The Changing Language Learning Motivations of Learners from Mainland China Studying English in New Zealand

Sarah Ruth Bowen

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Abstract

This study investigates the motivations to learn English of Chinese second language students studying in New Zealand. It also examines their views of the New Zealand language learning (LL) environment and explores the influence of Confucian Heritage Culture (CHC) and educational background on these views. Data were collected using semi-structured interviews, questionnaires, and essays from two male and two female students at three points during their first six months of study in New Zealand. The main findings about motivation are: they had both instrumental and integrative motivations for learning English; the instrumental and integrative paradigms were inadequate for describing the motives that they exhibited; these motives changed over time; culture played an important role in shaping motivation; environmental prejudice had a negative impact on motivation. It is concluded that previous process models of motivation are inadequate to account for the variety of motivations and motivational influences described by participants. The main findings about the New Zealand LL environment are: they had both positive and negative views of the New Zealand LL environment; their views tended to become more positive as they saw the utility of this environment in supporting their learning goals. Qualitative data of this kind could be complemented by classroom observations. Implications for teachers, theorists, and New Zealand schools are discussed in the conclusion.
Preface

I would like to acknowledge the support of the University of Otago and particularly the Department of Linguistics. Without the support of the departmental staff and post-graduates this research would have been impossible.

“A single conversation with a wise man is better than ten years of study”.

-Chinese Proverb

I would particularly like to thank Anne Feryok, my supervisor, for her timely advice and encouragement that certainly saved me many hours study. I could not have asked for anybody better to guide me through this process.

“A friend loves at all times…”

-Proverbs 17: 17 (NIV)

I also wish to thank to my husband, Rodney, for his patience and love throughout this process. I could not ask for a better friend. Thank you too for your substantial help in preparing my thesis.
Thanks also to my good friend Yan Jin for her help in translation from Chinese to English and vice versa during and after the interviews. I am grateful for the insights that her work provided.

“Fix these words of mine in your hearts and minds…teach them to your children, talking about them when you sit at home and when you walk along the road, when you lie down and when you get up….”

-Deuteronomy 11: 18- 19 (NIV)

Finally, I would like to thank my first teachers, my parents Graham and Rachel Mearns, without whom the most important lessons in life would never have been learned. Thank you for your encouragement in my education over the years.
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1.0 Introduction

This chapter provides a brief background to this study and outlines the main themes that it addresses. In addition, it briefly outlines the position that this research occupies in the literature.

1.1 Background

English occupies an important place in Chinese society. It is seen by some as a “bridge to the future”; a means of attaining prosperity for both individuals and the country as a whole (Jin & Cortazzi, 2002, p. 54). English is seen not only as a means of conducting international business, but also as a key factor in gaining entry to desirable universities and in obtaining good employment (Liu, 2007). Thus, it is little wonder that students from mainland China are the largest group of international students who are currently studying in New Zealand (Merwood, 2007). In addition, as some fifty-two percent of international students who come to New Zealand study English language at some time during their stay, language schools generally have a high percentage of students from China (Merwood, 2007).

This study seeks to better understand the language learning motivations of a group of four students from Mainland China. It is hoped that the findings will be of use to other second language acquisition (SLA) researchers who are studying motivation, as well as to second language teachers, particularly those working in the New Zealand context. In addition, the study intends to provide an insight into how learners from this Confucian Heritage Culture (CHC) view the New Zealand language learning environment. Despite the high representation of Chinese language learners in New Zealand language schools, little research has been done into this learner group.
1.2 Research Themes

This section outlines the main areas of interest in the present study.

1.2.1 Motivation

Motivation is considered by some to be one of the key factors that determines success in language learning (cf. Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Dörnyei & Otto, 1998; Dörnyei, 2001a). While chapter two provides a detailed definition of this elusive concept, broadly speaking motivation describes the choice of activity and the degree of effort we expend in the pursuit of it (Dörnyei, 2001b).

Motivation has been widely studied in SLA. Chapter two describes the contributions of Canadian researchers Robert Gardener, Wallace Lambert, and Richard Clément who have mostly focused upon the social psychological and socio-educational aspects of motivation (see 2.2.1). Other researchers, such as Zoltan Dornyei, Istvan Otto, and Ema Ushioda, have built upon social psychological theory incorporating cognitive, temporal and classroom motivational theory (see 2.2.2 & 2.2.3).

1.2.1.1 Culture and Motivation

Although there is much evidence to suggest that motivation is important to SLA, “…motivational processes and constructs are implicitly assumed to be invariant across cultural and linguistic groups” (Rueda & Chen, 2005, p. 210). Many of the theories of motivation in SLA have originated in North America and Europe with a primarily English or Indo-European target language (Rueda & Chen, 2005).

This study investigates the influence of culture on motivation. In particular, it seeks to discover whether the participants’ Confucian Cultural Heritage has any impact on upon
their language learning motivations, and on their views of the New Zealand language learning environment.

1.2.1.2 The Temporal Aspect of Motivation

Despite the interest in the area of motivation in SLA from the late 1950s to the present, it was not until the 1990s that the temporal aspects of motivation received significant attention in SLA theory. Given the often lengthy process of language acquisition, it perhaps makes sense that learner motivation is subject to significant change over days, weeks, months, and years (Dörnyei, 2003a; 2005). This study also seeks to explore the temporal aspect of motivation, considering whether the participants’ motivations change over time.

1.2.2 Cultural and Educational Background and Language Learning

Another theme of interest in this study is the potential influence of cultural and educational background on the way one views language learning. There is evidence to suggest that our early socialisation may develop particular characteristic ways of learning and particular learning preferences (Cortazzi & Jin, 1998).

While Chinese classrooms are changing, there are differences between the curriculum and teaching styles usually employed in China and those usually employed in New Zealand language learning classrooms (Biggs, 1998, 1999). This study seeks to discover what students from mainland China may think about their new language learning environment when they come to study in New Zealand. In particular, it investigates whether the Chinese students’ cultural background may have any effect on their views of the New Zealand classroom.

1.3 Research Position

This section outlines the methodological and theoretical position that the present study occupies within the SLA field.
1.3.1 Research Method

This research is primarily an interpretive qualitative study which employs semi-structured interviews as the primary means of data collection. As an interpretive study, care was taken to consider the participants’ own views about their language learning and, as much as possible within the limitations of the research, to understand these views from their point of view (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2002). This reflects an emic approach to data collection and analysis (see 3.3.4). Furthermore, the study recognizes that these views are expressed within a particular socio-cultural context at a particular time, which does not necessarily make them immediately transferable to other contexts.

The research takes a mostly grounded approach to data collection and analysis, although a quantitative questionnaire is also employed as a means of triangulation. Qualitative data are interpreted via inductive, rather than deductive, coding which allowed categories to emerge throughout the research and analysis process (see 3.3.5.1). This was seen as important as the central aim of the study was to gain a better understanding of the participants’ language learning motivations and views of the New Zealand language learning context from the participants’ point of view. Thus, it was necessary that, as far as possible, the findings reflected ideas that the participants’ themselves had discussed, rather than prior categories imposed by the researcher.

Lincoln and Guba’s (1985) framework is employed to promote trustworthiness in the research method. This framework provides criteria to judge the research’s credibility, transferability to other contexts, dependability, and confirmability (see 3.2).

1.3.2 Theoretical Perspective on Motivation

While the study takes a mostly grounded approach to data collection and analysis in which theory is built during and after data have been collected, it is nonetheless built upon an existing foundation of motivation research. The study recognises that motivation may have
a temporal aspect, as articulated by Dörnyei and Otto (1998) and Dörnyei (2001a). Thus, the research method is longitudinal, allowing for any changes in time to be discovered (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991).

A number of sources are drawn upon to interpret the study’s findings and build theory. Firstly, Dörnyei and Otto (1998) and Dörnyei (2001a) provide a set of motivational influences which may impact on learners at various stages of language learning. These motivational influences, along with those articulated by other scholars in the field, are considered as a means of interpreting the data (cf. Clément, 1980; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Weiner, 1972, 1976, 1992). In addition, other SLA research that specifically considered the motivation or attributes of students from a Chinese cultural background are also considered (cf. Biggs, 1992, 1994, 1998, 1999; Chen, Warden & Chang, 2005; Jin & Cortazzi, 1998, 2002, 2006; Li 2006; Liu, 2006; Rueda & Chen, 2005; Stigler, Smith & Mao, 1985; So & Walker, 2006). Finally, information provided by participants about the context of their language learning and their thoughts are also utilized in interpreting data and building theory. In this way, theory is built by utilizing both existing research and information specific to the research context.

1.4 Summary

This chapter has outlined the main themes of interest to this research and has summarised the study’s methodological and theoretical position. The following chapter expands upon this foundation. It outlines some of the previous foci of the study of motivation in SLA, and discusses the value and limitations of the different approaches to motivation research. It also provides an extensive discussion of the theoretical basis of this study including a more robust definition of motivation in SLA. Finally, it discusses the potential influence of cultural background on language learning.
2.0 Literature Review

This section begins by explaining what is meant by the term *motivation* and reviewing some of the literature from the Second Language Acquisition (SLA) field relevant to the study (see 2.1). It continues by detailing a number of the theoretical approaches used to describe and explain motivation and its influences, and identifies the model important to the foundation of this study (see 2.2). Finally, section 2.3 discusses some of the possible cultural influences on motivation, and language acquisition in general, with reference to the notion of *Confucian Heritage Cultures* (CHCs).

2.1 Motivation and Second Language Acquisition

The study of motivation is among the most researched areas of individual differences in SLA (Ellis, 1994). Many leading SLA scholars have given significant time to researching this phenomenon (cf. Clément, Dörnyei & Noels, 1994; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1990, 1998, 2000, 2001a, 2001b, 2005; Gardner & Lambert, 1959, 1972; Gardener, 1979). This wealth of research is perhaps due to the important place learner motivation occupies in second language (L2) learning. Motivation provides both the initial impetus to begin language learning and the ongoing drive to sustain the learning process (Dörnyei, 2005). Indeed, without this ongoing drive to succeed “…even the brightest learners are unlikely to persist long enough to attain any really useful language” (Dörnyei, 2001a, p. 5). Motivation may also determine the extent to which learners are actively
involved in their learning (Oxford & Shearin, 1994). A highly motivated student is likely to engage with even a dull lesson; while a student who lacks motivation to learn the L2 may not respond to the most stimulating of learning environments. In fact, “…motivation is considered by many to be one of the main determining factors in success in developing a second or foreign language…” (Oxford & Shearin, 1994, p.12).

