002); "Code of Conduct, Ethical Principles, and Guidelines" (British Psychological Society, 2004); "Code of Ethics and Policies and Procedures of the American Sociological Association Committee on Professional Ethics" (ASA, 1999).

Whilst offering interesting debate and insights on research ethics, the above resources have often targeted similar basic concerns, such as the issues of informed consent, confidentiality and anonymity, which have been felt to be germane to the current project.

Informed consent

Informed consent refers to the requirement that the researched have the right to participate in a study or pull out based on the information offered by the researcher. The British Psychological Society (BPS), for example, has given detailed guidelines for research conduct.

> Whenever possible, the investigator should inform all participants of the objectives of the investigation. The investigator should inform the participants of all aspects of the research or intervention that might reasonably be expected to influence willingness to participate. The investigator should, normally, explain all other aspects of the research or intervention about which the participants enquire. Failure to make full disclosure prior to obtaining informed consent requires additional safeguards to protect the welfare and dignity of the participants ... (p.9)

Whilst aware of the above requirement, the research student found it difficult to strictly

follow the procedures recommended by some researchers, especially regarding the administration of consent forms, which was thought to be impractical. When comparing her own sub-studies, she found that those mainly generating qualitative data tended to better satisfy the above standard. For example, in the pre-pilot and pilot interviews, the snow-balling strategy was used to identify participants, and those being interviewed agreed to do so after hearing about the parameters of the study. There had been two occasions for the potential respondents to pull out – when they were initially contacted by a middle person or when they knew about the study purposes and time duration – and some of them did drop out. The pilot open-ended questionnaire survey was conducted in a classroom by one (a student) who had no power upon other participants. The purpose of that study, as well as how the data would be used, was clearly explained. The research results and description of the research process left the current writer an impression that that group of students were highly willing to participate.

However, it must be pointed out that where sampling was more of an issue for concern, the sub-studies tended to adopt different procedures. In addition, the context of Shanghai, dissimilar to English countries, required different practices at the time of research. In the questionnaire surveys of all stages, form/grade heads or school authorities were first contacted for informed consent; the above people were relied upon to make best decisions for their students, on whose behalf some schools did refuse to be researched. What is more, in the pilot and main studies, those administrating the questionnaires were often independent from the schools, and although students were invited to help with the study, they were not forced to do so, which was guaranteed by keeping them anonymous. It was clear when looking at the actual main study sample that the standard of "implied consent" (Berg, 2004) was satisfied: a small number of students chose to pull out. Nevertheless, it could be argued that the main interview respondents had less freedom to decide: apart from one school that solely relied upon volunteers, all the other schools had the majority of their respondents designated, even though there was generally a good level of interest and cooperation.

Confidentiality

Confidentiality is the requirement that a researcher should keep information on each

participant away from the public, so that participant cannot be identified when the end product of a study is disseminated. BPS (2004) writes that

> Subject to the requirements of legislation, including the Data Protection Act, information obtained about a participant during an investigation is confidential unless otherwise agreed in advance. Investigators who are put under pressure to disclose confidential information should draw this point to the attention of those exerting such pressure. Participants in psychological research have a right to expect that information they provide will be treated confidentially and, if published, will not be identifiable as theirs. In the event that confidentiality and/or anonymity cannot be guaranteed, the participant must be warned of this advance of agreeing to participate. (p. 11)

which is also applicable to other social sciences (see guidelines from BSA, (2002) and ASA, (1999)).

The issue of confidentiality had been straightforward in this study: all the questionnaire surveys had anonymous participants, excluding the chance for their identities to be discovered even by the research student or those administrating the surveys. In addition, the participants were told how the collected data would be used (mainly in writing up a PhD thesis in a different country), therefore they did not have worry about possible repercussions from the researched context. In comparison, the interview respondents were known to the research student by name. However, the pre-pilot interviews had respondents reflecting upon their past experiences and the pilot interviews had students commenting upon the quality of the pilot questionnaire; in whichever case, the respondents did not feel to be in a vulnerable place. Nevertheless, they were told before research that their data would be kept confidential and would be mainly used to write up a thesis, as a standard practice in this study. In the main interviews, the same strategy was adopted, which was felt to be sufficient by all the respondents bar one. That respondent was nervous about revealing her/his name to the interviewer and strongly requested not to leave any identifier of her/him in the recording or field notes.

Anonymity

Anonymity is an idea related to confidentiality; it refers to the status in which participants of a study remain anonymous to either the researcher(s) or the public. BSA (2002) states that the anonymity and privacy of those participating in the research process should be respected. However, anonymity is difficult to achieve especially in qualitative

studies.

In the current study, anonymity had not been an issue with all the questionnaire surveys, where the participants were asked not to leave their names on paper. However, as afore-mentioned, it was impossible to keep the names of interview respondents away from the research student (or their identifiers in the main study). Nevertheless, the lists of names were destroyed when the field work finished, to protect the respondents' benefits.

III. Three Stages of Research

1. An overview

Conducted between the years of 2003 and 2004, this study involved three phases of field work: the pre-pilot, pilot and main studies. Interviewing and questionnaires of varied styles were the major research tools, intending to achieve different purposes at different stages.

It is common in studies of this type to include a pilot study phase prior to the main study phase, where the purpose of the pilot study is to develop and refine the research instruments to be used in the main study. As such, the data collected in the pilot phase are often not referred to in the presentation of findings. This study however was rather different in including both a pre-pilot stage and in referring to some of the findings of both the pre-pilot study and pilot study. This needs some explanation.

The decision to adopt three phases reflects the evolutionary approach to this research: The adoption of a pre-pilot phase was intended to be very exploratory, in testing the water, concerning the researchability of exploring EFL motivation in relation to the influence of important others. The pilot phase however enabled the development of the main instrument to be used in the main study. The richness of the data obtained in the pre-pilot and pilot phases also enabled the researcher to look for some degree of consistency in the findings of the data across these three stages that helped to enhance the reliability and validity of the findings presented in the main study.

Specifically, in the pre-pilot study, 15 individual interviews were conducted in the University of York in which the respondents were encouraged to "chat" about their past learning experiences, and 26 questionnaires were administered to a group of senior year two (aged 17) students in Shanghai, to tentatively explore and compare the influences of

important others. In the pilot stage, an exploratory questionnaire with one item was administered to 34 senior year three (aged 18) students in Shanghai, attempting to grasp the range of reasons for EFL learning in that region. These reasons, after analysis, were used for the design of a pilot questionnaire, which addressed the research questions and which was administered to about 100 senior year two (aged 17) students from two middle schools in Shanghai. The pilot questionnaire, after adjustment, was used in the main study. About 600 senior year two students from seven schools of different types and locations in Shanghai completed the questionnaire. Meanwhile, 66 semi-structured interviews were conducted with students from the targeted schools to explore in-depth some of the research questions. The interviews also served as triangulation of the main questionnaire.

Mainly qualitative analysis (content analysis) was used to deal with data from the pre-pilot study, the pilot exploratory questionnaire and the main study interviews. However, statistical tests were run to analyse the pilot and main questionnaire data.

In summary, this study involved nearly 800 EFL students (mainly senior year two groups) in Shanghai, who attended academic senior middle schools of varying status and locations. It was hoped that the above study had helped to depict the prevalent types and strength of motivation among the researched students and how important others influenced their motivation.

Below is a more detailed depiction of each research stage.

2. The pre-pilot study

Interviewing

From February to March, 2003, 15 individual interviews were conducted with students from the University of York, who were asked to reflect upon how much important others had influenced their EFL motivation in the senior middle school. An interview schedule (Appendix 1) was designed, including nine open questions grouped into three parallel categories, dealing with strength of influence, reasons for learning English and ways of influence from each group of important others (parents, teachers and peers). Examples on how those people encouraged or discouraged EFL learning were also asked for.

The "snowballing" strategy was used to recruit Chinese students after other methods failed. After screening in terms of age and gender, 15 out of 20 students were finally

interviewed. The research student was aware that the above strategy might have introduced bias into the data.

Prior to the interview, a copy of the interview schedule in English was sent to the respondent, to familiarize her/him with the research purpose. However, the interviews were conducted in Chinese, to encourage responses and to avoid communication break that can be caused by ESL problems. All the interviews were carried out in a relaxed surrounding and were tape recorded. Despite the interview sheet, many interviews lasted for more than an hour, and all adopted a conversational style (see Spolsky, 2000) to elicit spontaneous answers in a natural, coherent context. In addition to the targeted areas, the respondents were encouraged to talk about their general study, attitudes towards subjects, the milieu of their schools, and when applicable, motivational changes, around the researched stage. It can be argued that this style of interviewing had further introduced bias into the data. It also made data analysis more difficult and lengthy.

The interviews were transcribed verbatim and translated into English. Occasional difficulties occurred with unclear recording or cross-language conceptual mismatch, which were generally solved through respondent confirmation. Content analysis was used to extract major themes from each interview. The results were summarised in tabular forms, accompanied by narration.

Apart from interesting results, the above study gave the research student confidence that the chosen field is worthwhile looking at. In addition, the importance and difficulty of conceptual match in translation started to be noticed (Mertens, 1998; Keats, 2000).

The questionnaire

When the above interviews were conducted, 26 copies of the pre-pilot questionnaire were delivered to a group of senior year two students (1/2 of that class) from a key middle school in Shanghai, trying to find out how much important others influenced their EFL motivation at upper secondary level in the city.

The questionnaire comprised two parts: a brief introduction including the purpose of this study and a working explanation of the core idea of "language motivation", like in the interview sheet; the main body (Appendix 2) of nine questions were likewise used and arranged in the interview schedule. The only difference was with questions 1, 4 and 7.

In the questionnaire, these were no longer open questions, but five-point Likert scales. To guarantee proper understanding of the questions, a Chinese version of the questionnaire was also administered. The students were free to choose either version.

Before administration, the translation was checked by a former colleague of the research student (a university lecturer) in Shanghai, with changes suggested and adopted via email. The questionnaires were administered by an English teacher from a local middle school and were finished within twenty minutes. Four questionnaires were completed in English and the rest in Chinese. The results were tabulated by the above-mentioned colleague in Shanghai and sent to England for analysis. When mistakes or ineligible phrases occurred, the original hard copies kept in Shanghai were consulted over phone.

There appear to be a couple of drawbacks with this study: firstly, a convenience sample was used, which had impact on data validity, secondly, some of the items were not answered, not because of time limitation; thirdly, comparatively few negative comments on parental and teacher influences were found, perhaps due to the presence of an English teacher. In short, in comparison with the pre-pilot interviews conducted in England, the research student had less control over the questionnaire survey in Shanghai. What is more important, the data gathered were de-contextualized, which made explanation difficult.

However, the questionnaire data, collected from a sample similar to the main, were more revealing than those from the interviews. In addition, it confirmed the decision that interviews would be essential in the main study to collect in-depth data on the research topics.

3. The pilot study

The exploratory questionnaire

In December, 2003, an exploratory questionnaire (Appendix 3) containing one single item "Why are you learning English as a foreign language?" was administered to a group of senior year three students in Shanghai, hoping to find the range of reasons upper secondary students in Shanghai would give for EFL learning. The use of this tool was based on Morris (2001) that an open survey will make it possible to discover types of motivation other than those derived from an *a priori* theoretical framework, the

understanding that motivation may be context-specific, the regret that the pre-pilot work had not systematically dealt with Chinese students' reasons to learn English, and the possibility of comparing with the established literature, helping to decide the relevance of frameworks of Western origin.

An electronic copy of this survey, with its Chinese translation, was sent to an old classmate of the current writer, who had copies (both English and Chinese) of this questionnaire administered by a student from a neighbouring, mixed senior middle school (aged 16 – 19). The school was located in an area with a higher proportion of economically disadvantaged population. That student explained the intent of the survey before administration. All her peers (n = 34, including her) in that class illustrated great interest in the research and confidence in the use of English, insisting upon giving responses in the target language. The answers were collected immediately and sent to the research student.

It must be acknowledged that there are sampling problems within this study: firstly, a convenience sample was used, which was not balanced in terms of gender; secondly, this was not a typical sample, with the students illustrating strong interest in arts/humanities, which might have led to an above-average level of enthusiasm in English. However, this survey demonstrated a wide range of reasons that are in line with the literature and tentative results from the research student.

These students (23 girls and 11 boys) have altogether listed sixty-one reasons for why they are learning English as a foreign language, which were sorted out by hand. The consequent categories of reasons were then used in the pilot questionnaire, forming a scale researching EFL learning orientations.

The pilot questionnaire

Based on previous results, a pilot questionnaire was mailed to Shanghai in December, 2003. About 100 senior year two students from two schools participated in the survey. This questionnaire was designed to answer all the research questions. It had two parts: a cover letter on the research background, survey purposes, core definitions and guarantee of confidentiality; the main body comprised four sections on personal data, two research topics and feedback for improvement.

Before it was sent to China, a Chinese MA student from the research student's department evaluated the questionnaire (in English) and made useful suggestions mainly concerning the appearance of the questionnaire, the clarity of the questions and the length of the introduction. When consulting contacts in Shanghai, it was suggested that the Chinese translation of the pilot questionnaire should be administered alone, to cover L2 proficiency variations among the respondents, and to make less demand on the respondents' time. The translated questionnaire was then checked by another Chinese MA student. In addition, a friend of the current writer, a former lecturer from Shanghai, compared the translation with the English version, as well as separately evaluated the feasibility of the questionnaire. Upon her suggestion, the core idea "motivation" was translated in a slightly different way, which might be more familiar to students in China while at the same time maintaining a sense of dynamics.

The Chinese version of the questionnaire was administered by two friends (independent from the researched schools) to two middle schools of different statuses roughly at the same time. The first class (n = 49) was from a district-level key middle school located in the city proper. Another class (n = 52) was from an ordinary mixed school in downtown Shanghai, which had never performed particularly well. The students from both schools were asked to fill in the questionnaire in class within thirty minutes; their class teachers were around to help organize and gather the answers, which were then mailed to the research student.

Analysis of the pilot questionnaire responses offered valuable experience for dealing with the main data. Descriptive statistics were looked at; statistical tests for examining group differences and relationships between variables were run (details can be seen from the separate section on data analysis within this chapter). In addition, the trends illustrated in this study also collaborated with those found in the main study.

However, there are drawbacks within this study: the sample was a non-probability one, which had impact on statistical tests and any claim for generalizability; the research student had comparatively less control on data collection; due to separation from the research surrounding, data appeared to be decontextualized; and above all, critique from the current writer's TAG members had been leveled at wording and clarity of some items in the questionnaire.

The pilot interviews

In February, 2004, ten individual interviews (unstructured) were carried out with Masters and PhD students at the University of York, to invite comments on the feasibility of the Chinese version of the pilot questionnaire, with emphasis specifically on the degree of clarity of the language, the design of the scales for each question, and the inner relation between the items of key questions, for improvement of the questionnaire to be used in the main study.

Of the ten respondents, six were female and four were male, all of whom were identified through friends (snow-balling strategy). Apart from one second-year PhD student, the rest were Masters students. Until that time, they had learned English for more than ten years; the mean was 11.3. Their mean age was 23.5.

Those interviews lasted from half an hour to more than an hour, depending on how involved the respondent was and how comfortable s/he felt to make comments. A minimum guide was offered before the interviews, apart from explaining the purpose of the study and to what aspects of the pilot questionnaire the student was expected to respond. In addition, the respondents were encouraged to read the questionnaire aloud, tell the interviewer whenever they failed to understand or merely felt some expression awkward, and ask for clarification if necessary. All the interviews were conducted in Chinese, and feedback were written down. The field notes were later organized and compared for a summary. It was felt that the respondents had tried their best to be critical, evident in the number of points they raised.

This study was highly valuable. Both versions of the pilot questionnaire were under scrutiny; more often changes had been made to the Chinese version. All the above had greatly added to the research student's confidence in the quality of her main study.

4. The main study

The main questionnaire survey

From late April to early June, 2004, 638 students from senior year two classes in Shanghai participated in the main questionnaire survey, which was based on the pilot questionnaire with a few adaptations. This questionnaire (Appendix 5) mainly dealt with

the researched students' attitudes towards English in comparison with other subjects, their prevalent motivational types and strength, their reasons and those of their parents, teachers and peers for English learning, how much important others influenced their motivation, and how much these people had influenced their reasons to learn.

In the research, about one week was spent on each of the seven chosen schools roughly in turn. The questionnaires were administered firstly to two classes from each school at the same time, followed by individual interviews spreading over the rest of the week. Three schools (key schools) were better organized: students were informed ahead of time, and were collected and made to wait in dedicated rooms during dedicated time blocks. The research student explained the main purpose of the survey, pleaded for authentic responses and monitored the whole process, which lasted about half an hour. Occasionally, class teachers were around to discipline and help collecting the answers, which was also the case with some of the other schools.

However, various problems occurred in the other four schools, despite the fact that similar, standardised procedures (including time control) were adopted. One of the ordinary schools used class-affairs session when one third of the students joined their temporary school choirs. The above had caused the most obvious response rate problem in the study. Another school had a grade head forgetting to inform the chosen classes, leading to a postponed time schedule and teacher unhappiness (because the study used teaching time). The university school suddenly changed survey time and participants: instead of two classes, the research student was faced with a lecture hall of students from different classes and grades. Consequently, her participants were from different classes across the grade of senior year two. The situation with the only suburban school was not ideal, either, which substituted a rural school at the last minute. As a result, the questionnaire administration was postponed till mid-June, after students had had their term exams; a degree of fatigue could be felt among students. All the above can be argued to have some influence on validity of the data.

During survey time, students were discouraged from talking to each other. In addition, English teachers were asked not to be involved apart from helping to screen interview candidates. The research student felt she had done what was in her power to guarantee research rigour.

All together, about 700 copies of the questionnaire were administered in Shanghai and 638 copies were collected. It was felt that the majority of the survey participants were cautious about giving answers, even though many students chose not to answer the open questions. When validity of the data was in question, or when there was massive missing data, the questionnaire sheets were discarded, which left 610 usable copies (the response rate was 87.1%). The actual questionnaire sample was larger than the originally planned size of 500 participants.

The main interviews

From April to June, 2004, standardised open-ended individual interviews were conducted with a subsample (n = 66) of the questionnaire survey (Appendix 6). The main purpose of these interviews was to probe in depth the attitudes of the targeted students and those of the important others towards English as a subject and as a language, whether or not the above groups of people influenced their EFL motivation and, if such is the case, in what ways. It was hoped that data collected from the interviews might both verify and add to the results from the main questionnaire survey.

The interviews were carried out in various places, often in an empty meeting room or classroom. On occasions, interviews were interrupted and temporary places had to be found. Most interviews lasted for about twenty minutes and were conducted at lunch breaks or after school with the exception of the university school: often, four interviews could be conducted within one day, with two at noon and another two after school. The interviews with the students from the university school were conducted during marginalized courses of music and fine arts. Some of the interviews conducted in that school were also longer and less interruption was experienced there.

In interviewing, after a brief exchange of words, the introduction written at the top of the sheet was read to each respondent. The issue of confidentiality was also explained. The questions in this round of interviews were standardised, due to time limit and the size of the sample. When the students had difficulty answering questions, extra explanation was given. All the interviews were recorded. However, two of them were lost due to machine problems.

It was felt that, apart from sampling problems, time limit might be the greatest

drawback in this study; there had been a sense of hurriedness in some interviews. In addition, interruptions also had a negative impact on the quality of data. However, the majority of the respondents were relaxed and cooperative, leading to useful insights.

IV. Sampling in the Main Study

1. The main questionnaire survey

Shanghai is a swiftly developing city as a showpiece of the country and under international influences; it has also been a city of inner migration. As such, its vitality and tolerance have resulted in a fairly diversified local culture, with increasing inter-group and regional differences in terms of economy and awareness. Consequently, it is impossible to fully grasp the significance of the above differences in this study. However, great efforts had been taken to secure a degree of representativeness among mainstream schools, upon the understanding that a probability sample was not feasible, due to a lack of sampling frame and the fact that things worked through connections in that city. The two factors being considered were school type, a general indicator of student ability, and school location (downtown versus suburbs and different downtown districts), reflective of mixed economical and educational traditions, which were felt in the research to impact on school ethos and student outlook, especially on district-level key schools and ordinary schools that do not have the luxury of recruiting from outside their home district.

As a result, seven schools were included from a slightly larger bank of reserves (n = 14): three city-level key middle schools, one district-level middle school, two ordinary schools and one suburban middle school, all mixed.

Apart from the suburban district, this survey also targeted three other downtown districts. The district where the research student lived boasts a higher concentration of educational and research institutes in Shanghai. In contrast, the other two districts were more industrialized and still have a higher population of working class (and laid-off) people. The influence of social economical factors on the individual students is not straightforward in Shanghai, an ideologically egalitarian society. However, visits to the schools left the research student an impression that when taken as a whole the population of a particular school does reflect its regional characteristics, which partly explains why school A has a different milieu/ethos from school B.

The sampling stage included two steps: contacting schools and deciding a subsample from each school. The contacting process was both lengthy and frustrating. The research student's home district yielded the most satisfactory results. Early in the main study, a friend of the current writer, in a key position in that district's educational bureau, emailed all the listed schools. Six schools of various types gave initial consent. After screening (e.g. excluding specialist schools), three schools, one city-key middle school and two ordinary schools, were included.

The process of approaching other districts was not systematic, and family friends were contacted for liaising potential schools. Eleven schools gave initial consent at various stages of the study: among them, three schools refused to take part in the research after studying the requirements; another four, mainly ordinary schools, were excluded because they were difficult to access given the research agenda, or were undergoing status change.

Even though a convenience sample, the included schools were felt to represent a fairly mixed intake of students in Shanghai, in terms of gender, years of language learning, academic abilities and socio-economical backgrounds.

In the stage of securing subsamples, the research student adopted standardised procedures. She telephoned for an interview with each school to be arranged. At that interview, she explained in more detail the purposes of her work, and what she would ask of the school. A copy of the questionnaire and the interview schedule would be left with the school, with reminders of sampling requirements.

It was made clear that about 100 students (two classes) were needed from each school for the questionnaire survey; the classes should be the school's mid-rankers. It was also insisted that the questionnaire survey be conducted before the interviews. A second interview would then take place with each school's middle manager, often for a safety and feasibility check. Also at this stage, two classes were chosen.

The research student felt that she had tried her best given the resource and time limitation as well as the contact mode in Shanghai. She felt that the greatest strength in her questionnaire sample might be in the sample size and comparative control of the key variables. However, it is apparent that this sample is not a probability one, which sets limitations to claims on generalizability.

2. The main interviews

The actual interview sample is larger than the planned size of 50, and the percentage of the usable interviews (n = 64) to the usable questionnaires (n = 610) is 10.5%, very close to the targeted percentage of 10%.

However, the sampling process of this study had been most frustrating, despite clear requirements that each school should use the stratification strategy (30% higher achievers, 40% middle achievers and 30% lower achievers from each class) combined with student volunteering, so as to achieve balance in terms of gender and ability. In many cases, the research student was denied direct contact with either the students or those responsible for choosing potential respondents (mainly English teachers). In addition, sudden changes sometimes occurred that affected the interview sample and research progress. Above all, it was not always possible to know about the respondents' achievements, apart from relying on their self report. It was felt when transcribing the interview data that this sample had included more capable students than planned. The sample was not balanced in terms of gender, either, as can be seen in the summary table below.

Table 5.4.2.1 The Main Study Interview Sample

	School	School Status	Male	Female	Subtotal	Number of Students Attending the Questionnaire Survey	Percentage of Interviewees to Questionnaire Respondents (%)
1	The University School	City-key	2	10	12	105 (93 valid)	11.4
2	CY No. 2 Middle School	City-key	5	4	9	92 (88 valid)	9.8
3	YA Senior Middle School	City-key	5	5	10	96	10.4
4	JY Senior High School	District-key	4 (1 lost)	4	8 (1 lost)	85	9.4
5	LL Middle School	Ordinary	4	3	7	69	10.1
6	ZG Middle School	Ordinary	5	5	10	93 (90 valid)	10.8
7	LY Middle School	Ordinary	3 (1 lost)	7	10 (1 lost)	97 (88 valid)	10.3
Total	7		28 (2 lost)	38	66 (2 lost)	638 (610 valid)	10.3

From the above, 28 male students and 38 female students were interviewed. Unfortunately, two interviews with male students were lost, which further skewed the

male to female ratio (40.6% to 59.4% within the actual sample). The ratio was affected by two schools specifically. In the suburban school, the grade teacher randomly selected respondents, though the subsample appeared to be fairly mixed in terms of ability. The university school was different from all the others in that the questionnaire subsample (n = 105) was from across the whole grade. It was difficult to trace the respondents or apply stratification strategies before interviewing. Instead, volunteers from the questionnaire participants were solely relied upon.

In summary, the main interview sample is comparatively large but not very representative. Caution would thus be needed in comparing the two data sets from the main study. In addition, the above limitation will once again affect any claim to generalization.

V. Data Analysis of the Main Study

1. The main questionnaire survey

Answers to closed questions in the main questionnaire have been subjected to SPSS (V. 11) analysis, with descriptive statistics, such as frequency counts, mean and *SD*, yielded. In addition, different tests have been run to examine group differences or correlations between variables. It may be argued that the use of a non-probability sample in this study contradicts the fundamental assumption of statistical tests (e.g. Cohen *et al.*, 2000; Bryman, 2004). However, it has also been acknowledged that educational research can seldom afford the luxury of randomization (Mertens, 1998). Consequently, it is an established practice for researchers to employ statistical tests to deal with non-random samples. What is more, in this study, key factors have been considered in sampling, which hopefully has led to a fairly representative sample with data on major variables illustrating near-normal distribution.

Specifically, independent t-test and chi-square test have been used to look at gender differences in this study. Examined items include questions 5 (attitude toward English), 6 (orientations), 8 (learning behaviour), 9 (motivational strength), 10 (self-regulatory styles), 11, 14 and 17 (upon perceived beliefs from important others) and 12, 15 and 18 (upon perceived influences of important others). The reason for using two tests simultaneously is that the data yielded in the main questionnaire scales are ordinal in

character, for which chi-square test might be an ideal solution. However, t-test, as a technique with more power, is often preferred in practice, if one assumes equal differences between scores within each scale. When using both of the above, the results appeared to be very similar. To save space, t-test results alone have been reported in this study.

In addition, the test of principal component analysis has been used to extract factors from orientations, yielding three clear substracts. Correlation tests (Pearson moment correlation test and Spearman rank order correlation) have been run to examine the relationships between variables of student motivation and influences of important others. The reason for using two tests is similar to the above – data yielded from Likert scales were felt to border the ordinal and interval demarcation. Fortunately, the results were very similar and only Pearson's r was reported in each case since this test is regarded as more powerful. Finally, Cronbach alpha reliability test has been run to check the internal consistency of major scales in the main questionnaire.

With regards to open questions on orientations and ways of influences from important others, content analysis has been used to extract common themes. The results were presented under different categories in tables. In the case of "ways of influences", frequency counts were calculated; combined with rated strength of influences from important others, they indicate the prevalence and strength of motivational strategies from those people. A good thing about the analysis was that negative examples were also looked at and were often presented in separate tables.

2. The main interviews

Content analysis had been used to analyse the main interview data involving a three-stage process. The first stage, on data transcription and translation, started when the research student was still in the middle of her field work: the recording was listened to twice for an overall impression and then run with stops for a full transcription and translation. The reason for in-progress transcription is, as some researchers may suggest, that a fresh memory eases the job and reduces errors; it may also enable a researcher to better develop her/his thoughts that can benefit the on-going interviewing process; in the research student's case, she did such hoping she could go back to the respondent should

there be great gaps in understanding. The original data was transcribed and translated by hand, and it must be cautioned that despite care, deviance might have been introduced especially through the translation process.

In the second stage, the raw data was transferred into the computer: this time, the unit of data organization was not individual cases; rather it was each major question or question group. Also in this stage, the research student highlighted important comments from each question, categorized them and summarised them in tables. It can be stated that the research student attempted to keep an open mind for categories to emerge in analysis. However, it could not cross out the fact that this involved subjective data reduction and a process of decontextualization.

In the last stage, the above summary tables were looked at firstly for frequency counts and percentages, and then for distinct themes, all of which were presented in a narrative report, aiming to address different interview questions or question groups. The third stage involved another round of massive data reduction and decontextualization. Aware of the above danger, the research student had exerted caution, by constant revision and taking breaks.

It is perhaps needless to state that the above process had been extremely lengthy, which might have introduced further bias into the research data. However, records from various stages have been stored in a readily accessible way; therefore, future check on judgement decisions will be possible.

VI. Reliability and Validity in the Main Study

1. The main questionnaire survey

Reliability

Reliability, despite its large number of synonyms, basically refers to the accuracy, stability and relative lack of error in a measuring instrument (Burns, 2000). It is particularly at issue with regards to quantitative research (Bryman, 2004), such as surveys. In this main questionnaire survey, the types of reliability under review have been "reliability as stability" over time over a similar sample and "reliability as internal consistency" (Cohen *et al.*, 2000).

The former has been attempted by comparing the main patterns yielded from the pilot

(n = 104) and the main questionnaire (n = 610) surveys, especially when there has not been much change in questionnaire wording. It has been felt, in data analysis, that the results produced from the above two samples illustrate similar trends. The latter (reliability as internal consistency) has been approached by calculating the "Cronbach's coefficient alpha" of each construct from the main questionnaire (Burns, 2000). The results for the question on orientations are good: the standardised item alpha for all those orientations is .84; when items 4 (parental pressure) and 7 (course/exam requirements) have been extracted, the standardised item alpha is .86, indicative of the comparatively high reliability of that question.

The scale of learning behaviours was adapted from Morris (2001), as mentioned before. When subjected to the above test, the standardised item alpha is .76; when the second item, on prioritization (which is not a traditional component of motivation), has been extracted, the alpha value is .78, which might still be accepted (Bryman, 2004), considering that the scale is short, only containing five items (Burns, 2000).

However, questions based on Noels *et al.*'s work (1999, 2000), upon self-regulatory styles, have not yielded satisfactory results when subjected to the above test. Question 10 on five self-regulatory styles had the standardised item alpha as .25 (the first statement on amotivation has negative wording, unlike the other four); when the first item was deleted, the value was .60. Question 11, upon parental understanding of the importance of English, had values of .35 and .64 (with the first item deleted). Similarly, questions on teacher and peer understandings had values of .44 and .70 (with the first item deleted), .36 and .69 (with the first item deleted). The results are interesting: it begs the question that whether or not the idea of self-regulatory styles is suitable for the researched group; or perhaps amotivation is an idea slightly different from the other regulatory styles.

Validity

The issue of validity is important but complex and controversial (Burns, 2000). At a most basic level, it means "whether an indicator (or set of indicators) that is devised to gauge a concept really measures that concept" (Bryman, 2004, p. 72). There have been different types of validity researchers aim to establish; amongst them, internal and external validities and content validity (as a form of measurement validity) will be mainly

looked at within the current questionnaire survey. In addition, the research student will attempt to illustrate the fact that the whole study has been carried out with a degree of rigour, so as to reduce sources of error (Bryman, 2004). Also important is the idea of triangulation that has been built into the main study.

Content validity asks the question of whether a measurement fairly and comprehensively covers the domain or items that it purports to cover (Cohen *et al.*, 2000). It is especially relevant to one of the scales developed to examine EFL learning orientations in the context of Shanghai. All the items included in the main questionnaire came from the pilot open-ended questionnaire survey, conducted in a class in Shanghai. Therefore, it can be argued that the factor of context has been considered when designing this scale, following some researchers' suggestions (e.g. Kyriacou and Kobori, 1998; Morris, 2001). The scale was then piloted in two schools in the same city and reviewed by overseas Chinese students for breadth and clarity. In addition, an open question asking students to include additional EFL orientations has been built into both the pilot and main questionnaires which, after analysis, did not yield any new, significant category. It is felt that the content validity of the above scale is high.

Internal validity deals with causal links within a research design. Since the current survey study comprises a cross-sectional design, the claim to internal validity is weak (Bryman, 2004). It is difficult to establish causality; instead, correlations between different variables have been examined.

External validity refers to the degree to which the results can be generalized to the wider population (Cohen *et al.*, 2000). Since this study has used a non-probability sample, the possibility of generalizing its results to the wider population of Shanghai is limited. However, important variables of school location and status have been taken into consideration in sampling, and the actual sample is large (n = 610) and is from seven schools covering a wide stretch of the city. Consequently, it can be argued that a fairly representative picture of EFL motivation in mainstream schools in Shanghai may have been presented.

Bryman (2004) has discussed about sources of error from sampling, data collection and data analysis stages that might affect validity of a study. It is not possible to calculate the sampling error since the current sample is not a probability one. However, the response

rate is high, which has reduced the non-response effect and the actual sample is large, allowing for relationships to surface. In addition, there has been control on non sampling errors: questionnaire wording has been tested on more than one occasion; data collection procedures have been mainly standardised; English teachers who might affect responses have been excluded from the administration process; quantitative data has been yielded to computer analysis, with care exercised in choosing appropriate statistical tests. In summary, the idea of rigour has been the guideline of the current research.

The main study has adopted two methods – the questionnaire and the interviewing – for data triangulation. Specifically, such a technique was expected to serve two purposes: firstly, to "map out, or explain more fully, the richness and complexity of human behaviour by studying it from more than one standpoint" (Cohen, *et al.*, 2000); and secondly, to see if convergent themes occur from similar questions from the two methods. When combining the two sets of results, the research student felt that the interview data both collaborated and expanded the questionnaire data.

2. The main interviews

Quantitative standards

As mentioned before, standardised open-ended interviews have been conducted in the main study, which has built into the qualitative data collection process elements of quantitative research criteria, such as the ideas of sample size and research rigour (or bias minimisation (Cohen *et al.*, 2000)).

The sample size (n = 66) is considerably large. However, it has to be cautioned that, similar to the questionnaire sample, it is not a probability one; therefore, the possibility of generalizing its results to other populations is limited.

Despite difficulties and changes, the research process can be mainly regarded as standardised, adopting the same format and sequence of words and questions in each case, aiming to improve reliability of attitudinal questions, as suggested by Oppenheim (1992), and validity of study, with less bias introduced. It has also facilitated data analysis, perhaps leading to an even higher validity level.

Interviewer effects

The research student was the only interviewer; therefore, there was no discrepancy in comprehension caused by involving different interviewers. However, it can also be argued that the advantage of having multiple researchers is lost (Neuman, 2003): other researchers may bring into research different viewpoints that make the understanding of a phenomenon more thorough.

Upon interviewer effects, it was felt that all the interviews, except one, had been conducted in a relaxed and cordial atmosphere. The respondents did not view the research student as a threat and were fairly open and fluent about their answers (including criticism levelled at particular teachers), perhaps knowing the research topics (not very sensitive) and the fact that no results would get back to their schools. In summary, they tended to view the research student as someone having a respectable academic background but no immediate power upon them. Furthermore, the gender and age impact was not obvious and the impact of race/ethnicity was not applicable. All the above led the current writer to believe that interview effects, researched by many (e.g. Benney *et al.*, 2003; Collins 2003; Mertens, 1998), have been fairly controlled in this study.

Qualitative criteria

In addition to the above, qualitative standards paralleling the fundamentally quantitative concepts of reliability and validity have also been looked at. Neuman (2003), for instance, suggests that reliability means dependability or consistency in qualitative research, which can be achieved by employing multiple measurement methods. As mentioned before, the use of a questionnaire survey, with comparable data yielded, may have added strength to the interview method in the main study.

Lincoln and Guba (1985, 1994, cited in Bryman, 2004) have proposed two primary criteria for assessing a qualitative study: trustworthiness and authenticity, the former being more relevant to the current study. Trustworthiness is made up of four criteria – credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) – each having an equivalent standard in quantitative research (Bryman, 2004).

Dependability parallels reliability (Bryman, 2004), which is similar to Neuman's (2003) understanding; however, an "auditing" approach has been suggested by Lincoln and Guba (1985) to enhance the quality of research. Fortunately, it has been the research

student's habit to keep records of her notes and data, especially full interview transcripts and stages of qualitative data analysis, so that her decisions can be reviewed and critiqued. Credibility equals internal validity, which can be achieved by good practice, triangulation and respondent validation (Bryman, 2004). It can be argued that attempts have been made to satisfy the first two suggestions; however, it had not been generally possible to go back to the respondents for confirmation of understanding.

Transferability equals external validity, and qualitative researchers are encouraged to supply thick description (Bryman, 2004). Whilst it is the case that description of results and the research background has been as detailed as possible, more information on the respondents might facilitate other researchers' judgement on transferability of the findings – the forming of this sample was often not based on open decisions and information on students was not offered in cases. Finally, confirmability involves relative objectivity (Bryman, 2004). The current research student has been aware how personal values and an eagerness to confirm what she is looking for can affect her research. However, perhaps it is her auditors that have the right to judge whether her results are objective or not.

In summary, this chapter has looked at the methodological issues embedded in this piece of research. To start with, the research aims and questions were described. It was then followed by a discussion of the overall strategy of this study. Next, there was a detailed description of the three stages of research, to give a coherent picture of what had happened in the field work of this study. Finally, attention was drawn to important issues in the main study: specifically, the sampling, the data analysis process and issues of validity and reliability.

Chapter 6 Pre-pilot Data and their Impact

I. Interviewing

1. The respondents

The pre-pilot interviews explored Chinese students' past experiences studying EFL at the secondary level. 15 higher-degree students from different areas of China (female = 7; male = 8) in the University of York participated in the research: all of them, apart from one, attended key schools of various levels; all of them went to senior middle schools in the 1990s, with 2/3 having upper secondary education from 96 to 98; all of them were from the East of China, with 60.0% from either Beijing, Shanghai or provincial capitals; their mean age was 24.0 and they studied English for varied lengths of time, ranging from three years to nine years, with 5.3 years as the mean.

From the above, a couple of observations could be made: those students might share similar trends in general academic motivation at the time under research, due to similarities in their educational experiences and the fact that the East was comparatively better developed within China; novelty effect or "honeymoon phenomenon" should be less obvious due to their length of EFL study and they might have already experienced ups and downs in EFL motivation; they might illustrate similar tendencies in their attitudes towards English as the 1990s was a period when China quickened up her pace to internationalize, but they were also expected to illustrate very individual traits due to their different micro learning situations.

2. Attitude towards English as a school subject and the reasons given

Table 6.1.2.1 Attitude towards English as a School Subject

	English liked	English disliked	Indifferent to English
Number	5 (3 most favoured)	7 (3 most disliked)	3
Percentage (%)	33.3	46.7	20.0

In interviewing, the respondents were asked about their favourite and least liked subjects. From the information, a rough idea of how much English was liked could be worked out (Table 6.1.2.1). Of the respondents, only 33.3% liked English; 46.7% disliked

it, and together with another 20.0% having a neutral attitude, the percentage of the students not enjoying English learning was high (66.7%). The result is less positive than the main study outcome, with more than 50.0% of the samples reporting to like English, perhaps illustrating the change of time from the 1990s to this century, as well as a generally more positive, L2-related attitude in Shanghai, as a consequence of China's unbalanced delivery of English education (Hu, 2003; 2005a).

The respondents listed 17 reasons for not liking English, which were summarised into three categories: "language/language-learning related", "teacher/teaching related" and "learner factors". Though the first category mainly concerned the high demands (upon time and energy) of language learning, the tedious and repetitive learning process, and the often disproportionate learning outcomes when compared with the efforts exerted, it also pointed to the detrimental effect of not realising the importance of EFL learning. The second category criticized "the duck-feeding" method and illustrated a dislike of English teachers. The last category revealed perceived mismatch between the self and elements of L2 learning requirements.

Next, the reasons (n = 11) for like of English were classified likewise: the first category dealt with positive attitudes based on prior successes or good learning experiences, which often led to a solid foundation and an eased future journey of learning; it also included swift improvements in scores leading to a boosted sense of self-efficacy; it could also have something to do with a sense of achievement – a student felt s/he had achieved a lot after spending one hour upon multiple choices, whilst the same amount of time could mean very little in Maths; occasionally, the reasons concerned rewards of language learning, in that English is regarded as a subject on which a high score is probable and easier to obtain in the NCEE if a certain amount of time and energy has been spent; one student was happy because the learner autonomy (though limited) was supported; finally, some students liked English because of its importance for the NCEE and the future. The second category told repetitively of the story of how a good English teacher led to like of English. The last category had one student commenting on her language learning talent.

The reasons for a neutral attitude toward English were limited (n = 3) but revealing: a number of students from the 1990s took a pragmatic view of L2 – English is an important

subject for the NCEE and a useful tool in the future. Either reason appeared to be enough for them to work hard. In the main study, this pragmatism was still found to be prevalent.

In summary, dislike of English was often related to a negative evaluation of L2 learning demands/processes and task values as well as backward teaching methods and negative teacher influences; like of English was endorsed by themes including prior success/experiences, cognitive evaluation (such as processes that are studied by the expectancy-value bloc), positive teacher influences (e.g. Chambers, 1999) and occasionally need satisfaction (e.g. autonomy from the SDT perspective); whilst those holding a neutral attitude were often ignited by a sense of instrumentality, in the 1990s in China.

3. Teacher influence, parental influence and peer influence upon EFL motivation

Teacher influence and reasons

In interviewing, it was discovered that English teachers bore the strongest influence on motivation, followed by class teachers. It was also found that teacher influences could include both positive and negative elements. However, the majority of the respondents (n = 10) reported positive teacher influences, three little influence and two negative influences, the mean being 3.8, slightly below the anchor of "positive and moderate".

Table 6.1.3.1 The Teacher's Reasons for Why English was Important

English Teachers	
Distinctively mentioned why English was important (N = 8)	Not mentioned why English was important (N= 7)
• A tool of communication (2) • NCEE (5) • Good foundation for further study in the university (1) • Useful in the long run (1) • Her own interest in English learning (1) • Cultural aspects (1) • Relevant to life and study in a pluralistic society (1) • A useful tool at work in future (1)	In three of the cases, the reason for learning English well was tacitly agreed – the NCEE.
Class Teachers	
Mentioned why English was important (N = 8)	
• NCEE and job (7) • Learning for one's own sake (1)	
Other Teachers	
Mentioned why English was important (N = 1)	
• English useful for reading academic journals	

Unsurprisingly, a number of English teachers distinctively or tacitly agreed that EFL learning was important. The top reason was that English was an important subject in the NCEE; others included its value for communication, future academic study and life and career aspects, all put forward from a pragmatic point of view. Only in one case, an English teacher tried to approach the importance of English from the angles of culture and personal interest. Eight class teachers were found to have commented upon the importance of English, mainly for the NCEE and from a very broad angle, to whom English was merely one of the numerous things that s/he had to take care of. The other teachers seldom commented upon the importance of English, with one exception from Shanghai where a physics teacher called English the lingua franca of the academia.

Parental influence and reasons

Of the respondents, four found little parental influence, three reported negative or partially negative influence, with only one rating parental influence as "strong and

positive". The mean was 3.5, slightly positive but lower than teacher influence.

The respondents listed seven parental reasons for why English was important, some of which were similar to the teachers' reasons. The number of parents stressing the importance of English for the NCEE was small: understandably, their children were attending prestigious schools, evidence of their capacity and self-discipline. A more popular reason was the value of English for seeking employment and career promotion. Others included English skills being essential for future life and for girls. In the case of the latter, it reflected the then popular idea that girls should choose humanities/arts (being less talented in sciences), among which L2 were fashionable and capable of adding value to their future. However, the most often mentioned reason was "studying abroad", natural within this cohort who were already in the U.K. at the time of research and the success of which needed years of planning.

In comparison with the teachers, the parents were even more practical about their children's future and more realistic about how English might fit into their future. Six out of seven reasons were pragmatic, treating English as a means to some end. There were no reasons concerning cultural aspects. Very few parents mentioned the language itself. The only exception might be a mother from the North-east China who found English pleasant to the ear.

Peer influence

The question on peer influences yielded six positive, seven neutral and two negative answers, the mean being 3.2, very minute and the lowest of the three researched groups.

The respondents reported little communication of attitudes among their classmates or peers; only two of them remembered peer comments on why English was important, giving both intrinsic and extrinsic reasons, though vague. When the respondents claimed that there was a tacit agreement on the importance of English, the only legitimate reason for hard work appeared to be the NCEE (n = 5). In the cases when the peers never discussed this issue (n = 8), seven respondents personally believed that the pressure from the NCEE and job hunting were the major impetus of learning.

Personal beliefs

When examining the extent of influences of important others by looking at students'

internalized beliefs, ten (2/3) respondents fully or partially identified with the teacher's given reason(s) for why English was important and three disagreed with what was said. Among the ten respondents, a majority of them appeared to be happy with the generally pragmatic reasons, with seven finding themselves moderately or fairly strongly influenced by their teachers. These students also demonstrated different motivational patterns: the importance of English in the NCEE was enough to motivate some but were limiting or ludicrous for the others.

Parents appeared to be less influential once again. Of the fifteen respondents, only six identified or partially agreed with their parents' reasons; one explicitly disagreed with her/his parents, having no interest in the language. There was no clear relation between identification with parental reasons and rating of parental influence. Perfect matching of reasoning could lead to perceived negative parental influence. Therefore, it might be useful to probe into how the teacher and parents influenced the students.

How important others influenced the respondents and some examples of these influences

Parents from this group of students cared about their school performance, but were ill-equipped to help the students: more than half of the respondents (n = 8) had parents either unable to help or merely using "nagging" (about the importance of English) as a strategy; two had parents exerting subtler "emotional extortion" (by quietly demonstrating their devotion and sacrifice and expecting success in their child in return), yet which was thought to generally work in China. Only one respondent reported parental effort in fostering her/his general interest in knowledge and languages.

Slightly different from the above, what their teachers did (perhaps communicating implicit but genuine attitudes towards English and work) was found to be at least as important as what beliefs they communicated. In addition, three students reported teacher support of the learner autonomy and other learner needs. Still more students commented on teaching and instructional styles: they expected their teachers to both use interesting materials and cater to their needs for exams; they also expected their teachers to help them form a realistic opinion of their language capacity. The ideal teacher would be strict, resourceful, funny and encouraging. In contrast, bad teaching included the use of "duck-

feeding" method, overemphasis of the importance of English in the NCEE and the use of sarcasm and criticism to humiliate the student.

In terms of peer influence, peer competition was one of the two major themes (n = 8), mainly serving as an impetus to learn but could be potentially demotivating for lower achievers. When peer comparison (e.g. of study time, energy and outcomes), another major theme, was carried out properly, (i.e., when the targets of comparison were students of similar abilities), positive influence on L2 motivation could be expected. Only one student who responded to this question mentioned something other than those – creation of a good learning atmosphere which facilitated her learning.

4. Strengths of motivation to learn English in the senior middle school

Although 2/3 of the respondents were comparatively strongly motivated, the quality of their motivation was not high; the majority of them were mainly externally motivated, many of whom by the NCEE only. Four students illustrated a strong will to achieve (26.7%) and another three (20.0%) were intrinsically motivated. Occasionally, one illustrated more than one type of motivation.

It might be arbitrary to conclude that intrinsic motivation is always more effective than extrinsic motivation; extrinsically motivated students tended to invest a similar amount of energy and time, if not higher, to achieve a high overall score in an important exam. Nonetheless, in interviewing, it was also discovered that extrinsically motivated students would easily give up when the overall aim was reached or should the goal be cancelled (at least three students commented that without the NCEE, they would not have bothered about English at all). It might be natural considering the fact that merely 33.3% students from this researched group enjoyed learning English. Also, extrinsically motivated students from this group quite often used (in some cases were encouraged to employ) strategic or even surface ways of learning. The paramount aim for them was to get a good score in the NCEE. They did not have interest in and failed to see the relevance of acquiring language skills in communication, which could hinder their linguistic ability from reaching an advanced level.

5. Suggestions to the teacher and parents for a better student motivation

In the interviews, many respondents mentioned the tension between an exam-tied system and L2 learning, although different voices were expressed with examples of success listed.

Apart from the above, the suggestions to teachers mainly concentrated on the use of better teaching methods, the provision of a milieu that facilitated learning and communication, the provision of chances for practice, the shift of learning emphasis from grammar to practical skills, the use of authentic materials and the provision of guidance on effective learning strategies. The above were expected to engage the learner in learning as well as to improve her/his motivation at a general level. In addition, there were more specific suggestions dealing with increase of language interest, demonstration of relevance and importance of EFL learning and catering for different styles.

In the case of parents, the respondents did not think they could do much, whose major role was to provide a pleasant, pressure-free learning surrounding, although criticism was levelled at the amount and quality of parental involvement.

6. Significance of the pre-pilot interview data

The 15 qualitative, pre-pilot interviews had yielded a great pool of information, much of which, due to limited space, could not be illustrated, such as in the case of individual motivational changes over time. However, the above still revealed interesting trends in student attitude towards English, and the extent of influences from important others, especially regarding their importance-related beliefs, from the time under research; some of the trends in fact resembled those found at a later age in Shanghai (e.g. more students were extrinsically motivated from both the pre-pilot, pilot and main studies). On top of that, the pre-pilot interviews illustrated the importance of using qualitative methods (e.g. conversational interviews) to research EFL motivation, to look at individual cases and sometimes to go back a great deal to "dig out" what has happened in the past that has impact on the present and the future (e.g. Ushioda, 1996).

Also important is the fact that the pre-pilot preliminary findings had a direct impact on the later stages of research: it boosted the current writer's confidence in the researchability of her two foci; it also helped set the contour of her pilot and main studies. For example, English teachers were found to be a separate group holding influence on

EFL motivation; as a result, the future attention was on that group only. In addition, it was found that reasoning on the importance of English from teachers and parents was important; however, there was no clear connection between such reasoning and perceived influences. Therefore, the research student was more prepared about the complexity of the researched phenomenon and was prepared to invest more effort to build on the only sketchy picture yielded from the pre-pilot study.

II. The Questionnaire

1. The school and the sample

The questionnaire participants (female = 14; male = 11; missing data = 1) were from a city-level key senior middle school located in central Shanghai. The school was a trial reform unit in a recent curricular reform in Shanghai launched in 1998.

These students aged from sixteen to eighteen, with the seventeen-year-old group being the largest (n = 20, 76.9%), and all of them had learnt English for seven to twelve years (mean = 9.5). According to the English teacher, most students were from families with an average-level income in Shanghai; none were from economically disadvantaged backgrounds.

2. Parental influence, teacher influence and peer influence on EFL motivation

Parental influence and reasons for learning well

Table 6.2.2.1 Analysis of the Parents' Influence

Rating	Number	Percentage (%)
5 (strong and positive)	9	34.6
4 (moderate and positive)	10	38.5
3 (no/ very little)	6	23.1
2 (moderate and positive)	0	0.0
1 (strong and negative)	1	3.8

The above table illustrates that a majority of the students (n = 19, 73.1%) rated the parental influence as positive; six (23.1%) found very little or no parental influence; only one (3.8%) reported negative influence. The mean rate of the parental influence was 4.0 (moderate and positive).

Table 6.2.2.2 Examples of Parental Reasons for Learning English Well

General Importance/Usefulness of English (N = 5, 12.5%)	Social Values, Particularly English as a Lingua Franca (N = 7, 17.5%)	Personal Development and Future Job Opportunities (N = 26, 65.0%)	The NCEE (N = 2, 5.0%)
• It is very important in the future [4]	• A means to communication in the future + [4]	• To make myself accepted by the society + [5]	• English is a compulsory subject in the NCEE + [5]
Mean = 3.8	Mean = 4.1	Mean = 4.0	Mean = 4.0

(The above gives examples of parental reasons for learning English well, which were arbitrarily separated into categories for understanding. The reason followed by "+" was listed by an individual alongside other reasons. The values in the parentheses reflected a student's rating of parental influence. It must be noted that there could not be any clear-cut relation between one reason and the associated rating)

24 respondents (92.3% of the population) listed 40 parental reasons for EFL learning. The parents tended to approach the issue of EFL learning from four angles: the general importance/usefulness of English; social values of English language; the importance of English to personal development and future job opportunities; and the NCEE.

The first category (n = 5) dealt with the parents' general statements on the importance of English; perhaps due to their vagueness, the mean of parental influences associated with them was 3.8, the lowest. The second category (n = 7) included the social values of English language, mainly promoting the learning of English as a means to communication or as a lingua franca of the world. This category appeared to be the most effective, which is also reminiscent of China's reasons to learn English, summed up by Cowan *et al.* (1979) and Bowers (1996) (cited in Boyle, 2002).

The third category (n = 26) included parental considerations on personal development and job opportunities. The reasons from this category were overwhelming in number and were comparatively effective (mean influence = 4.0). The last category (n = 2) reminded the respondents of the importance of English in the NCEE; similar to the interviews, this questionnaire targeted parents who appeared to be more relaxed with the forthcoming NCEE; the possible reasons might include the fact that their children were higher achievers, an increased chance of college/university attendance brought along by the waves of college admission expansion starting 1999, and a higher possibility to send their

children to study abroad.

Table 6.2.2.3 Examples of Parental Influences

1. Use of Authentic/Good English Materials	
Encouragement (N = 10; mean rating = 4.1)	Material support (N = 7; mean rating = 4.1)
• Advise me to listen to English news, etc. [5]	• Buy me US DVDs [4]
2. Attendance of Extracurricular Activities or English Courses	
Encouragement (N = 3; mean rating = 4.7)	Material support (N = 3; mean rating = 4.3)
• Advise me to attend some extra courses [5]	• Give me money to attend some courses, e.g. oral English courses [4]
3. Communication in English (N = 2; mean rating = 4.0)	
• Find chances for me to communicate with foreigners [4] • Bring me to Europe [4]	
4. Encouragement and/or Monitoring of Regular/General Study (N = 7; mean rating = 3.6)	
• Demand me to read [3]	
5. Other Motivational Strategies (N = 4; mean rating = 3.8)	
• Stress the importance of learning English well [5] • Preach me upon what other people are doing and have achieved [4]	

In the study, parents were mainly reported to encourage the use of or buy good/authentic English materials (n = 17, mean influence = 4.1), encourage and materially supporte their children to attend extracurricular activities or English courses (n = 6, mean influence = 4.5), create opportunities for EFL use (n = 2, mean influence = 4.0), encourage or monitor regular/general English study (n = 7, mean influence = 3.6).

From the data, parental care for learning materials, language use and extra learning appeared to be fairly effective. In addition, in comparison with the interview sample, this sample had parents who involved more in the learning process. Apart from the call of the time, the parents themselves might have had more language learning experiences – the majority of them witnessed and/or were involved in a sudden booming of English learning after 1978.

Teacher influence and reasons for EFL learning

Table 6.2.2.4 Analysis of the Teacher Influence

Rating	Number	Percentage (%)
5 (strong and positive)	9	34.6
4 (moderate and positive)	13	50.0
3 (no/ very little)	2	7.7
2 (moderate and positive)	2	7.7
1 (strong and negative)	0	0.0

From the above, the majority of the students (n = 22, 84.6%) reported a positive teacher influence; less than 10.0% of them found no or little teacher influence; which was the same case with those rating teacher influence as negative. The mean of such influences was 4.1, leaving the teachers the most influential group from important others within this sample.

Table 6.2.2.5 The Teachers' Reasons for Learning English Well

General Importance/Usefulness of English (N=3, 14.3%)	Social Values, Particularly English as a Lingua Franca (N=5, 23.8%)	Personal Development and Future Job Opportunities (N=7, 33.3%)	The NCEE (N=6, 28.6%)
• English is very important [4] • English is very useful [4]	• English is a lingua franca, with high practical values [4] • English is the most widely used language [4]	• It is important to improve a student's overall capacity and ability to communicate [5]	• To get a good mark in the NCEE [4] • A compulsory subject in the NCEE [5]
Mean = 4.0	Mean = 4.2	Mean = 5.0	Mean = 4.7

It was a pity that about 1/3 of the respondents did not give their teachers' reasons for language learning, causing difficulty in analysis and comparison. It could be because of the presence of their English teacher. The mean rating of teacher influence with this group (n = 8) was 3.4, signalling a rather weak influence.

Eighteen students listed altogether twenty-one reasons, regarding considerations on the student's "personal development and future job opportunities" (n = 7, mean influence = 5.0), "the NCEE" (n = 6, mean influence = 4.7), "social values, particularly English as a lingua franca" (n = 5, mean influence = 4.2) and "general importance/usefulness of English" (n = 3, mean influence = 4.0).

Table 6.2.2.6 Examples of Influences from the Teachers

1. Strategies Related to Formal Teaching and Mainly for the NCEE (N = 4; mean rating = 4.6)
• Give us a series of intensive English lessons [5]
2. Suggestions on Improving General Abilities (N = 4; mean rating = 4.8)
• Suggest more grammar exercises and more listening and speaking activities [5]
3. Motivational Strategies Mainly to Improve Intrinsic Motivation (N = 11; mean rating = 4.4)
• The teacher tries to attract our interest by the use of role plays [4]
4. Personal Help (N = 2; mean rating = 4.0)
• The teacher helps me to learn English [4]
5.Extrinsic Motivational Strategy (N = 1; mean rating = 4)
• Tell me that I must learn English well [4]

About 1/4 of the respondents, mainly reporting a weak teacher influence, failed to explain how their teachers influenced their motivation, which could be caused by the presence of their English teacher. Of those (n = 20) reacting to this question, four illustrated what their teachers did mainly for exam-oriented formal teaching (n = 4, mean influence = 4.6), four for improvement of one's general language abilities (mainly suggestions, mean influence = 4.8), another 11 mainly for the improvement of intrinsic motivation (n = 11, mean influence = 4.4), in addition to two cases of personal help given (mean influence = 4.0). In the case of boosting student intrinsic motivation, the teachers tried to improve one's interest and create a good learning surrounding. S/he used a lot of verbal encouragement as well. In addition, a couple of students were impressed by the teacher's efforts to use additional learning materials and multi-media facilities.

Peer influence and reasons for learning English well

Table 6.2.2.7 Analysis of the Peer Influence

Rating	Number	Percentage (%)
5 (strong and positive)	5	19.2
4 (moderate and positive)	10	38.5
3 (no/ very little)	11	42.3
2 (moderate and positive)	0	0.0
1 (strong and negative)	0	0.0

From the above, fifteen students (57.7%) rated the peer influence as positive, eleven (42.3%) found little or no peer influence, and no one reported negative peer influence, the mean being 3.8, making it the weakness in comparison with teachers and parents.

Table 6.2.2.8 Peer Reasons for Learning English Well

General Importance/Usefulness of English (N=4, 30.8%)	Social Values, Particularly English as a Lingua Franca (N=3, 23.1%)	Personal Development and Future job Opportunities (N=5, 38.4%)	The NCEE (N=1, 7.7%)
• To learn English well is very important [3]	• English is a useful tool of communication [5]	• To promote personal ability and quality [5]	• English is a compulsory subject in the NCEE [3]
Mean = 3.8	Mean = 4.0	Mean = 3.8	Mean = 3.0

15 students (57.7%) did not answer this question. "It would be enough to find myself learn English well; it does not matter what other people think or do." This quotation might partially explain why there were so few responses.

11 students listed 13 reasons to learn the target language well, very similar to those of the teachers' and parents' and were likewise analysed. Of the four categories, "social values" of English appeared to be the most effective, although "personal development and future job opportunities" had the largest number.

The category of "the NCEE", having one reason, called back the scenes in interviewing where the respondents maintained that they seldom discussed with their peers about the issue of the NCEE, because all the students knew its significance, life at school was very tough without constantly reminding each other of the NCEE, and more importantly, they would build an outwardly relaxed façade despite their great efforts invested upon learning and preparing for the exams, so as to slacken their classmates' vigilance in competition. However, the underlying reasons in the questionnaires administered in Shanghai might be different. Competition did not appear to be the sole theme at study; it was probably not the major theme, since higher education in China ceased to be the only solution to a better future. For instance, some students were also aware of the importance of collaboration in study for personal development. "Peers with good English proficiencies can help each other learn English well", commented one student.

Table 6.2.2.9 Examples of Peer Influences

<table>
<tr><td colspan="3">1. Peer Suggestions and Help (N = 2; mean = 4.5)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">• They suggest me to listen more, read more and write more [5]</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">2. Collaboration in Learning (N = 10; mean rating = 4.1)</td></tr>
<tr><td>a) Sharing learning resources
• They provide more English course-books [5]</td><td>b) Collaborative learning activities and mutual help at study
• We practise oral English together [5]</td><td>c) Sharing learning experience
• We exchange experiences in learning [4]</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">3. Creation of a Good Surrounding to Learn (N = 1; mean rating = 4.0)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">• A good milieu gives me impetus to learn [4]</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">4. Influence of Peer Examples (N = 2; mean rating = 3.5)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">• When they [the classmates] work hard, I would also work hard [3]</td></tr>
</table>

More than half of the students did not bother about this question. Among those who did so, they listed peer suggestions and help, peer collaboration, creation of a good learning surrounding and peer examples as the major means of influence. The category of peer collaboration included sharing of learning resources, collaborative learning activities and sharing of learning experience. It is interesting that students in Shanghai had realized the social dimension of an L2 and the importance of creating a learning community.

3. Summary on reasons and influences from important others

Table 6.2.3.1 Summary of Reasons Given by Important Others in the Questionnaire

		The teacher	The parents	The peers
General importance	Number	3	5	4
	Percentage (%)	14.3	12.5	30.8
	Rating	4.0 (4)	3.8 (4)	3.8 (3)
Social values	Number	5	7	3
	Percentage (%)	23.8	17.5	23.1
	Rating	4.2 (3)	4.1 (1)	4.0 (1)
Personal development and job opportunities	Number	7	26	5
	Percentage (%)	33.3	65.0	38.4
	Rating	5.0 (1)	4.0 (2)	3.8 (2)
The NCEE	Number	6	2	1
	Percentage (%)	28.6	5.0	7.7
	Rating	4.7 (2)	4 (3)	3 (4)

It was impressive that all the reasons given in the questionnaire were pragmatic, which could lead to a range of explanations. It was also clear that the third category, "personal development and future job opportunities" were the most popular and had a top overall ranking. Social values of the language in communication were also viewed as important, perhaps reflecting the ongoing trend of internationalization in Shanghai. In contrast, the reasons of the NCEE and general usefulness of English were less stressed, perhaps due to the facts that the NCEE had become less crucial for some students in Shanghai and vague reasons tended to be less motivating respectively.

Table 6.2.3.2 Summary of the Strengths of Influences of Important Others from the Pre-pilot Interview and Questionnaire Samples

	The Interview		The questionnaire	
	Mean rating	Ranking	Mean rating	Ranking
Teachers	4.1	1	3.8	1
Parents	4.0	2	3.5	2
Peers	3.8	3	3.2	3

Table 6.2.3.2 summarised and compared influences of important others from the two pre-pilot samples. The questionnaire ratings were higher than those of the interviews. However, the two pre-pilot research tools discovered a similar ranking of the researched influences, which was replicated in the future stages of the current project, as well as studies abroad (e.g. Speiller, 1988).

4. Impact of the pre-pilot questionnaire survey

Alongside the interviews, the pre-pilot questionnaire had a direct impact on the later stages of research, especially in that, targeting a population having similar parameters as the main, it offered more reliable calibrations.

In addition, there were a number of lessons learnt from that sub-study. Firstly, the presence of an English teacher appeared to have caused inhibition on the respondents, leading to more missing data and perhaps inflated, teacher-related answers. Due to the above, it was made explicit in both pilot and main studies that English teachers would be excluded from the project apart from recommending respondents. Secondly, in the pre-pilot study, both Chinese and English versions of the questionnaire were administered

and the respondents were allowed to choose whatever form they preferred. Whilst the above was used to motivate, gaps could be produced when the students responded to and write in different languages. Consequently, only one version of the questionnaire was administered in the main study. Thirdly, whilst proving to be efficient in producing trend-related data, the pre-pilot questionnaire yielded insufficient data regarding the influences of important others. Together with the reason that the pre-pilot questionnaire data was decontextualized and difficult to interpret, interviews were thought to be necessary in the main study. Finally, both the pre-pilot studies discovered interesting reasons for EFL learning from Chinese learners and their supporters. However, that stage of research had not included a mechanism for working out the full range of orientations for EFL learning in Shanghai. As such, it was viewed to be an important task to do so in the pilot study.

In summary, this chapter has looked at the significance of the two pre-pilot sub-studies: 15 conversational interviews with higher-degree Chinese students from the University of York and 26 questionnaire responses from a group of senior year two students in Shanghai. This stage has been seen as a necessary "dipping into the water" that greatly boosted the research student's confidence by establishing the researchability of the topic of importance others. It has also impacted upon the design of the future stages of research: for instance, an open-ended survey on learning orientations was added to the piloting period as a result; another example might be the inclusion of interviewing in the main study. Additionally, due to the evolutionary approach that has been adopted in this project, especially trend-related data, such as the extent of influences of important others, the students' English-related attitudes and varied means of influences from important others have been looked at, to help contextualize the main data and to offer some means for comparison. As will be illustrated in the following chapter, this atypical, evolutionary approach of conducting research will also influence how the pilot data are to be viewed and utilized.

Chapter 7 The Pilot Research and its Impact

I. The Pilot Exploratory Survey

1. The sample

In December, 2003, an exploratory questionnaire containing one single item "Why are you learning English as a foreign language?" was administered to a class of senior year three students (n = 34) in Shanghai, hoping to find the range of reasons upper secondary students in Shanghai would give for EFL learning. This group of students (female = 23, male = 11) were attending an upper secondary school located in an industry-based district with a high degree of inner mobility, and a larger proportion of economically disadvantaged population. However, those students illustrated an above-average level of interest and confidence in the use of English, insisting upon giving responses in the target language. A possible reason might be that they were studying courses of humanities/arts, some of whom expected to major in languages in the university.

2. The results and its significance

This survey discovered a range of popular reasons that were in line with the Western literature (e.g. friendship, communication). The only reason that appeared to be missing was the orientation of travel, which was understandable considering the fact that this sample came from an economically disadvantaged area. It also produced reasons more unique to exam-oriented, hierarchical contexts, such as learning English for the NCEE and out of parental wishes. In addition, there was a strong sense of pragmatism that also permeated the pre-pilot studies (e.g. learning English for career aspects).

There were altogether 61 reasons, which were sorted out by hand. Below is a table listing the 15 categories found.

Table 7.1.2.1 Reasons for Learning English from the Pilot Open-ended Survey

1. It will help me seek employment.
2. It will enable me to make more money and have a better life in future.
3. It will help my future career development.
4. English is fun.
5. I am good at English.
6. I like English songs, movies, magazines, novels, etc. (mainly American pop products)
7. It is a course requirement and a subject in the NCEE.
8. My parents want me to do well in English.
9. I have a desire to communicate with foreigners and make foreign friends.
10. I want to marry a foreigner.
11. English is useful for living in Shanghai.
12. English is an international language.
13. I want to go to an English speaking country (e.g. U.S.A., Australia, Canada, U.K.)
14. In the future, English will be even more important.
15. A knowledge of two languages will make me a better-educated person.

On top of the above, when comparing with the pre-pilot interviews, the reasons listed here perhaps reflected the interplay of time and region in terms of EFL learning in China: wealthier areas like Shanghai are providing a broader context of language use and different learning experiences including motivational profiles – apart from an instrumentality coherent to the Chinese context, there is a clear tendency of integrativeness, especially expressed by an interest in America's culture and products.

As a sum, the range of reasons is reminiscent of the material benefits and social prestige attached to English proficiency in current China (e.g. Hu, 2003; 2005a). In addition, they were used to design an important scale in the pilot and main questionnaires, helping to identify the prevalent types of orientation and motivation in Shanghai in the new century.

II. The Pilot Questionnaire Survey

1. The sample

The pilot questionnaire was administered to 104 senior year two students from two schools in two downtown districts of Shanghai: 48 from DJ Middle School, a mixed, district-level key school, and 56 from GQ Middle School, an ordinary mixed secondary. The sample was balanced in terms of gender, with 52 male and female students respectively; the mean age was 17.0 years old. This sample of students had learned

English from six to fifteen years, the mean being 8.9 and the *SD* was 1.0. In addition, the students from this sample came from schools that streamed students for two orientations of sciences and Maths, and humanities and arts in senior year three; consequently, this cohort of students had mixed intentions.

In summary, the particular strength of this sample lies in parameters close to the main study sample, with students of mixed abilities and academic interest, balanced in gender. In addition, it was evident according to the administrators, and from the completed questionnaires, that the majority of the students had been careful in answering the questions, with a good intention to help improving its quality.

2. Some preliminary findings and the significance of using a pilot questionnaire

To start with, completed versions of the pilot questionnaire offered the research student an opportunity to get familiar with statistics and to run a couple of trials for the main. Analysis of the pilot questionnaire had also produced interesting data, which was comparable when changes from the pilot questionnaire to the main were negligible. What was more important, looking at the questionnaire responses, especially answers to open questions (including questions asking for comments), enabled the current writer to have an overall judgement upon the feasibility of her questionnaire and to make necessary adaptations.

The question on student attitudes towards curricular subjects was a good example of a case having undergone negligible adjustment. The results had been duly analysed and compared with the main data (the discussion would be presented in the following chapter). Below is a table illustrating descriptive statistics on the pilot questionnaire attitudes.

Table 7.2.2.1 Student Attitudes toward 12 School Subjects from the Pilot Questionnaire

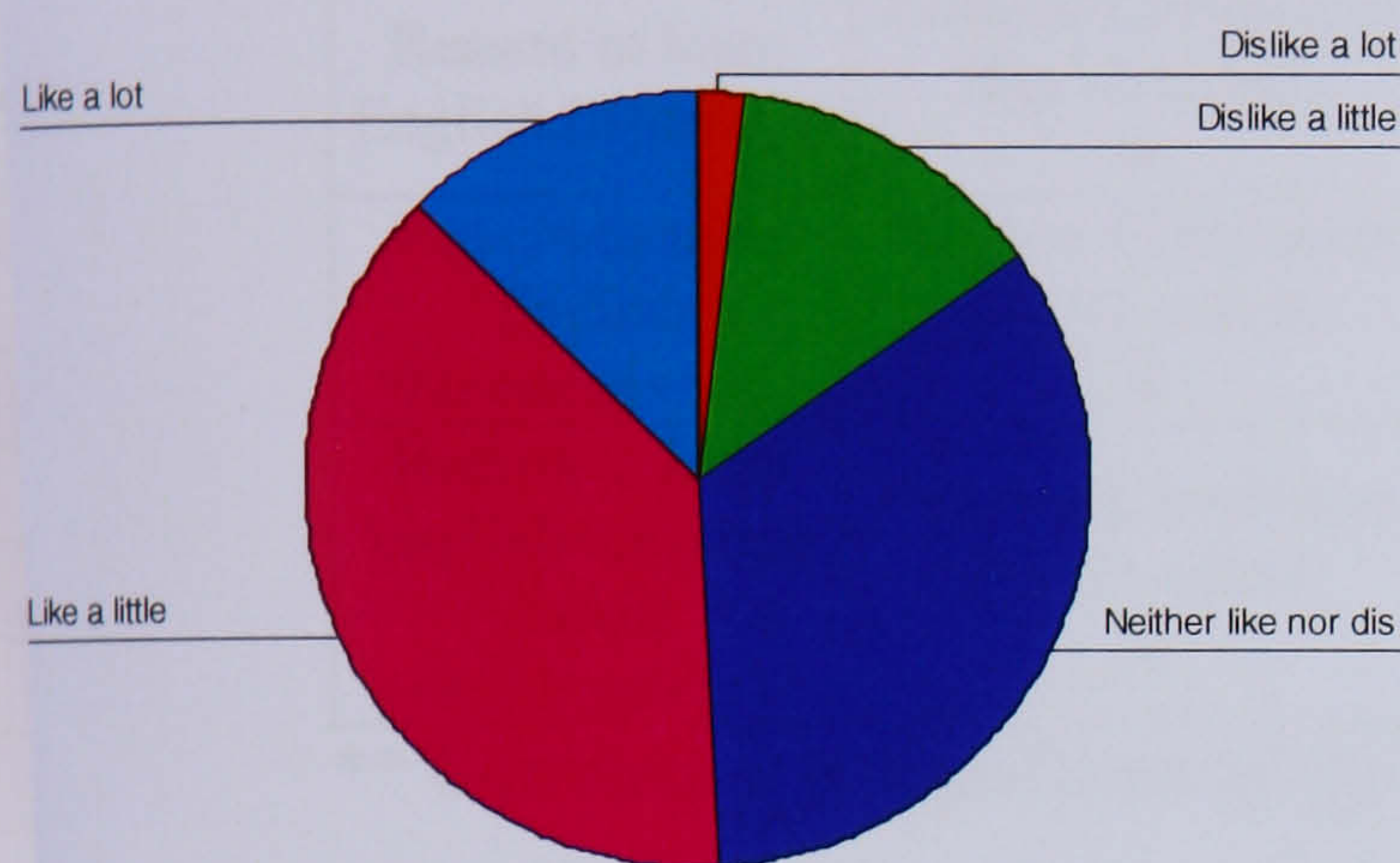
Subject:	Number	Dislike very much (%)	Dislike a bit (%)	Neither like nor dislike (%)	Like a bit (%)	Like very much (%)	Mean	*SD*
Maths	104	0.0	9.6	44.2	27.9	18.3	3.55	.90
Physics	104	3.8	15.4	38.5	28.8	13.5	3.33	1.02
Chinese	104	1.0	17.3	47.1	28.8	5.8	3.21	.83
Music	103	4.9	8.7	24.3	35.9	26.2	3.70	1.10
History	104	2.9	11.5	34.6	31.7	19.2	3.53	1.02
English	104	1.9	13.5	33.7	38.5	12.5	3.46	.94
Chemistry	104	3.8	20.2	39.4	26.9	9.6	3.18	.99
Biology	104	6.7	18.3	38.5	27.9	8.7	3.13	1.03
P.E.	104	2.9	14.4	24.0	21.2	37.5	3.76	1.19
Computer	104	1.9	5.8	30.8	27.9	33.7	3.86	1.02
Fine arts	104	0.0	10.6	44.2	31.7	13.5	3.48	.86
Politics	104	12.5	28.8	44.2	12.5	1.9	2.63	.93
Valid N (listwise)	103							

A couple of observations could be made from the above summary table. Firstly, all the researched subjects, apart from politics, had a mean pointing the aggregated student attitude to somewhere between "neither like nor dislike" (neutral) and "like a bit"; politics had a mean placing it into the negative camp. Secondly, with the exception of music, English and P. E., the central category of "neither like nor dislike" appeared to account for the highest percentage within each subject; caution might be needed in interpretation. Thirdly, only five subjects – music, history, English, P. E. and computer science – had more students liking them; the rest (n = 7) generally witnessed a less positive attitude. In a sweeping way, this sample of students had a mainly lukewarm attitude towards their school subjects.

Specifically, attitude towards English had been separated and compared with other data sets/subjects. In comparison with the pre-pilot interview data where only 1/3 of the respondents liked English, the pilot group had a more positive attitude, perhaps due to the time and/or place change. Whilst comparing against other curricular subjects, English appeared to be in a middling position. Within the subject itself, gendered difference was tentatively found at the .001 level using independent t-test (t = -3.500, p = .001, two-tailed), with girls (mean = 3.8) illustrating more positive attitude than boys (mean = 3.2),

which is in line with the body of evidence on gendered attributes and achievement from abroad (e.g. Dörnyei *et al.*, 2006).

Chart 7.2.2.1 Comparison of the Pilot and Pre-pilot Data on Attitude towards English



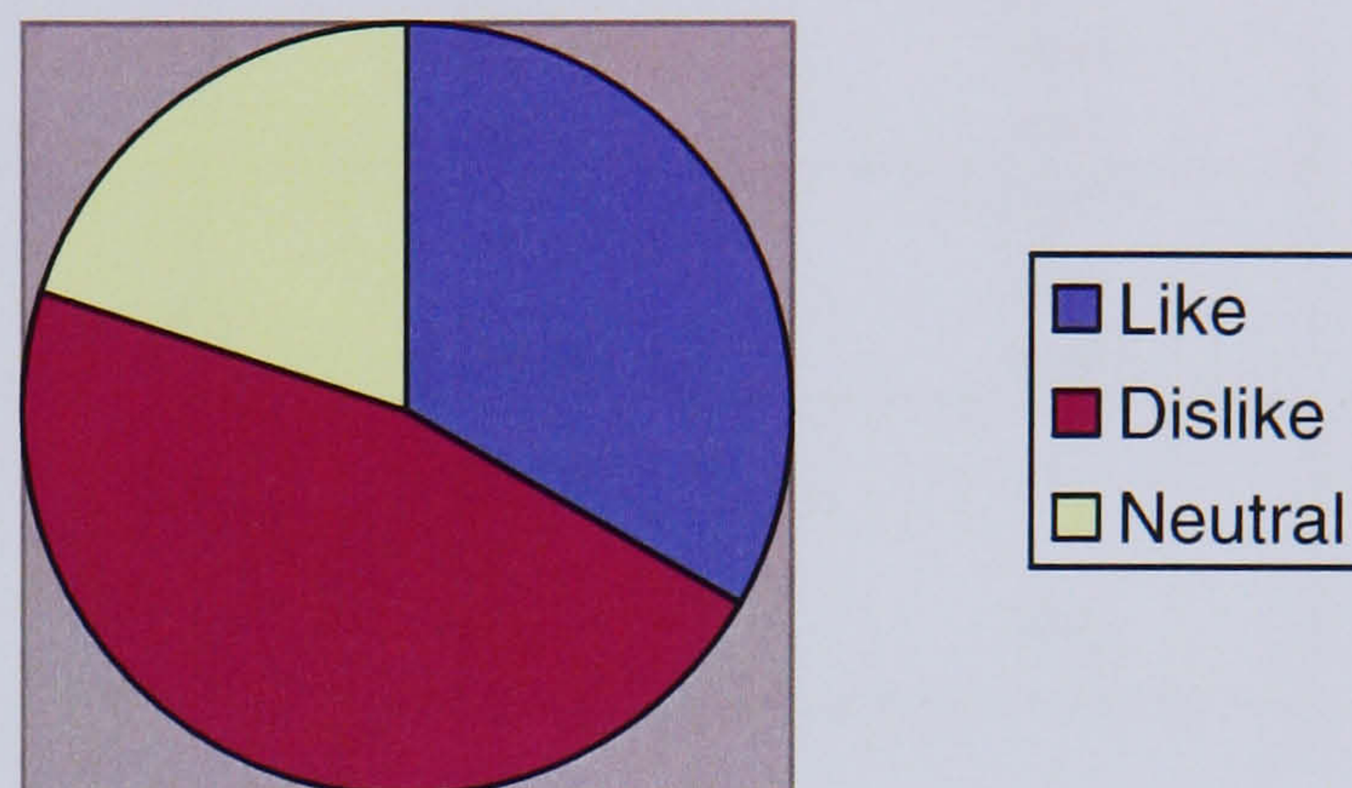


Table 7.2.2.2 Ranking of 12 School Subjects from the Pilot Questionnaire

Ranking	Piloting (n = 104)
1	Computer
2	PE
3	Music
4	Maths
5	History
6	Fine Arts
7	English
8	Physics
9	Chinese
10	Chemistry
11	Biology
12	Politics

Unlike the previous one, the question on student orientations had undergone great change, based on quantitative observations and qualitative suggestions. For example, the three reasons on career aspects and life were felt to overlap each other in the TAG and pilot interviews; this understanding was supported by running a correlation test, whose

results were demonstrated below.

Table 7.2.2.3 Correlations between Pilot Reasons on Career Prospects and Life

		Reason to learn English 01(career)	Reason to learn English 02(money+life)	Reason to learn English 03(future career development)
Reason to learn English 01(career)	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	1 . 104	.732** .000 104	.649**** .000 104
Reason to learn English 02(money+life)	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.732** .000 104	1 . 104	.528** .000 104
Reason to learn English 03(future career development)	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.649** .000 104	.528** .000 104	1 . 104

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

From the above, the greatest overlap occurred between reasons 1 (seeking employment) and 2 (learning English for more money and a better life); as a result, the second statement was taken out. However, the research student insisted that the reason of seeking employment and that on career development express slightly different but important issues; consequently, both of them were retained.

Perhaps it is understandable that a tentative correlation test did not yield as clear-cut substrates as in the main study, mainly due to sample inadequacy and not tidied statements: of the four orientation clusters discovered in the pilot study (only three in the main), that bearing marks of external pressure was the closest to its main study counterpart; the cluster of instrumental reasons, though narrower in breadth, also resembled the main finding; however, the main study integrative cluster (friendship, travel, marriage, going to English-speaking countries and attraction of cultural products) was not neatly grouped in the pilot questionnaire survey, spreading over two clusters.

In addition, the correlation coefficients illustrated a strong sentence order effect, with neighbouring items, often related, having similar values. As such, the TAG and interview suggestions on refining the wording and changing the sentence order were duly followed, leading to a satisfactory result in the main study.

Regarding the coverage of the above orientations, the pilot questionnaire adopted an open question exploring additional reasons. Often, the pilot respondents used that space

to conclude that they could not think of any other reasons, supporting the prevalent feeling in the pilot interviews. However, 39 students gave 44 personal reasons, despite the fact that many of them overlapped the given reasons. Below is a table summarising the respondents' additional reasons.

Table 7.2.2.4 Additional Reasons for EFL Learning from the Pilot Questionnaire Survey

	Additional Reason(s) to Learn English	Corresponding Items in Question 6 on Orientations	Total (44)
1	Job perspectives	1	1
2	Study abroad	15	2
3	English essential in a swiftly developing society (Shanghai)	12	1
4	Aspects of English pleasing	4	5
5	For a better communication	9	4
6	Knowledge and academic references	No	6
7	Travel	10	1
8	A better educated/more cultivated person	14	2
9	English useful for future study and life	16	1
10	More information on international affairs	No	1
11	English as an international language	13	2
12	Course requirements	7	2
13	For the development of China	No	2
14	To play games	No	3
15	On a personal impulse	No	1
16	May help studying other subjects	No	1
17	For a better language ability	No	2
18	Fond of English cultural products	6	2
19	The issue of 'face'	No	1
20	Useful for learning computer skills	No	1
21	To understand product instructions and menus	12	1
22	English easier to learn comparing with other subjects	No	1
23	Because other people are learning; it is the tendency now	No	1

From the above, the respondents gave 22 additional reasons; about half of them (n = 12) were thought to overlap the more sweeping orientations presented in the previous question. A good example might be that "English is very useful for a person's future life. For example, the 2010 World Fair would be hosted by Shanghai. We should learn English well so we can work as volunteer helpers". The respondent of the above statement appeared to have recognized the value of English for one's future life at a macro level, and have developed a detailed picture of how it might be relevant at a micro level.

Of the 11 novel reasons uncovered in the previous question, the majority of them (n = 9; highlighted above) reflected a more idiosyncratic mentality; therefore, although

interesting, those reasons were not included in the main study. In addition, reasons 6 and 10 (see the above table), when combined, reflected an increasing tendency among Chinese students to treat English as a medium of obtaining knowledge, information and academic references. One can argue that this tendency may have been covered by the reason of "English is an international language" from the pilot questionnaire.

As such, the current writer judged that her original matrix on orientations succeeded in covering the prevalent tendencies from the researched context; nonetheless, the number of responses given also reminded her of the fact that there could be numerous other possibilities in individual cases, and the economy in words (hence vagueness) of her original statements could lead to different interpretations by the respondents.

Question 9 in the pilot survey explored levels of student motivation. It was suggested in the pilot interviews that a more fine-tuned scale including 6 measurements be adopted to yield accurate data in the main study. From Table 7.2.2.5 below (where measurements from the main questionnaire scale were collapsed), it can be seen that the two studies discovered a similar medium-level student EFL motivation in Shanghai; however, the two scales produced different distribution patterns across the measurements. One could assume that the sheer number of students (61.5%) ticking the category of "Medium" in the pilot study could be partly explained by the fact that a transitional measurement ("Fairly high") was not given before the measurement of "High"; understandably, the respondents had to do with the closest category, often lower in rank.