Broadly speaking, motivation describes “…the direction and magnitude of human behaviour” (Dörnyei, 2001b, p. 8). It is concerned with:

- the choice of one activity over another;
- how long we persist with this activity;
- how much effort we expend in pursuit of it (Dörnyei, 2001b).

Yet, this definition is scarcely sufficient to articulate the complex interplay of internal and external variables that shape one’s motivation. Given that motivation is not a simple construct, it may be necessary to consider some of the key themes surrounding the study of motivation.

**2.1.1 Individual Differences in SLA**

Motivation may be considered one of many individual learner differences (IDs) which can influence language learning outcomes. There are a number of IDs which are acknowledged in SLA literature, although the list varies between researchers. This list includes language
aptitude, affective state, age, sex, learning strategies, and cognitive styles. Some researchers, such as Rod Ellis (1994), consider motivation to be an ID in its own right. Others, like Diane Larsen-Freeman and Michael Long (1991), place motivation under the umbrella of social-psychological factors alongside attitude.

Most studies of individual differences in L2 acquisition have demonstrated a relationship between them and language achievement (Gardner, 2006). Two key IDs, affective state and learning strategies, are discussed below.

2.1.1.1 Affective State

The term affective state refers to the emotional or psychological reaction of the learner to their learning situation which may be influenced by factors such as “anxiety, a desire to compete, [and] whether learners feel they are progressing or not” (Ellis, 1994, p. 693). As with motivation, affective state comes under the broader heading of personality by Larsen-Freeman and Long’s (1991) definition, but stands alone in Ellis’s (1994) writing.

Anxiety is an affective factor that has been found to influence second language acquisition (Krashen, 1982; Ellis, 1994). Anxiety may present itself as a facet of a learner’s personality (trait anxiety), or as a response to a particular type of situation (state anxiety) (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). It is this latter, situational, anxiety that has received the most attention in SLA research (Ellis, 1994). Such anxiety may be a response to a particular learning situation, such as speaking in class, or to the teacher’s communicative style. Bailey
(1983) found several causes of anxiety in the L2 classroom, including tests and learners’ perceived relationship with the teacher. Gardner (1985a) found that anxiety among French students affected initial proficiency and motivation, but did not impact on long term LL outcomes. Finally, Spolsky (1989) writes that there are grounds to suggest that “…low proficiency (poor academic results) increases language learning anxiety” (p. 214). Hence, there is evidence to suggest that in the case of many learners, anxiety “…interferes with language learning” (Spolsky 1989, p. 115).

2.1.1.2 Learning Strategies

Learning Strategies are factors which may influence language learning success. Learning strategies can be defined as “those unconscious or conscious activities undertaken by learners that promote learning” including things as varied as advance preparation for class, and using mnemonics or images to learn vocabulary (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991, p. 212).

While learning strategies may be conscious or unconscious, there is evidence to suggest that learning outcomes can be positive when learners receive explicit coaching in learning strategies (Dansereau, 1978). Dörnyei and Otto (1998) also discuss how a conscious understanding of learning strategies may have a positive influence on a learner’s motivation as such strategies can make the learning process more enjoyable, and language attainment appear more achievable. The researchers illustrate this point with the example of a computer enthusiast deciding to learn an L2 via specially designed computer games which are likely to maintain his interest (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998). Thus, an explicit knowledge of
learning strategies may be useful in maintaining motivation to learn and in LL in general.

2.1.2 The Difficulty of Defining Motivation in SLA

Despite the interest in the area of motivation since the 1960s, a universal definition is not forthcoming. In fact, Dörnyei (2001b) describes motivation as “…one of the most elusive concepts in the whole domain of social sciences” (p. 2). This may be partly because it is easier to describe its manifestation, than to specifically define its nature. In other words, it is easier to express what a student appears to enjoy or succeed at than it is to quantify the underlying motivations behind this phenomenon (Dörnyei, 2001a). Dörnyei (2001b) articulates six issues that theorists should take into account when attempting to conceptualise this complex phenomenon:

1. consciousness vs. unconsciousness (i.e. accounting for whether the motive is consciously understood by the learner or not);
2. cognition vs. affect (i.e. recognising both affective and cognitive influences upon human behaviour);
3. reduction vs. comprehension (i.e. presenting the many influences on human behaviour in a compact model);
4. parallel multiplicity (i.e. explaining the interplay of various simultaneous influences upon human behaviour);
5. context (i.e. providing a framework which is both applicable to an individual’s peculiar environment and the wider socio-cultural context);
6. *time* (i.e. allowing for changes in motivation over time) (p. 7).

This problem with defining motivation in the SLA field is compounded by the different theoretical paradigms which have influenced key scholars’ views on motivation. Gardner’s and Lambert’s (1959; 1972) work within the social psychological field is greatly concerned with attitude towards target language culture as a central influence upon motivation. Conversely, Dörnyei’s (1994) framework places much more emphasis upon the influence of the classroom environment on motivation, reflective of the cognitive-situated approach. Thus, as there is no single definition of motivation, we need to examine the three key periods of motivation research in order to gain a robust understanding of what motivation means in SLA.

### 2.2 Three Periods of Motivation Research

Traditionally, researchers in the field have been concerned with product-oriented questions which seek to link motivational conditions, both internal and external, with learning outcomes (Dörnyei, 2005). This is seen in extensive research into areas such as the differential L2 achievement of male and female students, epitomised in the work of Rebecca Oxford and her colleagues (Oxford 1993a, 1993b; Oxford, Nyikos, & Ehrman, 1988). However, over the past 15 years motivation research has developed from examining motivational conditions, to include situational and temporal aspects of motivational theory. Theorists have begun to pay more attention to the classroom environment and to changes in an individual’s motivation over time.
Dörnyei (2005) describes the three key periods of motivational theory in L2 acquisition as the *social psychological period*, the *cognitive-situated period* and the *process-oriented period*. It is important to understand these three key phases in order to appreciate the complex theoretical foundation that supports contemporary motivation theory.

**2.2.1 The Social Psychological Period: 1959 – 1990**

Second language motivation research came into focus in Canada during the 1960s and 1970s through the work of a group of social psychologists, particularly Robert Gardener, Wallace Lambert, and Richard Clément. Gardner and Lambert’s (1959; 1972) seminal research introduced the idea that unlike the learning of other subjects, language learning is a cultural pursuit, as language is embedded in culture; hence, factors such as one’s attitude toward the target speech community invariably influence linguistic success. This notion was particularly salient in the Canadian social context in which they were working, in which learner’s attitudes to the Anglophone and Francophone communities was seen as a significant factor in learning outcomes (Dörnyei, 1994, 2005). Gardner and Lambert (1959) hypothesised that a social motivation involving “a willingness to be valued members of the [second] language community” would result in high levels of L2 achievement (p. 271).

Gardner and Lambert divided motivation into two clusters: *integrative* and *instrumental* (Spolsky, 1989). An *integrative motivation* refers to the desire to learn a language because of an aspiration to identify with, or even become a member of, the target language community (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). This notion is contrasted with *instrumental*
motivation which can be described as a desire to learn an L2 based upon pragmatic gains such as money, social standing or a better job (Dörnyei, 1998). The researchers hypothesised that while both types of motivation are potentially powerful, the integrative motive is “more likely to sustain the long-term effort needed to master a second language…” (Gardner & Lambert, 1972, p.16).

Gardner’s (1985a) Socio-Educational Model of Second Language Acquisition defined the notion of the integrative motive in more detail, presenting it as a complex mix of three components: integrativeness encompassing integrative orientation, interest in foreign languages and attitudes toward the L2 community; attitudes toward the learning situation, relating to the teacher and the course; and motivation incorporating motivational intensity, desire to learn the language and attitudes towards learning the language (see Appendix A). Learners later came to be assessed for each of these factors using a popular standardised questionnaire, the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) (Gardner, 1985b; see Appendix B).

While other factors were seen as important during the social-psychological period, the focus of research was the integrative motive. Perhaps this focus makes sense when we consider that social psychological theory is concerned with language as a cultural phenomenon that requires one to learn another culture to fully comprehend it (Gardner, 1979, p.193). Similarly, the integrative motive is concerned with one’s interest and desired identification with the target language community, as well as one’s interest in the target language. In contrast, the instrumental motive is presented as having less to do with culture,
and more to do with utilitarian gains as a result of language acquisition. It is interesting to note that the notion of instrumental motivation appears in Gardner’s (1985b) Attitude/Motivation Test Battery without any solid theoretical clarification, while the notion of integrative motivation is discussed in depth (Dörnyei, 2005). This may be indicative of the higher degree of importance attached to the integrative motive.

2.2.1.1 Terminological Difficulties

While the terms “instrumental” and “integrative” motivation are both widely used in SLA, they are also widely misused to represent notions which Gardner and Lambert (1959; 1972) and Gardner (1985a) did not intend. This may be because the terms “integrative” and “instrumental” motivation are contrasted in the literature against the terms “integrative” and “instrumental” “orientation”, terms so similar that they have often been confused. Gardner himself recognises that this similar terminology has caused confusion:

> It appears as though some researchers assess orientations or reasons for studying a second language, and equate these with motivation…the operative variable is motivation, not orientation (Gardner, 2001, p. 13).

While the term “motivation” describes the LL goal and the power to attain that goal, “orientations” are defined as “…long-range goals, and attitudes” which are often precursors of motivation (Belmechri & Hummel, 2001, p. 225; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Dörnyei, 2005). In Gardner’s view, “…a student may display a particular motivational
orientation but not be motivated to implement it’ (Oxford & Shearin, 1994, pp. 13-14). To illustrate, a student may be said to have an integrative orientation toward French, that is, a favourable disposition toward the French language and culture. The same student may enrol in a French course, but fail to attain any meaningful command of French due to lack of effort, and insufficient desire to learn the target language—both facets of integrative motivation.

While this confusion may be overcome by careful reading of Gardner’s writing, the terms are certainly confusing simply at a lexical level, and critics claim that there is a lack of terminological clarity (Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Oxford, 1994; Dörnyei, 1994; Dörnyei, 2005).

2.2.1.2 Potential Limitations of Social Psychological Theory

The integrative motive is undoubtedly a potent motivator. A recent meta-analysis of studies conducted by Gardner and his associates has confirmed the belief that an integrative component plays a significant role in learner motivation and that it consistently emerges in even the most diverse contexts (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). Yet some have argued that up until the early 1990s, social psychological theory was so dominant that alternative views of motivation were not given the consideration that was their due (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1994).