Table 7.2.2.5 Comparing Levels of Motivation from the Pilot and Main Questionnaires

	Measurements	Main Questionnaire	Pilot Questionnaire
Overall Strength of Motivation	High	32.8%	4.8%
	Medium	46.7%	61.5%
	Low/ Weak	19.7%	30.8%
	None at all	0.8%	2.9%
	Valid N	610	104
	Mean	4.11	2.68 (equaling 4.02 in the new scale)
	SD	.92	.61

The above comparison of the pilot and main questionnaires served as a good illustration of the importance of saturating scale measurements so as to obtain valid data.

The questions on student self-regulation and beliefs from important others concerning the importance of English had undergone comparatively minor change, apart from one of their statements. Perhaps not surprisingly, the results from the pilot and main questionnaires looked very similar in terms of means and *SD*s, with the main study yielding slightly more positive responses in places. In addition, a comparison of the pilot and main studies on strengths of influences from important others produced similar patterns, with English teachers being the most influential, followed by parents and peers, although all the above groups were found to have small influences (see the table below) (e.g. Speiller, 1988). The above tendency also appeared in both of the pre-pilot studies.

Table 7.2.2.6 Comparing Perceived Influences of Important Others from the Pilot and Main Questionnaire Surveys

	Mean		*SD*		Ranking	
	Pilot	Main	Pilot	Main	Pilot	Main
English Teachers	3.95	3.84	1.13	.95	1	1
Parents	3.82	3.67	.84	.89	2	2
Peers	3.37	3.54	.86	.81	3	3

(In the above table, "3" means "no influence"; "4" means "slightly positive" influence.)

The questions on how important others were perceived to influence student EFL motivation had had negligible change. Consequently, the results from the pilot were comparable to those from the main. In the case of parental influences, the pilot study discovered a series of categories that were replicated in the main, with parental reasoning, pressure and involvement to be the most prevalent from both samples. Similarly, the pilot study also confirmed the main findings that teacher-related factors, such as teacher attitude and personal traits, and teaching-related factors, such as support of formal study and fostering of intrinsic motivation, were among the more prevalent means of influence. The case of peer influence was more clear-cut: four categories, in descending order, were found to be the most prevalent in both the pilot and main surveys – peer collaboration, peer competition and comparison, peer examples and peer socialization of importance-related beliefs.

Although about 50% to 80% of the respondents reacted to the above questions; the decontextualized data were found difficult to understand sometimes. Therefore,

individual interviews were thought to be a good support in the main study.

Finally, the pilot questionnaire had included two open questions to invite comments firstly on its contents and then on the clarity of its wording, leading to 22 and 13 responses respectively.

Regarding the contents of the questionnaire, the greatest number of respondents (n = 11) felt that important others did not hold much influence on the learner at the researched stage; rather, learning a language became a highly personal thing and the learner herself/himself should be responsible for the task. Perhaps self-motivating strategies will be more welcome for students of that mentality. Interested in finding out how many students might have the above idea, the research student had consequently asked such a question in her main interviews.

The second group of students (n = 4) found social environment and language milieu to be key for successful learning, whilst the third group (n = 3) focused on extrinsic motivation as a prevalent type of mentality among Chinese secondary-level learners of English. In addition to the above, there were individual voices either complaining about the English teacher (as the killer of motivation) or expressing worries upon a low level of motivation.

In terms of the clarity of the questionnaire, there were a couple of comments on questions that had been found difficult to answer: questions on attitudes from important others had one vote each, whilst the question on parental motivational strategies had 2 votes. In addition, occasionally, the respondents had used the space to release their negative feelings – including impatience with questionnaires in education and request that more attention be paid to practical teaching rather than research (n = 2). On checking, all the above feedback on clarity of wording were given by those attending the ordinary middle school where discipline was a problem and where the English teacher seemed to be disliked. As such and also considering the small number of such feedback, the current writer did not feel too uncomfortable about the clarity of her pilot questionnaire.

In summary, taking the above issues as a whole, the current research student felt that her pilot questionnaire had made sense to the majority of her respondents and had the capacity to produce interesting trends that resembled those in the main study; however, improvements of varied degrees were needed on occasions to lead to more valid data in

the main study, as her TAG members and pilot interview respondents had rightly suggested.

III. The Pilot Interviews

1. The sample

Reacting to critique on the clarity of the pilot questionnaire, ten individual interviews were conducted in February, 2004. The interview respondents (female = 6, male = 4) were Chinese higher degree students at the University of York; all of them spoke Mandarin Chinese as their first language/dialect and went to upper secondary schools in the late 90s.

Apart from one second-year PhD student, the rest were Masters students from the Department of Educational Studies (n = 4), the Department of Economics (n = 3) and the Department of Electronics (n = 2). Until that time, they had learned English for more than ten years; the mean was 11.3. Their mean age was 23.5.

2. The results and their significance

There had been an interesting discussion on how to translate the key word of "motivation". The favoured versions included "dongli" (motivation, n = 5), and "dongji" (motive, n = 5, which is typically adopted by researchers within China, e.g. Qing, 2002; Wen, 2001), although there were suggestions on versions like "xingqu" (interest) and "yuandongli" (impetus) as well. This question, though trivial, perhaps reflected the difficulty of proper cross-cultural translation where a concept from one culture appeared to have no direct match in another. Compromises would have to be made sometimes in such situations. In this project, a simple definition was provided to give a rough anchoring. In addition, a number of other smaller adaptations were suggested and adopted to make the Chinese translation better fit the English version (some examples would be discussed bellow); often the problems were caused by concept mismatch or vagueness of Chinese without similar mechanisms to express tenses or aspects. After this round of interviews, the research student gained more confidence about the readability of that Chinese translation; she was also confident that it should be a fair representation of the original English version.

Another major focus was on the measurements of some scales. It was interesting to see that different respondents might have very opposite ideas of what was correct. For instance, in the case of one scale adopting measurements ranging from "dislike very much" to "like very much", male students appeared to be very comfortable with that continuum, whilst some female respondents (n = 4), especially those from the Department of Educational Studies, thought it to be ambiguous, particularly between "dislike very much" and "dislike a bit"; one respondent also asked whether or not "neither like nor dislike" included "no idea", which appeared to be an important category in a Chinese mind. A similar issue was raised (n = 3) on measurements between "not very true' and "slightly true" as being overlapping and vague. Due to the above understanding split and the fact that the pilot questionnaire administration did not meet any problem concerning those measurements, no reaction was taken in the main questionnaire survey. However, this argument had made the research student aware of the limitations of scale measurements.

Contrary to the above case, the scale on motivational level was fundamentally affected with the scale expanded to allow more fine-tuned measurements. In addition, the research student was reminded of the complexity of individual motivation that can also fluctuate. Consequently, the sense of making an overall judgement was made explicit.

A third issue of contention was the scale of orientations. Firstly, a number of respondents (n = 4) expressed discomfort about the leading sentence "I am learning English because..." For them, this did not form a proper question asking for people's motives; rather, it was more a description of the *status quo*. As a result, the final version was changed to "I want to learn English because..."

Secondly, those respondents also commented widely about the included reasons, although they mainly felt the range sufficient to summarise the situation in today's China. For instance, they had pointed out that the first three statements (n = 6) (see Table 7.2.2.1 above) appeared to be repetitive and correlated, corresponding to one of the issues raised at the research student's TAG meeting. In particular, the respondents felt that there could be a degree of entailment between considerations on job perspectives, making money and having a better life. Similarly, a number of other statements or their translations were affected, though to a less degree. In addition, some respondents also expressed their

worries about integrative orientations, like friendship and travel, especially the intention of marrying a foreigner. Some (n = 3) argued that the idea of travel or making friends might not have been fully developed in China; some (n = 3) worried that it might not be appropriate to raise the issue of marriage to teenagers, or at least, it would be difficult to get reliable answers. On the contrary, some students (n = 5) explicitly commented that their contact with students from Shanghai made them feel the above reasons to be possible. Whilst the research student was comfortable with the integrative orientations, all coming from her own study, she felt she should be guarded about results relating to the orientation of marriage (not every student would take such a tendency on board).

Finally, mainly taking advice offered by her TAG members, and also following occasional observations from the interviews, the 15 orientations, originally grouped according to their closeness, were rearranged and separated, to control the sentence order effect. In conclusion, this round of interviews had played a vital role in refinement of the scale on orientations.

Polarized opinions appeared again with regards to questions on the influences of important others, with some finding the questions well-designed and others making comments on bits of the language, especially the Chinese translation. Upon their suggestion, a couple of sentences were rephrased to reduce vagueness or take out the unfortunate meanings attached to the Chinese version. One example might be the change from "*kechide*" (shameful, but a strong word potentially involving moral and face judgment) to "*diuliande*" (literally "losing face"); in this case, the Chinese version finally affected the English version.

The last issue of importance was questions on peer influence. It was suggested by her TAG members that the idea of "peer group" might be essential in analysing peer influence. As such, the question of whether it was necessary to identify and separate different peer groups was asked in the interviews. Clearly, the respondents fell into two opposite camps, one (n = 8) maintaining that it would be both impractical and unnecessary to identify different peer groups: social life at the upper secondary level in China is still comparatively simple; students seldom have contact with people other than their classmates (schoolmates) and a limited number of friends of similar ages. However, to better guide the answer to this question, some suggested the use of modifiers like

"around you", "that you can see everyday" and "most of your friends". Another group (n = 2) suggested, with their own examples, that different groups of peer could have different influences: in one case, three groups of peers were identified – classmates, foreign friends in China, pen pals and other friends from abroad. In another case, friends were found to exert different influence from classmates. The research student found it difficult to separate peer groups in the main questionnaire; however, she had incorporated this idea into her main interviews.

From the above, it is evident that the ten pilot interviews had played a pivotal role in improving the quality of the pilot questionnaire. It had resulted in numerous suggestions on questionnaire layout, sentence order, expression clarity, scale measurement, item coverage and cross-cultural translation. A large number of such ideas were incorporated into a new version of the research questionnaire, greatly contributing to the smooth execution of the final-stage research. Although some ideas appeared to be idiosyncratic or difficult to follow, the foci of discussion had helped to problematize what had been previously taken for granted and to raise the awareness of the research student regarding limitations of her research project and tools.

In summary, this chapter has described how each of the three pilot sub-studies has impacted upon the final stage of research. In comparison, the function of the pilot open-ended survey on learning orientations is straightforward: its data were used to design an important scale in the pilot questionnaire which, after adjustment, was used in the main study. The pilot questionnaire covered all the questions to be asked in the main study, and from the students' responses and written comments, it could be concluded at that time that the questionnaire sheet had generally made sense to the respondents, although improvement and clarification would be needed. Finally, ten unstructured pilot interviews had yielded numerous suggestions that helped to improve the quality of the questionnaire sheet to be used in the main study.

Additionally, as illustrated before, this project has adopted an evolutionary approach in terms of research design and data reporting. As such, specifically when a question underwent negligible change from the pilot questionnaire to the main questionnaire, relevant data have been reported to facilitate some form of comparison with the main data, which are to be presented in the following chapters.

Chapter 8 Analysis of Main Study Data on Student Attitudes and Motivation

I. The Respondents and the Schools

1. The questionnaire sample

Altogether, 638 senior year two students from seven secondary schools of varied status in Shanghai responded to the main questionnaire administered during April to June, 2004. 28 questionnaires were discarded as being incomplete, for instance, and the number of questionnaires subjected to data analysis was 610. The actual sample, including 309 girls (50.7%) and 301 boys (49.3%), is balanced in terms of gender. The table below further illustrates the distribution of students across school and gender.

Table 8.1.1.1 The Main Sample Schools

No.	School	Male	Female	Subtotal
1	The University School	36	57	93
2	CY No. 2 High School	50	38	88
3	YA Senior Middle School	51	45	96
4	JY Senior High School	37	48	85
5	LL Middle School	47	22	69
6	ZG Middle School	42	49	91
7	LY Middle School	38	50	88
Total	7	301	309	610

Apart from the above university school, where respondents were recruited from the whole year group during a selective course open to students from all grades, two classes were randomly chosen by either headteacher or year head from each of the schools. The respondents from the university school might represent a wider sweep of intake than other schools in terms of English study, including students from a specialised English language class and a number of students recruited from other regions of China where English education has been regarded as less advanced.

In the case of LL Middle School, about one third of students from each chosen class failed to turn up at the survey, leaving the total far below 100, whilst a standard class at the upper secondary level in Shanghai often has about 50 students. However, the current, actual sample size is still larger than the planned 500.

There is no missing data regarding the age of the respondents, which ranged from 16 to 19. The mean of this main sample is 17.4, and its standard deviation is 0.6. Agewise, the main questionnaire sample is similar to the pilot sample (mean = 17). Regarding the question of "Length of time learning English", there is one missing case: the years the students had spent studying English ranged from 4 to 14, with the 8- and 9-year groups being considerably larger than others, reaching a subtotal of 416, accounting for 68.3% of the actual sample. The mean with this sample is 8.8, very similar to the pilot one (mean = 8.9) and the standard deviation is 1.5, bigger than that of the pilot sample (*SD* = 1). Below is a summary table on key figures of this sample.

Table 8.1.1.2 Comparing the Pilot and Questionnaire Samples

	Main Questionnaire Sample			Pilot Sample	
	missing data	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*
Age	0	17.4	0.6	17	0.4
Length of time learning English	1	8.8	1.5	8.9	1.0

There are 5 missing data concerning the types of class the students were attending at that time: 38 students attended humanities classes, 190 sciences classes and 377 mixed classes. The data looks skewed, but it might be affected by the intake from a couple of city-level key middle schools where within school streaming is earlier, and where the majority of the students choose science subjects. In addition, it was also expected that there should be more students in Shanghai aiming to study sciences and Maths than those wanting to learn humanities and social sciences.

2. The interview sample

66 semi-structured, individual interviews generally of 20 minutes were conducted in the main study, but 2 interviews got lost due to recording problems. The percentage of the usable interviews (n = 64) against the actual questionnaire sample (n = 610) is 10.5%, very close to the intended aim of targeting 10% of the questionnaire respondents. The interview sample, like that of the questionnaire survey, is a convenience one. Apart from the case of the university school where volunteers were recruited from the survey

participants across the year group, teacher recommendation was often relied upon to identify students from the researched classes, with the aim of balancing the interview sample in terms of ability and gender. However, due to limited control of the sampling procedures, this sample is not evenly distributed across gender: the ratio of boys (n = 22) and girls (n = 38) was specifically affected by the university school and the suburban school where a higher degree of randomness had been involved in the targeting process. In addition, it was felt, when transcribing the data, that more capable students with admirable attitudes might have been included. In this light, caution is needed when comparing the data from the questionnaire survey and the interviews. Below is a table that illustrates the distribution of the interview participants.

Table 8.1.2.1 Distribution of the Interview Participants

	School	Male	Female	Subtotal	Number of questionnaires	Percentage of interviews to questionnaires (%)
1	The University School	2	10	12	93	12.9
2	CY No. 2 High School	5	4	9	88	9.8
3	YA Senior Middle School	5	5	10	96	10.4
4	JY Senior High School	4 (1 lost)	4	8 (1 lost)	85	8.2
5	LL Middle School	4	3	7	69	10.1
6	ZG Middle School	5	5	10	90	10.8
7	LY Middle School	3 (1 lost)	7	10 (1 lost)	88	10.2
Total	7	28 (2 lost)	38	66 (2 lost)	610	10.5

It is also known that more than half of the participants began their EFL study at primary year 3 (aged 10) and had learned English for about 8 years when they were interviewed. In addition, a number of the students had started their learning informally much earlier due to parental or social pressures.

3. The participating schools

This research has targeted mainstream, upper secondary, academic schools in Shanghai. It has been acknowledged that there are mainly two factors that may affect student intake

and their mental profile within the above boundary – firstly school type/status and secondly school location.

Like China's other areas, Shanghai still adopts a hierarchical system for resource and quality control. City-level key schools have the best performance and the highest status, leading to more funding, better amenities and teaching resources, more chances for teacher training, and more links with other regions in China and abroad. To maintain their elite status, these schools often recruit the highest ability students from all over Shanghai. However, in recent years, these schools have created quotas for higher ability or affluent students from other regions in China, to raise more funds; such a right is also enjoyed by a number of district- or county-level key schools to a limited extent. As can be figured out, the schools only secondary to the above in status and resources are district- or county- level key schools, often recruiting higher ability students from their home districts or counties. Still below this level are the grass-root, ordinary schools that meet the needs of local communities (cf. Wang, 2003 for the key-school system).

In addition, location of a school is found to have a secondary level of influence on a student's mentality, reflecting regional differences within Shanghai in terms of factors including economy type, educational level and population profile. Perhaps the gap between Shanghai's former districts and rural counties is the most obvious. There are also subtler differences between schools of the same type, especially at the level of district- /county- key schools and ordinary schools, from downtown areas of varied development.

The above two factors have been taken into consideration to obtain a fairly representative sample, with seven schools, three city-level key schools, one district-level key school, two ordinary city schools and one suburban school, taken from three city districts and one suburban district (a former county), spreading over a vast stretch of land. However, the questionnaire sample is still a convenience one, leading to limited generalizability. Below is a brief introduction to the participating schools.

The university school, located in a city district of densely distributed educational and research institutes, is a three-year, upper secondary, city-level key school under the dual leadership of the affiliated university and the Shanghai Educational Committee. Because of its close relation to that university, it has the capacity for offering a broad curriculum occasionally supported by staff members from the university, enabling up to 70% of its

students to enter top universities in China. In addition to its interest in sports (soccer and handball), music and dancing, it has laid emphasis on the teaching of L2s and computer.

CY No. 2 High School, located in a more industrial-based city district, is also a three-year, upper secondary, city-level key school that recruits numerous students from all over Shanghai and other regions every year. Currently, it has 2,300 students and its senior year three group has 15 classes (the senior year two group at the time of research).

YA Middle School, located in the above city district, was among the first to be granted the city-level key status in 1960. In 1998, its upper secondary groups were moved to a new campus catering for boarders from all over Shanghai, continuing its elite status. Since the year of 2000, it began to recruit students from other regions in China. Currently, it is a school having much strength in Maths and science education, sending about 85% of its graduates to key universities in China each year.

JY Senior High School, located in an area of high rate of population mobility, is a three-year, upper-secondary, district-level key school. It was based on a public school built in 1904 but has recently moved to a new campus near the outer ring road in Shanghai. One of the eleven exemplary, upper secondary boarding schools, it has the right to recruit students from a listed regions in China. Currently, it has 40 classes and nearly 2,000 students. It has claimed strength in aesthetics education, creative learning and development of sciences.

LL Middle School, located in the same district as the above university school, is an ordinary school catering for students from both lower and upper secondary levels. Currently, it has 35 classes and 1,500 students. It is a school having specific strength in fencing and has been regarded by the Shanghai Educational Committee as a secondary-degree sports school. Whilst succeeded in sending athletes to universities or professional teams from its fencing club, the school has recently aimed to strengthen its EFL and computer education.

ZG Middle School, close to the above school, is another ordinary school recruiting students from both lower and upper secondary levels. Currently, it has 51 classes and 2,300 students. In recent years, it has illustrated interest in developing an international awareness in its students; it has boasted strength in education of ecology, movie appreciation and swimming.

LY Middle School was an ordinary suburban school taking students from both lower and upper secondary levels in the locality at the time of research. Currently, it is negotiating to get support from the Shanghai International Studies University, aiming to strengthen its L2 education.

II. Attitudes towards English

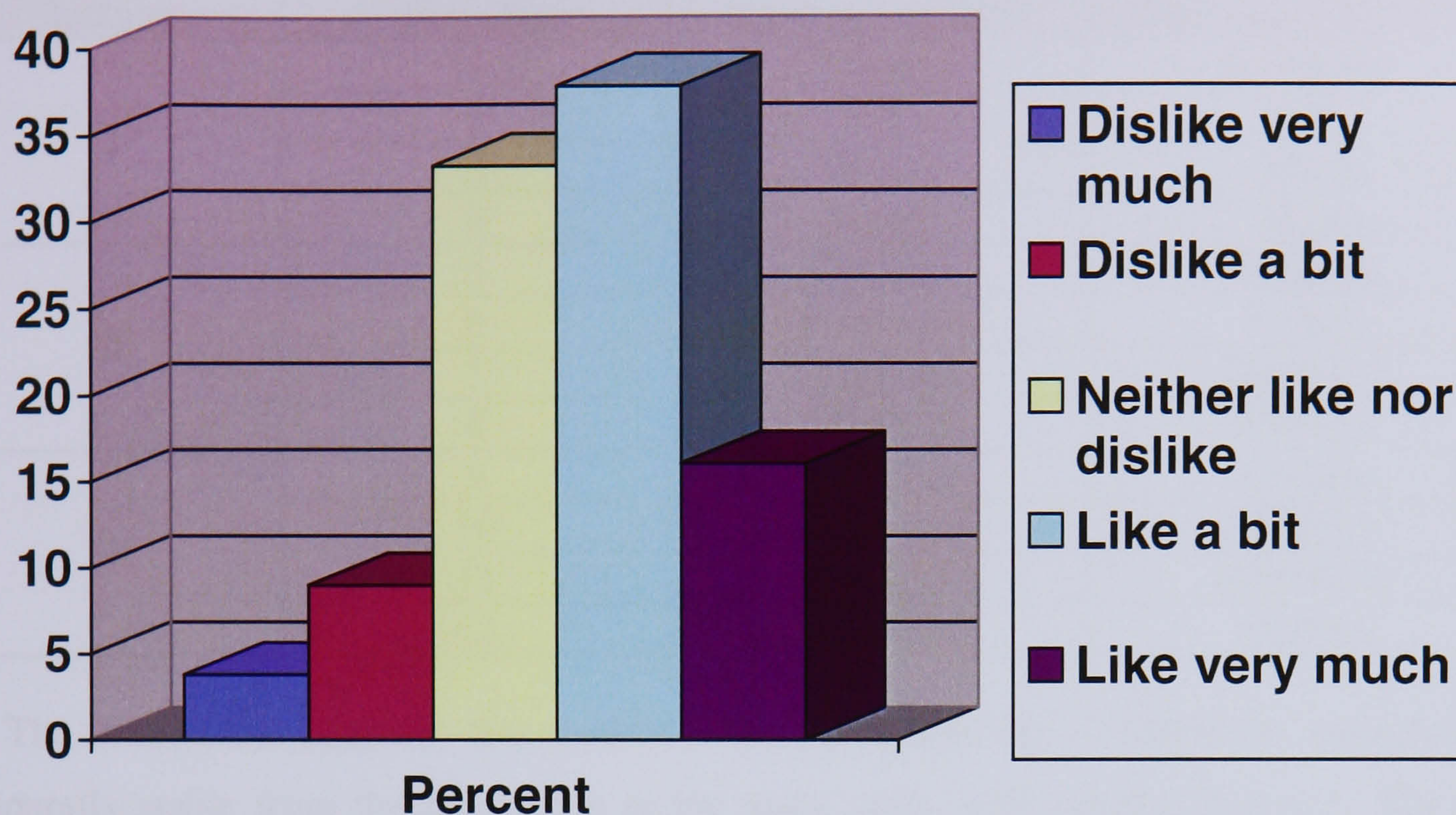
1. Attitude toward English compared with other curricular courses

In the questionnaire survey, question 5, adopting a five-point Likert scale, examines student attitude towards English compared with other school subjects. The data have been subjected to SPSS for analysis, and statistics like frequencies, *SD*s and means have been calculated and are illustrated in the table below. There has been no missing data concerning all those twelve curricular subjects. The students appear to feel differently about those subjects. However, all the subjects have a bell-shaped distribution, with the middle points (such as "Neither like nor dislike") attracting a higher concentration of ticks.

Table 8.2.1.1 Student Attitudes toward English Compared with Other School Subjects

Subject:	Number	Dislike very much (%)	Dislike a bit (%)	Neither like nor dislike (%)	Like a bit (%)	Like very much (%)	Mean	SD
Maths	610	3.0	7.5	30.5	38.7	20.3	3.67	0.98
Physics	610	6.6	13.9	28.4	34.6	16.6	3.41	1.12
Chinese	610	3.0	11.1	43.4	32.0	10.5	3.36	0.92
Music	610	3.4	7.0	32.5	34.6	32.5	3.66	1.01
History	610	3.8	11.0	34.8	31.5	19.0	3.51	1.04
English	610	3.8	9.0	33.3	37.9	16.1	3.53	0.99
Chemistry	610	8.5	15.4	37.4	24.6	14.1	3.20	1.13
Biology	610	5.9	13.0	40.8	29.0	11.3	3.27	1.02
P.E.	610	3.8	9.7	25.1	30.3	31.1	3.75	1.11
Computer	610	2.5	3.8	27.2	35.4	31.1	3.89	0.97
Fine arts	610	6.2	10.3	35.9	28.2	19.3	3.44	1.10
Politics	610	12.0	21.0	45.1	16.2	5.2	2.81	1.02
Valid N (listwise)	610							

Chart 8.2.1.1 Student Attitude towards English



In comparison with the pilot study, student attitudes towards the 12 curricular subjects within the main sample appears to be slightly more positive, in that seven subjects – Maths, physics, music, history, English, PE and computer science – had more pupils enjoying them, whilst only five subjects – music, history, English, P. E. and computer science – fared the same in the piloting stage. However, caution is needed since the inclusion of science subjects – Maths and physics – can be caused by the fact that there are more science students in the main study.

With both of the populations, the most popular subjects are music and computer science, having roughly two thirds of the students enjoying them. The least popular subject is politics. A comparison of means from the two samples has also yielded fairly similar patterns, with all of the values, apart from the mean of politics, distributed between value 3 ("Neither like nor dislike") and value 4 ("Like a bit"), indicative of an overall, not-so-positive attitude towards the curricular subjects. The 12 subjects from the two populations have been ranked and compared in the table below.

Table 8.2.1.2 Popularity of 12 Curricular Subjects (Descending and Based on Means)

League	Ranking	Piloting (n = 104)	Main Study (n = 610)
I	1	Computer	Computer
	2	P. E.	P. E.
	3	Music	Maths
	4	Maths	Music
II	5	History	***English***
	6	Fine Arts	History
	7	***English***	Fine Arts
	8	Physics	Physics
III	9	Chinese	Chinese
	10	Chemistry	Biology
	11	Biology	Chemistry
	12	Politics	Politics

The above table indicates that student attitudes towards the 12 curricular subjects are generally stable from the pilot study to the main study, with small differences. For the sake of convenience, the twelve subjects were grouped into three sets, and each set appears to contain exactly the same subjects across the researched samples. The only differences might be that in the top set the ranking of music and Maths in the main study is the inverse of the pilot one, that in the middle set, English has ascended from the seventh to the fifth in rank, making it the most obviously improved subject, and that in the bottom set, chemistry and biology have reversed their position from the pilot study to the main.

In summary, student attitudes towards the 12 curricular subjects are fairly stable in this research study and can not be regarded as very positive. However, the ranking of English, specifically, has been slightly improved, leaving it the fifth most favoured subject in the main study, similar to results from Nishimura *et al.* (2003).

2. Gender differences regarding student attitude towards English

There have been many reports in the West on gendered attitudes towards an L2, often favouring girls (e.g. Colley and Comber, 2003). To examine its relevance to the main sample from Shanghai, the data from the questionnaire survey were subjected to a t-test.

Table 8.2.2.1 T-test on Attitude toward English across Gender

Attitude to English	GENDER	N	Mean	t	*p*
	Male	301	3.3	-5.876	.000
	Female	309	3.8		

As can be seen above, there is a significant gender difference concerning attitudes towards English (t = -5.876, p = 0.000, two-tailed). Girls (mean = 3.8) have a more positive attitude than boys in the main sample (mean = 3.3), which is supported by the main study interview data and the pilot study.

Data on student attitude toward English were also subjected to a Chi-square test for triangulation. The Pearson Chi-square value is 33.2, and the likelihood value is 0.000 (two-tailed), which supports the t-test results. Below is a chart summarising gendered attitudes towards English in Shanghai. Similar results were also yielded in the pilot study.

Chart 8.2.2.1 Attitude towards English across Gender

3. Attitudes towards English – in-depth data from the interviews

The first question of the interviews has focused on student attitudes towards English.

Different from the questionnaires, here focus has been laid on "mapping" student reactions to the word "English", which is often multi-layered, entangled or paradoxical. In addition, their like or dislike of English, the underlying reasons and their brief learning histories have been examined.

Student attitudes toward English as a school subject

58 pupils, out of 64, described their attitudes towards English as a school subject. The most prevailing feeling and perhaps the first reaction (n = 17) is that English is a very important/essential subject across the curriculum for which good performance is expected. They have given a range of reasons, mainly external, to support this attitude: the exam requirements, the career prospects and development, entering a good university, future social competition, communicating with foreigners, business requirements, useful language skills and knowledge, personal cultivation, the study-abroad issue and English as an international language. Unsurprisingly, most of the reasons have been included in the main study questionnaire for why students want to learn English in Shanghai. However, the interview data has permitted a slightly richer, contextualized description, such as in the case of targeting a good university: firstly, every student needs to do well at English because it accounts for 150 credits in the NCEE, and because it has been seen as a subject for which a bit of effort will make much difference; secondly, some students found it greatly important to do well at English because they did not have strength at either Maths or sciences, which made their choice of university very limited. As such, to some students, it is not exaggerating to say that their performance on the English subject would decide what (type of) university to go to and what future they would hold.

The above reasons are illustrative of a strong societal influence, as is acknowledged by the participants, who are exposed to pressure from the outside world, often in the form of TV and other mess-media messages. Above all, the milieu in Shanghai, with much emphasis laid upon EFL, might facilitate learning of English as an important course.

In addition to the above, there are a couple of individual reasons which are not covered by the main questionnaire. One respondent commented that good English skills acquired at class would help her to build a good relationship with other people in the society. It is perhaps a pity that she did not illustrate in detail how English language skills would

permit her to build a good human relation in a society where the first language is still Chinese. There have been comments on how high achievements in the English course have led to a boosted confidence on that subject as well as across the curriculum. One student from a prestigious language school commented that she was motivated to do well on English so as to win glory for her former school. One respondent commented that there had to be a proper reason for English to be included into the curriculum, therefore, it was important to study it well. This type of unquestioning, receptive attitude is not alien to people from Confucius cultural heritage countries. It is also reminiscent of how young Chinese learners are initiated into the schooling process and are ready to do well generally without much thought given to the tasks. A couple of students had illustrated their love for the English language and found that the course had offered them a good chance to learn the language systematically.

It is not surprising that with quite a number of pupils, attitudes towards the English subject and the English language are entangled or overlap. It is because 17 is not an age for high-level critical reflection. In addition, the English language can be an intangible thing to exam-tied, EFL learners in Shanghai. Amongst the participants, a more prevalent and balanced conceptual map of the word "English" has regarded it as a compulsory subject as well as a useful language. For the rest of the sample, the word "English" often means one thing more than the other (course v. s. language).

Several students (n = 5) have illustrated negative attitudes toward the English course. Dislike of the subject can be caused when the pressure from the exams is too high and when students are bored with the exam-oriented, grammar-based learning. In addition, students sometimes found that they had been forced to learn the language ever since the very beginning, and did not have choice about either the learning time or the learning content. This sense of forcedness was found to have very negative influence (also see Bartram, 2006b).

In the interviews, a small number of students (n = 5) have illustrated a matter-of-fact, impersonal attitude toward the English course. It matches their understanding that English is merely/mainly an artificially set subject; there is nothing more or less to it. In addition, occasionally, the respondents have revealed a predominantly extrinsic motivation the sole goal of which is to do well academically: with current high

achievements, there is no need to give English any additional thought.

Ten respondents have illustrated positive attitudes toward the English course, correlated with an interest in English, and often caused by love of the language, experiences abroad and pleasant experiences learning or using English, reminiscent of Ushioda's (2001) motivational dimensions of language-related enjoyment and positive learning history. This group of students has also demonstrated higher awareness of the relation between understanding of the English language and doing well in the English course.

Finally, in the interviews, a couple of students have also talked about the issue of priority: it is felt that decisions can be influenced by student understanding of the importance/status of English (pragmatic consideration is occasionally mixed with consideration of one's cultural identities) plus their self-evaluation of individual strength at study at the current stage.

Student attitudes towards English as a language

The majority of the respondents (n = 52) have commented on their feelings of the English language. A number of students, mainly extrinsically motivated, are in a more nonchalant position and have not developed different understandings of the English language and the English course, either because they do not see the point of going beyond the course requirements, the fulfilling of which are enough for them to do well academically, or because some of them do not have enough knowledge or chances to form more personal attitudes towards English. However, both in the cases of students viewing English merely as a school subject and those viewing English as a living language, a more basic, and more frequently existing, piece of the "mapping" is their understanding of the pragmatic values of English, as mentioned before. Based on this, quite a number of students within this sample have developed a certain form of personal feeling towards the English language; they are mainly impressed by elements of the language or Western cultures and thoughts it represents. Occasionally, the participants have expressed negative feelings caused by varied reasons.

The category of pragmatic values of English has an impressive 36 items. However, what has been presented in that section are mainly comments on the status of English as a

world/global language: the most frequently used words include "lingua franca", "bridge to the world", and "international/world language", perhaps suggesting an international posture (e.g. Dörnyei, 2005) among students in many EFL contexts. It is very well-known that English is important at a personal level for reasons like one's current and future life in Shanghai, job prospects, life abroad and communicating with other people. It is also known to be important at a higher level for international commerce, information flow, inter-group interaction, proper functioning of a society and for a country to be incorporated into the world's practice. In addition, it is valued as a benchmark of civilization in modern societies. As such, it is easy to understand why there has been critique of the current exam-tied English education, failing to meet the need to deal with practical skills as well as the idea of the "World English Identity" (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 97).

Among more personal feelings towards English is a subgroup of positive attitudes. 30 students have expressed their like of English for various reasons: 1) there have been comments on the spoken form of the language – its pronunciation is pleasant to the ear; it is fluent and coherent to read aloud; and American accent is particularly loved by students in Shanghai; 2) there have been comments on the characteristics of English as a linguistic system – it is a very rich, highly expressive, surprisingly flexible yet fairly precise language; many students are clearly impressed by its capacity for expressing layers of meanings within a seemingly straightforward surface structure; 3) there have been comments on pleasure and a sense of freshness one can get in the learning process; 4) there have been more general comments on the attractiveness of the language – it is elegant (reflective of a romanticism existing among Chinese students regarding mainstream Western European cultures and their languages), and it is a language of vitality and warmth; 5) there have been comments that some students like English because of its usefulness, or a sense of satisfaction brought along when they outdo their peers; 6) there have also been comments that L2s are interesting, with similar macro processes but micro differences leading to a sense of wonder and freshness. It has been felt that students with experiences abroad are in a better position to form more sophisticated understanding of English as well as feeling English to be something tangible in life; in the case of the latter, English can be seen as something mysterious and daunting by many Chinese students, but one student's experiences in Australia has de-

mystified such thoughts.

In addition, there has been a separate section for items of integrative tendency. Although the number (n = 6) is not big, it echoes a general understanding that integrative tendency in Shanghai might be more illustrative than in less developed areas of mainland China.

Some students have anchored their feelings by comparing against Chinese or other languages, in terms of difficulty, difference and likeability. They have reached varied conclusions: English can be less liked since it is not our first language; differences between English and Chinese can be found, which is either perceived to facilitate or hinder the learning process; perhaps more helpful to learners, English can be finally found to be no different from Chinese or other languages, all of which are coding systems for communication. Occasionally, there have been negative feelings toward elements of the language, or negative attitudes that are caused because one fails to see the relevance of English to life.

Finally, there has been understanding that it is better not to regard English merely as a subject, so as to facilitate learning, which is also in the mind of the current research student.

Students' like and dislike of English and reasons

Table 8.2.3.1 Summary on Types of Attitudes

Positive attitudes	Neutral attitudes	Negative attitudes	Mixed attitudes	Others	Total
38	18	4	3	1	64
59.4%	28.1%	6.3%	4.7%	1.5%	100%

The number of interview participants reporting to have positive attitudes toward English is high (n = 38, 59.4%). Amongst them, quite a few have very positive attitudes, matching their good achievements. Interestingly, in a couple of cases, despite difficulties in study and low achievements, the students still like English.

The reasons for such positive attitudes can be classified into the following groups: 1) many of the positive attitudes have been based on a fundamental understanding of the importance of English; 2) a number of students have been attracted by the charm of English language itself; 3) some students have been attracted by the ideas expressed

through English – there has been an integrative tendency toward the target cultures, countries and their peoples (e.g. Australia and England), which is strengthened by positive experiences abroad and pleasure felt in real world communication; there has also been love of English and Western (pop) cultural products, such as Western music, English songs, English sense of humour and foreign movies; 4) occasionally, there has been understanding that learning English can bring a totally different world to people imbued in a Chinese culture, thus enriching the learners' life as well as enabling them to think in different ways; 5) sometimes, the respondents have based their positive attitudes on a general interest in humanity courses or a broad like of L2s; 6)also, parents and English teachers have been reported to be the source of such attitudes, mainly through setting examples (including attitudes) and exerting great pressure.

In addition, another major group of reasons for students to have positive attitudes may have something to do with their evaluation of efficacy and task value: some students have viewed themselves to have talent in learning English, which leads to high achievements, and in turn high confidence on English and also across the curriculum; some students have found English learning an easy process and have carefully evaluated their strength across the curriculum in competition; in addition, some students have fallen in love with English because their ability/strength has been recognized by the authorities. Finally, occasionally, the respondents report that they feel happy when they outdo their peers.

18 respondents have reported neutral attitudes toward English: occasionally, the students have expressed an eager desire to learn despite their lukewarm attitudes, and they can also develop different attitudes toward the English language and the English subject. Those who have neutral attitudes toward English have following characteristics: 1) some students have achieved quite highly in the course and have no problem continuing the tendency; as a result, more energy has been spent on other courses due to a strategic way of thinking before the NCEE; 2) many students have reported a high pressure from other subjects; an exam-oriented education is not making learning of English an easier or more interesting case; 3) many of such students have extrinsic motivation, or low motivation feeling themselves forced to learn; 3) some of the students are discouraged by a boring learning process based on memorising things or by difficulty they encounter especially in the upper-secondary school; 4) occasionally, the students

have failed to see the importance of English, relevance of it to their daily life or any possibility to use it in the near future; 5) one student has expressed that s/he has reached a stage difficult to make any progress without massive effort; 6) another student has stated that her interest is on Chinese, whilst EFL learning has interfered with that process.

Four students have reported negative attitudes toward English. The reasons are straightforward – poor educational situation and numerous school requirements; no choice at study; a difficult learning process leading to low scores, lack of confidence or interest. Three students have expressed mixed feelings toward English – their attitudes change with time or they feel differently about different elements of English. Their negative attitudes can be caused by perceived difficulty at study, pressure from other courses and a dull learning process. Finally, one student has stated that s/he has not considered her/his personal feelings regarding English, which is a "luxury" in the exam-oriented setting. This might represent what is thought by a fair number of students in Shanghai.

Learning history

The interview data have yielded similar patterns, as well as individual characters, among the respondents regarding their history of learning, especially in terms of attitude and motivation change. Like in the previous stages of research, some students have reported fluctuation of motivation, corresponding to arguments from a number of articles (e.g. Dörnyei, 2005; Garcia, 1999; Ushioda, 1996; 2001), with the empirical evidence often pointing to a drop-down of motivation intensity over time (e.g. Chambers, 1999; Williams *et al.*, 2002) including the Chinese context (Tachibana *et al.*, 1996). In the current context, with students externally motivated and exam-tied, score changes appear to be a major cause for such fluctuation, often illustrating an inverse ratio between the two variables.

A number of students had found EFL learning a novel and refreshing experience at the beginning, had achieved highly, and had consequently developed a form of interest and positive attitude toward the subject. Within the years to follow, they have continued to achieve highly and kept their interest and motivation level.

Not all the students are as lucky: some of them had formed initial interest, but had

experienced ups and downs in terms of motivation and interest due to mixed reasons, although until the upper secondary level, they have generally had a certain level of interest; some of them had liked English, but had lost interest later when they found the learning process to be boring and to be more difficult, when they experienced more pressure from exams, when they met teachers they did not like, or when they failed to see the relevance of study; still others had failed to like English from the beginning and had never achieved highly or developed positive attitudes toward English. As one student has commented, L2 learning is a tricky business; with one link missing, it is difficult for a student to catch up unless great effort has been exerted.

In the interviews, it is often reported that learning experiences prior to formal EFL instructions can give the learners an advantage in competition. The occasional students grown up in other regions often have a shorter journey of learning and are suffering from frustration at study. In addition, achievements are reported to be closely related to a student's attitudes toward the English subject, and only after a certain degree of accumulation, when one perceives that s/he has made great progress can that person like English for its own sake.

III. Orientations for EFL Learning

In the main questionnaire, question 6, adopting a five-point Likert scale, deals with reasons for EFL learning in Shanghai. The fifteen reasons finally adopted were based on the pilot open-ended survey and survived the testing of other pilot stage studies. The data were subjected to the SPSS (V. 11) Principal Component Analysis for substrates of orientations.