A preoccupation with social psychological concerns, and particularly the integrative
motive, may have inhibited study into other areas of psychology that could yield potentially useful ways of articulating the concept of motivation (Oxford & Shearin, 1994). As Oxford and Shearin comment:

> [t]he social psychological approach to L2 learning motivation is concerned with the individual in the context of a group, usually a target culture, and therefore tends to focus on integrative motivation as a reflection of relations between individuals and groups (1994, p. 15).

In a response to criticisms made by Crookes and Schmidt (1991), Oxford and Shearin (1994), and Dörnyei (1994), Gardner and Tremblay (1994) defend the Gardnerian approach to motivation research in SLA. Gardner and Tremblay (1994) maintain that while integrative motivation is seen as important in social psychological theory “it is not seen as paramount…[as] the central concept in the model is motivation” (p. 361). The authors go on to argue that while the dichotomy between the integrative and instrumental motives and orientations may be seen as important to some scholars, this dichotomy is not seen as being of primary importance to Gardner (Gardner & Tremblay, 1994). These latter comments may well be justified, as in his writing Gardner does not present the integrative and instrumental motives as the dichotomous phenomenon that they have become (Dörnyei, 1994).

However, it should be acknowledged that Gardner’s own writing demonstrates a strong emphasis on the integrative motivation over possible alternatives. One need not go further
than the article written by Tremblay and Gardner (1994) in defence of the Gardnerian approach. Tremblay and Gardner comment that while the integrative motive has been described in many Gardnerian studies, “…only one study has explicitly considered what might be called instrumental motivation” (p. 361). Section 2.3 considers the relevance of this motive to cultural contexts outside Canada.

The limitation of the integrative/instrumental dichotomy, coupled with the desire for a more practical, classroom-specific approach, led to the development of cognitive theories of L2 learning motivation in SLA. This theoretical shift has also helped to account for the complex and diverse influences upon learner motivation.

**2.2.2 The Cognitive-Situated Period: 1990s**

The 1990s saw a shift from the social psychological emphasis on integrative motivation spurred on by a desire to incorporate theories from other parts of psychology, particularly those from education, with those in the SLA field (Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Graham Crookes and Richard Schmidt’s (1991) influential article “Motivation: Reopening the Research Agenda” argued that the common conceptualisation of motivation in SLA considered attitudinal and other social psychological aspects, but needed to take account of how the terms were actually used by second language teachers in the classroom environment. Furthermore, while the extensive work of Gardner and his colleagues in the area of integrative motivation was still seen as both valid and useful, many key scholars began to realise that there was a need for a more user-friendly approach to motivational
models that teachers could use in practice (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1990; Julkunen, 1989; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Skehan, 1991). These were coupled in what Dörnyei describes as the desire to develop:

…a more pragmatic, education-centred approach to motivation research, which would be consistent with the perceptions of practising teachers and which would also be in line with the current results of mainstream educational psychological research (1994, p. 273).

Two key aspects of motivation that had been previously understated were central to this new perspective. Firstly, cognitive psychological influences, which considered factors such as what one thinks about one’s L2 ability and potential due to one’s perception of past experiences; and secondly situation-specific influences, embodied in the classroom and other learning environments.

2.2.2.1 Cognitive Influences on Motivation

The 1990s saw a surge of interest in cognitive aspects of psychology, including the emergence of a number of pedagogical models that had not previously been applied in L2 teaching research (Dörnyei, 1994, 2001b, 2005). While Oxford and Shearin (1994) provided alternative conceptualisations of motivation incorporating ideas from industrial, educational, general, and cognitive developmental psychology, it was the cognitive aspects of motivational psychology that became most influential in SLA. Rather than ignoring the
advances made in Gardnerian theory, this new cognitive perspective sought to integrate the established social psychological aspects of L2 motivation with the cognitive notion that a learner’s perception of their capabilities, limitations, and potentials based upon their previous experiences is a central aspect of motivation (Dörnyei, 2005).

The cognitive approach views motivation to be a product of one’s thoughts, which are informed by elements of a learner’s past experience rather than some innate instinct or need (Dörnyei, 1994). Three key components of cognitive motivation theory became popular in SLA: attribution theory, self-efficacy theory, and self-confidence (Clément, 1980; Dörnyei, 1994). All three components describe different aspects of how self-evaluation, whether positive or negative, impacts upon future success (Weiner, 1976). As such, these theories may generally be categorised as expectancy-value theories which hold that motivation to perform a task is based on two factors:

- the individual’s expectancy of success in a given task,
- the value the individual attaches to success on that task (Dörnyei, 2001b, p. 20).

Thus, the greater a learner’s belief about their own potential to succeed, and the greater the value of the task to them, the higher the degree of the learner’s positive motivation.

*Attribution theory* was the dominant motivational theory in psychology during the 1980s, and was incorporated into many models of L2 motivation (Dörnyei, 1994). The theory argues that that the subjective reasons that we attach to our failure and success influence
our belief about whether we will achieve future goals (Weiner, 1972, 1976, 1992).

Attribution theorists are interested in causality - the reason why an event occurred (Weiner, 1972). The term causal attribution is used to describe the factor which a learner perceives caused a particular outcome. One of the foremost scholars in attribution theory as conceived in SLA, is Bernard Weiner. Weiner (1976) described the four most common causal attributions of an achievement-related event, such as an examination: ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck. If failure is attributed to lack of ability or task difficulty, a student’s expectation of future success is likely to be lower than if failure is attributed to lack of effort or bad luck (Weiner 1972; Dornyei, 2005).

Some empirical studies have confirmed the validity of attribution theory in the language classroom. Dörnyei (2001b) details a qualitative study conducted by Ushioda (1998) with Irish learners of French, which demonstrate the differential success of learners based upon causal attributions. It is interesting to note that some studies have shown that learners’ causal attributions of failure may vary between cultures; While it is well-documented that Westerners tend to attribute success to ability and effort, learners from Asian cultural backgrounds are more likely to cite effort as the cause (see 2.3; Biggs, 1998, 1999; Graham, 1994; Rueda & Chen, 2005; Li, 2006). Given that causal attributions can “…influence the likelihood of undertaking achievement activities, the intensity of work at these activities, and the degree of persistence in the face of failure” it is easy to see why attribution can play a pivotal role in language learning motivation (Weiner, 1972, p. 213).

A second cognitive notion, self-efficacy, refers to one’s expectancy of successfully
completing a specific task based upon factors such as previous performance in a similar task, external encouragement from others, and mediated learning (i.e. learning from the experiences of others) (Dörnyei, 2001b). According to Oxford and Shearin (1994) high self-efficacy “…results in higher effort towards a goal even in response to negative feedback” (p. 21). Not only that but high self-efficacy often leads to students setting higher goals, and having higher standards for attaining self satisfaction (Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Thus, high levels of self-efficacy often affect achievement positively because individuals will persist longer with and often exert more effort on tasks (Oxford & Shearin, 1994).

The idea of self-efficacy is closely related to the idea of self-confidence which describes one’s general belief about one’s own ability to use the L2 in a wide range of domains both in and out of the classroom (Dörnyei, 2001b). According to Clément (1980) self-confidence is a more socially defined construct than self-efficacy, though it has a cognitive component (self-evaluation of L2 proficiency). While self-confidence was originally described in multicultural settings, it also applies in monocultural situations as seen in foreign language learning (Dörnyei, 1994; Clément, Dörnyei & Noels, 1994). The theory of linguistic self-confidence posits that frequent, quality contact with the L2 community, whether real or via the media, is likely to foster greater linguistic self-confidence in using the L2, greater desire to communicate, and a heightened identification with the L2 community (Clément, Dörnyei & Noels, 1994).

### 2.2.2.2 The Value of a Situated Approach to Motivation
The cognitive-situated focus during the early 1990s was also founded upon the belief that a learner’s immediate classroom environment had a greater influence upon their motivation than had previously been recognised (Dörnyei, 2001, 2005). Social psychological theory largely aimed to give a macroperspective on motivation in L2 learning. For instance, Gardner’s AMTB had provided a means of testing some aspects of the L2 classroom, such as the student’s attitude to their teacher and the course. Yet, in general, Gardnerian theory had focused on the general social influences upon motivation, rather than on classroom specific influences (Gardner, 1985b; Dörnyei, 1994).

In contrast, the cognitive-situated period sought to describe students motivation as it was influenced by their immediate socio-cultural environment (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1990, 1994).

The key assumption that energised this boom in research was that the classroom environment - and more generally, the contextual surroundings of action - had a much stronger motivational influence than had been proposed before (Dörnyei, 2003a, p. 11).

One existing theory that helped researchers to discuss motivation during this period was Deci and Ryan’s (1985) Self-Determination Theory (SDT). Deci and Ryan (1985) classify motivation as being either intrinsic or extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation denotes the desire to learn a language purely for the feelings of pleasure and satisfaction that derive from this learning experience. An intrinsically motivated learner “…is considered to be highly self-
determined in the sense that the reason for doing the activity is linked solely to the individual’s positive feelings while performing the task” (Noels, Clément, & Pelletier, 1999, p. 24). Conversely, extrinsic motivation is seen when learners perform activities for instrumental reasons, such as rewards, rather than the pleasure of the learning experience itself (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Extrinsic motivation may be seen to bear some similarity to the notion of instrumental orientation as both are concerned with learning an L2 for instrumental gains, rather than for the inherent enjoyment of the activity (see 2.2.1.1).

Both types of motivation have important implications for L2 teaching and learning. In fact, Noels, Clément and Pelletier (1999) suggest that “…the distinction between extrinsic and intrinsic goals can be of service in predicting L2 learning outcomes” (p. 25). Some research suggests that learners who are intrinsically motivated, and have a positive disposition to the target language culture, are more likely to succeed in language learning (Gardner, 1985).

An understanding of SDT may also help to account for changes in learner motivation within the LL classroom. The theory proposes that a learner’s motivation is influenced by environmental factors, such as the teacher or learner group, which can affect self-perceptions of their own competence and autonomy (Noels, Clément & Pelletier, 1999). Research suggests that the L2 teacher may be seen as a central figure that affects these perceptions in language learning. For instance, if teachers offer rewards to intrinsically motivated students, this may jeopardise their desire to complete an activity as it undermines their sense of autonomy (Deci, 1972; Deci & Ryan, 1980; Ryan and Deci, 2000).
Another study, conducted by Kimberly Noels, Richard Clément and Luc Pelletier, found that *intrinsic* motivation is associated with students’ perceptions of the teacher’s communicative style (Noels et al., 1999). The study of Anglophone students in a six-week French immersion class found that when students perceived that the teacher’s style was controlling and that, as she did not give them constructive feedback, their intrinsic motivation subsequently decreased significantly. Other research showed that situation-specific motivations often over-rode the initially positive or negative attitudes toward the language that were seen as so important in social psychological theory (Dörnyei, 2005).

It should be acknowledged that situational studies of motivation, like all studies that involve attempting to explain the causes of human behaviour, are not without difficulties (Gardner & Tremblay, 1994). However, studies into situational variables such as the influence of parents, teachers, the classroom, and schools have produced some useful findings (Dörnyei, 2001b). This period’s focus on learner cognition and the LL environment further extended and refined the concept of motivation in the SLA field.

### 2.2.2.3 New Ways of Conceptualising Motivation

The Cognitive-Situated shift in L2 research meant that the notions of integrative and instrumental motivations began to be seen as part of a much larger, more complex conceptualisation of motivation. This complexity is reflected in Zoltán Dörnyei’s (1994) framework which expounds the perceived importance of both cognitive factors and the learning situation, while building upon Gardnerian theory (see Appendix C).
Dornyei’s (1994) model takes into account instrumental and integrative motivational subsystems in the language level, which reflect the student’s general attitudes toward, and reasons for, learning the language. The learner level concerns the learner’s cognitive and affective traits. Dörnyei identifies the need for achievement and self confidence as salient individual differences in motivation. The notion of self confidence is used here to describe the cognitive concepts of language use anxiety; perceived L2 competence; causal attribution of language success to past events; and self-efficacy. Finally, the model emphasises the importance of examining the influences of the learning environment upon motivation in the learning situation level which subsumes course, teacher, and group (class) specific motivational components.

Incorporating relevant theory from both cognitive and social psychological theory, while recognising the influence of the learning situation, Dörnyei’s (1994) model has a footing in theory as well as classroom applicability. While Gardner’s (1985) model did not explain the source of student motivation, Dornyei’s later model attempts to explain the origin of motivation via specific aspects of the learning situation, or through the learner’s own self-perception. As Oxford and Shearin (1994) argue, while the source of motivation may not be of particular importance to scholars, it is “… very important in a practical sense to teachers who want to stimulate students’ motivation. Without knowing where the roots of motivation lie, how can teachers water those roots?” (p.15). In response to Oxford and Shearin’s concerns, Dornyei’s visual representation of foreign language learning motivation is supplemented with advice for teachers regarding how to motivate students at each of the
three levels in his model.

Another expanded model of motivation which accounted for both contextual and individual factors was Williams and Burden’s (1997) framework of L2 motivation (see Appendix D). Williams and Burden’s detailed model groups the factors that influence motivation into two categories: internal and external. Internal factors subsume cognitive aspects of motivation such as feelings of self-efficacy, learner attitudes and perceptions, learner attribution, and the learner’s view of the inherent interest or value that language learning holds. The second category, external factors, incorporates a set of environmental factors that may impact on learner motivation such as the influence of significant others, the learning environment, and the wider social context in which the L2 learning takes place.

In a similar fashion to Dörnyei (1994), Williams and Burden (1997) present a synthesis of factors that may influence motivation drawn from multiple theories including SDT, attribution theory, and cognitive and educational psychology. Yet, while these conceptualisations of motivation incorporate some aspects which earlier models did not take into account, neither pays significant attention to the temporal aspect of motivation.

2.2.3 The Process-Oriented Period: Late 1990s-present

The cognitive-situated focus of the 1990s was useful as it brought issues of motivation to light that were most obvious in the classroom setting, but had not previously been articulated in detail in SLA literature. However, observation of real classes also made it
clear that learner motivation is not static, but dynamic, often changing in the course of a single lesson (Dörnyei, 2003a, 2005). Even before the turn of the 21st century, there were calls to recognise this temporal aspect of motivation. Critiques of the social psychological approach were coupled with calls to recognise the dynamic nature of motivation in the real world. As Oxford and Shearin write:

> [t]he old definitional framework (softened now by Gardner, but still used by some practitioners) that limits motivation to instrumental and integrative also might need to be broadened to allow for complicated changes in time in a student’s reasons for learning a language (1994, p. 14).

This temporal aspect is most salient in SLA when we consider the particularly lengthy process of language learning, which often takes many years (Dörnyei, 2003a; 2005). Over the years there will be many changes for the learner, both internal and external, which are likely to change the way in which they view the target language. A process-oriented approach seeks to “…account for the ‘ups and downs’ of motivation, that is, the ongoing changes of motivation over time” (Dörnyei, 2003a, pp. 17-18).

This phase in SLA research was spearheaded by Zoltan Dörnyei, Ema Ushioda, Istvan Otto and their colleagues in Europe who built upon psychological theories of action and change. Dörnyei (2003a) maintains that temporal awareness is an essential component in explaining learner motivation because one’s motivations are somewhat dependant upon the stage of action one has reached in attaining their goal. While a student may start out learning a
language for some instrumental motivation, they may develop different motivations as they become more proficient and their linguistic self-confidence increases. Thus, different motivations are attributed to different stages of development.

2.2.3.1 Dörnyei and Otto’s (1998) Process Model

In the late 1990’s Dörnyei and Otto began to work on a graphic representation of motivation which not only builds upon ideas from social psychological research, cognitive psychology, and education, but also importantly accounts for the temporal aspect of motivation. The model draws upon the work of German psychologists Heinz Heckhausen and Julius Kuhl (1985) to describe changes in motivation over time using three distinct stages: the pre-actional phase, the actional phase, and the post-actional phase (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998; Dörnyei, 2002). The model describes the preactional phase in which the learner sets language learning goals and takes the necessary steps to begin the LL process; the actional phase in which the learner carries out a series of subtasks intended to help them to achieve their goal; and finally, the postactional phase in which the learner evaluates the learning experience and forms a future plan of action or dismisses their intention and further planning (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998, p. 48) (See Appendix E). It is important to note that while these stages are presented as distinct, they are not discrete, and the whole process is not necessarily a linear one. To illustrate, a student may have made the decision to enrol in a course of study and begun their course, thus having crossed what Dornyei and Otto (1998) describe as the Rubicon of action. However, having moved from the pre-actional to the actional stage, the learner may decide to abandon their action, or if they still wish to
learn the L2 they may even “…step back to the pre-actional phase, revise the concrete goal to be pursued and form a new intention” (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998, p. 51). This possibility of recursion is represented in Dörnyei and Otto’s (1998) graphic model by a dotted arrow leading from the “actional outcome” in the actional phase back to the “goal/assigned task” in the pre-actional phase (p. 48).

Dörnyei and Otto’s (1998) model articulates a number of motivational influences that may “…underlie and fuel the behavioural process” during the three different stages of action. The authors are careful to point out that each phase is influenced by different factors which they draw from “…every major motivational factor from previous studies in the L2 field” (Dornyei & Otto, 1998, p. 51). For instance, the researchers theorise that a learner’s beliefs and learning strategies and environmental support are important motivational influences during the pre-actional stage, while teacher and parental influence are more salient influences during the actional stage. It is this synthesis of previous research that has led some scholars to applaud the model as an attempt to reconcile individual differences, cognitive-situated factors, and social psychological concerns (Pittaway, 2004).

However, perhaps Dörnyei and Otto’s (1998) claim that the motivational influences from one phase of action are different to those from other phases is open to question. While it may be true that “…very few motivational forces have a global effect on every stage of an actor’s behaviour”, and some forces may be more or less influential at certain times, it may also be true that some motivational influences remain important across the three phases (Dornyei & Otto, 1998, p. 52). For instance, could not one’s expectancy of success
motivate or de-motivate one during the actional phase as well as the pre-actional? And, might not the influence of one’s parents be equally important in the pre-actional and retrospective phases? Although Dornyei and Otto (1998) do not discount this possibility, they only focus on a few “main” influences at each phase (p. 52).

2.2.3.2 Dornyei’s (2001) Schematic Representation of a Process Model of L2 Motivation

Dornyei’s (2001a) representation of the process model condenses Dornyei and Otto’s (1998) previous, more elaborate, model and provides an alternative schematic representation (see Appendix F). While the earlier model articulated the main motivational influences and functions of each phase in a lengthy article, this later model distils this information and presents it in a new schematic form. This is useful as the key motivational influences can now be seen at a glance. Dornyei’s (2001a) model does not show visually the recursive nature of motivation as the first schematic representation does; however, this recursion is articulated in the accompanying explanation of the new process model. In essence, the model represents some of the same phenomena as the first, but its presentation is perhaps more “user friendly”.

Each phase of motivation research has helped to further illuminate the notion of motivation in second language acquisition by focusing on psychological, cognitive, situational or temporal aspects of motivation. Yet, in order to gain a more complete picture of this complex phenomenon it may be necessary to better understand the cultural and educational influences that the learner brings to the second language classroom.

2.3 Cultural and Educational Background and Language Learning
The term *culture* describes the framework of expectations, values and beliefs that underlie a given social or ethnic group. There is some debate over whether cultural background may be considered an individual difference in its own right in SLA. Certainly, culture is not identified as a key individual difference in either Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) or Ellis’s (1994) discussions of individual learner differences. Furthermore, Dash (2003) argues against “excessive consideration” of culture to the exclusion of other well accepted models of individual difference (p. 17). However, while culture may not be widely recognised as an individual difference in its own right, research suggests that a learner’s cultural background may impact on individual differences such as motivation, attitude, and affective state (see Chen, Warden & Chang, 2005; Jin & Cortazzi, 2006; Rueda & Chen, 2005).

There is a growing body of evidence to suggest that a learner’s cultural and educational background can influence the way they view, and participate in language learning (Biggs, 1998; Carson, 1998; Jin & Cortazzi, 1998; Kelen, 2002). While it would be unwise to emphasise the importance of this background over all other factors, Carson (1998) warns that:

[n]ot to consider how this [cultural] background might affect language acquisition is to deny an essential aspect of these learners’ experience and will ultimately lead to an incomplete and inaccurate description of their language learning (p. 736).

A learner’s cultural and educational background may be seen as related because education
is, to some extent, embedded in culture. Lixian Jin and Martin Cortazzi (1998) write that while one must always take into account a learner’s individual differences in language learning, the way we think and learn are in large part a product of three related factors: our cultural background, education, and socialisation.