1. Grouping orientations

Table 8.3.1.1 Descriptive Statistics on EFL Learning Orientations

	Number	Strongly disagree (%)	Mildly disagree (%)	Neither agree nor disagree (%)	Mildly agree (%)	Strongly agree (%)	Mean	*SD*
1. It will help me seek employment.	610	1.1	1.5	8.7	36.7	52.0	4.37	0.80
2. Learning English is fun.	610	7.4	13.0	35.7	28.4	15.6	3.32	1.11
3. In the future, English will be even more important.	609	3.3	2.6	8.7	29.9	55.5	4.32	0.97
4. My parents want me to do well in English.	609	6.1	10.2	28.2	30.5	25.0	3.58	1.15
5. I have a desire to communicate with foreigners and make foreign friends	610	2.1	6.4	33.3	31.8	26.4	3.74	0.99
6. I like English songs, movies, magazines, novels, etc.	610	2.3	7.5	24.6	34.3	31.3	3.85	1.03
7. It is a course requirement and a subject in the NCEE.	610	2.3	3.9	12.5	28.9	52.5	4.25	0.98
8. It will help my future career development.	610	8	2.0	8.0	34.8	54.6	4.40	0.79
9. I am good at English.	610	13.3	19.7	43.4	15.9	7.7	2.85	1.08
10. I can use it when travelling abroad.	610	3.0	5.2	24.6	38.9	28.4	3.84	0.99
11. I want to marry a foreigner.	610	28.7	20.2	38.0	6.6	6.6	2.42	1.16
12. English is useful for living in Shanghai today.	610	2.1	6.7	18.9	39.8	32.5	3.94	0.99
13. English is an	610	1.1	1.0	9.7	34.9	53.3	4.38	0.79

international language.							
14. A knowledge of two languages will make me a more cultivated person.	610	2.8	4.3	18.4	32.6	47.0	4.07	1.01
15. I want to go to an English speaking country (e.g. U.S.A., Australia, Canada, U.K.)	610	5.1	7.9	32.1	27.5	27.4	3.64	1.11

As is shown above, the responding rate for this question is very high, with merely one missing data in the cases of reasons 3 and 4. The 15 reasons show different distributions in terms of percentage. With respect to means, those that have a value higher than 4 ("Slightly agree") include reasons 1, 3, 7, 8, 13 and 14. It can be stated that career aspects and the importance of English as an international language are still very much at the core of a student's thinking. In contrast, reasons 9 and 11 were not very popular. To some extent, it reflects that this population of Chinese students did not have a high self-efficacy regarding EFL learning. The case with reason 11 needs to be read with caution. Anecdotal evidence illustrated that some participants thought it inappropriate to express their wish to marry a foreigner.

The Principal Component Analysis yielded interesting results. Below are tables for the key stages of analysis.

Table 8.3.1.2 KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.857
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2834.181
	df	105
	Sig.	.000

Table 8.3.1.3 Initial Eigenvalues

Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.951	33.004	33.004
2	1.727	11.515	44.518
3	1.230	8.197	52.716

Table 8.3.1.4 Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings

Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
3.668	24.453	24.453
2.710	18.064	42.517
1.530	10.199	52.716

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Diagram 8.3.1.1

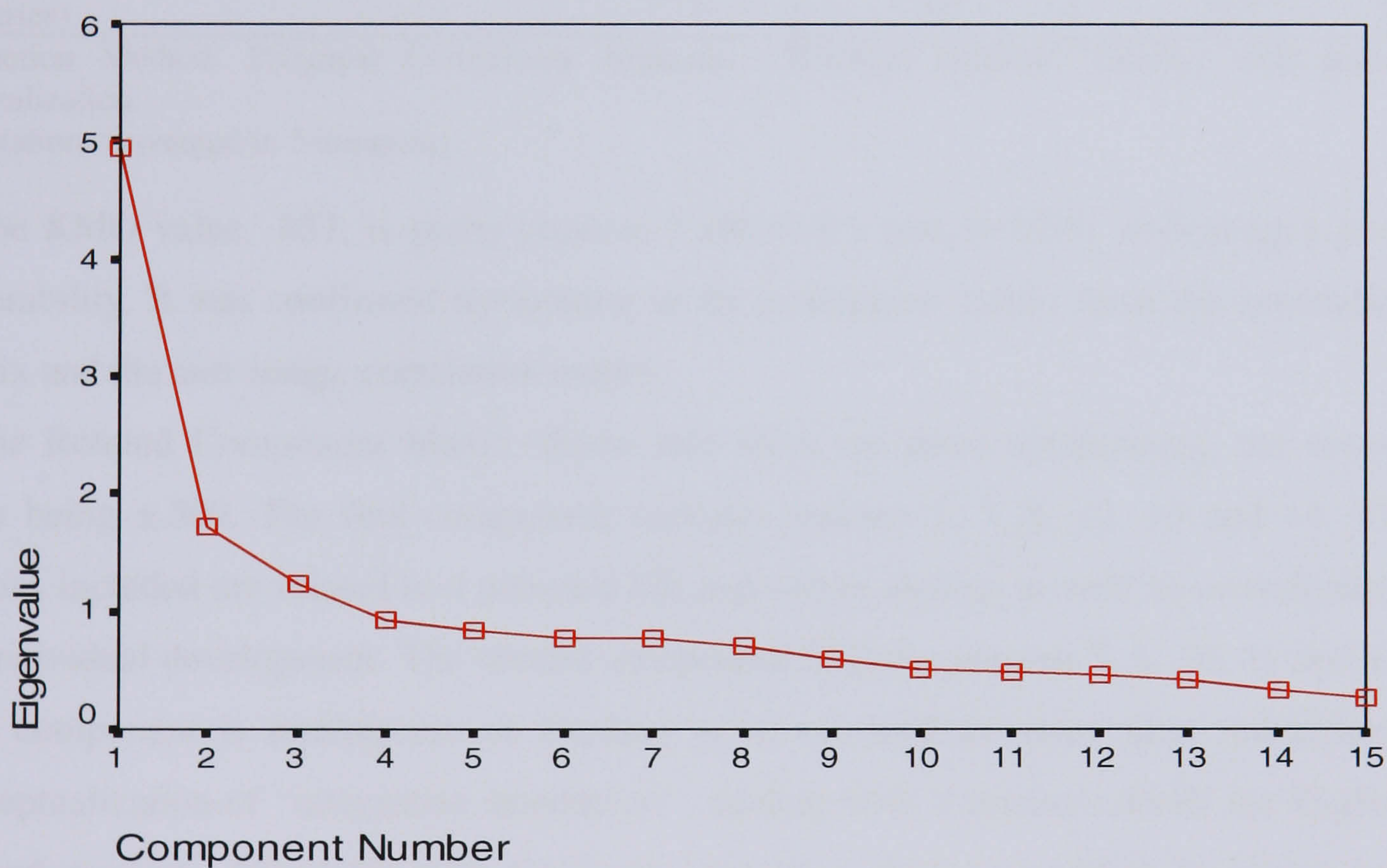


Table 8.3.1.5 Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component		
	1	2	3
Reason 01(career)	.749	.000	.129
Reason 02(English fun)	.448	.413	-.504
Reason 03(future importance)	.740	.000	.000
Reason 04 (parents' wish)	.000	.133	.685
Reason 05(friendship)	.239	.732	-.145
Reason 06(like English cultural products)	.000	.740	.000
Reason 07(a course, also for NCEE)	.159	.000	.663
Reason 08(future career development)	.780	.145	.146
Reason 09(good at English)	.352	.407	-.493
Reason 10(travel)	.255	.671	.000
Reason 11(marriage with foreigners)	.000	.535	.219
Reason 12(living in Shanghai)	.616	.272	.000
Reason 13(international lang.)	.631	.242	.000
Reason 14(a more cultivated person)	.740	.256	.000
Reason 15(going to English speaking countries)	.379	.555	.000

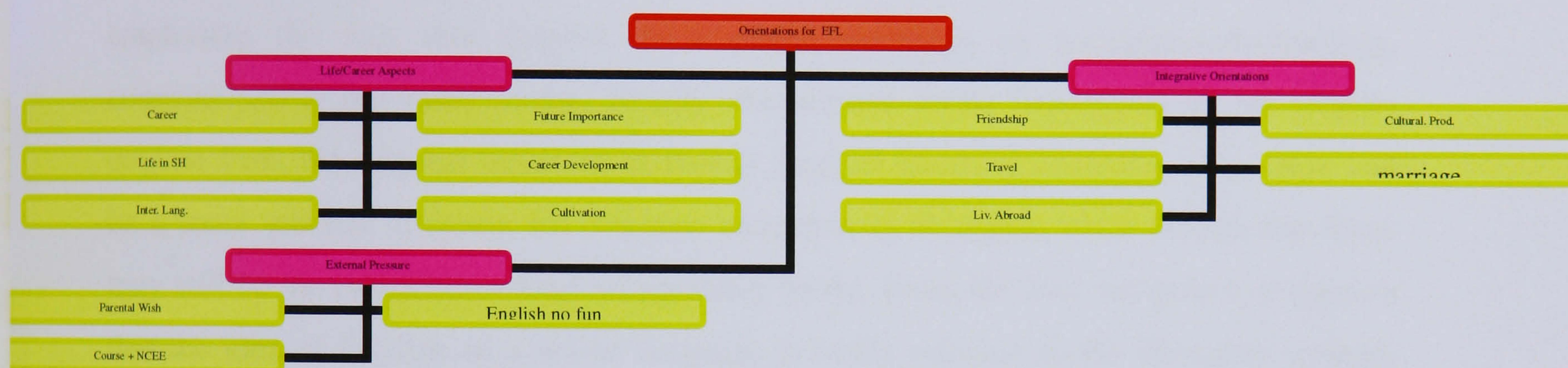
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

The KMO value, .857, is pretty close to 1 (Bartlett's test, $p<0.05$), indicating a good factorability. It was confirmed by looking at the correlation values from the correlation matrix and the anti-image correlation matrix.

The Rotated Component Matrix shows that there are three components, the cut-off point being ±.500. The first component includes reasons 1, 3, 8, 12, 13 and 14. The reasons included are related to a person's life and career aspects as well as consideration for individual development. The second component includes reasons 5, 6, 10, 11 and 15. This component is reminiscent of Gardner *et al.* as well as many later researchers' conceptualization of "integrative orientation", dealing with a person's desire for English cultural products, friendship with foreigners, traveling abroad, marrying foreigners and going to English speaking countries (see discussion below). The third component includes reasons 4 (parental wish) and 7 (course and exam requirements), indicating a strong taint of external pressure or coercion. It is also negatively correlated to reason 2 (English learning is fun), which has obvious, positive loadings on both components 1 and 2, too. It could be assumed that those who learned English mainly out of external pressure/coercion often did not have fun in learning. Reason 9 (good at English) was not included. It has obvious loadings on both components 1 and 2, and a near cut-off point,

negative loading on the third component. There might be some correlation between reasons 2 and 9 according to the above loading pattern (Pearson's $r = 0.61$, significant at the .01 level).

In comparison with the tentative results in the piloting, the construction of the components in the main study is clearer, due to a more adequate sample and the tidied reasons. Below is a thematic graph of the orientation constructions discovered in the main study.



2. Other reasons to learn – qualitative data from the main questionnaire

Question 7 is open-ended, so as to collect additional reasons for EFL learning. Altogether, 205 (out of 610) students responded in an understandable way, leaving 224 reasons. However, a number of them are identical in wording to the pre-planned orientations in question 6; apparently, many students have taken the opportunity to restate what might be the most important to them.

There are altogether 105 statements that are identical to the researched orientations, apart from the reason of marrying a foreigner; the number of reasons fitting each category ranges from 1 to 22. Here, there are a couple of things that deserve to be mentioned. Firstly, the 18 reasons that fall into the category of "English learning is fun", in fact, tell a slightly broader story: the reasons have included a person's interest in English itself, one's like of aspects of the language, fun one may feel in the learning process and even an individual's general like of foreign languages. These have given a richer taste of what

intrinsic reasons might be there to motivate students in Shanghai.

Secondly, the reasons thought to match orientation 6, "I like English songs, movies, magazines, novels, etc.", have reflected an individual's love of English cultural products only; there are a number of reasons, though similar in wording, which are excluded, since their focus is also on English as a medium of knowledge/information. An example might be "It can make me know more about English speaking countries. I like these countries very much" (Student 18), where an instrumental orientation is combined with an integrative tendency.

Thirdly, those placed under the title of "English as an international language" emphasize the fact that English is a global language of information/technology, communication and mass media. Finally, the reasons under orientation 15 are slightly deviant from the original intent of including English speaking countries only: there can be a more general affection for Western countries in Shanghai, even though the focus may still be the mainstream English speaking world. From the last two points, it appears that the idea of English as a world language is really relevant to the Shanghai context, making Dörnyei's (2005) suggestion fascinating: given the global status of English, it is reasonable to expect a two-tiered approach to L2 motivation, focusing on world-language-learning and non-world-language learning separately.

In sum, the above 105 statements have added some flesh to the bones of the original 15 statements

In addition to the above, there are an additional 119 reasons, falling into 19 categories and reflecting varied tendencies. Below is a summary table.

Table 8.3.2.1 Summary of Additional Reasons for Learning English as a Foreign Language

Reasons	Tendency
• 10. Desire to Learn a Foreign Language (N = 2) • 16. Curiosity for Knowledge (N = 1) • 14. A Sense of Self (N = 8)	Towards the intrinsic tendency
• 8. English as a Medium to the World's Cultures, Customs and History (N = 23) (Partly integrative; partly instrumental) • 15. Adoption of Foreign Life Styles (N = 1) (Integrative)	Integrative and instrumental
• 2. Development of Language Abilities (N = 5) • 7. Possibility of Different Ways of Thinking Imbedded in English (N = 3) • 12. Personal/Intellectual Development (N = 22)	Instrumental, focusing on the language system itself
• 1. Broad Usefulness of English/Foreign Languages (N = 9) • 4. For the Sake of Learning Other Languages (N = 4) • 11. English as a Medium Language in the Computer World (N = 16) • 13. For a Better Life (N = 4) • 18. Cultural Exchange (N = 1)	Instrumental, treating English clearly as a means to an end
• 3.The Influence of English Teachers (N = 2) • 5. Learning English is Fashionable/Cool (N = 6) • 9. For University/College Studies (N = 2) • 17. Following the Crowd (N = 1)	Towards short-term instrumental and external reasons
• 19. Mixed (N = 4)	Difficult to decide (perhaps instrumental plus external)
• 6. Achievement Motivation among Chinese Learners (N = 5)	Achievement motivation

From the above, it is clear that most of the additional reasons are very small in number. The only three categories worthy of attention are: 8), English as a Medium to the World's Cultures, Customs and History (N = 23); 11), English as a Medium Language in the Computer World (N = 16); 12), Personal/Intellectual Development (N = 22).

It is very interesting to find that in many cases, an appreciation of cultures from English speaking countries has been broadened to a general interest in the current world. In the case of the former, this integrative tendency is perhaps more tangibly and specifically expressed through the students' love of English (pop) cultural products, as indicated in reason 6; whilst in the case of an appreciation of cultures, customs and histories outside the English world, English serves as an instrument. Therefore, it is

thought that perhaps the statement of "English is an international language" has partly covered this sense as well, which is also the case with the reason of "English as a Medium Language in the Computer World". In addition, the number of "English as a Medium Language in the Computer World" is extremely skewed with data from one specific school (from boys basically).

The reason of personal/intellectual development is actually not covered in the original 15 reasons, but the individual reasons included in this category are diversified and thus difficult to word. In addition, this category is not felt to be on the mind of the majority. However, a good thing with this question is that instrumental tendencies focusing on the language system itself are found – a small number of students have obviously realised the relation between a language, the culture it stands for and the way of thinking embedded in it.

Finally, a small number of students (n = 5) have expressed their dislike of English and why they hold such an attitude. Apparently, they have no interest in English. There is also a hint of superiority of Chinese as the national language.

> "I do not want to learn English. If the people in China (1.3 billion) can save the time for EFL learning, and enhance the research on Chinese and spread the language instead, it would have become the world's most influential language long ago." (Student 135)

In summary, about half of the statements responding to question 7 are mainly restatements of the researched orientations; with the other half, a fair number overlap those orientations, and the rest are highly individual and small in number. It might indicate that the 15 orientations in question 6 are fairly representative of the reasons for EFL learning in Shanghai. However, the statements in question 7 are a good support of the previous question, with more contextualized description and more nuances included. In addition, it is interesting to see that different tendencies often exist within one individual and the grouping of reasons into "extrinsic – intrinsic" or "instrumental, integrative and intrinsic", whilst useful, has its problems, since the categories appear to overlap, at least in EFL contexts where English is more associated to a global identity than to a specific community. To solve the above issue of concept overlapping, Kimura *et al.*, (2001), for example, have talked about an "Intrinsic-Instrumental-Integrative Motive" (cited in Dörnyei, 2005, p. 97).

Data from the interviews on orientations/sources of motivation has presented a similar story: there has been an agreement on the status of English in the NCEE and for the present and future life in Shanghai; high prior/current achievements are an important reason to boost one's level of confidence and motivation; some students assess that comparatively little effort will be needed to reach a high level of proficiency from their current stage; there has been great pressure from the society, which regards EFL learning as fashionable and respects such learners; there has been great pressure from important others as a direct reflection of the society – negative examples of parental failure with little EFL skills at work or in life have been taken as impetus to learn, for instance (Bartram, 2006a); a number of the participants have illustrated strong achievement motivation; learning has become a habit for some students. In short, the participants have listed a wide range of extrinsic reasons, which are mixed with occasional, integrative and intrinsic orientations.

3. Gender differences regarding orientations to learn

Quantitative data on orientations to learn have also been yielded to t-tests for possible gender differences. The results have been presented below.

Table 8.3.2.1 T-tests on Orientations for EFL Learning across Gender

	Boys	Girls	t	*p* (two-tailed)
Reason 01(career)	4.2	4.5	-4.872	.000
Reason 02(English fun)	3.0	3.6	-7.104	.000
Reason 03(future importance)	4.1	4.5	-5.204	.000
Reason 04 (parents' wish)	3.5	3.7	-2.084	.038*
Reason 05(friendship)	3.5	3.9	-5.493	.000
Reason 06(like English cultural products)	3.6	4.1	-6.912	.000
Reason 07(course/exam requirements)	4.2	4.3	-2.412	.016*
Reason 08(future career development)	4.2	4.6	-5.749	.000
Reason 09(good at English)	2.7	3.0	-4.484	.000
Reason 10(travel)	3.6	4.0	-5.183	.000
Reason 11(marriage with foreigners)	2.3	2.5	-2.727	.007**
Reason 12(living in Shanghai)	3.7	4.2	-7.021	.000
Reason 13(international lang.)	4.2	4.6	-5.658	.000
Reason 14(a more cultivated person)	3.8	4.3	-6.741	.000
Reason 15(going to English speaking countries)	3.3	4.0	-8.139	.000
Total	301	309		

Reasons 3 and 4 each had one missing data from the group of boys. The above table first presented and compared means of the two groups. It is felt that gender differences, translated into means, is more obvious concerning intrinsic, integrative (apart from the reason of marrying foreigners) and higher order external reasons. The difference is slight with respect to reasons of parental wish and course/exam requirements.

T-test results show that there is statistically significant gender difference regarding all of the above reasons, though at various levels: *p* values for reasons 4 (parental wish) and 7 (course/exam requirements) are significant at the level of 0.05, reason 11 (marriage) is significant at the level of 0.01, and the rest are significant at the level of 0.001.

Gendered orientations for EFL learning were subjected to factor analysis, which yielded slightly different patterns from the main sample. There is no gender difference concerning the first group of orientations (career/life aspects). With regard to integrative orientations: the reason of marrying foreigners is missing from the group of girls, and the orientation of going to English-speaking countries is missing from the group of boys,

comparing with the main sample. This gender difference, contrary to my hypothesis, is interesting. As for external coercion/pressure, the female subsample has one more component than the main – "Not good at English", while the male subsample has one fewer component than the main – "English is not fun". It may suggest that girls mainly pushed by external pressure might be more liable to feel no fun or have a low self-efficacy at study.

4. Correlations between attitude toward English, orientations to learn and overall level of motivation

A correlation test was run to examine the relation between student attitudes towards English and orientations to learn within the main population, using Pearson's *r*. All the orientations, apart from parental wish and course/exam requirements, have positive, statistically significant (mainly at the level of .01) but generally weak correlation with student attitudes. The more positive the attitudes, the more likely the students will report fun at learning (.700) or will have a high efficacy (.627), which is also the case, though at a less degree, with the orientations of future importance of English (.339) and friendship (.300). In addition, it appears that the more positive the attitudes, the less likely those students will be motivated by external reasons of parental wish and course/exam requirements, even though the negative correlation coefficients are small.

The correlation test on orientations and overall motivation level (mainly significant at the level of .01) has yielded the following results: again, the higher one's level of motivation, the less likely for that student to report being motivated by parental or course pressure (although the negative value is slight); the higher one's level of motivation, the more likely for the student to report a perceived high efficacy (.541), the intrinsic reason of having fun at study (.453) or the reason of friendship (.324), the cut-off point being .300 once more.

IV. Learning Behaviour and Overall Level of Motivation

1. Learning behaviour

Indicators of learning behaviour

Question 8, adopting a five-point Likert scale, collects reports on how much effort the

participants spent on English after school, how they prioritized their learning, how persistent they would be at learning in the future, how much general effort they made on learning and how strong a desire they had for EFL study.

Table 8.4.1.1 Percentage, Means and *SD*s of Learning Behaviour

	Number	Strongly disagree (%)	Mildly disagree (%)	Neither agree nor disagree (%)	Mildly agree (%)	Strongly agree (%)	Mean	*SD*
1. Outside of class, I make an effort to learn English.	**610**	**6.6**	**11.8**	**39.2**	**35.4**	**7.0**	**3.25**	**0.98**
2. Learning English is a high priority for me at this point.	**610**	**2.0**	**5.9**	**20.3**	**41.5**	**30.3**	**3.92**	**0.96**
3. If possible, I would like to continue to study English after I have finished my formal education (including university education, etc.)	**610**	**4.6**	**7.9**	**28.9**	**33.4**	**25.2**	**3.67**	**1.08**
4. Realistically speaking, I do try very hard to learn English.	**610**	**7.5**	**18.2**	**44.6**	**24.9**	**4.8**	**3.01**	**0.96**
5. I have a great desire to learn English.	**610**	**7.0**	**12.8**	**35.4**	**27.5**	**17.2**	**3.35**	**1.12**

Question 8 has no data missing. From the above, the means of the five indicators all have a value between "Neither agree nor disagree" and "Mildly agree". In addition, the mean of "prioritization of EFL study" is comparatively the highest, perhaps reflecting the great pressure the coming NCEE had on the researched sample; following it are indicators of retention/persistence and desire to learn. The interesting thing about pressure, from the interview data, is that it appears to have drastically different influences on different people – it has prevented some students to exert more effort, but has led to a higher motivation in other cases; there are a number of students that appear to thrive on pressure in China. Another interesting point is that both of the effort indicators have a comparatively low mean; there are a couple of possibilities: firstly, this group of learners have understated their effort spent at study; secondly, this is reflective of a keen desire among the respondents to spend more time on English, the failing of which is due to high pressure from other subjects, which is supported by the interview data; thirdly, there could still be gap between the internalized beliefs, such as the importance of English, and the basically extrinsic types of motivation. Finally, data from the interviews suggests that

having a desire to learn does not equal having a level of motivation: the only student reporting no EFL motivation has paradoxically illustrated a clear understanding of the importance of English as well as a desire to study.

Gender difference on learning behaviour

Table 8.4.1.2 T-test on Learning Behaviour across Gender

	Boys	Girls	t	*P* (two-tailed)
1. Effort outside of class	3.10	3.39	-3.680	.000***
2. Prioritization	3.86	3.99	-1.677	.094
3. Persistence/ Retention	3.41	3.92	-6.048	.000***
4. General level of effort	2.90	3.12	-2.834	.005**
5. Desire	3.09	3.61	-5.918	.000***

The above t-test on learning behaviour illustrates that there is statistically significant gender difference regarding all of the above indicators, apart from "prioritization of English study", at the level of .01 or .001. Basically, girls perceive themselves as taking more effort, being more persistent and having a greater desire for English study, in line with findings from the West.

Correlations between student attitude, learning orientations and learning behaviour

Table 8.4.1.3 Correlations between Student Attitude toward English and Learning Behaviour

		Attitude to English	Effort outside of Class	Prioritization	Persistence/ Retention	General Level of Effort	Desire
Attitude to English	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	1 . 610	.351** .000 610	-.019 .642 610	.456** .000 610	.348** .000 610	.523** .000 610

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Presented above is part of the correlation matrix between student attitudes towards English and their self-assessed learning behaviour. Almost all the behaviour indicators are significantly correlated to student attitudes toward English, at the .01 level. It is found that the better one's attitude, the more likely that participant is to report a strong desire to study, closely followed by the case of learning retention, still followed by both of the effort indicators which have coefficients above the cut-off point of .300.The only

indicator, not statistically correlated to attitudes, is one's prioritization of English learning. It can be the case that external pressure (e.g. the NCEE) is more decisive regarding prioritization of study in an exam-oriented setting, which is supported by a correlation test between student orientations to learn and their learning behaviour. Though still not strong, the correlation between the reason of course/exam requirements and prioritization of English study is statistically significant (at the level of .01), which is the strongest within this category (Course/Exam requirements * Prioritization, as is shown below).

Table 8.4.1.4 Summary Table on the Correlations between Orientations to Learn and Learning Behaviour (≥ ± .300)

	Learning Behaviour				
Orientations for Learning	Effort outside of school	Prioritization	Retention	General effort	Desire to learn
1. Seeking employment					
2. English is fun.	.372**		.497**	.375**	.571**
3. Future importance of English			.359**		.358**
4. Parental wish					
5. Friendship			.377**		.455**
6. Love for English cultural products			.325**		.319**
7. Course/Exam requirements		.304**			
8. Career development	.316**	.318**	.343**		.350**
9. Good at English	.412**		.436**	.432**	.482**
10. Travel					.351**
11. Marriage with foreigners					
12. Living in Shanghai	.309**		.332**		.363**
13. International language			.339**		.341**
14. Cultivation	.307**		.402**		.415**
15. Going to English-speaking countries			.350**		.331**

(** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

From the above, regarding "effort outside of class", the higher one perceives her/his self-efficacy, the more likely that participant is to report taking extra effort at study, which is followed by the orientation of having fun at study, and still by reasons of career development, life in Shanghai and personal cultivation. "Prioritization of English study" is only significantly correlated, above the cut-off point, to reasons of career development and course/exam development; it is not correlated to the intrinsic reason, the reason of self-efficacy or some of the integrative reasons. "Retention" is significantly correlated to almost all the reasons apart from "course/exam requirements" and "parental wish"; the coefficient in the case of "travel" is lower than .300. The coefficients between "retention"

and the reasons of fun at study, high self-efficacy and self-cultivation are especially high, followed by some integrative tendencies. In the case of "General effort", the higher the perceived efficacy and the more fun one reports at study, the more likely for that person to report taking effort at study in general; it is not significantly correlated to reasons of "parental wish" or "course/exam requirements". "Desire to learn" is significantly related to almost all the orientations, above the cut-off points, apart from "parental wish" and "course/exam requirements"; the coefficients are especially high in the cases of "fun at study', high self-efficacy, friendship and personal cultivation.

In summary, it is evident that intrinsic reasons and a high self-efficacy have a comparatively stronger correlation to learning behaviours apart from prioritization, where more immediate reasons and pressure dictate; some instrumental reasons also contribute to one's level of effort, desire and retention. In comparison, integrative reasons do not have obvious correlation to one's level of effort in Shanghai; instead they are fairly good indicators of that person's level of desire and persistence, which could be reflexive of the indirect impact of integrativeness on student learning in some EFL contexts.

2. Overall level of motivation

Question 9, using a six-point Likert scale, records student self-assessment of his/her overall level of motivation for EFL.

Overall level of motivation

Table 8.4.2.1 Overall Strength of Motivation from the Main Questionnaire Survey

		Valid Percent (%)
Overall Strength of Motivation	Very high	4.4
	Fairly high	28.4
	Medium	46.7
	Fairly low	15.6
	Very low	4.1
	None at all	0.8
	Valid N	610
	Mean	4.11
	SD	.92

There is no data missing within question 9, and the mean motivational strength for the main study sample (n =610) is 4.11, slightly above the level of "medium". The standard

deviation is .92. This amount is not comparable with that of the pilot sample, as changes have been introduced in measurement.

The interview participants were also asked to describe their level of motivation. Below is a table summarising the results:

Table 8.4.2.2 Level of Motivation from the Main Interviews

Range	Level	Subtotal (percentage)
Strong (n = 52)	very high (14)	81.3%
	high (5)	
	quite high (16)	
	fairly high (17)	
Medium – above average (n = 8)	above average (1)	12.5%
	medium – above average (7)	
None – weak (n = 4)	not high (1)	6.3%
	low (1)	
	very low (1)	
	none (1)	
Total (n = 64)		100%

From the above, it is evident that the interview group has reported a higher overall level of motivation than the questionnaire sample: the majority of the students (n = 52) has reported a strong or fairly strong EFL motivation; about one tenth of them have reported a roughly medium-level motivation; only four people have reported weak or no motivation (6.3%).

About two thirds of the interview participants (n = 43) have described how much extra time they spent on English after finishing their assignments, which has generally matched their reported level of motivation. However, the relation between types of motivation and additional time spent on study (quantity) is not always straightforward: despite reports that intrinsically motivated students are willing to make time for development of their interest (such as in the case of getting up half an hour earlier than usual to learn English), highly externally motivated students could also spend up to 2 hours additionally on a daily base. Again, the impression is that differences might be greater in the qualitative factors of retention and the ability/strategies to self motivate – it is felt that intrinsically motivated students are in a better position regarding the above. Time spent additionally varies according to motivation level, personal understanding of how much strength they

have on English, what one's current scores are, how much pressure that person has from other subjects, as well as transient reasons like how s/he feels on a certain day. More typically, students from the interview sample spend half an hour to one hour additionally on English, whilst some choose to have more work done at weekends.

The interview participants have listed a range of activities they engage in outside of class, including going to cram or improvement classes. The impression is that students tend to take different types of activities across motivation type and level: more externally stimulated students with lower levels of motivation tend to focus more on activities leading to better scores, which can be seen as an extension of their classroom study; more internally motivated students tend to take a broader range of activities as well as have more confidence or desire to pursue their hobbies through the use of English.

Gender difference on strength of motivation

Table 8.4.2.3 T-test on the Overall Strength of Motivation across Gender

	GENDER	N	Mean	t	*p*
Overall strength of motivation	Male	301	3.98	-3.566	.000
	Female	309	4.24		

The above t-test on overall strength of motivation identifies gender difference (t = -3.566, *p* = .000, two-tailed). Girls (mean = 4.24) reported a higher level of motivation than boys (mean = 3.98).

Correlation between attitudes to English, learning behaviour and overall level of motivation

The correlation test between attitudes to English and overall level of motivation is statistically significant at the level of .01; the correlation coefficient is .474. The correlation between the two variables is roughly medium-level.

Table 8.4.2.4 Correlations between the Overall Strength of Motivation and Learning Behaviour

		Effort outside of Class	Prioritization	Persistence/ Retention	General Level of Effort	Desire
Overall strength of motivation	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.465** .000 610	.116** .004 610	.370** .000 610	.460** .000 610	.450** .000 610

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

From the above, all the five behavioural indicators are significantly correlated to the overall level of motivation at the level of .01: the higher the reported level of motivation, the more likely for that student to report taking effort outside of class or at a general level and to report a high desire for study; it is followed by the case of retention; whilst the correlation between prioritization and motivation level is not so obvious.

V. Student Self-regulatory Styles

1. Student self-regulatory styles

Question 10, adopting a four-point Likert scale, explores student self-regulatory styles. The respond rate is very good, with merely one data missing in the cases of statements 3 and 4 respectively (n = 608). From the summary table below, it can be stated that the most prevalent regulatory styles within the main study sample are firstly external regulation and secondly identified regulation, as is translated by percentage and mean.

Table 8.5.1.1 Student Self-regulatory Styles from the Main Questionnaire Survey

	N	Not true at all (%)	Not very true (%)	Slightly true (%)	Very true (%)	Mean	*SD*
1. Learning English is not important at all. There is no need to put in any effort.	610	70.3	27.2	1.6	0.8	1.33	.55
2. Pupils should learn English because it will be good for their future life and job prospects.	610	1.1	3.9	35.7	59.2	3.53	.63
3. Nowadays, a person would lose face if s/he could not speak English.	609	11.0	39.2	30.7	19.0	2.58	.92
4. Learning an additional language will be good for a pupil's intellectual development.	609	2.5	8.7	44.5	44.3	3.31	.73
5. Learning English is an interesting and rewarding process.	610	6.4	21.0	47.5	25.1	2.91	.84

In the interviews, the participants' types of motivation have also been researched, based upon information on orientations/sources of motivation. Below is a summary table.

Table 8.4.1.2 Types of Motivation from the Main Interview Sample

Type of motivation	Number	Percentage
External	22	44.9%
Intrinsic	15	30.6%
Intrinsic and extrinsic mixed	10	20.4%
Integrative and extrinsic mixed	2	4.1%
Total	64	100%

As can be seen, 22 students (44.9%) are externally motivated; about one third of the students (n = 15, 30.6%) were internally motivated; another one fourth of students (n = 2, 4.1%) are motivated by mixed motives. Like the questionnaire sample, the prevalent type of motivation discovered in the interviews is still external. However, in comparison with the questionnaire data, the number of internally motivated students might be higher. The interesting thing with the interview data is that the in-depth data collected has allowed the research student to see patterns of mixed types of motivation existing in individual cases.

2. Gender difference on student self-regulatory styles

Table 8.4.2.1 T-test on Self-regulatory Styles across Gender

	Boys	Girls	t	*p*
1. Learning English is not important at all. There is no need to put in any effort.	1.41	1.25	3.675	.000***
2. Pupils should learn English because it will be good for their future life and job prospects.	3.41	3.64	-4.611	.000***
3. Nowadays, a person would lose face if s/he could not speak English.	2.49	2.66	-2.242	.025*
4. Learning an additional language will be good for a pupil's intellectual development.	3.19	3.43	-4.086	.000***
5. Learning English is an interesting and rewarding process.	2.72	3.10	-5.799	.000***

The above t-test is indicative of statistically significant gender differences regarding student regulatory styles at the level of .05 or .001. Girls responded more positively towards all of the above statements.

3. Correlations between attitudes towards English, overall level of motivation, learning behaviour, orientations to learn and student regulatory styles

Table 8.4.3.1 Correlations between Attitudes toward English and Self-regulatory Styles

		Amotivation	External Regulation	Introjected Regulation	Identified Regulation	Intrinsic Regulation
Attitude to English	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	-.315** .000 610	.156** .000 610	.041 .311 609	.280** .000 609	.572** .000 610

(** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).)

The above table indicates that, apart from introjected regulation, amotivation, external regulation, identified regulation and intrinsic regulation have a weak to medium-sized correlation to student attitudes towards English, statistically significant at the level of .01.

The more positive one's attitudes towards English, the more likely that student will report having intrinsic regulation (.572), and the less likely s/he will report having amotivation, though at a less degree (-.315), the cut-off point being .300.

Table 8.4.3.2 Correlations between the Overall Strength of Motivation and Self-regulatory Styles

		Amotivation	External Regulation	Introjected Regulation	Identified Regulation	Intrinsic Regulation
Overall strength of motivation	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	-.302** .000 610	.163** .000 610	.057 .160 609	.175** .000 609	.392** .000 610

(* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).)

The above table demonstrates that there are small but statistically significant correlations between all student regulatory styles, apart from introjected regulation, and one's overall strength of motivation, at the level of .01. It appears that the higher one's overall level of motivation, the more likely s/he will report to have intrinsic regulation (.392) and the less likely s/he will state having amotivation (-.302), the cut-off point being .300. Such a test is not sensitive to varied, extrinsic types of motivation.

Table 8.4.3.3 Summary on Correlations between Learning Behaviour and Self-regulatory Styles (≥ ± .300)

	Effort outside of School	Prioritization	Persistence/ Retention	General Level of Effort	Desire
Amotivation	-.361**		-.328**		-.388**
External regulation					
Introjected regulation					
Identified regulation			.319**		.330**
Intrinsic motivation	.351**		.478**	.356**	.560**

(** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).)

The correlations between student self-regulatory styles and one's learning behaviour

are mainly below the cut-off point of .300, but significant, at the level of .01.

In summary, it may be concluded that amotivation has a negative correlation with one's desire to learn, the amount of extra effort s/he intends to take and how persistent that person will be at study. It does not seem to have connection with the general level of effort one is to exert or how s/he prioritizes English study. Identified regulation appears to be a good indicator of retention and desire to learn; whilst intrinsic motivation might be a strong indicator of all of one's learning behaviour, apart from prioritization. Prioritization, on the contrary, is more obviously correlated to external regulation only (.291**). The above results are seen as generally in line with the SDT perspective.

Table 8.4.3.4 Summary on Orientations and Regulatory Styles (≥ ± .300)

	Amotivation	External regulation	Introjected regulation	Identified regulation	Intrinsic motivation
1. Seeking employment		.389**			
2. English learning is fun.				.357**	.706**
3. Future importance of English	-.331**	.392**			.337**
4. Parents' wish					
5. Friendship					.424**
6. Love for English cultural products					
7. Course/exam requirements					
8. Future career development	-.347**	.443**			
9. Good at English					.534**
10. Travel					.308**
11. Marriage with foreigners					
12. Living in Shanghai		.323**			.300**
13. English as an international lang.		.318**		.320**	.308**
14. Self-cultivation	-.326**	.387**		.412**	.406**
15. Going to English-speaking countries					.304**
16. English learning is no fun.				-.357	-.706
17. Not good at English					-.534

(** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Statements 16 and 17 are negatively worded from reasons 2 and 9, forming part of the Substrate of External Pressures/Coersion)

From the above, all of the original 15 learning orientations have negative correlation with amotivation: among them, students having amotivation are less likely to report reasons of future importance of English, future career development, and self-cultivation. Students with external regulation are more likely to report reasons of seeking employment, the future importance of English, future career development, living in Shanghai, English as an international language and self-cultivation. Introjected regulation does not have any correlation with the reasons above the value of .300, but the reasons of course/exam requirements, the future importance of English and self-cultivation have the highest coefficients comparatively. Students with identified regulation are more likely to report reasons of "English is fun", English as an international language and self-cultivation. Intrinsic motivation has a fairly high correlation with the intrinsic reason, has a medium-sized correlation with a high sense of self-efficacy, and has obvious correlation with mixed integrative and instrumental reasons.

In sum, it seems that amotivation has a most obvious negative correlation with some reasons from the instrumental orientation (the substrate of life/career aspects in this study); external regulation has a most obvious positive correlation with the whole load of instrumental reasons; introjected regulation, comparatively, has a most obvious correlation with some instrumental and external reasons (parental wish and course/exam requirements); identified regulation has a most obvious correlation with the intrinsic reason and a couple of instrumental reasons; and intrinsic motivation has a most obvious correlation with the intrinsic reason, a high sense of self-efficacy as well as mixed integrative and instrumental reasons.

The above results support Noels *et al.* (e.g. Noels, 2001) that the integrative orientation (friendship, travel and going to English-speaking countries from the current project) is most strongly correlated with more self-determined forms of motivation (intrinsic regulation in the current study). The case with instrumental reasons perhaps is also broadly in line with those authors' discovery: the life/career component from this study had all its reasons significantly correlated to external regulation; nevertheless, it also had reasons obviously associated to amotivation (negative correlation), identified and

intrinsic regulations, suggesting that instrumental reasons could be connected with very different styles of motivation. Finally, the component of external pressures had elements having a strong, negative correlation with higher forms of motivation. The different profiles of the last two substrates perhaps further indicate that they are separate sub-groups of orientations.

In summary, this chapter has reported on the motivational dispositions of a questionnaire sample of senior year two students (n = 610) from the city of Shanghai. The perceived influences of important others will be reported in the following chapters.

The above motivational aspects include the students' English-related attitudes, their orientations to learn English, their motivational intensity, their motivated behaviour and their self-regulatory styles. Another two themes that were discussed in this chapter are firstly gendered patterns in motivation and secondly correlation patterns between elements of motivation. Data from the main interviews (n = 64) were also looked at, to serve the purpose of triangulation. In places, the interview data have greatly added to the questionnaire data, such as in the case of English-related attitudes: the interview data have presented an interesting picture of how the word "English" was understood in Shanghai at the time of research.

Finally, some of the more exciting findings from this chapter might include a three-factor solution of English learning orientations, a comparatively high level of motivation but a primarily external regulation, and occasional, but interesting, correlation patterns relating this study to the SDT perspective and some of Noels *et al.*'s results. However, a further examination is needed to fully understand the significance of the data from this chapter, which will be achieved in the discussion chapter.

Chapter 9 Perceived Parental Influences

I. Parental Attitudes towards English

1. Level of parental L2 proficiency – data from the interviews

Most of the interview participants (n = 54) talked about L2 proficiency of at least one of their parents, the majority of whom have nil or little EFL skills, which is thought to be a fair reflection of the main questionnaire sample. Only 8 parents have high English skills or proficiency. Nine parents know a little English. Another four know other languages: Japanese or Russian. Whilst low parental L2 proficiency works as a double-bladed sword in England (Bartram, 2006a), such a factor has little influence on the level of parental involvement in China – Gao (2006) confirms that even in the case of L2 deficiencies, Chinese parents often take great pains to be directly involved in their child's EFL learning.

2. Parental attitudes towards English

Parental beliefs – the questionnaire data

Question 11, adopting exactly the same statements as in the previous question on student self-regulatory styles, examines perceived parental beliefs on whether or not English should be learnt and why it should be learnt. A four-point Likert Scale was built in. Below is a table on means, *SD*s and percentages.

Table 9.1.2.1 Perceived Parental Motivational Beliefs

	N	Not true at all (%)	Not very true (%)	Slightly true (%)	Very true (%)	Mean	*SD*
1. Learning English is not important at all. There is no need to put in any effort.	610	86.7	11.1	1.0	1.1	1.17	0.48
2. Pupils should learn English because it will be good for their future life and job prospects.	610	1.8	1.0	17.2	80.0	3.75	0.56
3. Nowadays, a person would lose face if s/he could not speak English.	610	7.0	27.4	35.1	30.5	2.89	0.92
4. Learning an additional language will be good for a pupil's intellectual development.	610	1.8	6.6	33.9	57.7	3.48	0.70
5. Learning English is an interesting and rewarding process.	609	4.4	16.9	45.8	32.8	3.07	0.82

From the above, the participants perceive that a majority of their parents have realised the importance of English study, and tend to stress lower-order instrumental reasons (e.g., career aspects) the most. Higher-order instrumental reasons, like personal development, and intrinsic reasons also seem to have been identified.

Parental attitudes toward English – the interview data

Question 3 from the interviews has also looked at student perception of parental attitudes toward English. In addition, the participants have talked about reasons given by their parents for EFL study.

With very few exceptions, parents from each family are perceived to have a similar understanding of the status of English and hold similar expectations regarding their children's EFL learning; however, in practice, one parent from a family is often more explicit about her/his attitudes and takes the responsibility of monitoring the child's study.

In addition, parental attitudes are a direct reflection of the societal, collective thinking. It might be difficult to separate the influence of the society from parental influence in this light. Therefore, even with families that have no EFL skill, it is unanimously acknowledged that English is of vital importance.

"They do not know English themselves. They get information through talking with their friends and our relatives. They are now even more anxious about my study. They tell me I must learn English well. I think they have based their understanding of the importance of English on an observation of the tendency of the society." (Student 8, Summary Table, p. 8)

At least 40 students (out of 64) state that their parents value EFL study. At least 15 students express that their parents have a keen wish for them to do well. Nonetheless, very few parents hold talks with their children on issues like the cultural background of the language. Finally, the interesting point about parental attitudes is that occasionally there is contention between cherishing one's ethnic/cultural identity and the necessity to learn an L2.

"My parents are intellectuals. They are very positive and supportive [regarding English learning]. There has been little comment on the English language. However, they insist that I should learn Chinese well first – because we are ethnic Chinese." (Student 48, Summary Table, p. 11)

In comparison, the parents with higher EFL or other L2 skills are found to be in a better position to separate their feelings toward English as a subject from their understanding of the English language, to explain about the current development of, and the future tendency of, English, to form integrative and intrinsic motivations themselves, and specifically to care about fostering of such motivations in their children. They are also more prepared to comment on aspects of the English language, including the target culture, its people and linguistic issues, so as to help their children to form a personal feeling towards English, which is perceived to facilitate learning.

"One of my parents is good at English. They think English to be important, though I am not sure whether they like it or not. They have separated their understanding of English as a school subject from English as a language. They have a very pragmatic view of the English subject – I must do it well for exams and for my professional future; whilst mastery of the language is essential for one's life quality in the future." (Student 50, Summary Table, p.11)

"They have excellent English skills. They have stressed the importance of English throughout; there has been comparatively less discussion about the background of English and its cultural aspects, but more attention to the current development and future tendency of English use. They themselves have formed a genuine love for English with more contact with its cultures and a broadened view of the language in business." (Student 20, Summary Table, p.5)

> "Mother had learned some English and was unhappy when she had to give up learning; she really envied her good friends who had good English skills and successfully immigrated to the U.S." (Student 39, Summary Table, p. 9)

> "My father thinks that English is very pleasant to the ear and is proud of his own proficiency level." (Student 41, Summary Table, p. 9)

> "My mother is very good at English. She has tried to foster my interest in English and has offered help in the process. For example, she has encouraged me to read English novels since she knew of my interest in literature. She highly values English study and often mentions that there are two essential skills: computer and English." (Student 53, Summary Table, p. 12)

Those parents who have little or no L2 skills have a higher chance to develop a shallow understanding of English, treating it merely like another school subject and valuing it from a too pragmatic and short-term-based view. There have been anecdotal comments that such an understanding is limiting. This group of parents are more reliant on exerting external pressure, tend not to be clear about "... in what aspect and for what end" (Student 40, Summary Table, p. 9) is English important; and often give inappropriate suggestions.

Finally, the reasons for why English is important are very often pragmatic, again reflective of the thoughts in the society. One respondent has made a rather good summary "... because competition in the society is very sharp. We cannot afford to learn without a pragmatic purpose" (Student 39, Summary Table, p.9).

First and foremost, English is essential for success in the NCEE. In addition, it is also significant for issues including studying/living abroad, communication, one's personal future, job prospects and career development, the general usefulness of the language, English as an international language, doing business, and one's personal development. One reason that seems to be odd here is the occasional parental pressure exerted for a child to do well to obtain personal glory. In terms of parental persuasion, there have been a number of parents who have little/no EFL skills and have consequently suffered at work or in life. Their life experiences are generally very good examples of external reasons (also see Bartram, 2006a).

Once again, parents with better L2 skills appear to be more eloquent and broad-minded about the relevance of English. They have illustrated a care for the impact of some mainstream English speaking cultures, how language skills can help a person to build a

rapport with the local community, how L2 skills permit one to see the world from different view points, and how EFL skills might enrich one's life experience, with the capacity for communicating with people of various backgrounds and speaking different languages.

In summary, from both the questionnaire data and the interview data, parents in Shanghai hold highly positive, but prevalently pragmatic attitudes toward English and English study, which is in tune with the collective thoughts of the society (e.g Hu 2002; 2005a; Teweles, 1995). In addition, the interview data further illustrates that other sets of reasons tend to be emphasized by the researched parents nowadays, perhaps reflecting the status of Shanghai as an increasingly internationalized city; the development of such thoughts appears to be largely dependent on parental L2 proficiency.

3. Gender difference on perceived parental attitudes

Table 9.1.3.1 T-test on Perceived Parental Beliefs

	Boys	**Girls**	**t**	***p***
1. Learning English is not important at all. There is no need to put in any effort.	1.24	1.10	3.606	.000***
2. Pupils should learn English because it will be good for their future life and job prospects.	3.67	3.83	-3.488	.001***
3. Nowadays, a person would lose face if s/he could not speak English.	2.89	2.89	-4.345	.996
4. Learning an additional language will be good for a pupil's intellectual development.	3.35	3.60	-4.032	.000***
5. Learning English is an interesting and rewarding process.	2.94	3.20	-4.032	.000***

The above t-test has identified statistically significant gender differences concerning all items of perceived parental beliefs, apart from the item of learning English for "face" issues. The values are significant at the level of .001, and girls perceive that their parents have more positive opinions.

In the interviews, the participants have perceived no difference in their parents regarding the importance of English. However, English is viewed as valuable in different ways for girls and boys: in the cases of girls, it is more likely to be seen as an essential

tool for survival in the future and girls are also believed to be talented with L2 learning; for boys, it is more likely to be regarded as an additional advantage that will decide whether they are final winners or losers in the selective system.

> "English is the only subject on which one can easily get more marks and create a gap with other competitors in the NCEE. Therefore, English performance has been a 'life and death' issue for boys, who are expected to do well on Maths and physics automatically." (Student 3, Summary Table, p. 1)

4. Correlations between student attitudes towards English, their orientations to learn, their overall strength of motivation, their learning behaviour, their regulatory styles and parental beliefs

Table 9.1.4.1 Correlations between Student Attitude toward English and Parental Beliefs

Parental Beliefs	Student Attitude to English
1. Learning English is not important at all. There is no need to put in any effort.	-.143**
2. Pupils should learn English because it will be good for their future life and job prospects.	.083*
3. Nowadays, a person would lose face if s/he could not speak English.	-.036
4. Learning an additional language will be good for a pupil's intellectual development.	.138**
5. Learning English is an interesting and rewarding process.	.197**

(** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed))

The above correlation test between student attitudes toward English and perceived parental beliefs has not yielded any significant value at or above the cut-off point of .300. Therefore, it might be said that the correlations between parental beliefs on whether or not English should be learnt and why, as well as student attitudes, are negligible.

Table 9.1.4.2 Summary on Correlations between Orientations to Learn and Parental Beliefs (≥ ± .300)

Parental Beliefs / Orientations to Learn	1. Learning English is not important at all. There is no need to put in any effort.	2. Pupils should learn English because it will be good for their future life and job prospects.	3. Nowadays, a person would lose face if s/he could not speak English.	4. Learning an additional language will be good for a pupil's intellectual development.	5. Learning English is an interesting and rewarding process.
Reason 01(career)					
Reason 02(English fun)					.302
Reason 03(future importance)					
Reason 04 (parents' wish)					
Reason 05(friendship)				.303	
Reason 06(like English cultural products)					
Reason 07(course/exam requirements)					
Reason 08(future career development)				.304	
Reason 09(good at English)					
Reason 10(travel)					
Reason 11(marriage with foreigners)					
Reason 12(living in Shanghai)					
Reason 13(international lang.)					
Reason 14(a more cultivated person)				.319	
Reason 15(going to English speaking countries)					

(Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed))

From the above, a correlation test between student orientations to learn and perceived parental beliefs, mainly significant at the .01 level, have yielded very few values at/above the cut-off point of .300. Perceived parental argumentation on whether English should be learnt, the lower order extrinsic reasons (e.g. seeking employment) and the "face" issue are not correlated to any of the researched reasons as required. In contrast, the higher the

rate on parental higher-order extrinsic reasons (e.g. personal development), the more likely a student will report to study English out of friendship (.303), consideration on future career development (.304) and a desire to be a more cultivated person (.319). In addition, the higher one rates parental intrinsic reasons (e.g. English as an interesting and rewarding process), the more likely that participant will report to study English because of fun. The above results, illustrating significant correlations between student orientations and more self-determined parental reasons, are indeed different from Norwich (1999) who reported parental introjected reasons to be the most influential in the U.K.

A correlation test between student learning behaviour (desire to learn, general and extra effort, prioritization of study and persistence at learning) and perceived parental beliefs has not yielded any significant coefficient at/above the cut-off point of .300. Comparatively, parental higher-order extrinsic reasons and intrinsic reasons are more closely related to all of the above behaviour indicators, significant at the .01 level.

Table 9.1.4.3 Correlations between the Students' Overall Strength of Motivation and Parental Beliefs

	1. Learning English is not important at all. There is no need to put in any effort.	2. Pupils should learn English because it will be good for their future life and job prospects.	3. Nowadays, a person would lose face if s/he could not speak English.	4. Learning an additional language will be good for a pupil's intellectual development.	5. Learning English is an interesting and rewarding process.
Overall strength of motivation	-.162 **	.126**	.030	.197**	.132**

From the above, a correlation test between reported overall strength of motivation and perceived parental beliefs has not yielded any value at/above the cut-off point of .300, significant at the .01 level.

Table 9.1.4.4 Summary on Correlations between Student Regulatory Styles and Parental Beliefs (≥ ± .300)

Parental Beliefs / Student Regulatory Styles	1. Learning English is not important at all. There is no need to put in any effort.	2. Pupils should learn English because it will be good for their future life and job prospects.	3. Nowadays, a person would lose face if s/he could not speak English.	4. Learning an additional language will be good for a pupil's intellectual development.	5. Learning English is an interesting and rewarding process.
1. Learning English is not important at all. There is no need to put in any effort.	.336				
2. Pupils should learn English because it will be good for their future life and job prospects.		.411		.322	
3. Nowadays, a person would lose face if s/he could not speak English.			.555		
4. Learning an additional language will be good for a pupil's intellectual development.				.494	
5. Learning English is an interesting and rewarding process.					.395

From the above, it can be stated that those who report to have no motivation are more likely to assume that their parents see no point learning English. Similarly, those who report to have external regulatory style are more likely to perceive that their parents emphasize the importance of English firstly out of lower order extrinsic reasons (e.g. job prospects) and then higher-order extrinsic reasons (e.g. personal development). Those who report to have introjected regulation are rather likely to perceive related beliefs (e.g. the "face" issue) in their parents. Those who have an identified regulatory style tend to perceive higher order extrinsic reasons in their parents. Finally, those having intrinsic motivation are likely to report intrinsic reasons emphasized by their parents. All the above values are significant at the .01 level.

In summary, the above correlation tests between student attitude towards English, their orientations to learn, their overall strength of motivation, their learning behaviour, their

regulatory styles and parental beliefs have produced limited values at/above the cut-off point of .300, significant at the .01 or .05 level. The exceptions might be firstly with parental higher order extrinsic reasons and intrinsic reasons, which are correlated to occasional extrinsic, integrative and intrinsic reasons from the students, and secondly with all the student regulatory styles, which are obviously related to matching parental beliefs. Therefore, it could be tentatively suggested that parental indoctrination (belief transmitting) is not the only, or is not the main, channel of parental influence on student attitudes, orientations, motivation level and behaviour at the current stage. However, comparing data based on the SDT theory suggests that there is a fairly high degree of correlation between parental beliefs and varied styles of student motivation. Explanations could include that there is a degree of measurement correlation from SDT-based data, that the SDT and the traditional social-cultural perspective reflected different motivation processes (e.g. Noels, 2005), and within the traditional perspective, parental indoctrination is part of the passive parental role whose relation with motivation outcomes is mediated and compensated by other parental routes.

II. Perceived Parental Influence and Correlating it with Motivational Aspects

1. Level of parental influence on student motivation

Questionnaire Data

Question 12, using a five-point Likert scale, examines the level of perceived parental influence on motivation, with measurements ranging from "very negative" to "very positive". Below is a table summarising its percentages, mean and *SD*.

Table 9.2.1.1 Level of Parental Influence from the Questionnaires

<table>
<tr><th></th><th></th><th>Valid Percent</th><th>Mean</th><th>SD</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="5">Parental Influence on Motivation</td><td>Very positive</td><td>17.9</td><td rowspan="5">3.67</td><td rowspan="5">0.89</td></tr>
<tr><td>Slightly positive</td><td>40.2</td></tr>
<tr><td>No influence</td><td>35.1</td></tr>
<tr><td>Slightly negative</td><td>5.1</td></tr>
<tr><td>Very negative</td><td>1.8</td></tr>
</table>

From the above, nearly 60% of the questionnaire participants have rated parental influence as positive; about one third of them have perceived no parental influence at the current stage; very few students (about 7%) have discovered negative influence. Therefore, the overall parental influence, from the main survey sample (n = 610), as indicated by its mean, is close to "slightly positive".

Interview data

Question 4 from the interviews has looked at student perceptions of parental influence as well. The respondents are found to hold very different opinions: for some students parental participation has been the only or a major reason for them to have EFL motivation; whilst for others, there has been no parental influence throughout their years of learning. In addition, parental influence appears to be something unable to segment chronologically; what parents have done in the past may impact on the present (Gardner *et al.*, 1999; Noels, 2001b). Thirdly, in most cases, the respondents talked about parental influence in a general way; however, there are cases where the students separated influences from their fathers and mothers. Once again, the interview data has presented a more fluid picture that permits different strands of undercurrent to surface.

However, generally, there have been more students rating parental influence to be slight and positive than any other categories (see the table below for summary), which is in line with findings from the questionnaire survey.

Table 9.2.1.2 Level of Perceived Parental Influence from the Interviews (n = 64)

Mixed	N/A	Yes, but level unknown	No	Slightly positive	Medium and positive	High and positive	Total
3	1	8	19	21	2	10	64
6.2%	1.5%	12.4%	29.6%	32.7	3.1%	15.5%	100.0%

As illustrated above, about one third of the respondents (n = 21, 32.7%) have reported a slightly positive influence; a slightly smaller number (n = 19, 29.6%) of the respondents have found no parental influence; 10 students (15.5%) have identified highly positive or a fairly high, positive parental influence; 3 students have described mixed parental influence.

2. Gender difference on perceived parental influence

Table 9.2.2.1 T-test on Perceived Parental Influence

	GENDER	N	Mean	t	*p*
Parental Influence on Motivation	Male	301	3.59	-2.316	.021*
	Female	309	3.75		

The above t-test indicates that there is significant gender difference regarding perception of parental influence on motivation, at the level of .05. Girls perceive a stronger parental influence than boys, as illustrated by their means.

3. Correlation between student attitude to English, orientations to learn, overall level of motivation, behaviour, regulatory styles and perceived parental influence

A correlation test between student attitudes towards English and perceived parental influence has yielded no value (.196) at/above the cut-off point of .300, at the significance level of .01.

A correlation test between student orientations to learn and perceived parental influence, at the level of .01 or .05, has not yielded any value at/above the cut-off point of .300.

A correlation test between student overall level of motivation and perceived parental influence has not yielded any value (.264) at/above the cut-off point of .300, at the significance level of .01.

A correlation test between student learning behaviour (general and extra effort, prioritization, retention and desire) and perceived parental influence has not yielded any value at/above the cut-off point of .300, at the .01 significance level.

Similarly, a correlation test between student regulatory styles and perceived parental influence has not yielded a single value at/above the cut-off point of .300, at the .01 significance level.

In summary, analysis of quantitative data suggests that perceived parental influence at the researched stage is not highly correlated with reported student mentality or behaviour in the field of motivation.

III. Means of Parental Influence

1. Means of parental influence – qualitative data from the questionnaires

Question 13 asks how the parents of the main survey sample are perceived to have influenced student EFL motivation. Qualitative data has been collected and sorted out by hand to see if any categories might emerge. All together, 345 pupils (out of 610) responded seriously to this question, leaving 432 different statements. 429 of them were regarded as examples of parental strategies and were placed under 14 different category headings. Below is a table presenting examples from each category.

Table 9.3.1.1 Examples on Means of Parental Influence

1. Parental Reasoning/Attitudes Regarding English Learning (N = 109, mean = 3.9)
• **267. They pay too much attention to the importance of English for the NCEE and employment. They are too pragmatic. (2)** • 376. We agree that learning English will be very useful for my future. (5) • 429. They have made me have more passion for study with their analysis of the importance of English in terms of the issues of employment, study-abroad and social competition. (4) • **475. Lip serving of the importance of English. (2)**
2.Parental Monitoring of the Study (N = 15, mean = 4.4)
• 13. + and closely watches my learning ... (5) + • 468. + and also through checking my progress/performance regularly. (4)
3. Parental Encouragement (N = 29, mean = 4.0)
• 56. Mainly through encouragement. (5) • 186. They encourage me to see foreign films, read English books and magazines and listen to English songs. (5)
4. Parental Confidence Building (N = 6, mean = 3.5)
• 93. + and have illustrated confidence in my performance... (4) + • **217. They believe that I cannot learn well; they are worried. (2)**
5. Parental Support (N = 88, mean = 4.2)
5.1 General material/financial support (N = 6, mean = 3.9)
• 93. + they have also tried their best to support my material needs. (4) • 248. + 2) They have paid my trip abroad. (3)
5.2 Buying/Getting learning materials (N = 29, mean = 4.3)
• 63. They often subscribe to English newspapers and magazines for me. (5) • 75. They have bought me all kinds of English reading materials. (4)
5.3 Parental assistance/help at study (N = 10, mean = 4.5)
• 110. + and they teach me methods to learn English. (5) • 479. + and offer me assistance and support at study. (5)
5.4 Creating learning chances (N = 3, mean = 4.3)
• 82. + and try their best to recommend to me various kinds of opportunities to learn English. (4) • 233. + create opportunities for me to learn ... (5) +
5.5 Creating a learning/language use environment (N = 10, mean = 3.8)
• 220. They have sent me to travel in England, so I could be immersed in a genuine surrounding of language use. It motivated me. (5) • **415. They did not offer a good surrounding for study. (2)**
5.6 Communicating in English at home (N = 10, mean = 4.3)

• 228. My parents often actively talk with me in English. (5) • 372. + 2) We often express ourselves in English in our daily life ... (5) +
5.7 Collecting information on English study (N = 1)
• 184. They often search information on good English classes, such as oral English classes ... (5) +
5.8 Doing things together/Accompanying the kid at study (N = 3, mean = 4.0)
• 207. The whole family watch TV programmes in English ... (4) + • 606. They accompany me at study and watch English programmes with me. (5)
5.9 Creating occasions for the use of English/ communication in English (N = 2, mean = 4.0)
• 227. + Mother takes me to occasions where volunteers with English skills are needed – we do simple translation work and communicate with foreign friends ... (4) + • 317. They have introduced to me foreign friends so I can talk with them in English. (4)
5.10 Non-specific, general support and other types of support (N = 14, mean = 4.1)
• 323. + and ask my teachers to give me extra instructions after class. (4) • 412. + they also help me to find my position in relation to English. (3)
6. Parental Pressure (N =121, mean =3.4)
6.1 Parental urging (N = 58, mean = 3.8)
• 15. They often urge me to learn. (5) • **145. They often urge me to listen to English programmes on the radio or on TV, and insist that I read more. (2)**
6.2 Parental persuasion/admonition (N = 15, mean = 3.5)
• 102. Persuasion and admonition. (4) • **240. With persuasion ... (2) +**
6.3 Parental requirements on general study and extracurricular classes (N = 47, mean = 4.0)
• 163. They ask me to learn some English with a certain degree of difficulty. (4) • **551. Ask me to read English books. (2)**
6.4 General parental pressure on doing well (N = 11, mean = 3.6)
• **112. They have given me too much pressure. (2)** • 233. + and often give me pressure to do well. (5)
6.5 Parental planning/expectation (N = 6, mean = 3.8)
• 258. + "... They hope that I can make their dreams come true. I am not going to let them down." (4) • 287. They hope that I can study abroad, so it will be essential to be able to use English. (4)
6.6 Parental pressure on test scores (N = 15, mean = 3.1)
• **28. They only cared about my scores... (1)** • 548. + and attach much importance to my scores. (4)
6.7 Forcing pupils to study English (N = 16, mean = 2.7)
• **308. They have forced me to learn, so I hate English. (2)** • 516. They force me to learn. (5)
6.8 Parental nagging on English study (N = 9, mean = 2.2)
• **76. I am fed up with their nagging. (2)** • **507. Too nagging. (1)**
6.9 Contingent rewarding or punishment (N = 5, mean = 3.2)
• 424. They will give me prizes or money if I do well. (4) • **483. "If you don't study English hard, we'll beat you up.' (1)**
6.10 Parental comparison (N = 1)
• 420. They often compare me with their colleagues' children (especially those who achieve high academically, specifically on English), through which they exert pressure on me and try to motivate me to do better. (4)
7. Role Modelling (N = 22, mean = 4.4)
7.1 Example setting (N = 6, mean = 3.8)
• 34. They would give examples, trying to motivate me with my cousins' good English level. (4) • 172. They have tried to motivate me with their own experience learning English. (4)

7.2 Parental role modeling in terms of language learning (N = 12, mean = 4.6)
• 285. + what is more important, my father is trying his best to learn English, whose positive attitudes and activities have a great influence on me. (5) • 320. They learn English with me, which is very motivating. (5)
7.3 Parental role modelling on character moulding (combining the active role with the passive role) (N = 4, mean = 4.5)
• 85. They have influenced me through their daily activities. (4) • 155. They practice what they preach. (5)
8. Parental EFL Proficiency (N = 13, mean = 2.9)
• 207. + My father is very good at English; he sometimes teaches me. (5) • **370. My parents do not know English at all. We did not exchange opinions of English. (2)**
9. Freedom at Study (N = 3, mean = 3.8)
• 326. They let me do things freely. (4) • 576. They have left me much space in study. (4)
10. Fostering of Learner Responsibilities ((N = 1)
• 270. + However, generally, they have encouraged me to become a self-taught, able person. (4)
11. Long-time/Past Parental Efforts (N = 11, mean = 4.3)
• 269. They brought me to the gate of English when I was a kid; it developed my interest in English. (4) • 455. They once sent me to New Concept English classes. Ever since, I have had more interest and higher motivation. (4)
12. Fostering of Intrinsic Motivation (N = 3, mean = 4.3)
• 374. My parents have tried to form my interest since my childhood. (4) • 394. + they introduce to me more interesting things from abroad. (5)
13. Parental Love of English Cultural Products (N = 3, mean = 4.4)
• 462. They themselves love to see popular movies from Hollywood, in English. (5) • 484. They love English pop music from abroad. (4)
14. Other Strategies (N = 5, mean = 3.0)
• 229. + and enhance my understanding of English ... (3) + • **341. They talk about English occasionally. (2)** • 384. + and try to stimulate my motivation by utilizing the mechanism of defiance (i.e., by telling people they cannot do things well, hoping it will, on the contrary boost up people's will to prove others are wrong and they can perform well). (3)

The first category deals with parents' reasons for EFL learning or their attitudes towards English study. Being the second biggest group, it has 109 statements and its mean strength is 3.9 (roughly equalling "slightly positive"), which is interestingly contradictory to an inference from the quantitative data that at the researched stage indoctrination might not be the main channel of parental influence. There is an overwhelming sense of pragmatism. In cases, students reported that parental reasoning was the main factor that motivated their study. However, parents can use this strategy ineffectively when they over-emphasize the instrumental side of L2 learning, repeat too much why one should learn English, or fail to convince their children without parental activities that support their own argumentation.

Dealing with parental monitoring of L2 learning, the second category has 15 items and

illustrates comparatively high parental influence (mean = 4.4). The third category has 29 items (mean = 4.0) and includes examples of parental encouragement. The fourth one, a rather small group, has 6 items (mean = 3.5). However, both the positive examples and the negative one illustrate the importance of parental efforts in helping students to build self-confidence and to experience a sense of achievement. Parents in Shanghai are sometimes found to achieve the latter by comparing their child's situation with their own and praising the child for good capacity at study; some parents also attempt to learn English from their child to boost the latter's motivation and sense of self-efficacy.

The fifth category, dealing with various kinds and degrees of parental support, is a complicated one (n = 88, mean = 4.2). It is further split into 10 subgroups: general material/financial support; getting learning materials; parental assistance at study; creating learning chances; creating a learning and language use surrounding; communicating in English at home; collecting information on English study; doing things together or accompanying kids at study; creating occasions for the use of English; and general as well as other types of support. It can be stated that there is an increasing number of parents in Shanghai who are able to support their children at study or even instruct them on English. In addition, there has been an understanding of the importance of L2 learning surrounding as well as the importance of meaningful use of that language. However, generally, the level of parental involvement in terms of EFL learning is still low in quality and traditional in type (mainly in terms of financial/material support).

The sixth category, being the biggest one, has 121 items (mean = 3.4). It deals with forms of parental pressure, having both positive and negative influence on student motivation. There are 10 subtypes of such pressure: parental urging, parental persuasion/admonition; parental requirements on general study and extracurricular classes; parental pressure on test scores; general parental pressure on doing well; forcing the child to do things; parental nagging on English study; parental planning and expectation; contingent rewarding or punishment; and parental comparison. "Parental pressure on test scores" includes a number of examples in which students complained that their parents cared about nothing but scores and consequently rated parental influence as negative. "Forcing students to do things" and "parental nagging on English study", unsurprisingly, have a negative overall rating.

The seventh category is on role modelling and example setting (n = 22, mean = 4.4). Being one of the most effective, it contains three subgroups: in the first subgroup, parents utilize other people's or their own experiences to motivate; in the second subgroup (a very effective one), parents themselves are learning the language; and in the last one, parents set good examples from a different sense – their positive understanding of the target language matches their own activities. The last level of sense has been regarded as very important by Chinese learners in terms of general character development.

The next category (n = 13, mean = 2.9) has examples of parental EFL proficiency. It sends two messages: firstly, parental EFL proficiency does count; secondly, the general parental EFL proficiency level among the researched students is perhaps not very ideal. In addition, Category 12 (n = 11, mean = 4.3) has examples of long-term or past parental efforts. It is evident that many children have positive attitudes toward an L2 because of their parents' long-range efforts, especially beginning when they are kids.

Other categories, mainly small, include freedom at study granted, fostering of learner responsibility and intrinsic motivation, and influence of parental integrative motivation. Some of the above (such as fostering of IM and parental integrative motivation) appear to be very effective since they lead to higher forms of student motivation.

Table 9.3.1.2 Summary on Means of Parental Influence from the Main Sample

1. Parental Reasoning/ Attitudes (n = 109, m = 3.9)	2. Parental Encourage-ment (n = 29, m = 4.0)	3. Parental Pressure (n = 121, m = 3.4)	4. Parental Involvement (n = 136, m = 3.5)		5. Role Modelling (n = 22, m = 4.4)
		3.1 parental urging 3.2 persuasion and admonition 3.3 general pressure on doing well 3.4 requirements on EFL study 3.5 general parental expectation and planning 3.6 pressure on scores 3.7 forcing to learn 3.8 nagging 3.9 rewarding/ punishment 3.10 comparison with the peers	4.1 Monitor-ing of study (n = 15, m = 4.4)	4.2. Parental support • *material/ financial support* • *getting learning materials* • *assistance/ help at study* • *creating learning chances* • *creating learning environment* • *comm in English at home* • *collecting learning information* • *accompaniment at study* • *creating occasions for the use of English* • *other, more general help*	5.1 Life and vicarious examples of EFL learning and the consequences 5.2 Parental role modelling of EFL learning 3. Parental role modelling on general character development

6. Parental EFL Proficiency (n = 13, m = 2.9)	7. Long-term Parental Efforts (n = 11, m = 4.3)	8. Parental Motivational Strategies (n = 21, m = 3.7)				
		8.1 Confidence building (n = 6, m = 3.5)	8.2 Autonomy/ learner responsibility fostering (n = 4, m = 3.8)	8.3 Intrinsic motivation fostering (n = 3, m = 4.3)	8.4 Parental integrative motivation (n = 3, m = 4.4)	8.5 Others (such as using the mechanism of defiance, n = 5, m = 3.0)

The above table has summarised what parental thoughts and activities are perceived to influence student EFL motivation in the main survey. Parental reasoning on the importance of English, various degrees of parental pressure, different types of parental involvement appear to be the most often mentioned categories. Less frequent groups include parental encouragement, role modelling, good parental EFL skills, long-term parental efforts and mixed motivational strategies aiming to improve self efficacy, autonomy, intrinsic and integrative motivations among the students. However, role modelling, long-term efforts and strategies to nurture higher forms of student motivation

(integrative and intrinsic) appear to be the most effective.

2. Means of parental influence – the interview data

In the interviews, a very sweeping impression is that high parental expectations, combined with parental support and sacrifice, seem to work in the cases of many Chinese students. There have been comments that the students would feel guilty or sinned should they fail to do well to return their parents' good will. In addition, parents with higher L2 skills tend to be more resourceful: apart from indoctrination, they communicate with their children in English and recommend good learning materials to the latter, for instance.

To better investigate means of parental influence, question 4 asks the interview participants to comment on what their fathers and mothers have done that impacted on their motivation.

Table 9.3.2.1 Summary on Means of Parental Influence from the Interviews

1. Role models (n = 11) 1.1 Parental role model of hard work and instilling of such values 1.2 Parental role model of learning English 1.3 Parental role model of enthusiasm on general study and learning new things 1.4 Positive/negative parental life examples + examples of other family members	2. Parental involvement – parental effort on supporting, encouraging, helping with EFL study (incl. financial/material support as well as instructions/suggestions on English) (n = 25)	3. Importance/value of English (study) [strong influence from the society] (n = 20)	4. Parental pressure (urging , monitoring, high academic expectations and requirements, use of peer comparison, nagging) (n = 24)	5. Parental effort on keeping abreast with development/ information in the English world (perhaps a form of parental involvement) (n = 1)
6. Prior parental efforts that have impact on the present [the major route – prior effort → foundation/high achievements in the past→ higher confidence →high current achievements] (n = 5)	7. Illustration of parental intrinsic/integrative motivation and fostering of such motivation (n = 4)	8. Creation of an English speaking/use milieu (n = 3)	9. Satisfy the child's sense of achievement/pride (by asking the child to teach them English and praising her/his achievements) (n = 4)	10. Fostering/ supporting child autonomy + trust in child's ability (n = 3)

The above has summarised parental strategies that are perceived to have influenced student motivation. The ten categories emerged are very similar to those discovered in the main questionnaire survey. In addition, it is clear that some categories are frequently used by many parents (especially categories of parental involvement, parental pressure and parental discussion of the importance of EFL and L2s); whilst some have comparatively limited items. Again, the pattern is similar to the questionnaire results.

In summary, parents are seen to motivate by

- presenting parental role models of hard work and pursuit of improvement in a general sense (as well as instilling of such ethos into their children), of taking effort learning English themselves, and of having enthusiasm on general study and learning new things
- listing positive and negative parental life examples, and occasional examples from each extended family, that are related to good or poor level of EFL skills: negative examples, i.e., difficulties encountered at work and in life by parents, can be very motivating since they are good illustration of the relevance of English to a person's life in Shanghai nowadays
- offering massive parental effort in supporting, encouraging and helping with their children's study in various degrees: some parents are capable merely of giving financial/material support as well as encouragement in a general sense; while some, with better EFL skills, can also make suggestions and offer instructions at study
- making known parental understanding of the importance of English: this category has illustrated great influence from the society; in addition, parents with experiences abroad or better EFL skills are felt to have a better developed understanding, who also have a heightened awareness of the importance of culture and other linguistic issues, so perhaps would sound more convincing; occasionally, the parents are discovered to deliver gendered messages on the status of English, which is also the case with the main questionnaire qualitative data
- exerting parental pressure, often in the forms of illustrating high expectations, urging their children to study and monitoring the learning process

Other strategies of less popularity among parents are:

- prior parental effort, in the form of parental support, involvement, instruction, encouragement as well as other motivational strategies: how prior effort may contribute to the present study is often talked about – prior effort in a child's early ages leads to a good foundation, which leads to a sense of achievement and a higher level of confidence in later years of peer comparison and competition, which in turn leads to even better achievements and a higher motivation
- illustration of parental intrinsic and integrative motivations, as part of positive parental attitudes towards English, and fostering of such motivations
- creation of a good milieu for speaking and using English: parents with good EFL skills sometimes communicate with their children in English
- satisfying a child's sense of achievement and pride
- fostering/supporting child autonomy at study and illustrating confidence in a child's ability
- parental effort on improving and updating their information and understanding of tendencies of English and English study – perhaps yet another form of parental involvement

There are occasional comments on negative parental strategies. The most obvious might be nagging by the parents. Too much parental pressure, in addition to inappropriate understanding (e.g. too narrow and too pragmatic) of the status of English, is also found to be demotivating.

3. Suggestions and criticism on parental strategies

In the interviews, 28 students have either critiqued parental motivational strategies or expressed keen wishes for their parents to improve. Their opinions can be summarised as follows:

- wish for a higher parental motivation to learn new things as well to learn English specifically, for a better, more equal parent-child relation, for more common grounds to communicate on, and in the case of EFL learning for a better family learning milieu as well as the potential to communicate with each other in English one day

- proper attribution theories might be needed among parents – some parents tend to regard effort as the only factor for success in terms of L2 learning and unfairly blame their children for laziness at times of difficulties
- more inclusive standards for success might be needed – some parents tend to ignore their children's hard work, since the only thing that counts is the final result, which is thought to be unfair; there will always be weaker links in competition, so a more liberal and an individually tailored understanding of achievements is needed; in addition, even within an exam-oriented setting, the standards for success can be multiple
- wish for better EFL skills among parents – this wish is understandable but difficult to achieve
- suggestion that parents hold more discussion on children's study and understanding of things – for a better rapport as well as to keep track of children's development
- wish for better English use and speaking milieu created by parents – parents with EFL skills can try to speak English at home; those without skills need not panic, since they can finance their children's language trips abroad or seek opportunities for their children to practice English
- wish for more parental help mainly in the form of supplying general information on English education, seeking good teaching and learning resources; also wish for more parental participation/involvement in learning activities
- critique of parental expectations and pressure – some parents are perceived to have unrealistic expectations, set too high requirements or standards and exert too much pressure for their children to do well, which is regarded as demotivating; on the contrary, some students have asked for more parental pressure and a stricter parental monitoring of the learning process; in short, parents might also need to have some basic knowledge of student motivational styles and to know how to identify such styles in their own children
- recommendation for more parental strategies to improve intrinsic motivation
- incorporation into communication of parental attitudes towards English their understanding of the language, such as the target culture, to foster

integrative/intrinsic motivation in the child

- understanding that a more balanced view of the status of English is needed among parents – basing arguments solely on pragmatic reasons for EFL learning is limiting and will hamper the forming of proper attitudes among students, which is also the case with an overemphasis of the importance of English; the idea that English is firstly and foremost a living language fulfilling multiple functions needs to be disseminated
- criticism on negative strategies and inappropriate use of strategies: many parents are persistent and repetitive in giving instructions or making comments – nagging has been found to have negative effect on motivation; critique has also been channeled at an inappropriate/over- use of peer comparison

The above can be regarded as a mirrored image of the means of parental influence discovered in the main study. However, what is particularly valuable here is that it helps to highlight important parental strategies as well as identify inadequacies. It can be concluded that important strategies might include parental role modelling (especially in terms of learning new things including English), creating a facilitating English learning and use milieu and parental involvement (particularly in the sense of securing learning information and resources as well as parental participation). In addition, parents in Shanghai may still need to acquire more motivational strategies, especially effective ones to foster higher forms of motivation, to avoid using negative strategies, to have a more balanced understanding of the value of English (as there has been too high a sense of pragmatism), and to better adjust their expectations and exert appropriate level of pressure. What is more, they need to adopt proper attribution theories and more inclusive standards. In short, perhaps like teachers in Shanghai, parents also need some basic knowledge on L2 motivation and spend more time communicating with their children.

In summary, this chapter has looked at the data on the perceived influence of parents from the main questionnaire and the main interviews. Issues that were given specific attention include parental attitudes towards English, parental SDT-based belief transmitting, the level of parental influence and means of parental influence. Like the previous chapter, the themes of gender-based understanding and correlation patterns within the perceived influence of parents were also examined.

Although a further degree of data synthesis is needed so as to better answer the research questions, some of the more promising findings from this chapter may include a positive but limiting parental attitude towards English, a pattern of parental belief endorsement that matches their attitude and a possible mismatch between prevalent means of parental influence and the "wanted" strategies.

Chapter 10 Perceived Teacher Influences

I. English Teachers' Attitudes towards English

1. Perceived English teachers' beliefs towards English – the questionnaire data

Question 14 explores perceived teacher beliefs on whether or not English should be learnt and why. The design of this question is exactly like that of the question on parental beliefs, adopting a four-point Likert Scale and five statements matching varied student regulatory styles. Below is a table summarising its percentages, means and *SD*s.

Table 10.1.1.1 Perceived English Teachers' Beliefs

	N	Not true at all (%)	Not very true (%)	Slightly true (%)	Very true (%)	Mean	*SD*
1. Learning English is not important at all. There is no need to put in any effort.	610	91.8	6.1	0.8	1.3	1.12	0.45
2. Pupils should learn English because it will be good for their future life and job prospects.	610	0.7	1.6	18.0	79.7	3.77	0.50
3. Nowadays, a person would lose face if s/he could not speak English.	609	5.1	24.1	32.0	38.8	3.04	0.91
4. Learning an additional language will be good for a pupil's intellectual development.	608	0.8	4.8	24.2	70.2	3.64	0.61
5. Learning English is an interesting and rewarding process.	618	2.1	3.6	21.9	72.4	3.64	0.66

From the above table, it is clear that English teachers, in comparison with the students themselves, their parents and peers, are perceived to hold the most positive opinion regarding the importance of English study. Like parents, they are also found to stress instrumental reasons, such as career aspects, the most. However, they tend to lay almost the same amount of emphasis on higher-order instrumental reasons as well as intrinsic reasons.

2. Perceived teacher attitudes toward English – the interview data

The interview participants were asked to comment on attitudes of their current and former teachers separately, focusing on whether or not those people liked English and how they felt about English as a language and as a subject. However, some students appeared to have difficulty separating their perceptions of teacher attitudes; consequently, they commented on English teachers as a group, and also in a very general sense.

General impressions (n = 28)

There has been comment that English teachers have better personal communication skills as a result of learning an L2; because of this, students can often feel the charm of the target language. A number of students have inferred positive teacher attitudes towards English, basing their conclusion on the argument that otherwise those teachers would not have chosen to teach English as their profession. Paradoxically, some respondents have criticised a businesslike attitude towards teaching and lack of passion for English in the teachers around them.

In addition, there have been a number of criticisms targeting the exam-oriented education, greatly limiting the teaching activities of a majority of teachers (Hu, 2002). Perhaps consequently, all English teachers emphasize the importance of English, but non-native teachers tend to mention external reasons. Only very occasionally will those teachers mention intrinsic reasons, and the effect cannot be regarded as very well with certain groups of students who are forced to be practical. It has also been pointed out that there is in fact no need to emphasize the importance of English currently. "To be frank, we all know the importance of English without their reminding: we have tests every three days and exams every five days" (Student 46, Summary Table p. 19). It is not practical to deal with the above issue with the current class size, either. After all, a teacher's main responsibility is viewed to be the transferring of knowledge. In contrast, some students argue that it is highly necessary for teachers to discuss why English should be learnt and why they have wanted to be teachers of English for a higher motivation. Also, there has been appreciation expressed on how L2s are learnt in the U.S: students there are allowed to enjoy the process of learning; understanding and love of an L2 is not a result of preaching but is felt through the use of it in class, for instance, through arguing in an L2.

Next, comments have been made regarding whether the introduction of culture and other language-based issues should be a focus of the class. It is observed that unless in the cases of expanding classes in key schools (sometimes offered by native speakers) or extracurricular classes, issues like culture will not be given much attention, due to a series of reasons including limited teaching time, lack of enthusiasm from groups of externally motivated students and lack of capacity in many teachers to deal with such issues. In fact, recently there has been an argument in schools in Shanghai about what should be taught to students in a language classroom. Teachers appear to form two camps, matching varied student reactions: those who have experiences abroad tend to favour the inclusion of cultural issues (also see discussion on the aspect of culture in English education in Hu, 2002); whilst those without such experiences appear to be more conservative, grammar-based and exam-oriented in class. Cited below is a student who feels the inclusion of culture enlightens and motivates.

> "[It is] highly important for them to discuss with us why we should learn English and why they want to be English teachers. It is essential for us to have a higher motivation. Unfortunately, these aspects are often ignored. Another point is that our English teachers seldom talk about cultural aspects of the target language, mainly because of their own inadequacy. Sometimes, their personality counts. Do you know that in YA Middle School, there has been a debate on how to teach English and on the importance of dealing with aspects of the target language. Teachers tend to have two different ideas: those who have been abroad insist that it is important to teach English as a language, with its cultural background and other relevant bits. Those who have not hold a more traditional view – English is merely an important subject for the NCEE." (Student 14, Summary Table p. 6)

In addition, there has been other generalization on different types of teachers. Young teachers are often found to be lively, liberal, and pretty, presenting a good image of the language as something posh and international. "[With our current teacher], we feel English to be fashionable and we are keeping pace with the outside world" (Student 62, Summary Table, p. 25). Enthusiasm in new teachers is often regarded as a commendable compensation for their lack of experience. Older teachers are unfortunately connected with an image of being traditional, strict and unfashionable. However, they are sometimes compensated with a sense of meticulousness at work.