Some have questioned the relevance of social psychological theory, and its supporting instrument the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB), to cultural groups outside the Canadian context (Chen, Warden & Chang, 2005). While the social aspect of language is a salient concept in all multicultural societies where languages and cultures interact, perhaps there are other, more important, influences on motivation in particular socio-cultural contexts. It has been argued that the integrative motive may be less relevant for some L2 learners, particularly those studying in foreign language (FL) settings. For instance, in China, where learners may have little contact with the target language community they may also have insufficient knowledge of the target culture to form an integrative attachment to the group (Dörnyei, 1990, 1998). In fact, in some studies instrumental motives have been found to be more potent motivators in particular FL contexts (Chen, Warden & Chang, 2005; Rueda & Chen, 2005; Liu, 2007).

Gardner (2006) addressed this concern with the relevance of social psychological theory by administering the AMTB to groups of language students of two different age levels in four different European countries. According to Gardner (2006), results obtained in these countries “were very similar to results obtained in the Canadian context”, demonstrating a high level of internal consistency in the Battery (p. 258). However, one may still question
the relevance of the AMTB in non-European contexts as Gardner (2006) mostly used the battery in European countries. Given that Gardner and Lambert (1972) themselves found the instrumental motive “extremely effective” among what they termed “linguistic minority groups” in the Philippines and North America, it may be postulated that there may be other groups in which this would be the case (p. 141; see 2.3.3 for a discussion of the influence of cultural heritage on motivation). Would similar results, showing a correlation between integrative motivation and language achievement, be derived from testing the AMTB on learners from non-European cultural backgrounds?

This section considers the potential influences of Chinese cultural heritage, hereafter referred to as **Confucian Heritage Culture** (CHC), on the language learner.

### 2.3.1 Confucian Heritage Culture

A number of Asian countries are said to share a Confucian Heritage Culture, that is, a culture that reflects some of the ethical teachings expounded by *K’ung Fu Tzu* (Confucius), a Chinese philosopher born around 551BC (So & Walker, 2006). Confucianism, as K’ung Fu Tzu’s body of wisdom became known, is a system of ethics which stresses four key elements which together make up the ultimate goal of *de* (virtue):

- *ren* which is often translated as humaneness or benevolence;
- *li* concerned with ritual norms;
- and *xiao* which is filial piety (So & Walker, 2006, p. 24).
CHCs are often referred to as collectivist cultures because of the importance placed upon the needs of the group, rather than the desires and needs of the individual. Unlike “…Christianity, which puts individuals in relation to God, Confucianism related individuals to their significant others, such as father and uncle in the family, and teacher and master in one’s career development” (So & Walker, 2006, p. 26).

Two other CHC concepts may be of interest in the L2 classroom: guanxi and face. The first, guanxi, can be roughly translated as meaning personal ties or relationships, yet this definition does not do justice to the complex interplay of factors which make up guanxi (So & Walker, 2006). Guanxi is a “…complex network of reciprocal obligations” by which one may progress, not only in business, but also in many other fields (Wilson, 1997, p. 54). In fact, no distinction is made between personal and business ties; according to Confucian cultural tradition, any relationship ought to begin with the establishment of a personal bond (So & Walker, 2006). The concept of guanxi is both utilitarian and personal because it “…represents the totality of the relationship between two persons” (Lee-Wong, 1994, p. 26).

The second concept, face, is equally complex. Face is a social-psychological construct which is concerned with “…the perception of self in relation to the other” and the maintenance of prestige and self-respect (Lee-Wong, 1994, p. 22; So & Walker, 2006). The notion of face is intimately linked with the idea of limao (politeness). While face is a measurement of the relative respect one person accords the other, limao is a set of social
norms of politeness shared by members of a speech community (So & Walker, 2006).

The concepts of *guanxi* and *face* may be seen as important in CHCs as “…for the moral good of society one is morally obliged to show responsibility in both” (So & Walker, 2006, p. 26). Even though some may seek to violate these norms of behaviour, the values largely serve to foster harmony and fulfill the *li* (ritual norms) so important in CHCs.

While it should be acknowledged that cultural beliefs and practices between the different CHC nations such as China, Japan, Korea, and Singapore differ, it is generally accepted that the core characteristics described above manifest themselves in some way in the society and education systems of all CHC nations (Biggs, 1998; Jin & Cortazzi, 1998; Kelen, 2002). The influence of CHC in the language learning classroom has recently begun to be represented in SLA literature (Biggs, 1998, 1999; Jin & Cortazzi, 1998, 2002, 2006; Kelen, 2002).

2.3.1.1 The LL Environment in China: Reflective of CHC Values

Confucian philosophy has always extolled the virtues of education and has exhorted “…teachers and learners towards particular pedagogic and heuristic orientations” (Kelen, 2002, p.223). Possibly as a result of Confucian values, education often “…has a much higher value in CHC countries than in the West” (Biggs, 1999, p. 93). This may well be the case in China which has “…the world’s largest educational system with the largest number of learners of English…” (Jin & Cortazzi, 2006, p. 5). In China, English is often a
compulsory language in school and many English courses such as listening and intensive reading, “…are compulsory for non-English majors during the first one or two years in 3-year or 4-year colleges or universities” (Liu, 2007, p. 129). CHC is evident in the large English language classes in China where part of the foundation of the culture of learning “…is a range of Confucian values” (Jin & Cortazzi, 1998, p. 757).

As indicated in section 2.3.1, the teacher or master occupies a special place in CHCs (So & Walker, 2006). While there is evidence that the teachers’ role in the LL classroom is changing in modern China, in the largely teacher-centred, knowledge-based culture of learning the teacher commands a great deal of respect (Biggs, 1998; Jin & Cortazzi, 1998). This teacher-centred culture is exacerbated by the frequently large classes in China, where group work is uncommon as the furniture and sheer size of the class makes this difficult (Jin & Cortazzi, 1998). This stands in contrast with smaller Western classes where simultaneous pair work is a common feature of the communicative method. Yet, while the teacher usually commands obedience and respect, contrary to popular belief, the teacher is not necessarily an authoritarian figure (Biggs, 1998). Rather, a good LL teacher in China is perceived by students as being “friendly and warm-hearted” which “…would seem to exemplify the Confucian concept of ’ren’- variously translated as showing humanity, human-heartedness, or love” (Jin & Cortazzi, 1998, p. 752).

Nonetheless, learners from CHCs are generally socialised to be obedient and to work hard because of a complex mix of Confucian heritage beliefs and values (Biggs, 1998). Some of the reasons given for this are that CHCs emphasise the value of hard work over talent, and
expound the importance of succeeding in education “…for the good of the state, defining the individual within the needs of the state” (Biggs, 1998, p. 729). This means that CHC values encourage students to work hard to complete set tasks by listening carefully to the teacher, rather than relying on their natural ability or “luck” to succeed. In contrast, among Westerners the most common causes that people attribute their success or failure to are ability and effort (Li, 2006). According to Cortazzi and Jin (1998) “…these cultural characteristics appear to arise in early socialization patterns and educational requirements” (p. 740).

2.3.2 The Status of English in China

The announcement in July 2001 that the 2008 Olympic Games will be held in Beijing, China, has meant that more Chinese than ever are learning English (Jin & Cortazzi, 2002). English is afforded a special status in China; success in English has implications for an individual’s education and career prospects, and even their standing in society (Jin & Cortazzi, 2002; Liu, 2007). English plays an important part in:

…determining what university middle school graduates can choose and in selecting college graduates for further education. It is also an influential factor in deciding what jobs and salaries people can get in the job market (Liu, 2007, p. 129).

Perhaps for these reasons there is a popular notion that English affords individuals a certain prestige and opens doors to success in many arenas (Jin & Cortazzi, 2002). In fact, English
is now even being taught in some of the kindergartens in large Chinese cities where “…parents often consider it a point of social status that their child is learning English” (Jin & Cortazzi, 2002, p. 55).

Yet, English is not only seen as a language for “getting ahead” within China, but as a means of international communication which will benefit the nation as a whole. This is hardly surprising, since the goals of education in CHCs “incorporate the good of the state, defining the potential of the individual within the needs of the state” (Biggs, 1998, p. 729). The collective importance of English can be seen in the Chinese government’s declaration that learning English is now important for the whole nation, which came on the heels of the announcement that China would host the 2008 Olympic Games (Jin & Cortazzi, 2002). English “…is therefore considered by many Chinese as a bridge to the future, both for the country and for individuals” (Jin & Cortazzi, 2002, p. 54).

2.3.3 Motivation among Learners of English from CHC Backgrounds

Studies in the SLA field have suggested that motivational beliefs about language learning vary between cultures (see Biggs, 1992; Rueda & Chen, 2005). We have already noted that the instrumental motive may be a more potent motivator in some FL contexts than the integrative motive (see 2.1). Studies of learners from a Chinese cultural background studying in both second and foreign language contexts, the instrumental aspect of motivation has often come through as the predominant orientation or motivation for language learning (see Rueda & Chen, 2005; Li, 2006; Liu, 2007).
Contrary to the predictions of Gardner and his colleagues, the instrumental motive has proven an antecedent of LL success within this cultural group. Liu’s (2007) study of Chinese university students’ attitudes and motivations showed that:

…the more instrumentally motivated the students were to learn English, the higher the scores they received on the proficiency test (p. 138).

Yet other empirical research has suggested that the integrative/instrumental framework is insufficient to describe the wide range of motives reported by students (Oxford and Shearin, 1994). Studies of motivation among Chinese learners have identified motivations different from those reported by students from other cultural and educational backgrounds. For instance, Chen, Warden and Chang (2005) found that a phenomenon they coined the Chinese imperative was the primary motivator in the Taiwanese FL context. This term, which may also be described as required motivation, is a culturally specific mix reflecting the CHC’s emphasis on societal requirements and the pressures of collectivism in learning English (Chen, Warden, & Chang, 2005). It does not fit neatly into the category of an instrumental motivation as the learner is not really learning English for utilitarian gains, but because it is a societal requirement (see 2.2.1).

Given the motivational differences expressed in studies of learners from a Chinese cultural background, it is no doubt wise to consider their CHC, as well as other individual
differences, when researching this group of learners.

2.4 The Basis of the Present Study

I have chosen to draw upon Dörnyei and Otto’s (1998) Process Model, and Dörnyei’s (2001a) schematic representation of the original model as a basis for studying the motivations of students from a Chinese cultural background (see 3.3). Despite the fact that attaining a high level of proficiency in an L2 takes months, or more likely years, Dörnyei (2005) maintains that changes in motivation also occur over periods of days and months. Thus, the model seems appropriate to represent any changes in student motivation that might occur over the six month period of this study.

Furthermore, this framework articulates many possible cognitive and environmental influences upon motivation that have not always been taken into account in previous theory, while also drawing upon earlier social psychological ideas. It should be noted that while the motivational influences described in the three-stage model are drawn upon in this study, they represent only a portion of the theory used to shed light on the research findings. Other influences on motivation, such as the influence of CHC, will also be considered later in section 5.0.