Another major type of information includes description of individual teachers. Student satisfaction can be caused by qualities in teachers such as being honest, devoted, and hard working. Occasionally, the respondents have reported teacher help regarding attitude

formation and development of an understanding of English.

> "I have been quite lucky – all my English teachers have been good and have helped me to form proper attitudes toward English and the English language. Because of them, I have had a smooth journey knowing English, learning English and developing an understanding of English...". (Student 52, Summary Table, p. 21)

Current teacher(s)

Despite comments that teachers can be quite subtle/silent about their attitudes, 61 (out of 64) students remarked on their current teachers: amongst them, 35 perceived their teachers to like English or have very positive attitudes; only two students reported lack of teacher passion, one of whom had a teacher graduating as a science major and choosing to teach English due to external reasons. In addition, a couple of students also perceived integrativeness in their teachers, illustrating love for English cultural products or a desire to emigrate.

In addition, 28 students have reported teacher comments, either delivered at the very beginning of the course or on a more frequent base, on the importance of English. Unsurprisingly, those arguments on the usefulness of English have been mainly pragmatic. Perhaps due to an increasing number of teachers (especially from key schools) having experiences abroad, the issue of living and studying abroad has been frequently mentioned. However, the primary reason with many teachers is still the focal status of English in the NCEE. Other external reasons include the significance of English for job prospects, current life in Shanghai, better communication, further study, obtaining more information and knowing current affairs, and better life chances in the future. Those reasons are not unfamiliar to either the research student or the society of Shanghai. However, in comparison with lay people, teachers have at times presented a more detailed picture of why English is important. Below is an example.

> "There have been frequent talks on the usage of English. Our English teacher says that much of the world's material is written in English, so mastery of English enables people to get first-hand information and avoid deviances caused by reliance on translation. It also broadens one's scope of information as well as helps to form a genuine taste of the culture of English-speaking countries." (Student 55, Summary Table, p. 23)

Very occasionally, teachers are reported to base their arguments on intrinsic reasons, such as the charm of the language, and integrative reasons, with the attraction of the

target culture as a typical example (see the above quotation).

Regarding teacher attitudes towards English as a subject, there have been comments that a majority of English teachers are still exam-oriented and score-based. English is just another subject like Maths and Chinese.

> "I think that English is anyway not our national language. It is just like Maths and Chinese, a subject in the NCEE. It is artificially set by the State. I think it is how my English teachers see English." (Student 16, Summary Table, p.7)

As such, teaching in many classrooms is still grammar-, syllabus- and text-based. To match this ethos, testing strategies such as writing from memory are emphasized. However, importance has also been attached to other skills, especially listening and speaking. Perhaps it is due to the fact that both of the above skills will be tested in exams, or it can be the case that there has been more pressure from the society to acquire practical skills.

Mainly with pressure from exams, there might be even fewer opportunities for mainstream English teachers to illustrate their understanding of English as a language. Of 44 respondents talking about this issue 21 have stated that there has been little discussion on topics not closely related to texts. Issues like the target culture, customs in English speaking countries, Western thoughts expressed/embedded in English, history of the language are rarely dealt with at class; whilst expanding classes, as mentioned above, is a better channel for such understanding. Apart from time limitation, some teachers are perceived either to have no experience or insufficient qualifications themselves or do not care about these issues. However, with more teachers having been abroad, there is a better awareness of the significance of going beyond the syllabus and treating English as a living language that has a multitude of functions.

> "My current English teacher has a very profound understanding of English and the most unique thing s/he has told me is that English is firstly a language and is for communication. Therefore, it is silly to separate it into oral skills, listening comprehension, etc. We do not have oral tests in Chinese, so the key is to learn English in our daily life, instead of memorizing formulae." (Student 15, Summary Table, p.7)

> "I think my current English teacher has good attitudes toward English. There has been an emphasis on all skills – both written skills and oral skills. In addition, s/he thinks that English is not merely a subject for exams; it is a tool for communication. S/he often tells us about her/his understanding of the western cultures and how s/he felt when

communicating in English with people in the U.K." (Student 19, Summary Table, p. 8)

> "S/he thinks that English as a language is worthwhile in-depth exploration and reminds us that we should not just regard English as a school subject. Such thoughts will not lead us far. S/he often tells us her/his experiences abroad." (Student 52, Summary Table, p. 21)

It is felt that the above understanding could bring the English language and the world of English speakers closer to learners. In addition, it also makes students feel more committed to learning.

However, not all the schools can afford the above "luxury". In ordinary schools, especially suburban schools, English teachers might have more limited opportunities to be trained abroad. Those schools are also in a worse position to offer expanding classes. Even with teachers who have more exposure to the target language and culture, they are faced with tension between the exam requirements and their more Westernised style of teaching.

> "My teacher, having been abroad, is a person with a strong character and unique views of English among Chinese people. S/he has tried to use methods popular abroad, attaching much importance to the building of language abilities – unfortunately it is not welcomed by some students, who are worried about pressure from exams." (Student 61, Summary Table, p. 25)

Former teachers

There have been only 43 (out of 64) comments on attitudes of former English teachers. In addition, the data collected here is no comparison in depth with data on the current teachers' attitudes.

Table 10.1.2.1 Teacher Like/Dislike of English and Their Attitudes toward Students and Work (n = 16)

Like of English (n = 10)	6 junior middle school (JMS) cases: 1 kindergarten case; 3 general comments
Dislike of English (n = 2)	1 JMS case; 1 primary school (PS) case
Positive attitudes towards students and work (n = 1)	1 JMS case
Negative attitude toward students and work (n = 4)	2 JMS cases, 2 general comments

Of the above 16 comments on varied teacher attitudes, six students have perceived enthusiasm and passion for English (or literature) in their JMS teachers and one student perceived love of English in her kindergarten teacher. Another three students have assumed or perceived positive attitudes toward English in their former teachers as a

group. However, two students have discovered negative teacher attitudes. In addition, four more students have commented on teacher attitudes toward students and work, with one positive evaluation but three negative feedbacks. It is interesting to think that for some students the above (teacher attitudes towards students and work) might be an inseparable part of teacher attitudes towards English.

The number of teachers emphasizing and explaining the importance of English is even more limited: this group of respondents went to primary schools and lower secondary schools through the mid- to late 90s of the last century, and English might have been slightly less emphasized at that time; there is acknowledgement that many primary teachers and even lower secondary teachers feel their students to be too immature to deal with issues like the functions of English. There has been an understanding among parents, teachers and students that primary schools are places for pupils to have fun, junior middle schools for them to learn basic grammar and senior middle schools to leap greatly forward and form an understanding of the subject. For those teachers who have emphasized the importance of English, it is a bridge to the world, an international language and a useful tool for one's future. One JMS teacher has mentioned occasionally that English is useful in dealing with foreign affairs and it is also a useful tool for more knowledge. One senior-secondary year 1 teacher has commented that English is important for a range of reasons including job prospects. That teacher is also the only person remembered to give intrinsic reasons for study – the beauty of the language itself. Above all, a most justifiable reason with many teachers from the past is still its significance for exams.

The majority of the comments have found former English teachers, especially those from junior middle schools, to be very concerned about exams, using more traditional methods and emphasizing written language elements that would contribute to satisfactory test results. A number of respondents have found a less developed teacher attitude toward English – English is merely a school subject – and have occasionally reported this attitude to have prevented them from forming a proper understanding of English as a language. Very occasionally, the respondents have had teachers attaching importance to training of practical skills for communication.

Regarding teacher introduction to English as a language, primary teachers are found to

present it to be something simple and fun, which might be different from other subjects. There have been comparatively few teachers both from the primary and lower secondary levels to deal with topics like the target culture. Like in senior middle schools, extracurricular classes are a better place to deal with such issues. However, individual cases can be very different at times: one student has had teachers who talked about the beauty of the English language; one lower-secondary teacher has taken a very scientific attitude towards the language – asking students to discover the logic underlying the English grammar so as to achieve a systematic understanding; one student has had lower-secondary teachers that permitted students to make mistakes in learning a language, yet requiring them not to repeat their mistakes but to benefit from them.

In summary, the main study participants perceive that English teachers are often quiet about their thoughts, and that the majority of them have positive attitudes, believing English to be important and illustrating varied degrees of passion for it, for work and for students. However, teacher emphasis is prevalently on the focal status of the NCEE, as well as on a range of other external reasons reflective of the society's instrumental agenda. Occasionally, those teachers illustrate an integrative tendency or talk about intrinsic reasons. In addition, language issues such as culture are seldom dealt with in ordinary classes mainly due to pressure from exams, matching student requirements and lack of teacher capacity. In fact, there has been ongoing debate on what should be included in teaching and teachers divide according to their training experiences. Teachers having stayed abroad often demonstrate an awareness of the need to go beyond the syllabus and treat English as a living, multi-faceted phenomenon, which is welcomed by some students in Shanghai.

In the interviews, it is also felt that different training backgrounds, leading to different attitudes and proficiency levels among teachers, might lead to results further favouring key schools. In addition, the interview participants have also described differences in teacher attitudes across year groups: primary teachers were found to be happy presenting English as something different but simple and fun; lower secondary teachers were mainly exam-tied and grammar-based. The two groups seldom talked about the importance of English, to say nothing of other issues, partly due to student immaturity and the slightly less-internationalized social background of that time.

3. Gender difference on perceived teacher attitudes/ motivation

Table 10.1.3.1 T-test on Perceived English Teachers' Beliefs across Gender

	Boys	Girls	t	*p*
1. Learning English is not important at all. There is no need to put in any effort.	1.14	1.09	1.446	.149
2. Pupils should learn English because it will be good for their future life and job prospects.	3.72	3.81	-2.091	.037*
3. Nowadays, a person would lose face if s/he could not speak English.	3.03	3.06	-.471	.638
4. Learning an additional language will be good for a pupil's intellectual development.	3.55	3.72	-3.382	.001***
5. Learning English is an interesting and rewarding process.	3.54	3.75	-4.082	.001***

The above t-test has yielded gender difference concerning some items of perceived teacher beliefs at the value of .05 or .001. English teachers are perceived to react differently to both lower-order and higher-order instrumental reasons, in addition to intrinsic reasons. Girls perceive teachers to have more positive opinions regarding the above items.

4. Correlations between student attitudes towards English, their orientations to learn, their overall strength of motivation, their learning behaviour, their regulatory styles and teacher beliefs

A correlation test between student attitudes towards English and English teachers' beliefs on the importance of English has yielded no value at or above the cut-off point of .300, at the .01 or .05 level.

A correlation test between student orientations to learn and teacher beliefs has not yielded a single value at or above the cut-off point of .300, at the .01 or .05 level.

Similarly, a correlation test between student behaviour (desire to learn, general level and extra effort, prioritization of English study and persistence at learning) and teacher beliefs has not yielded any value at or above the cut-off point of .300, at the .01 or .05 level.

In addition, a correlation test between student overall strength of motivation and

teacher beliefs has not yielded any significant value at or above the cut-off point of .300, at the level of .01. In fact, the values are extremely minute.

Table 10.1.4.1 Summary on Correlations between Student Regulatory Styles and Teacher Beliefs (≥ ± .300)

Teacher Beliefs / Student Regulatory Styles	1. Learning English is not important at all. There is no need to put in any effort.	2. Pupils should learn English because it will be good for their future life and job prospects.	3. Nowadays, a person would lose face if s/he could not speak English.	4. Learning an additional language will be good for a pupil's intellectual development.	5. Learning English is an interesting and rewarding process.
1. Learning English is not important at all. There is no need to put in any effort.					
2. Pupils should learn English because it will be good for their future life and job prospects.		.339**			
3. Nowadays, a person would lose face if s/he could not speak English.			.443**		
4. Learning an additional language will be good for a pupil's intellectual development.				.387**	
5. Learning English is an interesting and rewarding process.					

(Significant at the .01 level)

The above correlation test between student regulatory styles and teacher beliefs has yielded interesting results, different from Norwich (1999). It can be stated that students who report to have extrinsic, introjected and identified regulations are likely to perceive matching, lower order instrumental reasons (e.g. job prospects), introjected reasons (e.g. the "face" issue) and higher order instrumental reasons (e.g. personal development) in their English teachers. The values are .339, .443 and .387 respectively, significant at the .01 level.

In summary, the above correlation tests between student attitudes towards English,

their orientations to learn, their overall strength of motivation, their learning behaviour. their regulatory styles and teacher beliefs have produced very limited values at/above the cut-off point of .300, significant at the .01 or .05 level. The exceptions might be with some of the student regulatory styles, which are obviously correlated with matching teacher beliefs. Therefore, fascinating conclusions appear again. Data based on the traditional L2 motivation theory suggests that teacher belief transmitting might not be a major source of teacher influence on student attitudes, orientations, motivation level and behaviour at the current stage. However, data based on the self-regulation theory suggests that there is a certain degree of correlation between teacher beliefs and corresponding styles of student motivation (introjected, identified and external in a descending order).

II. Perceived Teacher Influence and Correlating it with Motivational Aspects

1. Level of teacher influence on student motivation

Questionnaire Data

Question 15, using a five-point Likert scale, examines the level of perceived teacher influence on motivation, with measurements ranging from "very negative" to "very positive". Below is a table summarising its percentages, mean and *SD*.

Table 10.2.1.1 Level of Perceived Teacher Influence from the Main Questionnaire Survey

		Valid Percent	Mean	*SD*
Teacher Influence on Motivation	Very positive	25.7	3.84	0.95
	Slightly positive	43.1		
	No influence	22.8		
	Slightly negative	6.1		
	Very negative	2.3		

From the above, nearly 70% of the main survey participants have rated teacher influence as positive, 23% of them have reported no teacher influence and only 8% have suffered a negative influence. However, teacher influence on student motivation is still

small (mean = 3.84, near "slightly positive", value = 4).

Interview data

Table 10.2.1.2 Perceived Level of Influence from Current English Teachers (n = 60)

Medium, negative	No	Slightly positive/ some and positive	Medium, positive	Fairly high, positive/ quite high, positive	High, positive	Very high, positive	Positive, but level unspecified	Negative, but level unspecified
1	7	19	5	8	10	2	6	1

Table 10.2.1.3 Level of Influence from Current English Teachers (n = 4) – Individual Cases

Student 20	difficult to appraise the influence
Student 43	a bit of influence, both positive and negative
Student 44	slight, positive influence on general motivation; no direct influence on English
Student 59	highly positive; possible negative influence as well

Table 10.2.1.4 Level of Influence from Former English Teachers (n = 28)

High, negative	No	Slightly positive/ some, positive	Fairly high, positive/ quite high, positive	High, positive	Very high, positive	Positive, but level unspecified	Negative, but level unspecified
1	4	9	2	5	1	4	2

The above tables have summarised the perceived influences from current and former English teachers. All of the students interviewed (n = 64) have commented on their current English teachers or have given an overall description of influences from their English teachers as a group. 28 of them have also given explicit comments on the strength of influences from English teachers they had met in the past.

Table 10.2.1.2 illustrates that students reporting a slightly positive current teacher influence form the largest category (19 out of 64, 29.7%). Those that have found an influence ranging from fairly strong and positive to very strong and positive, when combined, are very considerable in number, too (n = 20, 31.3%). These can be seen as two distinct groups of students regarding perceived current teacher influences.

A second table on current English teachers has listed four individual cases where

teacher influence is more complicated, mainly with negative and positive influences but the overall rating of which is unknown. Among them, one case is very interesting in that the respondent has not felt an improvement in subject-specific motivations; rather, her general academic motivation has been influenced. The table summarising influences from former English teachers, similarly, has identified two things – the number of respondents rating teacher influence as slightly positive continues to be the highest; however, when tallies on teacher influences ranging from fairly high and positive to very high and positive are combined, it accounts for a considerable percentage again.

In summary, the interview data has allowed a more complicated picture of teacher influence to emerge at times. In addition, the data suggests slightly higher student ratings regarding the strength of such influence. However, when taken as a whole, both questionnaire and interview data sets tend to anchor teacher influence as near 'slightly positive".

2. Gender difference on perceived teacher influence

Table 10.2.2.1 T-test on Perceived Teacher Influence on Motivation

	GENDER	N	Mean	t	*p*
Teacher Influence on Motivation	Male	301	3.84	-.139	.889
	Female	309	3.84		

The above t-test concerning teacher influence on motivation does not suggest significant gender difference ($t = -.139$, $p = .889$). Boys and girls from the main sample have similar views on the strength of teacher influence.

3. Correlation between student attitudes to English, orientations to learn, overall level of motivation, behaviour, regulatory styles and perceived teacher influence

A correlation test between student attitudes towards English and perceived teacher influence has yielded no value (.192) above the cut-off point of .300, at the significance level of .01.

A correlation test between student orientations to learn and perceived teacher influence, at the level of .01 or .05, has not yielded any value at or above the cut-off point of .300.

In addition, a correlation test between student overall level of motivation and perceived

teacher influence has not yielded any value (.213) at or above the cut-off point of .300, at the significance level of .01.

Similarly, a correlation test between student learning behaviour (general and extra effort, prioritization, retention and desire) and perceived teacher influence has not yielded any value at or above the cut-off point of .300, at the .01 significance level.

Finally, a correlation test between student regulatory styles and perceived teacher influence level has not yielded a single value at or above the cut-off point of .300, at the .01 significance level.

In summary, a similar conclusion (as in the case of parents) might be reached when analysing quantitative data – perceived teacher influence at the researched stage is not highly correlated to reported student mentality or behaviour in the field of motivation.

III. Means of Teacher Influence

1. Means of teacher influence – qualitative data from the questionnaires

Question 16 collects qualitative data on how English teachers are perceived to impact on student motivation. 397 students (total = 610) left 462 comments, which were sorted out by hand. The results are not straightforward, partly due to the fact that teacher influences are complicated and can be felt at varied levels. In addition, the categorization process was further affected by a number of short, vague and decontextualized comments, and by the fact that student description of teacher behaviour were often mixed with comments on impact of such behaviour. Teacher behaviour described by the participants can lead to polemic impacts and matching student reactions, as in the case of teacher pressure. Without space, it was impossible to investigate the stories behind such description; therefore, some sub-categories may contain items that resemble items in other groups. Caution is needed to look at the emerging themes.

Table 10.3.1.1 Summary on Perceived Means of Teacher Influence (n = 462)

1. The Teaching Process (n = 220, mean = 4.1)
1.1 Presentation (n = 5, mean = 3.6)
1.2 Command of key language/knowledge points (n = 1, value = 5)
1.3 Expected learning effects/results(n = 7, mean = 3.9)
1.4 Classroom activities (n = 18, mean = 4.3)
1.5 Instruction/support/help/suggestions given at study (n = 38, mean = 4.3)
1.6 Assignment (n = 12, mean = 4.3)
1.7 Communicating in/ Use of English (n = 6, mean = 4.7)
1.8 Pressure (including monitoring) at study (n = 52, mean = 4.1)
1.9 Teacher encouragement (n = 20, mean = 4.4)
1.10 Contingent reinforcement (n = 9, mean = 2.5)
1.11 Consideration of learning materials (n = 6, mean = 4.5)
1.12 Fostering intrinsic motivation (n = 23, mean = 4.0)
1.13 Fostering integrative motivation (n = 6, mean = 4.2)
1.14 Fostering positive attitude towards English/English study (related to teacher attitudes toward English/English study) (n = 3, mean = 4.7)
1.15 Assessment of pupil learning abilities (n = 1, value = 4)
1.16 Feedback (n = 2, mean = 4.5)
1.17 Use of the target language at teaching – role model 3 (n = 2, mean = 4.0)
1.18 Language surrounding (n = 2, mean =4.0)
1.19 Streaming (n = 1, value = 4)
1.20 Consolidation of knowledge (n = 4, mean = 3.5)
1.21 Teacher ability beliefs (n = 2, mean 4.5)
2. The Teacher Factors (n = 225, mean = 4.0)
2.1 Teaching style/effect/methods (n = 91, mean = 3.7)
2.2 Teacher expectation (n = 2, mean = 5.0)
2.3 Teacher attitude toward English (Understanding of task value) (n = 70, mean = 4.2)
2.4 Personal charm and other traits (n = 36, mean = 4.1)
2.5 English proficiency – role model 1 (n = 13, mean = 4.2)
2.6 Active role – role model 2 (n = 8, mean = 4.6)
2.7 Teacher care (pastoral) (n = 5, mean = 4.0)
3. Others (n = 17)
3.1 General comments (n = 9, mean = 4.7)
3.2 Explicit, no/negative influence
6. Unclear or irrelevant comments

The above comments fall into two main groups: statements on the teaching process and responses regarding the teacher factors. The first group has 220 comments and the related mean teacher influence is 4.1 (slightly positive). The second group has 225 comments and the mean influence is 4.0 (slightly positive). It is interesting to find that students in Shanghai attach equal importance to the English teacher's personal qualities and her/his teaching process.

The first group of comments was further divided into 21 subgroups. However, some of those subcategories are very small in size, including only a couple of comments. The subgroup of "classroom activities" has 18 comments (mean = 4.3). Students appear to

prefer different types of classroom activities. Nevertheless, the impression is that these students want to have a package of varied, interesting tasks, with "sufficient chances to practise all aspects of …English". On the other hand, these students can still feel the influence of the NCEE. Therefore, exercises, such as mock test items, which would lead to a higher score in the exams are also welcome. The subgroup of "instruction/support/help/suggestions" has 38 items and the mean influence is 4.3. This group of comments (as reflected in the title,) deals with the teacher's cognitive and metacognitive support, in addition to individually-tailored suggestions for effective learning. The subgroup of "assignment" has 12 comments (mean = 4.3). In most cases, the students appear to be happy with the appropriateness of the assignments; however, one student has found the amount to be too huge. These students have also mentioned that their teachers give assignments to fulfill two purposes: consolidating classroom learning and keeping the study momentum. The subgroup of "communicating in/ use of English" is a small one, but the related high rating of teacher influence (mean = 4.7) reflects the perceived importance of oral language output in an EFL classroom and the key role of the English teacher in such communication.

The subcategory of "pressure at study" is a fairly big one, including 52 items (mean = 4.1). The English teachers are found to exert pressure through delivering tests, reasoning with students, reminding, urging, pushing or even forcing them to learn, talking with the parents at parents' nights, monitoring the learning process, etc. Occasionally, the teachers retain students after class or send them to cram classes organized by themselves. It is found that the above strategies have different impact on different groups of students; it leads to ambivalent or even negative feelings in some students. Nevertheless, the impression is that students in Shanghai would generally welcome a certain level of pressure, thinking it a necessary part of successful learning. It is also felt that if pressure is exerted in accompaniment with encouragement, it will work better.

The subcategory of "teacher encouragement" has 20 comments (mean = 4.4). It collects items on teacher emotional support. The subcategory of "contingent reinforcement" has 9 items and the related mean teacher influence is 2.5, slightly negative. The rating is as such because the majority of its items are negative comments, involving the use of criticism, ridicule, sarcasm, threatening as well as punishment (often

in the sense of asking students to copy things repetitively). There are also comments on how the English teachers in Shanghai foster student intrinsic (n = 23, mean = 4.0) and integrative (n = 6, mean = 4.2) motivations. The teachers attempt to improve student interest at study by the introduction of English movies, songs, idioms and text-based short plays into the classroom. While doing so, they aim to send two messages: English learning could be fun and English as a language has its unique charm. A specifically interesting comment involves triggering a different type of intrinsic motivation – IM to accomplish (Vallerand, 1997). That student has found his/her English teacher to be conveying high teacher expectations under the disguise of ironical comments. "Uses the strategy of stimulating me to learn by telling me that I cannot do well or there is no need for me to study hard, etc., [using ironical tone to convey the fact that s/he has actually high expectations on me and if I do not do well s/he will be disappointed.]" The teachers in Shanghai are also reported to influence student integrative motivation by describing interesting things happening abroad (including their own experiences) and introducing to their students foreign customs and thoughts embedded in the English language and cultures of English-speaking countries.

The second group of student comments is further divided into seven smaller units. The first subcategory of "teaching style/effect/methods", also the biggest one, has 91 items and the related mean is 3.7. About one third of the comments included are negative ones, which have affected the overall rating. Students have given positive comments on teaching styles that support one's autonomy (e.g. Noels, 2001a; Noels *et al.*, 1999), are clear in instruction, are lively, relaxed, humorous, inductive and highly organized, and deliver rich materials with the help of effective mnemonic strategies. In contrast, there are negative comments on poor teaching effects connected with boring, inefficient classes, a too-pragmatic or exam-tied teaching ethos, lots of grammar teaching, meaningless materials, teacher mistakes and an over-reliance on rote memory. The subcategory of "teacher expectation" is an extremely small one. However, the mean rating of 5.0 illustrates the great importance of explicit, positive teacher expectations. The subclass of "teacher attitudes towards English" has 70 items, being the second largest, and the related mean is 4.2. There has been a prevalence of practicality in terms of teacher attitudes towards the importance of English or teacher understanding of the task value. However,

where teachers are perceived to show enthusiasm at English and where they practise what they preach (i.e., when there is an ideal matching between belief and behaviour), students tend to give very high ratings.

The subgroup of "personal charm and other traits" is also a fairly big one, having 36 items (mean = 4.1), mainly positive. There are idiosyncratic comments illustrating the fact that students can be affected by very different teacher personal traits. However, the general positive comments include words like conscientious, meticulous, patient, affable, responsible, caring, approachable, warm, agreeable, funny and full of vitality. The only negative comments complain about teacher self-centeredness and a "poor teacher image, ability and quality". Both the subcategories of "teacher English proficiency level" and "teacher active role" can be regarded as part of teacher role modelling. Within the latter, students commented on the importance of exerting one's influence through words and deeds. This might have something to do with the Confucius idea of viewing teachers and other types of authorities (such as parents) as providing standards for behaviour.

Finally, about 17 statements are left out as being too general or vague, or being comments on no/negative teacher influence without giving reasons.

Table 10.3.1.2 Most Prevalent Means of the Teachers' Influence (n ≥ 20)

1. The Teaching Process (n = 220, mean = 4.1)
1.5 Instruction/support/help/suggestions given at study (n = 38, mean = 4.3)
1.8 Pressure (including monitoring) at study (n = 52, mean = 4.1)
1.9 Teacher encouragement (n = 20, mean = 4.4)
1.12 Fostering intrinsic motivation (n = 23, mean = 4.0)
2. The Teacher Factors (n = 225, mean = 4.0)
2.1 Teaching style/effect/methods (n = 91, mean = 3.7)
2.3 Teacher attitude towards English (Understanding of task value) (n = 70, mean = 4.2)
2.4 Personal charm and other traits (n = 36, mean = 4.1)

In summary, the numerous comments on means of teacher influences are seen to fall into two big groups – comments on the teaching process and comments on teacher-related factors, which share equal importance as containing a similar number of items. Among the varied subgroups of factors of teacher influences, those presented in the table above are the most prevalently used. It can be seen from the above that teacher attitudes are still an important factor that may influence, and in terms of direct socialization of motivation/attitudes (Dörnyei, 1994), teachers' transmitting of positive task values will reach an optimal effect when accompanied with enthusiasm or matching behaviour.

2. Means of teacher influence – the interview data

46 interview participants described how their current and former English teachers affected their motivation. Although the data collected have allowed more insight of what are perceived as influential in teachers, it appears to be scattered and difficult to manage.

General comments

Seven students have made general comments on how their teachers as a group have influenced their motivation. One comment is especially interesting.

> "48. English teachers often emphasize the importance of English as a subject, and the belief that students must learn every subject well has been deeply embedded into our minds. Therefore, this attitude of teachers is very important for me to stimulate my desire to learn."

The above is illustrative of many Chinese students' mentality regarding academic study. Perhaps due to an ethos of hard work embedded in the Confucius cultural heritage societies, Chinese students are prepared to invest effort at every school subject – thinking it their responsibility to do well. Argumentation delivered by teachers from this perspective might have an impact on students who are externally motivated to learn English but who are very well induced into a culture of learning.

Summary on means of influences from both current and former English teachers

2. Means of teacher influence – the interview data

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Summary on means of influences from both current and former English teachers

Table 10.3.2.1 Summary on Means of Teachers' Influences from the Interviews

1. The Teaching Process
1.1 Classroom Instruction/ Teaching Activities (n = 13) 1.2 Teacher Help (n = 9) 1.3 Teacher Encouragement (n = 6) 1.4 Teacher Pressure (n = 13) *1.4.1 Teacher urging* *1.4.2 Teacher pressure* *1.4.3 Teacher expectations/standards* 1.5 Teacher Use of English – Role Modeling + Language Input (n = 8) 1.6 Communication with Students in English (n = 1) 1.7 Promotion of Integrative Motivation (n = 7) 1.8 Fostering of Intrinsic Motivation (n = 5) 1.9 Teacher –student Rapport (through care and love) (n = 5) 1.10 Autonomy Support (n = 2) 1.11 Negative factors (n = 3) (Negative impact) *1.11.1 Nagging* *1.11.2 Teacher inaccessibility* 1.12 Confidence/Self Efficacy Improvement (n = 2) 1.13 Rewarding and Criticism – including unfair criticism without proper investigating (n = 3) 1.14 Use of Authentic Materials (n = 1)
2. Teacher-related Factors
2.1 Teacher Characteristics (n = 16) 2.2 Teacher Proficiency/ Qualification (n = 7) 2.3 Teaching Effects/ Styles (n = 15) 2.4 Teacher Attitudes (n = 9) 2.5 Communication of Importance and Other Ideas (n = 11) 2.6 Teacher Understanding of the Target Language (n = 1) 2.7 Teacher Role Modelling of Hard work (n = 1)

Table 10.3.2.2 Most Prevalent Means of Teachers Influence (n ≥ 8)

1. The Teaching Process (n = 220, mean = 4.1)
1.1 Classroom Instruction/ Teaching Activities (n = 13)
1.2 Teacher Help (n = 9)
1.4 Teacher Pressure (n = 13)
1.5 Teacher Use of English – Role Modelling + Language Input (n = 8)
2. The Teacher Factors (n = 225, mean = 4.0)
2.1 Teacher Characteristics (n = 16)
2.3 Teaching Effects/ Styles (n = 15)
2.4 Teacher Attitudes (n = 9)
2.5 Communication of Importance and Other Ideas (n = 11)

Table 10.3.2.1 on means of teacher influences has illustrated a very similar pattern compared with the main questionnaire qualitative data (Table 10.3.1.1), only taking and adding a couple of items in each of the two main categories. In addition, those more prevalent factors (Table 10.3.2.2) are similar to the often mentioned categories in the questionnaires (Table 10.3.1.2), especially in the case of teacher-related factors.

Perhaps in the interviews (Table 10.3.2.2), even more emphasis has been laid on

teacher attitudes towards English and communication of ideas relevant to English/English study, as an important factor influencing student motivation. Surprisingly, fostering of intrinsic motivation and teacher encouragement have not been given the same amount of attention as in the questionnaires. Instead, attention has been focused on classroom/teaching activities and teacher use of English at or outside class. Focus on teacher use of the target language may have something to do with the fact that more capable students have been included in interviewing.

3. Suggestions and criticism on teacher strategies – the interview data

Table 10.3.3.1 Student Comments on their Current English Teachers

1. Suggestions on /critique of teaching (n = 20)
2. Suggestions on improving integrative (also intrinsic) motivation through introduction of issues like culture and customs (n = 5)
3. Suggestions on improvement of teacher-student rapport (n = 4)
4. Suggestions on learning materials (n = 3)
5. Suggestion on better understanding of student motivation (n = 1)
6. Suggestions on teacher advice/help/encouragement (n = 4)
7. Suggestions on learning activities (n = 3)
8. Suggestions on improving an understanding of the English language (n = 2)
9. The importance of teacher attitudes – a load of covert and overt messages (n = 2)
10. Suggestions on/critique of classroom management (n = 2)
11. Comments on teacher qualification and teacher personal factors (n = 6)
12. The importance of fostering student interest (n = 5)

In the interviews, among 48 students critiquing teacher strategies, 12 have expressed no wish to see teachers improve and the rest have offered a myriad of ideas mainly concerning their current teachers, which have been subsequently summarised into 12 broad headings. In fact, those ideas are reminiscent of the key instructions offered by books on effective teaching and learning (e.g. Kyricaou, 1997), especially in the case of languages: suggestions on classroom teaching, classroom management, learning activities and materials; the need to improve students' intrinsic and integrative motivations; the need for teachers to get familiar with their students' motivational styles; the need for teachers to offer help, advice and encouragement; the importance of building a good teacher-student rapport, the impact of teacher attitude and communication of such attitudes on motivation, the influence of teacher personalities and teacher proficiency/qualification; and the necessity of promoting a better understanding of the target language and culture. It can be argued that all the above has direct or indirect

influences on student motivation when learning an L2.

The category of "suggestions on/critique of teaching" (n = 20) is the largest: students are really eloquent on what type of teaching they want and what have been regarded as important in today's Shanghai. The comments can be read from two levels. At a more general level, it is evident to see the tension between an exam-oriented system, the current need of the students for fun at study, and the need of the society for citizens with a broad knowledge base and practical skills. There is still a great care among the students for clear illustration of grammar, a good teacher ability to control key language points, a more focused and methodical presentation reflecting the exam requirements. On the other hand, the students have expressed a strong desire that their teachers should broaden their scope of teaching, perhaps in that more knowledge on words, more knowledge on the language and more information on the target cultures and customs should be dealt with. Another tension is caused by a more traditional view of teaching, based on the written skills, as well as an urgent need from the society to get more people who have mastered practical skills and who can genuinely communicate with the outside world in an L2. The tension between the student desire to have fun at study and the exam-oriented setting is further illustrated by student comments concerning learning activities: strategies like recitation and writing from memory have caused negative reactions. However, some of the messages are critique directed at individual teachers. There have been negative comments on individual teachers' teaching pace, habit to ramble and repeat and inability to give meaningful explanation that facilitates study for exams.

The category regarding improvement of integrative motivation might be slightly misleading. It has included comments expressing a desire to know the target culture and customs and to hear about life in English speaking countries as well as in other places abroad. Therefore, it can be an illustration of a general curiosity of other peoples and places, as well as a desire to be closer to life and people from the mainstream society of the target language. However, integrative motivation and IM sometimes overlap: some students may want to learn about the target culture out of a wish to become closer to people from that culture; at the same time, they may also aim to improve their intrinsic motivation with the rich, exotic information related to culture. For the relationship between integrative motivation and IM, Noels (2001a; b) and Noels *et al.* (2001) have

found a high correlation between IM and integrativeness, although the two concepts are thought to reflect two different processes.

The perceived need for teachers to be familiar with student motivational styles is another category worthwhile looking at. Though it has only one item, it represents a heightened awareness among students of the importance of L2 motivation and the need to "manipulate" it. In the case of teacher advice and help, students have expressed a wish to get trained in the field of metacognitive strategies. It is also motivating to see that some students have realised the significance of "the whole language" policy at teaching and study; a better understanding of the target language that can be achieved with overt and covert messages from teachers may lead to a better student attitude as well as a higher level of motivation. What is more, teacher-related factors are perceived to be crucial for a student's motivation level. Those factors include teacher attitudes, teacher qualification and proficiency, as well as a range of stable or unstable personal qualities.

Finally, caution is still needed when reading comments that express no wish to see teacher improvement: it can be caused by a high satisfaction of the teaching quality, a passive acceptance of the authority or reality among some Chinese students, a tendency to attribute failure to the self especially in the cases of low ability students, or a healthier tendency to rely on self-motivating strategies.

In summary, this chapter has examined the perceived influence of English teachers, incorporating data from the main questionnaire survey and the main interviews. As in the case of the previous chapter, the issues under discussion include perceived English-related attitudes, SDT-based belief transmitting, level of influence and prevalent means of influence, from the researched group of "others".

In a fairly impressionist way, English teachers from Shanghai were reported to firstly endorse extrinsic reasons, to be followed by identified and intrinsic reasons; they were also perceived to exert a small but positive influence, and a two-tiered approach is needed to understand varied means of teacher influence. However, for a more balanced evaluation, a further degree of data synthesis is needed, which will be achieved in the last chapter of this thesis.

Chapter 11 Perceived Peer Influences

I. Peer Attitudes towards English

1. Perceived peer beliefs towards English – the questionnaire data

Question 17, resembling questions on parental and teacher influences in design, studies peer beliefs on whether or not English should be learnt and why. It adopts a four-point Likert Scale and five statements matching varied student regulatory styles. Below is a table summarizing its percentages, means and *SD*s.

Table 11.1.1.1 Perceived Peer Beliefs

	N	Not true at all (%)	Not very true (%)	Slightly true (%)	Very true (%)	Mean	*SD*
1. Learning English is not important at all. There is no need to put in any effort.	610	56.1	35.9	5.9	2.1	1.54	0.70
2. Pupils should learn English because it will be good for their future life and job prospects.	610	2.0	4.3	44.3	49.5	3.41	0.67
3. Nowadays, a person would lose face if s/he could not speak English.	609	8.2	30.7	40.4	20.7	2.74	0.88
4. Learning an additional language will be good for a pupil's intellectual development.	610	3.6	16.1	43.6	36.7	3.13	0.81
5. Learning English is an interesting and rewarding process.	610	9.0	26.2	42.1	22.6	2.78	0.90

In comparison with other groups, peers are perceived to hold the most negative opinion regarding the importance of English and reasons for learning, which is in line with Bartram (2006b) focusing on three European countries including England. Peers tend to suggest that other students learn English for career prospects. They also seem to regard higher-order instrumental reasons (e.g., personal development) as valid. However, they do not think EFL learning as a process of fun.

2. Perceived peer attitudes toward English – the interview data

In the interviews, the participants were asked to separate peer groups (e.g. peers from the school setting and peers of friendship ties) when describing peer attitudes. A number of those students stated that they did not perceive the need to do the above, because their schoolmates and friends were from the same population and it would suffice for them to talk in a general sense, which is different to the West (e.g. Bartram, 2006b). It is understandable since students in Shanghai have more limited chances to make friends than those in Western societies, perhaps due to long hours spent at school, fewer social channels for friendship and a closer family tie; very often, the above students have to choose friends from the same class – those closer to them in geography have a higher chance to get better acquainted.

Perhaps consequently, the majority of the respondents (n = 58) have commented on peers (classmates or schoolmates) from their schools first and only 16 of the above have found the need to comment on attitudes of other peer groups (mainly friends). Another six students have exclusively reported on peers of friendship ties. It is clear from the interviews that the researched students mainly feel peer influence from the school setting.

Friends

Comments on peers of friendship ties are indicative of their like/dislike of English, why they have current attitudes and why they think English important. Within this subgroup, the number of friends that like or dislike English differs in individual cases. Some respondents have reported that the majority of their friends like English; some have friends split in terms of attitudes (i.e., half like English, half dislike English, or some like English and some dislike English). Some have reported cases similar to the general situation in Shanghai – most friends are pragmatic in thinking and regard English mainly as a subject; all of them know the importance of English and its popularity in Shanghai; however, few friends have interest in English. Occasionally, students have reported on being surrounded by friends that have very negative attitudes. In a number of cases, students have found their friends to have attitudes (good or bad) very similar to theirs, though it is impossible to decide if it is caused by an original choosing process or by a gradual mutual influence, or both, as suggested in Eccles *et al.* (1998).

There have been interesting descriptions on why friends of the above participants like English. An obvious reason is that a number of such friends had been to language schools before and have consequently had a better training as well as more positive attitudes. Those people unsurprisingly attach much importance to English study at the current stage. Secondly, the students that have friends from abroad or living abroad temporarily are clearly in a fortunate position, in that they are not only better connected regarding English learning (for example, those friends very often speak good English), but they also get to know more convincing reasons for the relevance and the internal charm of the English language. A third type of friends that like English seem to have either enjoyed the learning process, or have developed very positive attitudes towards L2s in general. In addition, high achievements are found to lead to positive attitudes in the participants' friends. Next, there have been occasional reports on curiosity and an open attitude towards the diversified, changing world being an underlying reason for positive attitudes towards English as a useful medium of information. Finally, integrative motivation (e.g., like of English songs and other cultural products) has been identified as contributing to those friends' positive attitudes.

Among a number of respondents that have reported negative peer attitudes, three students have given more detailed illustration regarding the underlying reasons. Unfortunately, one of them is from a suburban ordinary school having friends from a local sports institute and another two, though from a city key school, are recruited from outside Shanghai and have friends living elsewhere or of similar situations. Therefore, their data might not be representative. Their friends tend not to see the relevance of English learning, either with little opportunity to use it in China or to be abroad, or find English highly difficult and uninteresting to learn. The student having friends from the local sports school has also criticized his friends for a general indifference to knowledge. In addition, two students have reported a form of nationalism that highly regards the national language (Mandarin Chinese) and scorns efforts spent on an L2.

It is again evident that the above peer group generally has no problem recognizing the importance of English or having a certain level of motivation even when negative attitudes are reported. The reasons underlying the importance of English are mainly pragmatic: English is important for the NCEE, for job prospects, for future personal

development and for studying and living abroad. In the cases of neutral attitudes, there have been anecdotal comments on the power of habit forming – with so many years spent on English it has now become effortless to continue spinning the wheel of learning.

Peers from the school setting

Comments given by the participants on their classmates and schoolmates help to better understand issues like general attitudes towards English in schools, why some students like or dislike English, why they think English important and gendered attitudes towards English.

Firstly, it can be felt that in most cases, attitudes towards English at a class or school level might form a roughly bell-shaped distribution, with the majority of students feeling indifferent to the course, with fewer students disliking it and with very few students loving it. The respondents have also made an observation that the majority of their peers from schools hold more pragmatic reasons to learn and the prevalent types of motivation might be more external.