Chapter three articulates the philosophic approach of this study, with some reference to the way in which the process oriented model of motivation was used to provide a structure for the research. It also details the research method and addresses the ethical considerations
involved in conducting this type of empirical research.
3.0 Methodology

This chapter will begin by outlining the philosophic approach of this research. I will continue by describing the criteria used to establish trustworthiness in the research method. The research strategy will then be articulated, including a discussion of the setting, participants, instrumentation, data collection and data analysis techniques. Finally, I will detail the relevant ethical issues.

3.1 Approaches to Research in SLA

While researchers employ various techniques to collect and analyze data, any research methodology reflects elements of the qualitative or quantitative tradition. Despite the popularity of qualitative research in many social science disciplines such as education, quantitative research has traditionally taken precedence (see Gorard & Taylor, 2004; Lazaraton, 1995; Lazaraton, 2000). In fact, much of the research into motivation in second language acquisition has followed quantitative research principles, employing surveys with quantifiable rating scales (Dornyei, 2001b). One popular example of this is Gardner’s (1985b) Attitude/Motivation Test Battery, in which language learners are tested for a number of pre-conceived attitudinal and motivational traits. This emphasis on quantitative methods in SLA research is partly due to an acceptance of research techniques and philosophies dominant in the social sciences, particularly psychology (Davis, 1995).

3.1.1 Qualitative v. Quantitative Research

There is some disagreement concerning what may be defined as qualitative or quantitative research in the SLA field (Lazaraton, 1995; see also Davis, 1995; Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). This disagreement may be partly due to a lack of literature on the subject both by, and for, applied linguists, although this has changed somewhat in recent years (see Lazaraton, 1995). Although it has been suggested that qualitative and quantitative research
may exist on a continuum in which many methods borrow other traditions, each approach has a definite set of characteristics associated with it (Brown & Rodgers, 2002).

*Quantitative research* is often described as logical or positivist as, in its purest form, it rests on the notion that events have causes that may be discovered and explained (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000). Such studies generally seek to confirm or deny an idea formed before research begins. For this reason quantitative research is usually described as *deductive* (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). While quantitative data collection takes a variety of forms, such as surveys or factor analyses, the tradition is generally concerned with the acquisition and interpretation of data which can be analysed using statistical techniques (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). Researchers working in this tradition aim to control “…human and other extraneous variables and thus gain what they consider to be reliable, hard data and replicable findings” (Davis, 1995, p. 428). The researcher generally comes from an *etic*, or outsider perspective, interpreting findings using preconceived categories of reference rather than the participants’ own terms (Chapelle & Duff, 2003).

Conversely, *qualitative research* is generally concerned with gaining an in-depth understanding of a particular cultural setting by grounding interpretations in a detailed description of events and participants’ responses (Dornyei, 2001b). While quantitative research often aims to construct a stable reality in which to test hypotheses, qualitative research assumes a dynamic environment, often observing the changes in learner performance or opinions over time (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). Studies conducted in this vein are said to take an *inductive* approach to data analysis where the data itself is analysed to identify patterns and common themes, rather than the researcher defining priori categories for discussion (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). In addition, qualitative studies often adopt *emic* theory and data collection, which means that an attempt is made to interpret meanings from the participants’ point of view, rather than from an etic perspective (Davis, 1995; Chapelle & Duff, 2003). The emic perspective emphasises the meanings provided by the participants themselves within their particular cultural, locational and personal context. As much as possible, the emic perspective attempts to allow the participant to express their thoughts and feelings about their particular circumstances in
terms that are meaningful to them. Given this emic imperative, qualitative data are gathered via methods such as naturalistic observation and interviews with at least some open-ended questions, and usually take textual forms such as field notes or interview transcripts (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005).

3.1.2 Choosing an Appropriate Research Design

For some researchers the qualitative and quantitative research paradigms represent more than simply methods of data collection and analysis; they represent two different philosophical ways of investigating the world (Dörnyei, 2001b; Gorard & Taylor, 2004; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). Thus, the choice of one methodological paradigm over another may be based more upon the researchers’ philosophical beliefs than upon the research questions at hand. However, it is often argued that one’s choice of methodology should be governed not only by ideology, but also by the research setting and questions that one intends to investigate (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Gorard & Taylor, 2004; Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). As Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) remark:

[w]hat is important for researchers is not the choice of priori paradigms or even methodologies, but rather to be clear on what the purpose of the study is and to match that purpose with the attributes most likely to accomplish it (p. 14).

In this study I have taken a mostly qualitative approach, in order to allow participants to articulate their language learning motivations in semi-structured interviews with a degree of freedom and in terms meaningful to them. A grounded approach is intended to allow categories and themes of interest to emerge from the data so that, as much as possible, the findings reflect the data itself rather than my own preconceived ideas. This qualitative data is supplemented by some quantitative data which provides a means of triangulation.

3.2 Criteria

Given the debate over the definition of the qualitative and quantitative approaches to
research in the SLA field, and the criticisms of the qualitative approach, it is necessary for me to clearly articulate the approach that this study will take. This section outlines the philosophic and theoretical underpinnings of my research methodology. I have adopted Lincoln and Guba’s (1985) framework for establishing trustworthiness in qualitative studies. This framework lists four parameters for establishing trustworthiness: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability.

### 3.2.1 Credibility

*Credibility* is the qualitative researcher’s answer to the conventional notion of internal validity. It is chiefly concerned with whether a study’s findings reflect reality or not, while acknowledging the presence of multiple constructed realities (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), credible research can be achieved through a sound research design and ensuring that, as far as is possible, findings are approved by participants. The credibility of the present research is based on four factors: prolonged engagement; clarification from participants; a grounded theoretical approach; and triangulation of data.

Prolonged engagement with participants during the course of the research, and with the environment in which they studied, allowed me an insight into their personalities and day-to-day lives. Frequent, informal contact may have helped to break down some of the barriers between us and create a degree of mutual understanding. This was particularly important given that this research aimed to allow students to speak with some freedom about their thoughts and feelings. Furthermore, being a teacher at the University of Otago Language Centre meant that I had an insider understanding of the typical classroom procedures and teaching style the students were likely to experience and discuss during the interviews. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985) research findings are more likely to reflect the reality of a particular environment if the researcher has had time to gain an in-depth understanding of it (p. 294).

Another means of establishing credibility was to obtain clarification of participants’
responses. I did not ask the participants to read and approve all interview transcripts as this would have been very time-consuming and difficult for them, given the participants’ limited English language proficiency. However, if I was in doubt of what something they said meant, I asked them for clarification of their comments either during or after interviews. In addition, the same question was often asked twice, using different words on the second occasion, in order to be sure about what the participant intended to articulate.

Finally, triangulation of essay data, questionnaires and interview data also adds to the credibility of this research as it allows the participants’ responses to be compared (see 3.3.5.3).

3.2.2 Transferability

The term transferability refers to the question of whether research findings from one context can be applied to other contexts. Transferability depends upon how similar the context in which the research was conducted is to the area in which it might be applied (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Thus, the burden is on the reader to use their knowledge of both contexts to determine to what degree the study is transferable (Davis, 1995).

I have given a detailed description of the research site, study participants, and research procedure, to provide “the data base that makes transferability judgments possible on the part of potential appliers” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 316). Given the small number of participants interviewed, and the unique social context in which they studied English in Dunedin, New Zealand, it should be acknowledged that this research may not be directly transferable to other contexts.

3.2.3 Dependability

Dependability may be correlated with the traditional notion of reliability. In the quantitative tradition, reliability is usually determined via replication, which requires similar findings to be obtained under similar conditions (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In order to be dependable,
qualitative research must first ensure a consistent and well-documented data collection and analysis procedure, and second, acknowledge and document the changes that take place in the research context so that any conclusions reached can be viewed in light of these changes (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Edge & Richards, 1998).

During the course of this research careful records were kept of the research procedure including location of participants, organisation of interviews and the procedures followed throughout the data collection process (see 3.3.4 & 3.3.6). To achieve dependability in the data analysis process data were gathered and coded following a consistent procedure (see 3.3.5.2). Three months after collection, I recoded all four essays, and approximately 10% of the interview transcripts to check whether my coding was consistent over time. I found that over 95% of the codes obtained were the same as in the first analysis. This approach is in line with Philp (2003) in her study of non-native speaker’s noticing of recasts. In this study Philp (2003) recoded 15% of the data herself six months later to check for interator reliability. The results of the recoding demonstrated a high degree of consistency, while confirming the inherent variability of human interpretation, as one of the codes differed in the second analysis.

Finally, the discussion section (5.0) examines some of the environmental changes that participants experienced such as changes in living situations. This discussion aims to provide a degree of transparency, and allows the reader to view findings in light of these environmental changes.

3.2.4 Confirmability

Confirmability is chiefly concerned with whether the findings are subjective, that is, a matter of opinion, or objective, in that they can be confirmed by an examination of the data itself (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The use of grounded theoretical techniques in this study goes some way toward confirming that the findings have a direct relationship to the data (see 3.3.5.1) Edge and Richards (1998) maintain that confirmability is also a matter of making the researcher’s theoretical perspective and stand-point clear.
Another means of ensuring that findings can be confirmed is by triangulating multiple sources of data (see 3.3.5.3).

3.3 Research

The central purpose of this study is to explore the language learning motivations of a group of students from a Chinese cultural background learning English in Dunedin, New Zealand. This section begins by outlining the research questions and goes on to detail the research setting, and the steps taken to gather and analyse data. It ends with a discussion of the ethical issues related to the research methodology.

The study is structured around Dornyei and Otto’s (1998) and Dornyei’s (2001a) process model which discuss three main stages of motivation: pre-actional, actional and post-actional (see section 2.2.3.1 & 2.2.3.2 for a discussion of these models). Thus, the first set of data was collected at the beginning of the participants’ first term at the University of Otago Language Centre (UOLC) with the intention of eliciting their initial LL motives; next after ten weeks of study, during the actional phase of motivation; and finally after 20 weeks of study, when students had completed two terms at the UOLC.

It should be noted that the third stage of data collection did not adhere strictly to Dornyei’s (2001a) model as this retrospective phase would commonly come when the action has been completed (Dornyei, 2003a). In this case, two of the students would continue their study in the next term. However, as the third stage of data collection took place at the end of a term at the language centre, and the third interview encouraged participants to focus on their feelings about the past two terms, there is a sense in which this was an appropriate time for retrospection. In addition, it may be argued that language learners often evaluate their progress, looking back at perceived achievements and failures, throughout their course of study.
3.3.1 Research Questions

This study sought to extend previous research in two ways. First, it sought to study the language learning motivations of a group in a different context from previous motivation research. And second, it aimed to study motivation from a \textit{micro perspective}, and in doing this, test, and potentially elaborate upon, Dornyei’s (2001b) process model of motivation.

The study was guided by three central research questions:

1. How do students from a Chinese cultural background view the New Zealand language learning environment?
2. Do cultural and educational background influence the language learning motivations of Chinese L2 learners of English studying English in a New Zealand cultural setting?
3. Do the language learning motivations of these students change over the course of their study?

Data collection was guided by a further six questions which aimed to determine what the participant’s LL motivations were, whether they changed over time, and the factors that might have influenced their motivations (see Appendix G).

3.3.2 Research Setting

This research took place at the University of Otago Language Centre (UOLC), which is situated on the University of Otago campus in Dunedin, New Zealand. The institution runs two main programmes. The first is an English language programme, which caters for students from elementary to advanced levels; and the second is a university entrance programme called Foundation Studies, which aims to equip students with the language and skills that they will need to enter university. Class sizes range from about 7 to 18 students. While teaching vary between teachers, a communicative style which encourages interaction between students, and students and their teacher, is preferred.
The empirical research spanned a six month period, from May to September 2007. I was already familiar with the research setting before research began as I had first been a student teacher at the Language Centre from July to November 2006, and then part-time teacher from December 2006, and throughout the research period. In fact, it was my curiosity about the language learning motivations of the students in my class at the UOLC which prompted me to undertake this research.

My intimate knowledge of the research site may have had both advantages and limitations for this study. As a part-time teacher I was allowed access to the curriculum, resources, and social environment in which the participants were studying. This is important in qualitative research which aims “…to go deep into a definable setting in which phenomenon can be placed meaningfully within a specific social environment” (Holliday, 2002, p. 37). Yet it should also be acknowledged that my previous experience with Chinese students at the UOLC may have led me to form preconceived notions of how the participants would view the language learning environment. The use of grounded theoretical techniques may go some way toward mitigating this limitation (3.3.5.1).

3.3.3 Participants

The study aimed to locate between four and six participants for the study, in keeping with Li’s (2006) qualitative study of Chinese students of English in the UK which also followed four students. Four students participated in this study. It was important that all participants were from mainland China, as the educational systems and cultural values from other Chinese nations, such as Taiwan, are somewhat different from those of mainland China (Law, 1996).

In addition, it was important to select students of a similar, and high enough, language learning level. This was crucial for two reasons. Firstly, if the participant’s level of proficiency was too low they would find it difficult to respond to both interview and questionnaire questions. Secondly, if the participants were of a variety of language learning
levels this may have some influence upon motivation, as there is some evidence to suggest that a learner’s perception of their own LL success can influence their motivations (see 2.2.2.1). Thus, students of pre-intermediate to upper-intermediate level were chosen for the study, as assessed by the UOLC’s internal tests.

Finally, it was important that the participants had recently arrived in New Zealand. This is because the first set of interviews asked students to recall their initial motivations for learning English in line with the first stage of Dornyei’s model (2001b). It was also important that participants could remember and report their initial impressions of their new language learning environment.

Thus, the criteria for selection of participants were:

1. That they were of mainland Chinese cultural descent;
2. That they were of pre-intermediate to upper-intermediate language proficiency level;
3. That they had arrived in New Zealand from China within the past five weeks.

3.3.3.1 Procedure for locating participants

A letter was sent to all Chinese students at the UOLC to ask them whether they would be interested in participating in a research project about them and their language learning. Students were asked to return a slip which recorded whether they were interested or not to the UOLC reception. Eight students responded positively to the letter. I emailed each of the eight students and arranged to meet them before class in a classroom at the language centre to provide them with more information. Care was taken to emphasize that attending the meeting did not obligate any student to participate in the study.

At the meeting I explained what the study was about and what would be required of participants. Each student was given an information sheet to read (see Appendix H). Two advanced-level students also attended the meeting and were able to explain the participant information sheet in Chinese, as recommended by Chapelle and Duff (2003). From this
meeting, which attracted about ten students (two students who had not responded to the letter came to the meeting), four students met the sample criteria and agreed to participate in the study (see Table 1 below). Each student signed the participant consent form (see Appendix I). At this first meeting I scheduled a time to interview each student. Subsequent meetings were arranged via email and mobile phone.

The table below displays some of the characteristics of the participants.

### Table 1.

**Study Participants**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant code</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Language learning level</th>
<th>Years of English study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Pre-intermediate</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Pre-intermediate</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Pre-intermediate</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>Upper intermediate</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.3.4 Data Collection

Since SLA motivation research came into focus in the 1960s, an array of data collection and analysis techniques have been established. This section summarises the three methods used to collect data in this study with brief reference to their wider use in the SLA field.

This research is concerned with providing an emic (culturally specific) perspective on LL motivation. Multiple data collection techniques were used to give participants as much
opportunity as possible, within the temporal constraints of the study, to express themselves in their own way. The use of multiple sites for expression, both oral and written, was intended to provide participants with greater opportunity to articulate “…their own thoughts in terms meaningful to themselves” (Edge & Richards, 1998, p. 340).

3.3.4.1 Questionnaires

Questionnaires are one of the most popular methods of data collection in SLA motivation research, perhaps due in part to the influence of Robert Gardner’s (1985b) questionnaire, the Attitude Motivation Test Battery (AMTB). Questionnaires may be defined as "…any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers" (Dörnyei, 2003b, p. 6). While questionnaires may use either open or closed questions, closed question forms which can be analysed using statistical methods are perhaps more common in SLA research.

Gardner’s (1985b) popular questionnaire, the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB), is designed to elicit what he saw as the three key aspects of an individual’s motivation: integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, and motivation (see 2.2.1). The AMTB may be accompanied by one or several quantitative sub-tests, which give more information about particular aspects of motivation. Gardner’s standard questionnaire is often adapted to better suit the research topic and respondents, as with Liu’s (2007) research into Chinese university students which combined Clément et al.’s (1994) questionnaire with the AMTB.

There are advantages to employing quantifiable questionnaires; they can usually be administered to many respondents in a short space of time and analysed with relative ease as the researcher has determined the factors which are being tested for in advance (Dörnyei, 2003b). However, this latter aspect means such questionnaires may not be appropriate as the sole data collection method if the researcher has adopted a grounded theoretical approach (see 3.3.5.1). In addition, they do not provide the potentially rich, more
naturalistic data of an interview or observation-based study.

This study employed a closed questionnaire based upon one of the sub-tests to Gardner’s (1985b) AMTB originally designed to test for motivational intensity, desire to learn French, and the student’s motivational orientation- whether instrumental or integrative (see Appendix J). The closed question format was used to provide some quantifiable data to triangulate with the qualitative data from the interviews and essays. In addition, the questionnaire elicited important information about the magnitude of the participants’ motivation to learn English, something which the interview and essay questions did not specifically focus on (Dörnyei, 2001b).

Before empirical research began, a pilot study was conducted to determine whether the interview and questionnaire questions were appropriate to the language level of the students. I hoped to ascertain whether the questions were easy to understand and whether the data from interviews conducted wholly in English was comparable with those conducted in Chinese. The questionnaire was altered to fit the research context, but the basic format of Gardner’s sub-test, and the types of questions asked, were similar to the original (see Appendix K). A draft version of the questionnaire was assessed by Cho Tang (pseudonym), a friend from mainland China, who identified some questions that would be difficult for students to understand and helped me to re-phrase them. Cho brought with her the qualifications of understanding what it is like to speak English as a second language and her knowledge of CHC which both proved useful in helping me to modify the questions. Two intermediate-level students from the UOLC completed the draft questionnaire in less than ten minutes and provided additional feedback on possible modifications.

After this pilot phase, the questionnaires were administered directly after the first and third interviews so that any changes in responses throughout the course of study could be identified (see 3.3.4.2). In line with Gardner’s (1985b) recommendations, students could ask for clarification if they did not understand the questions, but my responses aimed to remain as close to the meaning, and within the vocabulary, of the original question. All students asked for clarification of up to two questions the first time that they completed the
questionnaire.

3.3.4.2 Interviews

The oral interview is another much-used elicitation technique in SLA research (Nunan, 1992). Interviews are designed to allow participants to express how they regard circumstances from their own perspective (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000). Interview formats range from the structured interview, in which the researcher determines the type and order of questions, to the unstructured interview, where the questions are all open-ended and the interview is almost entirely guided by the responses of the interviewee (Nunan, 1992; Denzin & Lincoln, 2003). A third type of interview, known as the semi-structured interview, lies in between the two extremes. In semi-structured interviews the interviewer may begin with either a set of questions, or just a general plan of what the interview will cover, but retains “…the freedom to digress and probe for further information” (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 173).

It is this flexibility that has made the semi-structured interview popular in the SLA field, particularly those working within the interpretive research tradition (Nunan, 1992). Another potential advantage of this interview style is that the interviewee retains some control of the interview process, and thus may be more inclined to feel empowered to share insights about their lives (Dowsett, 1986). In her study into Chinese research students studying in the UK, Li (2006) found this more flexible approach to be “…productive, providing rich qualitative data on the motivational mechanisms operating in [the] learners” (p. 55).

On the other hand semi-structured interviews are usually more time consuming than other elicitation devices such as questionnaires. In addition, some of the persistent problems with participant self-reporting remain: first, the researcher can never be entirely sure whether the interviewee is giving a true response, or one which they believe the researcher wants to hear; and secondly the interviewee may not be “…sufficiently aware of their affective and cognitive processes to report on them- particularly in the case of language learning motivations (Ellis, 1994, p. 674). However, triangulation may go some way toward
negating these effects.

As discussed in 3.3.4.1 above a pilot study was conducted before the main research. The same two intermediate level students from mainland China who completed the questionnaires, also participated in the pilot interviews; one interview was in English, the other in Chinese. Both interviews were recorded and a rough transcription was made. Both types of interview yielded in-depth answers from the interviewees, even though the answers given in Chinese were slightly longer than those provided in English. I made notes of questions that the interviewee found difficult and revised them with the help of Cho Tang. Both students said that they would feel comfortable being interviewed in English as it would be good practice for them. Thus, it was decided that the interviews would be conducted in English, but the interviewees would be offered the option of having a Chinese interpreter (Chapelle & Duff, 2003).