Another interesting point about the data is that peer attitudes as a whole are felt to vary according to firstly school type and secondly school location. Respondents from key schools have a higher chance to report on more mature and positive attitudes among their peers. It might be caused by a mixed load of reasons: 1) social economical reasons might have a role to play regarding educational achievements (despite the fact that there is still a nine-year compulsory education), since students from better-off families tend to have more resources invested on their education. This might be particular the case with L2 learning, where better-off parents have generally more positive attitudes, higher expectation and the strength to send their kids abroad shortly. Unfortunately, new classes have still not fully taken shape in China and this study did not allow collection of relevant data, either, which prevents the research student from further examining her "hunches"; 2) schools of varied status tend to get very different teaching and teacher resources, with city-key middle schools generally taking the lead. For example, there have been two explicit comments on how poor teacher qualification and ability leads to negative attitudes at the class level, both of which concern an ordinary secondary school in the city centre; 3) students attending key schools have higher academic capacity, more positive

attitudes and higher motivation toward study in general. They also tend to be more positive about competition at school. However, within the same type of school, school ethos seems to be another factor that affects peer attitudes as a whole. There have been comments that in a city-level key middle school, students' attitudes towards English have been negatively influenced by that school's emphasis on science subjects, at the expense of arts and humanities. In addition to school type, school location has been found to influence peer attitudes as a whole. The suburban school tends to have a more negative attitude than schools from the city centre; downtown schools, also nearer to tourist, commercial and other functional areas with more foreigners and where English is used more often, tend to witness more positive attitudes than schools located in more remote, isolated areas.

It is almost acknowledged by every respondent that the importance of English has been known at least to the majority of their peers at school. Most of their peers are motivated by external reasons, and the basic impetus in many cases is still the NCEE and a higher score. Other external reasons include job prospects, the fact that English is an international medium for communication, the general usefulness of the language, English as an academic tool to success and the desire to study abroad. Whilst most students seem to have a certain level of motivation even with external reasons, a couple of respondents have criticized the above situation as inadequate and stated that more positive attitudes are needed.

More internal reasons that are related to positive attitudes include general interest in L2s, the sensational feeling students experience once they are capable of expressing themselves in different linguistic systems (a sense of competence, e.g. Deci and Ryan, 1985), like of/interest in the English language specifically, love of Western pop cultural products such as English songs, love of English cultural products such as black humour expressed in the language and works originally written in English, and the reason that English learning is a novel experience. Integrative motivation has been mentioned specifically by a couple of respondents, perhaps due to a perceived great cultural influence from abroad.

The reasons that relate to negative attitudes include low current or prior achievements, difficulty of the language leading to a sense of frustration and worry, a dull, energy-

consuming process of learning, too many things to memorise, little introduction to the target culture(s), little understanding of the interesting bits of the language, pressure from other courses, a lack of interest in academic study in general, as well as incompetent English teachers. In fact, a prevalent reason that splits student attitudes within this group of respondents appears to be prior and current achievements in terms of marks. One student has given a very good description of within-school streaming based on current ability/achievements and what attitudes different groups of students hold.

> "... C classes have students starting later and suffering a lot learning E, so they cannot feel the beauty of E. B classes (I am in a B class) have medium-level achievers, who have interest in E, but are more or less confined by the syllabus. A classes have students that are highly motivated. They genuinely like English and will try every means to find time for their individualized study; they are talented and have the capacity for additional learning. The more time they spend on E, the better their language sense becomes." (Student 20, Summary Table p. 8)

In summary, one student in particular will be quoted to allow a general flavour of what comments the respondents have made regarding reasons for English learning.

> "...
> 2) The most important reason is that there is now more and more communication conducted in English home and abroad; most of my classmates appear to have a desire to talk freely with foreigners, with blond hair and blue eyes, without obstacles.
> 3) For those who do not have genuine interest in English, it can still be a useful tool (e.g. boys who love Western sports need to know English to watch ballgames).
> 4) In addition, English is still a fairly new thing, therefore many people have a desire to explore this domain and make their discoveries." (Student 22, Summary Table, p. 9)

It is also commented that more positive attitudes, especially like of English can lead to, for example, a higher level of confidence and a desire/willingness to communicate and demonstrate one's talent in the public. Intrinsic tendencies are also seen to impact on sustainability of English study, which is in line with the different outcomes from more self-determined or controlled motivations (e.g. Deci and Ryan, 2000; Noels, 2005).

> "I think that those who genuinely love English will learn it all their life, and absorb knowledge from the most trivial part of their lives; however, those who learn it with pragmatic reasons may not continue to learn it after they have taken all the exams. They will also easily give up when they are busy with work or are worried about their life, since they have not formed any personal feeling towards the English language. The impact will be different." (Student 19, Summary Table p.7)

In the interviews, there have been a fair number of comments on gender differences regarding peer attitudes towards English (n = 9). Boys tend to think English less important in comparison with sciences and Maths and have a lower level of motivation based on their "cost-effective" thought – it is found that a disproportionate amount of time and energy is needed to progress on English especially after one gets intermediate-level scores. The latter has led to comments that the current exam system does not facilitate development of positive attitudes as well as intrinsic or other higher forms of motivation. Some boys find English difficult to learn; while others regard it to be a subject mastery of which is solely reliant on memory and is consequently a girly thing (e.g. Cziser and Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei *et al.*, 2006). Since it is perceived to be a subject not needing intelligence, some boys prefer not to do well perhaps to illustrate their masculinity like in Western cultures (Bartram, 2006b). As a result, boys tend to be more passive at study, take less effort and underachieve on English. In contrast, girls tend to have better attitudes because they care more about all-round development, they are perceived as having more talent for languages and English is comparatively easier to learn (effort is perceived to be the major factor for success). As a result, girls are willing to spend much more effort on English and more girls have developed higher forms of motivation.

> "Boys would feel ashamed should they fail their sciences or Maths, especially now we are in a science trial class; but they sometimes take pride in themselves when they get 59 [out of 100, where 60 is the passing line] and joke about their cleverness. I know that they want to show their talents on sciences as well as presenting a good image of themselves as boys, even though they know the importance of English, at least for the NCEE." (Student 62, Summary Table, p. 20)

Apart from the above, there have been occasional comments on forming of peer groups – "birds of a feather flock together", on relation between scores and motivation types and on relation between attitudes and motivation. It is reported that students with both extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation can achieve very highly in class. However, students mainly motivated by intrinsic reasons might be more successful in their development of life skills such as the ability to speak. There have also been comments that there does not seem to be a direct link between attitudes and motivational level (on a short-term base). Students with negative attitudes have been found to be highly motivated

and to work very hard. Some students clearly are capable of separating their personal feelings from their reasoning.

In summary, the majority of the interview respondents choose friends from their schoolmates/classmates, are comfortable making general comments on peers as a group and mainly feel peer influence from the school setting. Attitude variation seems to be more a consequence of school type, location and ethos, making the researched context different from the West where peer cultures, especially anti peer cultures (e.g. Hufton *et al.*, 2002), are in action. Generally, peers are perceived to have no problem understanding the importance of English due to the influence of the society and to mainly hold pragmatic reasons at study; however, there is a bell-shaped distribution regarding like/dislike of English, with the majority of each class feeling neutral towards English; the reasons for like or dislike of English are individual but understandable; although not many respondents see the direct link between attitudes and motivational level or effort, some regard intrinsic tendencies to be capable of promoting confidence, WTC and willingness to perform, and most important of all, sustainability at study. Finally, gendered attitudes are reported, with girls being more positive towards learning; in some boys' cases, viewing L2 learning as incongruent to the development of a masculine identity may have contributed to their inferior attitudes.

3. Gender difference on perceived peer attitudes

Table 11.1.3.1 T-test on Perceived Peer Beliefs across Gender

	Boys	**Girls**	**t**	***p***
1. Learning English is not important at all. There is no need to put in any effort.	1.64	1.45	3.380	.001***
2. Pupils should learn English because it will be good for their future life and job prospects.	3.29	3.53	-4.470	.000***
3. Nowadays, a person would lose face if s/he could not speak English.	2.68	2.79	-1.515	.130
4. Learning an additional language will be good for a pupil's intellectual development.	2.98	3.28	-4.730	.000***
5. Learning English is an interesting and rewarding process.	2.61	2.95	-4.671	.000***

The above t-test has yielded gender differences concerning all items of peer beliefs, apart from the reason of learning English for "face" issues. The significance level is .001. Girls, again, perceive that their peers hold more positive opinions regarding English study.

4. Correlations between student attitude towards English, their orientations to learn, their overall strength of motivation, their learning behaviour, their regulatory styles and peer beliefs

A correlation test between student attitude towards English and peer beliefs on whether or not English is important and why has yielded no value at or beyond the cut-off points of ±.300, at the .01level.

Table 11.1.4.1 Summary on Correlations between Orientations to Learn and Peer Beliefs (≥ ± .300)

Peer Beliefs / Orientations to Learn	1. Learning English is not important at all. There is no need to put in any effort.	2. Pupils should learn English because it will be good for their future life and job prospects.	3. Nowadays, a person would lose face if s/he could not speak English.	4. Learning an additional language will be good for a pupil's intellectual development.	5. Learning English is an interesting and rewarding process.
Reason 01(career)		.312			
Reason 02(English fun)					.419
Reason 03(future importance)		.305			
Reason 04 (parents' wish)					
Reason 05(friendship)					
Reason 06(like English cultural products)					
Reason 07(course/exam requirements)					
Reason 08(future career development)		.344			
Reason 09(good at English)					
Reason 10(travel)					
Reason 11(marriage with foreigners)					
Reason 12(living in Shanghai)			.323		
Reason 13(international lang.)		.344			
Reason 14(a more cultivated person)		.353		.386	
Reason 15(going to English speaking countries)					

(Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed))

From the above, a correlation test between peer beliefs and student orientations to learn has mainly yielded negligible values between the cut-off points of ±.300. However, there appears to be a closer alignment of student orientations to peer beliefs, rather than to beliefs either from parents or teachers (also see Bartram, 2006b). It can be stated that the higher the students rate peer lower-order instrumental reasons (e.g. career prospects), the

more likely they will report to learn on consideration of career prospects (seeking employment = .312; career development = .344), the future importance of English (.305), the value of English as an international language (.344) and a desire to be a more cultivated person (.353) themselves. Interestingly, almost all the orientations from the substract of "Life/Career Aspects" have been mentioned above, apart from the reason of living in Shanghai. In addition, the more likely that peers are seen to learn English out of "face" issues, the more likely the participants will report to learn English because they are living in Shanghai. Still more, peer higher-order instrumental reasons (e.g. personal intellectual development) appear to have an obvious correlation with students' orientation of becoming a more cultivated person (.386), whilst peer rating of intrinsic reasons have a very obvious correlation with students' intrinsic orientation (.419).

Table 11.1.4.2 Summary on Correlations between Peer Beliefs and Student Learning Behaviour (≥ ±.300)

Learning Behaviour / Peer Beliefs	Effort outside of School	Prioritization	Persistence/ Retention	General Level of Effort	Desire
1. Learning English is not important at all. There is no need to put in any effort.					
2. Pupils should learn English because it will be good for their future life and job prospects.			.302		
3. Nowadays, a person would lose face if s/he could not speak English.					
4. Learning an additional language will be good for a pupil's intellectual development.			.305		
5. Learning English is an interesting and rewarding process.			.325		.369

(** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).)

The above correlation test between peer beliefs and the students' learning has yielded occasional values beyond the cut-off points of ±.300, significant at the .01 level. Student persistence appears to be obviously correlated to peer beliefs regarding both lower (.302) and higher order instrumental reasons (.305) as well as intrinsic reasons (.325). In addition, the higher the reported desire to learn English, the more likely peers are perceived to cherish the intrinsic values at EFL learning (.369).

A correlation test between student overall strength of motivation and peer beliefs has not yielded any significant value at or beyond the cut-off points of ±.300, at the level of .01. In fact, the values are very small.

Table 11.1.4.2 Summary on Correlations between Student Regulatory Styles and Peer Beliefs (≥ ± .300)

Peer Beliefs / Student Regulatory Styles	1. Learning English is not important at all. There is no need to put in any effort.	2. Pupils should learn English because it will be good for their future life and job prospects.	3. Nowadays, a person would lose face if s/he could not speak English.	4. Learning an additional language will be good for a pupil's intellectual development.	5. Learning English is an interesting and rewarding process.
Amotivation	.365				
External Regulation		.478			
Introjected Regulation			.468		
Identified Regulation				.532	.306
Intrinsic Regulation				.366	.512

(Significant at the .01 level)

From the above, peer beliefs on whether or not English is important and why have rather obvious correlations with student regulatory styles, the cut-off points being ±.300 and the significance level being .01: the more likely the peers are perceived to think English study unimportant, the more likely the participants themselves will report to have amotivation (.365); the more likely peers are seen to learn for lower-order instrumental reasons, the more likely the participants will report to be externally regulated (.478); the more the peers mention the "face" issues, the more likely the participants will report to have introjected regulation (.468). In addition, students' identified regulation appears to be fairly strongly correlated with peer higher-order instrumental reasons (.532) and obviously correlated with peer intrinsic reasons (.306). Finally, student intrinsic motivation has a fairly strong correlation with peer intrinsic reasons (.512) and an obvious correlation with peer higher-order instrumental reasons (.366).

In summary, the above correlation tests between perceived peer beliefs and student motivation-related mentality and behaviour have yielded some interesting results. Firstly, peer external reasons appear to have an obvious impact on most student orientations angled from career and life aspects; peer intrinsic reasons seem to have influence on the

intrinsic orientation; peer identification of "face" issues may have connection with the orientation of "life in Shanghai" – nowadays EFL skills might have been regarded as part of one's identity in Shanghai especially among the youngsters. Next, peer more self-determined (intrinsic and identified) and external reasons appear to impact on degree of persistence among the participants, whilst peer intrinsic reasons may also impact on a student's desire to learn. In addition, peer beliefs on the importance of English, both orders of instrumental reasons, introjected reasons and intrinsic reasons have very obvious correlations to matching, student regulatory styles; also, from the values, it is fascinating to see that the demarcation between identified and intrinsic regulations does not seem to be as clear-cut as expected. Finally, perhaps it is slightly surprising that despite all the above, student level of motivation does not seem to be obviously correlated with peer beliefs.

II. Perceived Peer Influence and Correlating it with Motivational Aspects

1. Level of peer influence on student motivation

Questionnaire Data

Question 18, adopting a five-point Likert scale, explores the strength of peer influence on motivation. Below is a table summarising its percentages, mean and *SD*.

Table 11.2.1.1 Level of Perceived Peer Influence from the Main Questionnaire Survey

		Valid Percent	Mean	*SD*
Peer Influence on Motivation	Very positive	11.3	3.54	0.81
	Slightly positive	38.7		
	No influence	43.9		
	Slightly negative	4.6		
	Very negative	1.5		
Valid N	610			

From the above, 50% of the main survey participants have rated peer influence as positive, about 44% of them have reported no peer influence and only 6% have found a negative peer influence. The mean with the above sample is 3.54, indicating a very

minute peer influence on EFL motivation.

Interview data

Table 11.2.1.2 Level of Peer Influence from the Interviews – General Comments (n = 55)

No/little	A little/slight/some	Medium	Fairly high	High/strong	Unclear (positive)	Unclear (negative)
16	22	3	2	2	9	1

As illustrated above, the majority of the interview participants (n = 55) have made general comments on peer influences; amongst them a majority have rated such influences as positive (n = 38, 70%). It is also apparent that the mode of peer influences within the above group is "slightly positive" (n = 22, 40%).

Table 11.2.1.3 Level of Peer Influence from the Interviews – Individual Cases

Number (n = 9)	Friends	Classmates/schoolmates
Student 3		girls – highly positive; boys – highly negative
Student 12	some positive influence	no
Student 23	some positive influence	no
Student 27	negative	positive
Student 28	no	some
Student 39	some positive influence	no
Student 49		those that like English – higher, positive; those that dislike English – negative
Student 59	no	slight, positive
Student 63	positive	mainly positive; competition occasionally has negative influence on confidence and motivation

The above table deals with cases (n = 9) reporting different influences from different peer groups. In three cases, there have been some positive influences from friends, but no influence from classmates/schoolmates. In two other cases, there has been no influence from friends, but a slight, positive influence from mates at school. Occasionally, there have been different peer groups from the school setting: girls and boys are reported to exert different influences, which is also the case with peers of different attitudes. It is also interesting to think that even the same group of people might exert different influences on different occasions.

In summary, both the questionnaire and interview data suggest that overall peers have a positive but very minute influence on student motivation. It is also felt from the

interviews that occasionally, different peer groups may exert different types of influence and an individual can feel different influences from different peer activities.

2. Gender difference on perceived peer influence

Table 11.2.2.1 T-test on Perceived Peer Influence on Motivation across Gender

	GENDER	N	Mean	t	*p*
Peer Influence on Motivation	Male	301	3.31	-7.049	.000***
	Female	309	3.76		

The above t-test reveals gender difference on peer influence at the level of .001. Girls (mean = 3.76) perceive a higher overall peer influence than boys (mean = 3.31).

3. Correlation between student attitude to English, orientations to learn, overall level of motivation, behaviour, regulatory styles and perceived peer influence

A correlation test between student attitude towards English and peer influence has yielded no value (.256) above the cut-off point of .300, at the significance level of .01.

A correlation test between student orientations to learn and peer influence, at the level of .01 or .05, has not yielded any value at or beyond the cut-off points of ±.300.

In addition, a correlation test between student overall level of motivation and peer influence has not yielded any value (.274) above the cut-off point of .300, at the significance level of .01.

Similarly, a correlation test between student learning behaviour (general and extra effort, prioritization, retention and desire) and peer influence has not yielded any value at or beyond the cut-off points of ±.300, at the .01 significance level.

Finally, a correlation test between student regulatory styles and peer influence level has not yielded a single value at or beyond the cut-off points of ±.300, at the .01 significance level.

In summary, a similar conclusion (as in the cases of parents and teachers) might be reached when analysing quantitative data – perceived peer influence at the researched stage is not highly correlated to reported student mentality or behaviour in the field of motivation.

III. Means of Peer Influence

1. Means of peer influence – qualitative data from the questionnaires

Question 19 collects qualitative data on how peers are perceived to impact on student motivation. 329 participants (total = 610) left 358 understandable answers, which were sorted out by hand: among them, 348 are statements of means of influence and another 10 are irrelevant. Below is a table summarising emerged categories on means of influence, which resemble what has been found in the pilot study. However, caution is needed again because the answers are decontextualized, are too brief at times and often mix observation of behaviour with personal commenting.

Table 11.3.1.1 Summary on Perceived Means of Peer Influence (n = 348)

1. Peer Examples (N = 72, mean = 3.7)
• 42. They study very hard on English. (5) • 332. My peers curse each other in English, and do not have a high level of motivation. **(1)** • 372. They just pay attention to grammar exercises; they do not care about reading. **(1)** • 557. Most of them have a poor English level. **(2)**
2. Peer Competition and Peer Comparison (N = 100, mean = 4.0)
• 12. We compare exam scores and our listening comprehension proficiency … (4) + • 82. My classmates compete against each other in a surreptitious way; they study English very hard, which cannot be seen at first sight. They are a group of people who hide their depth and ability. (4) • 89. Those super people at study can always get a full mark. I am jealous of them. **(1)** • 293. There is generally very sharp competition between my peers and me, which is the case with English, for one. My classmates and I become motivated because of competition. (5)
3. Peer Attitudes towards English (Study) and Understanding of its value (N = 32, mean = 3.3)
• 243. They have a negative influence on me, since they do not plan to seek employment with English skills; instead, they desire to learn more fashionable languages like Japanese and Korean. **(2)** • 246. Stress the importance of English when chatting or when exchanging information on learning. (4) • 267. More often than not, they learn English because it is a useful tool, not out of interest. **(2)** • 377. The students around me are exam-tied; they do not attach importance to English study otherwise. **(1)** • 541. My classmates argue "Is there any need for Chinese people to learn English? What can we gain even if we have mastered it?" **(2)**
4. Peer Help, Advice and Encouragement (N = 14, mean = 3.9)
• 93. They give me help and exert positive pressure on me. (4) • 300. They suggest that I listen to English broadcast and news more often, so as to practice my listening comprehension and speaking skills. (4) • 531. They encourage me. (4) • 609. They give me help at study. (4)
5. Peer Beliefs on How to Learn English (N = 1, mean = 3)
• 447. They think we should chat in English more often. (3)

6. Learning Atmosphere (N = 6, mean = 3.7)
• 148. They have created an atmosphere for study. (4) • 256. They create a learning milieu. (3)
7. Collaboration in Learning (N = 122, mean = 4.0)
7.1 Collaborative learning activities and mutual help given (N = 79, mean = 4.1)
• 13. We study together and make progress together ... (5) + • 21. We help each other/ collaborate at study. (4) • 110. We share our experience and tell each other of our learning methods. (4) • 116. We go to cram classes together. (4) • 118. We learn and take exams together ... and discuss about grammar. That is all. (5) +
7.2 Discussion of English/English study (N = 6, mean = 4.0)
• 85. We talk to each other about English. (3) • 141. We have discussions about English study. (4) • 222. We talk with each other about English. (4) • 301. We discuss about English ... (5) + • 367. We have discussions on English ... (5) + • 379. We talk about English and exchange our ideas. (3)
7.3 Communication in English (N = 34, mean = 3.9)
• 17. + We ... communicate in English. (5) • 339. We often talk to each other in everyday English. (5) • 345. We chat in English ... (4) + • 524. We talk to each other. (3)
7.4 Sharing learning resources (N = 3, mean = 4.0)
• 160. We recommend to each other good books on English. (4) • 311. We share computer games in English. (3) • 388. + introduce to each other related English magazines and interesting jokes in English. (5)
8. Friendship Ties (N = 1, mean = 5)
• 515. My friends and I have the same interest and hobbies. We have influence on each other. (5)

From the above, "peer examples" is a rather big category, having 72 items. This category is indicative of student observation of peer performance (mainly classmates) at English study and the possible influence on their motivation. Unsurprisingly, there can be negative influences exerted when the peers do not "behave" properly at study, have low motivation, are too exam-tied or have poor performances, for instance. The second category (n = 100) reflects the prevalence of achievement motivation and a strong atmosphere of competition and comparison in some Eastern, exam-tied learning surroundings. Many students find that competition and comparison do have positive effect on their motivation. In addition, it is felt, through looking at the comments, that collaboration, combined with competition, is the major theme at study in Shanghai in terms of L2 learning, perhaps due to the social dimension of that process. It might also be stated that competition/comparison can have negative influence on some students,

especially those lagging behind. When assessing the effect of competition in Chinese classrooms, Lam *et al.* (2004) conclude that competition facilitates simple tasks and rote-based performance but interferes with complex tasks based on conceptual understanding; motivation-wise, competition lends to performance goals and worse self-evaluation after failure, in addition to tendencies against enjoyment or achievement attribution.

The third category (n = 32) has included socialized peer beliefs and peer attitudes towards English/English study. Interesting examples of negative influences within this category include peer preference of other L2s, a too pragmatic or short-term based (thus narrow) understanding of the task value among peers and tension caused by too much emotional value attached to Chinese as a symbol of the nation's culture. Next, the categories of "peer help, advice and encouragement", "peer beliefs on how to learn English", "learning atmosphere" and "friendship ties" are small and negligible.

However, the category of collaboration at study (Eccles *et al.*, 1998), having 122 items, is a very big one. It contains four subgroups: "collaborative learning activities and mutual help given", "discussion of English/English study" – which may have something to do with "metacognitive strategies", "communication in English" and "sharing learning resources".

Table 11.3.1.2 Most Prevalent Means of Peer Influence (n ≥ 20)

1. Peer Examples (N = 72, mean = 3.7)
2. Peer Competition and Peer Comparison (N = 100, mean = 4.0)
3. Peer Attitudes towards English (Study) and Understanding of its value (N = 32, mean = 3.3)
7. Collaboration in Learning (N = 122, mean = 4.0)
7.1 Collaborative learning activities and mutual help given (N = 79, mean = 4.1)
7.3 Communication in English (N = 34, mean = 3.9)

In summary, eight categories of peer influences have emerged after the main questionnaire qualitative data had been analysed. However, the most prevalent means of such influences include peer examples, peer comparison and competition, peer collaborative learning activities, and at a less degree, peer attitudes towards English (study). In addition, in Shanghai there has been an interesting balance between peer collaboration and peer competition/comparison in terms of L2 learning.

2. Means of peer influence – the interview data

The interview participants were also asked to describe how their peers had influenced

their EFL motivation, especially at the researched stage. 43 (total = 64) students responded when applicable and gave 95 examples. In comparison with the questionnaires, the interviews have yielded richer description on how certain peer activities are perceived to impact on student motivation. Below is a table summarising the emerged categories.

Table 11.3.2.1 Summary on Means of Peer Influences from the Interviews (n = 95)

1. Peer Examples (n = 24)
2. Peer Competition and Peer Comparison (n = 27)
3. Peer Attitudes towards English (Study) (n = 6) *3.1 The importance of English (n =2)* *3.2 Integrative tendency (n = 2)* *3.3 Intrinsic motivation (n = 2)*
4. Peer Help, Advice and Encouragement (n = 5)
5. Peer Beliefs on Effective Learning (n = 5) -- e.g. the importance of learning milieu, skills building and inclusion of the target culture
6. Peer Pressure (n = 3)
7. Collaborative Learning/ Learning Community (n = 20) *7.1 Collaborative activities (n =12)* *7.2 Communication in English (n = 3)* *7.3 Mutual help (n = 5)* *7.4 Exchange of materials and information (n = 4)*
8. Friendship Ties (n = 1)

From the above, means of peer influences from the interviews resemble those found in the questionnaires. The only differences might be firstly with the sixth category: in the questionnaires, there is a category of "learning milieu"; whilst in the interviews, it does not exist and instead, there is a category of "peer pressure". However, neither of the above has many examples and therefore they can be neglected. Another difference lies with the sub-categories of "collaborative learning", which might simply be deviation in categorization caused by the current research student throughout the lengthy data analysis process.

Nonetheless, there are still a couple of interesting things regarding the interview data. Firstly, the participants are eloquent about the impact of peer examples; their motivation tends to be affected by observation of how their peers perceive English, how much desire those people have for study, how much effort they invest in learning, what types of activities they are engaged in and most important of all how high they can achieve. The participants have also mentioned negative peer examples – however, boys tend to be regarded as a source of such influences with their negative mentality and inappropriate

behaviour at study, whilst girls are the opposite. Secondly, the majority of the participants are positive about the impact of peer comparison and competition, again, either out of their achievement motivation or as a reaction to the exam-oriented education. However, like in the questionnaires, there have been students who have suffered negative influence on their self-efficacy (Lam *et al.*, 2004). Thirdly, there has been an even higher awareness of the importance of building a learning community and establishing a positive group ethos for successful EFL learning, which might match the characteristics of this interview sample, with more high-ability students being included. Next, these students are also more sensitive to peer beliefs on effective learning; there has been an understanding of the importance of creating a facilitating learning milieu, building practical skills and including the target culture at study. Finally, a small number of students have also mentioned that their peers actively and openly exert pressure, so as to promote learning in them.

Table 11.3.2.2 Most Prevalent Means of Peer Influences from the Interviews (n ≥8)

1. Peer Examples (n = 24)
2. Peer Competition and Peer Comparison (n = 27)
7. Collaborative Learning/ Learning Community (n = 20) 7.1 Collaborative activities (n =12)

The above table has summarised the most prevalent means of peer influences from the interviews, which are similar to those discovered in the questionnaires. Interestingly the category of peer attitudes towards English is not included, and surprisingly this is also the case with the subcategory of "communication in English". The first might have something to do with the fact that the interview sample has recruited more high-ability students with positive attitudes; therefore, peer attitudes may have a less impact on them. The latter can be flowing from the same reason – the included higher-ability students may desire less of communication with peers, but more with high-proficiency people such as native speakers. In addition, peer competition and peer comparison appears to be the most popular means of influence, which also seems to match the characteristics of this group.

In summary, this chapter has examined the perceived influence of peers, having incorporated data from the main questionnaire survey and the main interviews. Perhaps it

is obvious that the structure of this chapter resembles the previous two chapters (on the influence of parents and the influence of English teachers respectively), starting with a detailed analysis of peer SDT-based reasons and other English-related attitudes, which was followed by an analysis of the level of peer influence and varied means of peer influence. Additionally, gender-based patterns have been looked at, which were often followed by results of statistical tests correlating factors of perceived peer influence.

In a very brief way, more conspicuous, peer-influence-related findings may include their less positive attitudes, both from the interview data and from the SDT-based scale, a very small, but positive, peer influence and a number of routes through which the researched students from Shanghai reported to feel a peer impact on their motivation.

However, as in the case of all the other chapters that deal with aspects of the main data, the extent and means of perceived peer influence can be better understood only through a further, and final, process of data integration, which will be a mission of the following chapter. Chapter 12, the last chapter of this thesis, will pull out those more promising themes from the previous chapters on motivation dispositions and influences of important others, following the research aims and questions that have been presented in Chapter 5. It will then be followed by the much needed summary on main findings and implications, to conclude this thesis.

Chapter 12 Discussion and Conclusion

I. Prevalent Types and Extent of Motivation amongst Senior-Year-Two Students in Shanghai

1. Prevalent types and strength of motivation from the main sample and attitude toward English as compared with other school subjects

Attitude toward English as compared with other subjects

The main questionnaire sample (n = 610) allows an understanding of a collective attitude toward English as compared with other school subjects (total = 12). Below is a summary table on the ranking of those subjects.

Table 12.1.1.1 Popularity of 12 Curricular Subjects (Descending)

Ranking	Piloting (n = 104)	Main study (n = 610)
1	Computer	Computer
2	P. E.	P. E.
3	Music	Maths
4	Maths	Music
5	History	***English***
6	Fine Arts	History
7	***English***	Fine Arts
8	Physics	Physics
9	Chinese	Chinese
10	Chemistry	Biology
11	Biology	Chemistry
12	Politics	Politics

From the above, the students' attitudes toward 12 school subjects including English appear to be stable over time. However, Shanghai's study attitudes cannot be regarded as very positive at the researched stage, with 11 subjects (excluding politics) from the main sample having a mean lying somewhere between "indifferent" and "slightly positive". From both of the pilot and main samples, computer, P. E., Maths and music appear to be more popular, and Chinese, biology, chemistry and especially politics are the least popular; the above trend both confirms and contradicts the international data from Nishimura *et al.* (2003) combining the six countries of Scotland, Sweden, Czech, Germany, South Africa and Japan, who find a higher collective attitude towards creative subjects, social science and P. E., and a less collective like of subjects including Maths

and native language.

In terms of English, its ranking appears to be slightly improved across samples in Shanghai, leaving it the fifth most popular; it is not too different from Nishimura *et al.* (2003), finding L2s to be the fourth of the most liked. When breaking down data from Nishimura *et al.* (2003), the pattern of attitude towards English in Shanghai, China is felt to be closer to that of Japan, rather than European countries; in addition, it can be argued that Shanghai's English-related attitude might be more positive than L2-attitudes from the English-speaking countries including Scotland. Indeed, in the U.K., there appears to be massive concern of and discussion on the less ideal L2-related attitudes (e.g. Chambers, 1999; Kyriacou, 2005; Stables and Wikeley, 1999).

Attitudes towards English as a school subject and a language

The interview data allows a closer look at the students' mental "mapping" of the idea of English: in many cases, it was difficult for the students to fully develop an understanding of English as a language because of their young age and due to the fact that English had been felt to be something intangible. However, it started to be realised that there can be a connection between positive attitudes and a good understanding of English as a language; therefore, it is important to develop a balanced mental "mapping". In addition, positive attitudes were connected to understanding of the task value, experiencing/expecting achievement, having intrinsic and integrative reasons, experiencing influence from significant others and having language-use experiences from abroad. Less positive attitudes were often tied back to failure to see the relevance of English, pressure from exams or other subjects, lack of autonomy at study and the backward, exam-oriented teaching method. As such, positive language attitudes can be a consequence of two simultaneously initiated processes: further reform efforts steering English education away from exam-oriented education (top-down); motivating and self-motivating strategies such as to tap into the expectancy-value system, to satisfy basic needs at study, to justify a broader range of reasons and to bring the English language closer to the students (bottom-up).

Prevalent types and strength of motivation

SDT-based data from the main sample indicates that the most prevalent styles of

motivation from Shanghai's students are firstly external regulation and secondly identified regulation; the result is confirmed by the interview data finding about half of the respondents extrinsically motivated.

In terms of motivational level, on a six-point Likert scale ranging from 'very high" to "no motivation at all", 4.4% of the survey respondents reported their overall strength of motivation was "very high", 28.4% "fairly high" and 46.7% "medium"; whereas the interview sample, having more capable students, reported to have a higher level of motivation.

When desire and motivated behaviour are looked at, the main sample mildly agreed that they prioritized EFL learning for the researched stage, and agreed that they would continue learning in the future and had a desire for study, though to an even less degree. However, they did not really agree that they had tried very hard at study. The comparative polarizing of "prioritization" and "effort" may be understood considering the facts that the NCEE was impending and that effort has been viewed by the Chinese as a major, if not the only, factor leading to L2 outcomes, whereas there were external constraints on the time available for English study, as illustrated in the interviews.

2. The students' orientations to learn English

The main questionnaire adopted 15 reasons inductively produced from a similar sample and tested in prior stages of research. From the means, it appears that the instrumental reasons, especially career aspects and the function of English as an international language is very much at the core of the students' thinking, in line with findings from other Chinese contexts (e.g. Hu 2002; 2005a; Teweles, 1995). Additionally, the main study sample did not highly rate the reasons of perceived high self-efficacy or marriage with foreigners: for the former, it may illustrate the fact that that group of students did not have a high self-efficacy; for the latter, caution is needed in understanding as there was anecdotal evidence of understatement.

When clustering different learning reasons, KMO and Bartlett's Test indicated a good factorability; and the consequent factor analysis has yielded a solution of three motivation substrates, both confirming the existence of more traditional categories as well as illustrating a Chinese flavour.

Table 12.1.2.1 Motivation Substrates

External Pressure	Life/Career Aspects	Integrative Orientation
1. Parental wish 2. Course requirement + the NCEE 3. English is not fun	1. Seeking employment 2. Life in Shanghai 3. English as an international language 4. Future career development 5. Personal cultivation 6. English important in the future	1. Friendship 2. Travel 3. Interest in English cultural products 4. Going to English speaking countries 5. Marriage

The emerging integrative orientation amongst Shanghai's upper-secondary-level students may have reflected the swift internationalization of that city and its resultant impact on motivational orientations. Such a tendency (integrative motivation) has been less reported from China's earlier studies and has been viewed as less relevant (e.g. Gao *et al.*, 2004). However, in line with Gao *et al.* (2004), that tendency does not necessarily involve a desire to be totally integrated into the TC; quite often, it can reflect a broader interest in cultures from abroad where English is a lingua franca, as increasingly suggested by some (e.g. Dörnyei *et al.*, 2006).

The substrate of external pressure is more familiar to the Eastern contexts: many authors have commented on the short-term-based exam requirements as a strong motive (e.g. Hua, 1998; Shi, 2001; Warden and Lin, 2000), which was labelled as "certificate motivation" in China and "required motivation" in Taiwan. Based on the above, the current study, again echoing Gao *et al.* (2004), has found a strong alignment between parents' wish and course/exam requirements, and a negative correlation between external pressure and the intrinsic reason. Finally, the substrate of life and career aspects indeed is instrumental in nature, reflecting an increasing relevance of English proficiency in Shanghai for opportunities and personal development (also expressed in Gao *et al.*, 2004).

As illustrated above, when contextualizing this current study against other China-based surveys, the emerged substrates both illustrate local characteristics and reflect the nation's trends. Take a more recent survey (Gao *et al.*, 2004) as an example: the current study has revealed a better developed integrative tendency, whereas Gao *et al.* (2004) had a factor with mixed intrinsic and integrative reasons; however, both of the other two substrates from this study have found similar expressions in the latter. Furthermore, despite a

labelling difference from the two studies, Gao *et al.*'s (2004) factors of "assessment of the learning environment" and "social responsibility", which are missing from the current survey, can be seen as more relevant to mature, college-level students, as their loaded items illustrated. Finally, a less clear-cut or parsimonious pattern from Gao *et al.* (2004) could be a consequence of including a large sample illustrating great demographic diversity.

3. Correlation of components of motivation

A series of correlation tests have been run to investigate the relations amongst antecedents (attitude, orientations), motivation (level, desire, effort, prioritization and persistence) and regulations from the students.

Correlating English-learning reasons with attitude and level of motivation has yielded a similar pattern: both attitude and motivational strength are found to comparatively highly correlated to the intrinsic reason and the reason of positive efficacy-judgement; to a much less degree, both of them are correlated to the reason of friendship, and in the case of motivational strength, it is also similarly correlated to the reason of the future importance of English; finally, though not significant, attitude and level of motivation tend to negatively correlate to the reasons of parents' wish and course/exam requirements.

Unsurprisingly, the students' attitude is significantly correlated to almost all of the behaviour indicators (desire, effort and persistence), in line with Gardner (1985), though not to prioritization. Attitude toward English is most highly correlated to desire, closely followed by persistence, and then by effort. Prioritization is felt to be influenced by external pressures (such as the NCEE), which is confirmed by correlating it with external reasons. Additionally, it is slightly negatively correlated with attitude.

When correlating reasons with behaviour, it is evident that intrinsic reasons and perceived high self-efficacy have a comparatively stronger correlation with behaviour indicators apart from prioritization, where more short-term reasons and pressure dictate; some instrumental reasons also contribute to one's level of effort, desire and persistence. In comparison, integrative reasons do not have obvious correlation with one's level of effort in Shanghai (also see Rhee and Cortina, 2003); instead they are fairly good indicators of that person's level of desire and persistence, which could be indicative of

the indirect impact of integrativeness on student learning in some EFL contexts. Finally, external pressure/reasons are poor antecedents for motivated behaviour.

In summary, the above may be evidence that the SDT perspective championing the more self-determined forms of motivation for motivational outcomes and well-being is relevant for the researched group; it is also limiting to regard instrumental reasons as sufficient for optimal learning; and a great challenge facing Shanghai's educators and "others" is to help nurture IM (intrinsic reasons) and a high sense of competence in the students, whilst reduce sources of external coercion.

Correlations between reported regulations and the students' attitude, level of motivation, behavior and orientations have yielded some interesting results. Firstly, the students' attitude and level of motivation are significantly correlated with their reported regulatory styles apart from introjected regulation; specifically, both attitude and motivational strength are more highly correlated with firstly IM and then amotivation (negative). Secondly, behavioral indicators apart from prioritization (desire, effort and persistence) are correlated with varied styles of regulation: amotivation is negatively correlated with desire, effort and persistence; identified regulation is a good indicator of desire and persistence; IM is the best indicator of all types of behavior apart from prioritization. Finally, substrates of orientations appear to correlate with regulations in different ways: varied instrumental reasons appear to significantly correlate with amotivation (negative), external, identified and intrinsic regulations; some intrinsic reasons (friendship and travel) appear to significantly correlate with IM.

The results may be in line with the SDT perspective highlighting firstly the different consequences of varied regulatory styles favouring more self-determined motivation, and secondly the link between motivational antecedents and motivation and consequently the importance of "manipulating" the former. The above also confirm results from Noels *et al.* (e.g. Noels, 2001a; Noels *et al.*, 2001) on the correlation pattern between integrative and instrumental orientations and regulatory styles.

4. Gendered patterns with regard to the students' motivational dispositions

In line with Nishimura *et al.* (2003) finding more girls rating L2s as their favourite subject from most of the researched countries, Shanghai's main questionnaire sample

illustrates a significant, gendered attitude toward English, favouring girls, which is supported by other datasets over time. Girls also reported to have a significantly higher level of motivation than boys, and results from reported regulatory styles also favoured girls in a significant way.

In addition, there is statistically significant gender difference regarding all of the 15 reasons, though at varied levels. When subjected to a gender-based factor analysis, substrates of orientations from the girls illustrate a slightly different pattern from that of the boys: the substrate of life/career aspects does not show gender difference; the substrate of integrativeness illustrates slightly different reasoning from girls and boys; the substrate of external pressure also shows some difference – girls had two more reasons perhaps indicating that an external pressure will be more likely associated with perceived low self-efficacy and low intrinsic value by them.

Girls and boys also illustrated significant differences regarding the rating of all types of learning behaviour (desire, effort and persistence) apart from prioritization. Indeed, the forthcoming NCEE might have posed equal pressure on both genders. However, girls reported taking more effort, being more persistent and having more desire for English learning, as in line with the mainstream outcomes from the West (e.g. Dörnyei *et al.*, 2006).

II. The Extent of Perceived Influences from Important Others on the Students' EFL Learning Motivation

1. The perceived strength of parental, teacher and peer influences

Both of the main questionnaire and interview data reveal a slightly positive parental influence on student motivation for the researched group. However, interviews had students illustrating very different experiences or demands with regards to parental influence: for some, parental participation has been the only, or a major, impetus for study; for others, it has been negligible throughout; in addition, parental influence appears to be long-term and cumulative, the evaluation of which often involves a historical perspective. In terms of gendered opinions, girls rated parental influence to be higher than boys.

As regards the strength of teacher influence, both the questionnaire and interview data

point it to be somewhere near "slightly positive". There is no gender difference regarding perceived strength of teacher influence.

Regarding the level of peer influence, both sets of the main data point the current peer impact to somewhere towards "slightly positive"; in other words, peers, collectively, were viewed to exert a minute but positive influence at the researched stage. Also from the interviews, occasionally peer groups were reported to exert different types of influence and an individual could feel different influences from the same group of peers during different activities. With regards to genders, girls often reported a higher overall peer influence.

In sum, this current survey has found a positive but small human influence for EFL motivation at the upper-secondary level in Shanghai; in comparison, English teachers were viewed to exert a stronger influence than parents, who were viewed as more influential than peers. The results are in line with those from an L2-related study from America (Speiller, 1988).

2. Perceived beliefs from important others as to why English should be learnt

Parents' attitudes and reasons

Parents in Shanghai hold highly positive, but prevalently pragmatic attitudes, toward English (study), which is in tune with the collective thoughts of the society. In addition, the interview data further illustrates that other sets of reasons start to be emphasized, perhaps reflecting the status of Shanghai as an increasingly internationalized city; the development of such thoughts appears to be largely a consequence of higher parental L2 proficiency.

Parental L2 proficiency level appears to impact on value transmitting specifically: parents with high L2 skills are seen as having formed a better "mapping" of the social dimension of English – its values, development tendencies, culture and people and linguistic systems; they are also seen as illustrating IM and integrative motivation and care about fostering such in their child; additionally, they are more prepared to emphasize communication needs and create opportunities for it. All the above has been thought to facilitate the forming of a personal feeling towards English, which in turn facilitates learning. In contrast, low parental L2 skills is connected with an insufficient

understanding of the complexity of English, a narrow emphasis of the often short-term-based, utilitarian values of English, reliance on exerting external pressure and offering of inappropriate advice.

Data from the SDT continuum reveals that parents illustrate/endorse external and identified regulations and IM in a descending order.

Finally, data from the SDT continuum illustrates more positive parental attitudes rated by girls, except the reason of introjected regulation. The interview participants perceived no difference in their parents regarding the importance of English, although English is viewed as valuable in different ways for girls and boys: for girls, English is more essential for long-term, career-related purposes; for boys, it is more likely to be considered for short-term, education-based reasons.

The teachers' attitudes and reasons

Questionnaire SDT-continuum-based data illustrates that English teachers were perceived to have most positive attitude toward English; they were also perceived to firstly endorse external regulation, which was followed by IM and identified regulation on a par.

The above is supported by data from the interviews: although teachers did not often directly communicate their thoughts, they were believed to regard English as important, illustrating varied degrees of passion for it, for work and for students. However, teacher emphasis is prevalently on the central importance of the NCEE, as well as on a range of other external reasons reflecting the society's instrumental agenda. Occasionally, those teachers illustrate an integrative tendency or give intrinsic reasons. Nonetheless, language issues such as culture are seldom dealt with in ordinary classes mainly due to pressure from exams, matching student requirements and lack of teacher capacity, despite an ongoing debate on the inclusion of cultural contents. Teachers divide according to different training experiences – those with some experiences abroad often demonstrate an awareness of the need to go beyond the syllabus and treat English as a living, multi-faceted phenomenon, which appears to be welcomed by some, not all, students in Shanghai.

It becomes more evident from the interviews that different training backgrounds,

leading to different attitudes and proficiency levels amongst teachers, might further enlarge the gap between schools in Shanghai, favouring key schools and better-resourced, downtown schools. Additionally, the interview participants described differences in teacher attitudes across year groups from the past: primary and lower secondary teachers seldom dealt with the social dimension of English, perhaps due to a mixed student, teacher and times factor.

Based on the above, it is felt that two teacher-related issues need to be tackled for a better delivery of English education in Shanghai: 1) further improvement of teacher quality especially to reduce area- or school-type-related imbalance within Shanghai; 2) an all-round strategy involving further change of the testing and educational culture so that acquired, advanced ideas can be fully utilized.

In terms of gendered understanding of the teachers' reasons/regulatory styles, girls rated teacher motivation as significantly higher in the aspects of external, integrated and intrinsic regulations.

Peer attitudes and reasons

In terms of perceived peer attitudes: the questionnaire data informs that peers were perceived to hold the least positive attitude, when comparing with either teachers or parents; peers firstly endorse external regulation, which is followed by identified regulation, but they do not think English learning to be interesting or intrinsically rewarding.

The interview data both details the above and sheds light on the issue of "peer cultures" in Shanghai. 1) Most respondents are comfortable making general comments on peers as a category and mainly choose friends and feel peer influence from the school setting. Attitude variation seems to be more a consequence of school cultures (dependent on school type, location and ethos), rather than distinct peer, especially anti-peer, cultures, although the reinforcing function of peer groups can be at work in cases. 2) Generally, peers are perceived to have no problem understanding the importance of English due to the influence of the society and to mainly hold pragmatic reasons at study; however, there is a bell-shaped distribution regarding like/dislike of English, with the majority of each class feeling neutral towards English; the reasons for like or dislike of English are

individual but can be understood through the use of major motivation theories, such as the expectancy-value bloc. Although not many respondents see attitudes and motivational level or effort as linked, some regard intrinsic tendencies to be capable of promoting confidence, WTC and willingness to perform, and most important of all, sustainability of study.

Girls perceive peers to hold more positive beliefs, except in the case of introjected reasons/regulation. Another type of gendered pattern was reported in the interviews: the students thought girls (as peers) to be more positive towards learning: in some boys' cases, viewing L2 learning as incongruent to the development of a masculine identity may have contributed to their inferior attitudes and achievements, echoing Bartram (2006b).

In sum, parents, teachers and peers all have positive yet mainly pragmatic English-related attitudes, which is reflective of the collective understanding in Shanghai. Amongst them, teachers appear to hold the most positive attitudes and peers the least. Parents and teachers are found to endorse firstly external reasons, followed by identified and intrinsic reasons; peers appear to support only external, followed by identified, reasons, and they do not view English learning as fun or intrinsically rewarding. Parental L2 proficiency level is viewed as impacting on value transmitting, with those possessing good English skills regarded as having a better "mapping" of English and capable of helping the child form better attitudes; the teachers' different training experiences is viewed as influencing how the social/cultural dimension of English is treated, which may affect some students; in the case of peers, peer attitudes are viewed as more a consequence of school cultures, rather than of "peer cultures", especially anti peer cultures. In the case of gendered patterns, girls consistently rated SDT-based-reasons from important others more highly than boys, except the reason of introjected regulation and occasionally that of amotivation; parents were not reported to transmit gendered opinion in terms of the importance of English, however, their gender-based reasoning of task value, combined with some boys' masculine-identity-consideration, may have contributed to lower attitudes and achievements from the boys.

3. Means of influences from important others

Means of parental influence

As regards routes of parental influence for the researched group, data sets from the questionnaires and interviews match to a satisfactory degree. From the questionnaires, eight routes of parental influence emerge: three categories were most frequently mentioned – parental value transmitting (i.e., attitudes toward English); varied degrees of parental pressure (e.g. parental expectations, requirements, planning, coercing, contingent strategies, i.e., parental practices that form a general emotional backdrop); and direct parental involvement (such as monitoring, resource locating, financial and physical support and help with study). Less frequent routes include parental encouragement, role modelling (of L2 learning, its consequences and general self-development), parental English proficiency, long-term effort and motivating strategies that develop their child into a competent learner (mainly on enhancement of sense of competence and autonomy and IM and integrative motivation). Using Gardner's (1985) theory, the above can be duly separated into active parental role – parental encouragement, active parental involvement and the use of motivating strategies – and passive parental role – value transmitting, parental pressure and parental role modelling. On top of the above, there are the dimensions of parents' L2 background and long-term efforts that need to be considered.

Table 12.2.3.1 Means of Parental Influence

<table>
<tr><td rowspan="4">Main Questionnaire</td><td>Frequent strategies</td><td>Less frequent strategies</td></tr>
<tr><td>1. parental value transmitting (attitudes, n = 109)
2. varied parental pressure (emotional backdrop, n = 121)
3. direct parental involvement (n = 136)</td><td>1. parental encouragement (n = 29) role modeling (n = 22)
2. parental English proficiency (n = 13)
3. long-term effort (n = 11)
4. use of motivating strategies (n = 21)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Most effective strategies</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">1. role modeling
2. long-term effort
3. use of motivating strategies for higher-forms of motivation</td></tr>
</table>

Data from the interviews mainly confirmed the above trend, though with occasional differences. The interviews had more capable students, who topped the questionnaire list of popular routes of parental influence with parental role modelling. In terms of less-

frequently-taken routes, those students did not specifically mention the impact of parental L2 background; instead, they emphasized parental efforts on creating a language-use milieu, need satisfaction at study and keeping abreast with English development tendencies.

When comparing with Gao's (2006) data from an atypical Chinese sample (n = 20) targeting high-achieving, wealthy students, this study shares much ground with the above in terms of frequently-used parental strategies: Gao (2006, Table 1, p. 290) also tops the list with parental value transmitting (parents as L2 learning advocates) and some types of direct parental involvement (e.g. resource, condition and opportunity providing plus private classes booking), although under different labels.

However, built upon Gao (2006), this study also looked at the relation between rated parental influence and parental practices. It is discovered that most effective routes of parental influence may include role modelling, long-term parental efforts and parental motivating strategies for developing the child into a better L2 learner. The effectiveness of role modelling was further confirmed by more capable learners both from Gao (2006) and this study; more use of motivating strategies has been highlighted in interview critiques. In addition, the interview respondents have called for more parental efforts to create a good milieu for learning and communication, to satisfy basic needs, to adjust expectation and pressure level, to develop a more balanced understanding of task value and to adopt proper attribution and more inclusive standards for success. Additionally, negative strategies that plague Chinese parents such as nagging and guilt-provoking have been criticized, echoing Vansteenkiste *et al.* (2005a).

Taken as a whole, it is felt that L2-motivation-oriented parenting practices from Shanghai can be understood using popular Western frameworks; however, dominating themes, and more effective strategies, from Chinese contexts may reflect an Oriental flavour. Additionally, this study has located some gap between prevalent parenting practices and effective, or wanted, strategies. Whilst it is comparatively easy to strengthen the function of parental role modelling (of L2 learning and general self-development), effective application of long-term efforts and motivating strategies cannot be realised without outside help. As such, improvement of the above might result from closer ties between China's motivation research, school practices and parenting.

Means of the teachers' influence

Regarding means of the teachers' influence, comments from the questionnaire are seen as highlighting two foci – those of the teaching process and teacher-related factors, which share equal importance as containing a similar number of items. The trends from the questionnaires are generally supported by the interview data.

Table 12.2.3.2 Means of the Teachers' Influence

	Frequently-mentioned strategies	
	The teaching process (n = 220)	The teacher factors (n= 225)
Main Questionnaire	1. Instruction/ support/ help/ suggestions given at study (n = 38) 2. Pressure (including monitoring) at study (n = 52) 3. Teacher encouragement (n = 20) 4. Fostering intrinsic motivation (n = 23)	1. Teaching style/ effect/ methods (n = 91) 2. Teacher attitude toward English (n = 70) 3. Personal charm and other traits (n = 36)
	More effective strategies (mean ≥ 4.5)	
	1. Use of/ communicate in English 2. Consideration of learning materials 3. Fostering positive attitudes towards English (study) 4. Feedback 5. Ability beliefs 6. Teacher expectation 7. Active role (as providing standards for behaviour)	

Among the varied subgroups of factors of teacher influences, those presented in the upper part of the above table are the most prevalently used. The factor of "the teaching process" emphasizes the helpfulness of teacher support for the students' cognitive development, varied types of teacher pressure for providing a general backdrop for study, emotional support from the teacher and the fostering of intrinsic motivation at study. In terms of teacher-exerted pressure, students have expressed different needs; however, a general feeling is that students would welcome some extent of teacher pressure (seen as necessary for success), suppose it is accompanied with emotional support/encouragement.

The component of "teacher-related factors" focuses on the teaching style and value transmitting amongst other elements. It is confirmed by the interview data that teacher factors, such as teacher attitudes, qualification and proficiency, as well as a range of stable or unstable personal qualities, are crucial for the students' motivational level.

Teacher attitudes is still viewed as an important factor that may influence, and direct socialization of values appear to reach an optimal effect when illustrated through enthusiasm or with matching behaviour from the teacher. Comments on the teaching style are in line with results from elsewhere: a lively, inductive, autonomy-supportive and clearly constructed style with rich input and cognitive support is needed; exam-tied, rote-memory-based grammar teaching is unwelcome; additionally, classroom activities should be varied and interesting, both covering a range of skills and conducive to success at the NCEE.

Finally, critique/suggestions from the interview participants (n = 36) are reminiscent of key instructions on effective teaching (Kyriacou, 1997), especially a need from the teachers to know about their students' motivational styles, adopt a "whole language" policy and foster IM, integrative motivation and metacognitve strategies in the students.

In sum, comparing the prevalent means of teacher influence to the most effective strategies and the students' demands especially in terms of knowing student motivation and motivating strategies, it may be suggested that both pre- and in-service teacher education take a further consideration of this aspect. Additionally, the students' comments have revealed both systemic and pedagogical constraints from Shanghai: there has been tension between a still exam-oriented system and a need-satisfying, intrinsically-rewarding learning process; there has also been tension between the more traditional method from some teachers and practical and communication skills needed by the society. As such, more reform efforts, further transforming the assessment system and the teaching culture, are needed.

Means of peer influence

In terms of routes of peer influence, eight categories have emerged from the main-study questionnaire data, some of which resemble the established routes from well-known reviews (e.g. Eccles *et al.*, 1998). Below is a table summarising those categories into more- or less-frequently-mentioned routes:

Table 12.2.3.3 Means of Peer Influence

	Frequently-mentioned strategies	Less frequent strategies
Main Questionnaire	1. peer collaboration (collaborating activities and help; peer communication in English; n = 122) 2. peer comparison and competition (n = 100) 3. peer examples (n = 72) 4. peer attitudes toward English (n = 32)	1. peer help, advice and encouragement (n = 14) 2. creation of a general learning atmosphere (n = 6) 3. peer beliefs (n = 3) 4. friendship ties (n = 1)

The above illustrates that more frequently mentioned strategies include peer collaboration, peer comparison and competition, peer examples and peer L2-related attitudes. Less frequent strategies include peer support, creation of a general learning atmosphere, peer beliefs (on cognition and metacognition) and friendship ties. Interesting about the above are that there appears to be a balance between peer competition and collaboration in Shanghai, perhaps due to the social dimension of L2 learning, that peer competition/comparison is generally seen as exerting a positive impact, perhaps due to the above balance and the achievement context of China, and that peer L2-related attitudes is small in number and comparatively low in impact (though positive).

Data from the interviews basically support the above tendency, though with small changes: that group of higher-ability students has slightly downplayed the importance of peer L2-related attitude, but has attached more attention to peer competition/comparison and peer beliefs, perhaps in line with their characteristics. Additionally, boys were sometimes regarded as a source of negative influence by setting negative learning examples.

4. Correlating influences from important others to motivational dispositions

Correlations between parental influence and motivational aspects (antecedents, level of motivation, desire, motivated behavior and regulations)

Firstly, the level of parental influence at the researched stage is not found to significantly correlate with any student motivational dispositions, perhaps due to a small parental influence.

Additionally, parental SDT-based reasons are generally not significantly correlated with the students' motivation-related indices. The exceptions include parental self-determined reasons (IM and identified regulation), significantly correlating with the students' intrinsic reason (English is fun) and integrative and instrumental orientations (friendship and career and personal development), and parental regulatory styles, significantly correlating with matching types of student regulation. As such, some gap appears to exist between data sets yielded from different motivational perspectives: correlating data from the two perspectives, one would suggest that parental reasons (value transmitting) may not be the only, or even the main, channel of parental influence on the students' antecedents or motivation at the current stage. However, comparing SDT-based data suggests that there is a fairly high significant correlation between parental regulations/values and the students' motivational styles. Explanations for the above might include that higher SDT-based correlations might be resultant from the use of similar measurements, that the two perspectives reflect different motivational processes as many have suggested (e.g. Noels, 2005), and that within the traditional perspective, parental value transmitting is only part of the passive parental role (Gardner *et al.*, 1999; Bartram, 2006), whose relation with motivational outcomes is necessarily mediated and compensated by other routes of parental influence, which itself is meagre at the researched stage.

Correlating the teacher's influence with student motivation

The extent of teacher influence is not significantly correlated to the students' motivational indices, which may be caused by a slight teacher influence.

Correlation tests between teachers' reasons for self-determination and student indices including attitude, orientations, motivational strength and learning behaviour have not yielded results above the cut-off point, indicating that teacher belief transmitting may not be a major source of teacher influence, that it can interplay with other factors, or that the weak values are caused due to a meagre teacher influence at the current stage.

However, certain forms of student motivation, introjected, identified and external regulations are significantly correlated, in a descending order, with matching reasons/ self-determination from the teacher.

Correlating peer influence with the students' motivation

Correlation tests between the level of peer influence and the students' motivational indices did not yield any significant results beyond the cut-off points. The above can be the result of a very minute peer influence perceived by the students at the current stage.

Correlation tests between peer reasons for self-determination and the students' motivational indices have yielded some interesting results. Firstly, peer external reasons appear to significantly impact on most of the students' instrumental reasons angled from career and life aspects; peer intrinsic reasons seem to influence the students' intrinsic orientation; peer identification of "face" issues (introjected reasons) correlates with the orientation of "life in Shanghai" – leading to the interesting possibility that EFL proficiency may have become part of one's identity among the youngsters in a swiftly internationalized city with an ambitious official agenda (Hu, 2002). Secondly, peer more self-determined (intrinsic and identified) and external reasons appear to impact on the extent of student persistence at study, whereas peer intrinsic reasons may also impact on one's desire to learn. The fact that both external regulation (e.g. expressed by instrumental reasons of career aspects) and identified and intrinsic regulations (correlated with integrativeness, Noels, 2001b) feed to motivated behaviour reminds the current writer of Dörnyei's (2005) motivational conceptualization functioning through the central position of Ideal L2 Self (integrativeness) and Ought-to L2 Self (instrumentality). Finally, peer beliefs appear to significantly correlate to matching student regulatory styles; also, from the values, it is fascinating that the demarcation between identified and intrinsic regulations can be less clear at times.

In sum, correlations between the students' motivational indices (antecedents, level, desire, motivated behaviour and regulations) and the extent of parental, teacher and peer influences have not yielded significant results beyond the cut-off points. The small correlation values may have resulted from a generally small human influence at the researched stage.

Generally, the students' motivational indices, apart from their regulations and orientations, are not significantly correlated to reasons of regulations from those important others above the cut-off points. In the case of regulations, both parental and

peer reasons are significantly correlated with matching styles of motivation from the students; whilst only certain forms of the teachers' reasons have the same effect. In the case of orientations, both parental and peer (but not the teachers') reasons correlate with the students' orientations – parents' self-determined reasons correlate to the students' intrinsic, integrative and instrumental (friendship; career and personal development) orientations, and peers' external and introjected reasons function compensatively and correlate with the students' instrumentality, whilst peer intrinsic reasons correlate with the students' intrinsic reason. On top of the above, only peer self-determined reasons appear to impact on the students' motivated behavior (persistence and desire).

III. Shortcomings

As in the case of many studies, this current survey has its own shortcomings. Firstly, in terms of the sampling strategy for the main questionnaire survey, although efforts had been stretched to achieve a degree of representativeness by using a large sample including a number of schools and by locating the major factors affecting English-learning motivation from Shanghai's academic upper-secondary schools, the sample was still a convenience one, leading to limited generalizability of its results. On top of that, the interview subsamples often included students that were recommended by the English teachers presumably following the sampling requirements; occasionally, volunteers were invited. Perhaps not surprising, it was felt when analysing the interview data that the interviews had recruited more capable students than the main sample, hence causing difficulty in comparison at times.

A second major limitation came from the way the main-study data was analysed. A series of correlation tests were run to examine the relationship between components of motivation and how motivation correlates with influences of important others. The small values accompanying many correlation tests made explanation difficult. Additionally, results from correlation tests do not point to the causal link which would have been welcomed; indeed, in the case of examining internal structure of motivation, more sophisticated statistical models will be necessary.

IV. Summary of the Main Findings and their Implications for Practice, Future Research and Policy

This Shanghai-based survey on student motivation and influences of important others has yielded the following findings:

The extent and types of motivation from Shanghai

- With regards to English-related attitudes, English is the fifth favoured subject out of a bank of 12; however, many of the students' mental "mapping" of English do not seem to be fully developed;
- On a six-point Likert scale ranging from "very high" to "no motivation at all", 4.4% of the survey respondents reported their overall strength of English-learning motivation was "very high", 28.4% "fairly high" and 46.7% "medium"; in terms of regulatory styles, the researched students are mainly externally regulated, followed by an identified regulation; additionally, they appear to prioritize English study and show persistence and desire to some extent, although they do not agree that they have studied hard;
- In terms of learning reasons, three substrates of orientations – instrumental, integrative and external pressure – have been separated, sharing grounds with other EFL contexts as well as illustrating a Chinese and even a local flavour;
- Correlating components of motivation produces patterns in line with the SDT tenets highlighting firstly the different consequences of varied styles of motivation favoring more self-determined forms and secondly the link between antecedents and motivation therefore the importance of "manipulating" the former;
- The gendered-patterns are in line with findings from the West: girls consistently give higher rates; they also report to have higher motivational dispositions and are seen as exerting more positive peer influence. However, the substrate of external pressure in girls has been linked to perceived low self-efficacy or enjoyment; whist boys' lower attitudes/achievements may be partially a consequence of gender-based parental reasoning and the maintenance of a masculine-identity;

Influences from important others

- The human influence at the researched stage is positive but small: teachers are perceived to exert the highest level of influence, and peers the lowest;
- Important others have positive but mainly pragmatic English-related attitudes, reflecting the collective understanding of Shanghai; teachers are thought to have the most positive attitudes, and peers the least; parents and teachers are found to endorse firstly external reasons, followed by identified and intrinsic reasons; peers appear to support external, followed by identified, reasons, and they do not view English learning as fun or intrinsically rewarding;
- The study has identified the most prevalent means of influences from important others: parents transmit English-related values, create a general emotional backdrop and directly involve in their child's English study in multiple ways; teachers are reported to influence both through factors embedded in the teaching process and more stable teacher-related characteristics; whereas peers influence through collaboration, comparison and competition, peer examples and attitude-transmitting. However, there appear to be some gap between the prevalent practices from parents and teachers and the most effective, or wanted, strategies;
- Finally, in terms of value transmitting (SDT-based), it is found that firstly parental and peer reasons appear to correlate with the students' orientations, secondly, peer reasons also correlate with the students' desire and persistence, and thirdly parental, peer and limited teacher reasons correlate with the students' styles of motivation; as such, parents, and specifically peers, appear to have more impact on value-transmitting.

This study has a number of implications for practice, future research and policy.

Implications for practice

- In terms of practice, teachers need to consider more carefully how they encourage students to be motivated towards learning English. Firstly, there appears to be some differences between what students want and expect of their teachers in terms of motivating strategies and what they actually experience in practice. This

could include the type and nature of feedback teachers give to students on their work and progress, and providing an active role model of being enthusiastic and professional in how they perform their task as a teacher. Additionally, teachers may be in a good position to foster more autonomous forms of motivation especially intrinsic motivation, as well as a sense of self-efficacy, both of which scored low in the main sample. Moreoever, there might be a need for teachers to learn to use motivating strategies that tap into the expectancy-value system, that satisfy basic needs at study, that justify a broader range of reasons and that can bring the English language closer to the students; to achieve a sustainable effect, teachers should also actively guide their students on how to self-motivate themselves. Finally, it can be useful for teachers to have a knowledge of their students' motivational dispositions and learning needs so as to cope with varied requirements from the students highlighting different agendas; the above perhaps can be achieved through administering a brief survey before a course starts.

- In the case of schools, it is important for them to realize, amongst other things, that what type of ethos and emphasis they hold will have an impact on their students' language-related attitudes. As such, schools in Shanghai need to step back and evaluate what learning outcomes they want from their students and whether their current practices are facilitating or forestalling them.
- This study also highlights the need for parents to play a more strategic role in strengthening the children's EFL motivation. In specific terms, they may find it necessary to strengthen the function of parental role modelling. Some good examples of such role modelling include parental role modelling of hard working and attempting to learn English, other languages or new things in general. The above has been regarded as of key importance both for the establishment of an equal and healthy parent-child relationship and for the effective transmitting of a life-long learning ethos. Parents may also need to consider the usefulness of exerting long-term parental effort, which was found to lead to earlier achievements and a consequent higher-level of confidence which in turn impacted on the present. Finally, parents may want to adopt effective, learner-development-oriented strategies, such as confidence-boosting, autonomy-supporting and IM-

fostering strategies, whilst at the same time, adjust their expectation level and avoid popular demotivating strategies such as nagging.

- Whilst useful for the creation of a better language motivation, some of the above-mentioned teacher and parental practices cannot be achieved without some form of help or knowledge from the outside. As such, an important implication of this study is that a closer tie needs to be established that can link China's motivation research, teacher education, school practices and parenting. In the case of motivational research, Chinese scholars need to target schools and be user-oriented; China's teacher education needs to absorb more recent results from motivation research conducted at home and abroad and explicitly deal with this aspect in their teacher-training materials; finally, schools may need to strengthen their links with parents to prepare the latter for better strategies and L2-related understanding which may partially offset the ill-effect of a low parental L2 proficiency in China.

Implications for future research

- In terms of future research, there is a need to pay more attention to contextual differences in research on students' EFL motivation: viz. who is learning English and where? To some extent each context can be looked at afresh, and the features of the context can have an important impact on the way EFL motivation is elicited and sustained in schools.
- Future research could also examine the impact of intervention strategies involving the influence of important others. For example, if a school developed a programme to involve parents in encouraging their children to succeed in school, this could look at its impact on their EFL motivation.
- Finally, research could explore the impact of globalization on aspects of students' integrative motivation towards EFL learning

Implications for policy

Finally, in terms of policy making, the national government of China has selected Shanghai as one of the regions where at regional government level a number of educational reforms have been implemented and evaluated. This has included the introduction of "content-based English instruction" (CBEI), which involves using English in the teaching of other subjects. This study has implications for policy making concerning EFL education particularly in Shanghai.

- There is a need to highlight the way policy on teacher education can play in enhancing teaching quality; one of the key missions might be to target and improve the quality of teachers from lower-achieving schools or disadvantaged areas, so as to reduce area- or school-type-related inequalities within Shanghai.
- There is also a need to consider ways in which the learning of English can be further steered away from the examination system so that some of the negative consequences whereby examination are seen as a source of coercion linked towards negative attitudes towards EFL learning can be avoided in future.
- An all-round strategy involving a further change of the testing and educational culture is also needed so that ideas from teachers being retrained abroad can be fully utilized.
- Finally, there is a need at the policy level to highlight the negative impact that can be linked to an uneven delivery of English education within different regions of China; such a practice has resulted in EFL-learning and outcome differences favouring wealthier areas such as Shanghai, which has caused concerns about the issues of social stability and continued national development.

Appendices

Appendix 1

Pre-pilot Semi-structured Interview Schedule

The purpose of this interview is to find out how parents, teachers and peers influenced your motivation to learn English as a foreign language in the senior middle school. Motivation to learn a foreign language, put in a very simple way, refers to the amount of time and energy the learner is ready to invest in learning that language well. Peers mainly refer to your friends and classmates of similar ages. Thank you very much for your help!

1. How much did your parents influence your motivation to learn English? (A five-point scale might be used if the interviewee finds it difficult to answer: strongly and positively → strongly and negatively. The same would be done with questions 4 and 7.)

2. What reasons did your parents give you to learn English well or not learn English?

3. In what ways did they influence you? Can you give some examples of how they encouraged or discouraged you?

4. How much did your teachers influence your motivation to learn English?

5. What reasons did your teachers give you to learn English well or not learn English?

6. In what ways did they influence you? Can you give some examples of how they encouraged or discouraged you?

7. How much did your peers influence your motivation to learn English?

8. What reasons did your peers give you to learn English well or not learn English?

9. In what ways did they influence you? Can you give some examples of how they encouraged or discouraged you?

Appendix 2

Pre-pilot Questionnaire

The purpose of this questionnaire is to find out how parents, teachers and peers* influence your motivation to learn English as a foreign language in the senior middle school. Motivation to learn a foreign language, put in a very simple way, refers to the amount of time and energy you are ready to invest in learning that language well. The following open questions may be answered in either English or Chinese. Please feel free to attach some paper if you exceed the given space. Thank you very much!!!

Gender: F / M   Age: _____   Years of learning English _____   Grade _____

1. How much do your parents influence your motivation to learn English (please tick)?

Strongly and positively _____ Moderately and positively _____ No/little influence _____
Moderately and negatively _____ Strongly and negatively _____

2. What reasons do your parents give to you to learn English well or not learn English?

____
____
____
____

3. In what ways do they influence you? Can you give some examples of how they encourage or discourage you?

____
____
____
____
____
____
____

4. How much do your teachers influence your motivation to learn English (please tick)?

Strongly and positively _____ Moderately and positively _____ No/little influence _____
Moderately and negatively _____ Strongly and negatively _____

5. What reasons do your teachers give to you to learn English well or not learn English?

____

6. In what ways do they influence you? Can you give some examples of how they encourage or discourage you?

7. How much do your peers influence your motivation to learn English (please tick)?

Strongly and positively _____Moderately and positively _____ No/little influence _____
Moderately and negatively _____ Strongly and negatively _____

8. What reasons do your peers give to you to learn English well or not learn English?

9. In what ways do they influence you? Can you give some examples of how they encourage or discourage you?

*Peers mainly refer to your classmates or friends of similar ages.

Appendix 3

Pilot Open-ended Survey

Your Gender _______

Why are you learning English as a foreign language?

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Appendix 4

Pilot Questionnaire

Dear pupil:

My name is Judy. I am a research student at the University of York in England. I am carrying out a research project looking at the views of pupils in Shanghai about learning English. I am particularly interested in your views about your motivation and the influence on you of important others, such as your parents, your English teachers and your peers.

MOTIVATION to learn a foreign language means the amount of time and energy you are ready to invest in learning that language well.

IMPORTANT OTHERS refers to your parents, English teachers and peers in this questionnaire.

PEERS mainly refers to your friends, classmates and acquaintances of similar ages.

Please fill in this questionnaire carefully. Your answers will be kept confidential. Your cooperation is very greatly appreciated!

Best wishes!!

Judy

Pilot Questionnaire on Student Motivation to Learn English as a Foreign Language and Influences of Important Others

I. Personal information

(1) Your gender, please **tick**:

(a) male	
(b) female	

(2) Age: ____________________

(3) Years of learning English: ____________________

(4) Types of classes you are attending, please **tick**:

(a) humanities	
(b) sciences	
(c) mixed	

II. Your motivation to learn English

(5) Please **tick** the appropriate box for your current attitudes towards **EACH** of the following school subjects:

Subject:	**Dislike very much**	**Dislike a bit**	**Neither like nor dislike**	**Like a bit**	**Like very much**
Maths					
Physics					
Chinese					
Music					
History					
English					
Chemistry					
Biology					
P.E.					
Computer					
Fine arts					
Politics					

(6) Please **tick** the appropriate box for **EACH** statement.
"I am learning English because ..."

	Strongly disagree	**Mildly disagree**	**Neither agree nor disagree**	**Mildly agree**	**Strongly agree**
1. It will help me seek employment.					
2. It will enable me to make more money and have a better life in future.					
3. It will help my future career development.					
4. English is fun.					
5. I am good at English.					
6. I like English songs, movies, magazines, novels, etc.					
7. It is a course requirement and a subject in the NCEE.					
8. My parents want me to do well in English.					
9. I have a desire to communicate with foreigners and make foreign friends					
10. I can use it when travelling abroad.					
11. I want to marry a foreigner.					
12. English is useful for living in Shanghai.					
13. English is an international language.					
14. A knowledge of two languages will make me a better-educated person.					
15. I want to go to an English speaking country (e.g. U.S.A., Australia, Canada, U.K.)					
16. In the future, English will be even more important.					

(7) Can you think of any other reasons for learning English?

____

____

____

(8) How do you feel about the following statements? Please **tick** the appropriate box.

	Strongly disagree	Mildly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Mildly agree	Strongly agree
1. Outside of class, I often think about learning English.					
2. Learning English is a low priority for me at this point.					
3. If possible, I would like to continue to study English.					
4. Realistically speaking, I do not try very hard to learn English.					
5. I have a great desire to learn a lot of English.					

(9) Please **tick** the appropriate box for your motivational level for English learning

High	
Medium	
Low	
None at all	

III. Influences of important others

(10) How true would **you** regard the following statements? Please **tick** the appropriate box.

	You Yourself			
	Not true at all	Not very true	Slightly true	Very true
1. Learning English is not important at all. There is no need to put in any effort.				
2. Pupils should learn English because it will be good for their future life and job prospects.				
3. It would be a shameful thing if one could not speak English.				
4. Learning an additional language will be good for a pupil's intellectual development.				
5. Learning English is an interesting and rewarding process.				

(11) How true would your **parents** regard the following statements? Please **tick** the appropriate box.

	Your Parents			
	Not true at all	**Not very true**	**Slightly true**	**Very true**
1. Learning English is not important at all. There is no need to put in any effort.				
2. Pupils should learn English because it will be good for their future life and job prospects.				
3. It would be a shameful thing if one could not speak English.				
4. Learning an additional language will be good for a pupil's intellectual development.				
5. Learning English is an interesting and rewarding process.				

(12) How much do you think your **parents** influenced your motivation to learn English? Please **tick** the appropriate box.

Very negative	
Slightly negative	
No influence	
Slightly positive	
Very positive	

(13) Please explain in what ways have your **parents** influenced your motivation to learn English?

____

____

____

(14) How true would your **English teachers** regard the following statements? Please **tick** the appropriate box.

	Your English Teachers			
	Not true at all	**Not very true**	**Slightly true**	**Very true**
1. Learning English is not important at all. There is no need to put in any effort.				
2. Pupils should learn English because it will be good for their future life and job prospects.				
3. It would be a shameful thing if one could not speak English.				
4. Learning an additional language will be good for a pupil's intellectual development.				
5. Learning English is an interesting and rewarding process.				

(15) How much do you think your **English teachers** influenced your motivation to learn English? Please **tick** the appropriate box.

Very negative	
Slightly negative	
No influence	
Slightly positive	
Very positive	

(16) Please explain in what ways have your **English teachers** influenced your motivation to learn English?

____

____

____

(17) How true would your **peers** regard the following statements? Please **tick** the appropriate box.

	Your Peers			
	Not true at all	**Not very true**	**Slightly true**	**Very true**
1. Learning English is not important at all. There is no need to put in any effort.				
2. Pupils should learn English because it will be good for their future life and job prospects.				
3. It would be a shameful thing if one could not speak English.				
4. Learning an additional language will be good for a pupil's intellectual development.				
5. Learning English is an interesting and rewarding process.				

(18) How much do you think your **peers** influenced your motivation to learn English? Please **tick** the appropriate box.

Very negative	
Slightly negative	
No influence	
Slightly positive	
Very positive	

(19) Please explain in what ways have your **peers** influenced your motivation to learn English?

IV. Your feedback

(20) Do you have any other ideas or suggestions concerning your motivation to learn English as a foreign language and influences of 'important others'?

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(21) Do you have any suggestions to the improvement of this questionnaire or do you think there is any item that needs further clarification? (e.g. Do you have difficulty understanding any above item?)

Appendix 5

Main Questionnaire on Student Motivation to Learn English as a Foreign Language and Influences of Important Others

(Department of Educational Studies, University of York)

Thank you very much for helping with this research project. The aim of this questionnaire is to look at senior middle school pupils' (in Shanghai) attitudes towards English, their motivational strength, etc. and influences from 'important others' (parents, English teachers and peers) on their motivation to learn. A main index of 'foreign language motivation' is how much time and energy a pupil is ready to invest in learning that language well. Please fill in this questionnaire carefully, and write down your initial, genuine responses. Your answers will be kept confidential.

I. Personal information

(1) Your gender, please **tick**:

(a) male	
(b) female	

(2) Age: ____________________

(3) Length of time learning English: ____________________

(4) Type of class you are currently attending, please **tick**:

(a) humanities	
(b) sciences	
(c) humanities and sciences mixed (including the case of "not yet grouped")	

II. Your attitudes and motivation towards learning English

(5) Please **tick** the appropriate box for your current attitudes towards ***EACH*** of the following school subjects:

Subject:	**Dislike very much**	**Dislike a bit**	**Neither like nor dislike**	**Like a bit**	**Like very much**
Maths					
Physics					
Chinese					
Music					
History					
English					
Chemistry					
Biology					
P.E.					
Computer					
Fine arts					
Politics					

(6) Please **tick** the appropriate box for ***EACH*** statement.

"I want to learn English because ..."

	Strongly disagree	**Mildly disagree**	**Neither agree nor disagree**	**Mildly agree**	**Strongly agree**
1. It will help me seek employment.					
2. Learning English is fun.					
3. In the future, English will be even more important.					
4. My parents want me to do well in English.					
5. I have a desire to communicate with foreigners and make foreign friends					
6. I like English songs, movies, magazines, novels, etc.					
7. It is a course requirement and a subject in the NCEE.					
8. It will help my future career development.					
9. I am good at English.					
10. I can use it when travelling abroad.					
11. I want to marry a foreigner.					
12. English is useful for living in Shanghai today.					
13. English is an international language.					
14. A knowledge of two languages will make me a more cultivated person.					
15. I want to go to an English speaking country (e.g. U.S.A., Australia, Canada, U.K.)					

(7) Can you think of any other reasons for your wanting to learn English? Please state.

____

____

(8) How do you feel about the following statements on your motivation to learn? Please **tick** the appropriate box.

	Strongly disagree	**Mildly disagree**	**Neither agree nor disagree**	**Mildly agree**	**Strongly agree**
1. Outside of class, I make an effort to learn English.					
2. Learning English is a high priority for me at this point.					
3. If possible, I would like to continue to study English after I have finished my formal education (including university education, etc.)					
4. Realistically speaking, I do try very hard to learn English.					
5. I have a great desire to learn English.					

(9) Please **tick** the appropriate box for your **overall** motivational level for English learning.

Very high	
Fairly high	
Medium	
Fairly low	
Very low	
None at all	

III. Influences of important others (parents, English teachers and peers) on your motivation to learn English

(10) How true would ***you*** regard the following statements? Please **tick** the appropriate box.

You Yourself				
	Not true at all	**Not very true**	**Slightly true**	**Very true**
1. Learning English is not important at all. There is no need to put in any effort.				
2. Pupils should learn English because it will be good for their future life and job prospects.				
3. Nowadays, a person would lose face if s/he could not speak English.				
4. Learning an additional language will be good for a pupil's intellectual development.				
5. Learning English is an interesting and rewarding process.				

(11) How true would ***your parents*** regard the following statements? Please **tick** the appropriate box.

Your Parents				
	Not true at all	**Not very true**	**Slightly true**	**Very true**
1. Learning English is not important at all. There is no need to put in any effort.				
2. Pupils should learn English because it will be good for their future life and job prospects.				
3. Nowadays, a person would lose face if s/he could not speak English.				
4. Learning an additional language will be good for a pupil's intellectual development.				
5. Learning English is an interesting and rewarding process.				

(12) **Overall**, how much do you think ***your parents*** influenced your **motivation** to learn English? Please **tick** the appropriate box.

Very negative	
Slightly negative	
No influence	
Slightly positive	
Very positive	

(13) Please explain in what ways have ***your parents*** influenced your **motivation** to learn English?

(14) How true would ***your English teachers*** regard the following statements? Please **tick** the appropriate box.

	Your English Teachers			
	Not true at all	**Not very true**	**Slightly true**	**Very true**
1. Learning English is not important at all. There is no need to put in any effort.				
2. Pupils should learn English because it will be good for their future life and job prospects.				
3. Nowadays, a person would lose face if s/he could not speak English.				
4. Learning an additional language will be good for a pupil's intellectual development.				
5. Learning English is an interesting and rewarding process.				

(15) **Overall**, how much do you think ***your English teachers*** influenced your **motivation** to learn English? Please **tick** the appropriate box.

Very negative	
Slightly negative	
No influence	
Slightly positive	
Very positive	

(16) Please explain in what ways have ***your English teachers*** influenced your **motivation** to learn English?

____

____

____

(17) How true would ***your peers*** (your friends and classmates, etc.) regard the following statements? Please **tick** the appropriate box.

	Your Peers			
	Not true at all	**Not very true**	**Slightly true**	**Very true**
1. Learning English is not important at all. There is no need to put in any effort.				
2. Pupils should learn English because it will be good for their future life and job prospects.				
3. Nowadays, a person would lose face if s/he could not speak English.				
4. Learning an additional language will be good for a pupil's intellectual development.				
5. Learning English is an interesting and rewarding process.				

(18) How much do you think ***your peers*** influenced your **motivation** to learn English? Please **tick** the appropriate box.

Very negative	
Slightly negative	
No influence	
Slightly positive	
Very positive	

(19) Please explain in what ways have ***your peers*** influenced your **motivation** to learn English?

___

___

___

Appendix 6

Standardized, Open-ended Main Interview Schedule

One purpose of this interview is to understand your attitudes towards English and those of your parents, English teachers and peers. It also aims to explore the strength of your motivation, and how parents, teachers and peers have influenced your motivational beliefs and your motivation to learn English as a foreign language.

Motivation to learn a foreign language refers to the amount of time and energy the learner is ready to invest in learning that language well. Peers mainly refer to your friends and classmates of similar ages. Thank you very much for your help!

1. Student attitudes towards English:
1) How do you feel about English as a subject?
2) How do you feel about English as a language?
3) How much do you like English or dislike English and why?
4) Can you talk about your history learning English, especially regarding your attitude/motivational change?

2. How motivated are you? How much extra time do you generally spend on English after finishing your assignments? Can you give examples about what you do outside of class?

3. What do you think your parents' attitudes are towards English as a subject? What do you think your parents' attitudes are towards English as a language? (Please separate your father from your mother if applicable)

4. Do you think your parents have influenced your motivation in any way? What else should they do to help you improve motivation? (Please separate your father from your mother if applicable)

5. What do you think your English teachers' attitudes are towards English as a subject? What do you think your English teachers' attitudes are towards English as a language? (Please separate your current English teacher(s) from your former English teacher(s))

6. Do you think your English teacher(s) have influenced your motivation in any way? (Please separate your current English teacher(s) from your former English teachers if applicable) What else should your current English teachers do to improve your motivation?

7. In general, how do your friends and classmates feel about English as a subject? How do they feel about English as a language? Do they like English or not?

8. Do you think they have influenced your motivation in any way?

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