Three sets of interviews were conducted, each set corresponding loosely with one of the three phases of Dornyei’s (2001b) process model of motivation. They each ranged from 35 to 50 minutes in duration and were all audio-recorded and transcribed. While audio-recording may induce self consciousness in interviews, this is most problematic when analyzing speech for accuracy, and less when asking questions which do not depend on grammatical accuracy (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). As this study was concerned with the students’ ideas, rather than their grammar, it was felt that audio-recording would not present significant problems.

Interview questions were prepared in advance to keep the interviews focused, but allowance was made for emerging lines of enquiry to be pursued. All three pre-intermediate students (Participants A, B, and C) took up the offer of a Chinese interpreter, while Participant D, the intermediate level student, declined. Participants A, B and C responded to most of the questions in English, but asked the interpreter for help to explain questions that they did not understand. In the last set of interviews all participants requested that the interview be conducted solely in English.
The interviewees had some control over the duration and nature of the interviews, and were given the option of having the interview at the UOLC, the university library, or another location. Participants A and D were interviewed alone, while participants B and C were interviewed separately, with the other student present in the room. The two participants were friends and had requested that the other be present for moral support. It should be noted that their answers may have been different had the other student not been present. In the third set of interviews participants B and C were interviewed alone at their request.

3.3.4.3 Writing Samples

Writing samples are often used in second language acquisition research in two ways: firstly to elicit production data, such as a particular grammatical structure; and secondly, to elicit affective data, which is information about the writer’s thoughts and feelings (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). While the collection of writing samples is perhaps more common when studying particular language production features, many researchers still employ writing samples when studying affective variables such as motivation.

One key constraint on the use of writing samples as an elicitation device is the competence of the writer in the language in which they are writing. If participants have not yet mastered the second language (L2), writing about their thoughts and feelings may prove difficult for them. In his study of how perceptions of self affect LL, Syed (2001) was able to alleviate this problem by giving participants the option of writing in the target language, Hindi, or in their first language (L1), English.

The third method of data collection in this study was a short (one page or less) essay written by participants after the second set of interviews. The essay was set at this point because the second interview would be fresh in the participants’ minds, hopefully helping them to focus on the essay topic. The objective of these essays was to allow students to write with some freedom about their language learning experiences, feelings, and motivations. Given this objective the question had to be suitably open to allow such freedom, but focused enough that students would not find it too difficult to know what was
required. Participants were instructed to write up to one page in English or Chinese on the question:

Why are you learning English? How do you think English will influence your future life?

3.3.5 Analysis

The data comprised four short essays, eight questionnaires, and approximately 11 hours of audio-recorded interview questions and answers. Data from the interviews were transcribed in English, with the help of Cho, the Chinese translator (see Appendix M). A complete transcription was made largely following the conventions presented by Gass and Houck (1999), with a few alterations to better fit the research context.

3.3.5.1 Theoretical Basis

As discussed in 3.3.4 above, this study relies upon emic data collection and theory building. Such a perspective is often associated with interpretive qualitative studies, which give “…central consideration to the understanding of situation-specific meanings of actions, from the point of view of the actors” (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p. 255). For this reason, interview and essay data were coded inductively, allowing categories to emerge throughout the research period. In addition, frequent clarification was sought from participants to ensure that the findings reflected what they had intended to express (see 3.2.1.1).

This interpretive approach also lends itself to the use of grounded theoretical techniques for analysing data. Grounded theory is discovered and developed by examining the data itself (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Such theory-building may be seen to add to the credibility of qualitative research, because as far as is possible, theory displays an “isomorphic” or one-to-one relationship with the reality under study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 294). However, despite this grounded approach it must be acknowledged that my own subjectivity and
research focus was inevitably a factor in my choice of questions and how data were interpreted.

3.3.5.2 Coding

*Coding* is a common means of analysing interview or other data by ascribing a label to a unit of data (Cohen et al., 2000). *Codes* are “…names or tags assigned to *concepts* [author’s emphasis] that represent at a more abstract level the experience, ideas, attitudes or feelings identified in the data” (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p. 266). While coding is used in both quantitative and qualitative studies, it is particularly useful for analysing responses to open-ended interviews or questionnaires as it helps qualitative researchers to reduce large bodies of text to manageable units that can be analysed (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005).

As discussed in 3.3.5.1, interview and essay data were coded inductively, but the questionnaire data were analysed deductively, using a numeric coding system provided by Gardner (1985b). Each multiple choice question had a numeric value of 1, 2, or 3, to indicate the participant’s motivational intensity and desire to learn English. Number one corresponds to a low desire, number two a moderate one, and number three indicates a strong motivation or desire to learn English.

Although there are different approaches to coding qualitative data, Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) describe the general sequence which most qualitative coding analyses follow. The four stage process involves coding for themes, looking for patterns, making interpretations of these patterns, and, finally, building theory (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p. 259). This was the procedure I followed in coding the interview and essay data.

I began by reading the essays and interview transcripts, and making notes alongside both texts that described what had been articulated (see Appendix M). These annotations were usually an abbreviated form of what the participant had said and employed similar vocabulary. For instance, in interview two, Participant C said “[y]eah my- my homestay is quite friendly”, and my annotation was “homestay ‘friendly’”. After the whole transcript or
essay had been annotated, I then examined my notes for themes, from which I then created codes. To illustrate, the code for Participant C’s comment above was NZPPOS, which meant a positive view of New Zealand people. On the other hand, in interview two Participant B said “[s]o actually I don’t like Kiwi people”, which was coded NZPNEG, to indicate a negative view of New Zealand people.

All codes bore a close resemblance to the ideas that they represented and were essentially acronyms of that idea (see Strauss & Corbin, 1990). For instance, the code for a motive to learn English for higher educational purposes was Motivation Higher Education, which was abbreviated to MHE. This made it easier to remember what each code meant at a glance. I also used different coloured pens to note each code alongside the transcripts or essays so that the codes were immediately recognisable (see Appendix M).

After compiling the first set of codes I began looking for correlations between various codes and for possible explanations for these patterns from the data in line with the second step of Ellis and Barkhuizen’s (2005) model. To illustrate, three participants initially expressed a motivation to learn English in order to socialise with English speakers or make friends with English speakers. These ideas adhered to a common theme: learning English because of a “social” motive. Thus they were coded MSO (motivation to socialise with English speakers). After two stages of data collection I could see that this motive was now only reported by two of the three participants, so I began examining the data for factors that might have influenced this shift. I developed a tentative hypothesis that the participants’ negative encounters with New Zealand people (coded NZPNEG) may have produced a negative attitude toward them, possibly causing them to change her motivation (see 5.4.1.1). Thus, looking for relationships between various codes helped me to use the data to interpret itself. This entire process was iterative, as codes were revised and sometimes discarded, and early hypotheses were revisited as new data emerged (Davis, 1995; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Eventually, I was able to build on existing theories to interpret and attempt to explain the data. While the findings were compared with Dornyei’s (2001b) process model of motivation, as well as other theoretical models, theory-building was first motivated by the data itself.
In coding the essay and interview data I particularly looked at responses that would answer my key questions (see 3.3.1). However, it is important to note that codes emerged outside these key questions, and no code was determined before data analysis began. For instance, the code for Parental Pressure (PPY/PPN) was a category that emerged from the data but was not directly related to the research questions.

3.3.5.3 Triangulation of data

Triangulation of data collection and analysis techniques goes some way toward validating qualitative research. Triangulation may be defined as “...the use of two or more data collection methods in order to search for points of convergence” (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p. 49). However, the notion of triangulation has come to be used much more broadly to describe how the use of multiple methods and sources of data can add “…texture, depth, and multiple insights to an analysis and can enhance the validity or credibility of results” (Chapelle & Duff, 2003, p.165).

Several types of triangulation were employed during analysis within the temporal constraints of the study. Each of the three types of data informed the interpretation of the others. Verbal data from the interviews was compared with the non-verbal essay data. Both data sets employed the same coding system (see 3.3.5.2) making it relatively easy to compare findings and look for correlations or differences. In addition, while the questionnaire data was not directly comparable with the other sources in terms of sharing a common coding system, it provided more concrete information on the intensity of the participants’ motivation to learn English than either the interviews or essays.

Another form of triangulation may be seen in the presence of four participants, each learning in a similar classroom context, and answering similar questions about their experiences. Each participant presented slightly different perspectives, but there were many sites of convergence.
Finally, it must be acknowledged that the presence of a Chinese interpreter at many of the interview sessions, and while transcribing the interview data, provided another layer of understanding by which to interpret the participants’ utterances. Cho Tang's knowledge of Chinese allowed us to elicit more extensive comments from participants than they were able to articulate in English, particularly given that they sometimes needed her help in understanding the interview questions. In addition, her knowledge of the Chinese culture and education system provided me with further insights on which to base my analysis.

3.3.6 Ethics

The three central considerations for any inquiry which investigates human beings are gaining “informed consent”, protecting participants’ “right to privacy”, and protecting them from harm (Fontana & Frey, 2003, p. 89). Care was taken to protect the participants’ rights and avoid any emotional or physical harm to them. First, I attempted to ensure that all those who were interested in participating in the research were clear about the purposes of this study and what their role would be (see 3.3.3.1). Participants were able to take both the participant information sheet and consent forms home to read by themselves, or with their home-stay parents, and return it after one week (see Appendices H & I). Despite these efforts, it should be acknowledged that it is possible that participants may have misunderstood aspects of these forms given the language barrier.

The privacy of participants was protected by identifying each participant with a letter between A and D, rather than by name. Only the Chinese translator, my supervisor, and I knew the participants’ names and other personal information.

In addition, care was taken to minimise the participants’ anxiety during the interviews by giving them the option of a Chinese translator or friend being present (see 3.3.4.2). The interviews were also conducted in the familiar environment of the UOLC, but students had the option of being interviewed elsewhere if they so chose.

As a part-time teacher at the UOLC, my high degree of involvement with the research site
and the students under study may have compromised the participants’ willingness to speak freely to me (Fontana & Frey, 2003). For this reason I did not teach any of the students who participated in the study either before research began, or during the data collection period of the empirical research. However, as discussed above, I saw students from time to time on campus, sometimes offering them help with difficulties they were having with their study or their new environment. Such encounters are unlikely to be ethically problematic as it is quite legitimate that participants receive something in return for their investment of time in the study. It may be argued that prolonged access to the research site and to participants is desirable as it can foster greater understanding for the researcher (Chapelle & Duff, 2003).
4.0 Analysis

This chapter presents the research findings which are informed by the data collected from interviews, questionnaires and student essays. The chapter is organised under thematic headings that reflect the codes derived from the data. The research findings are frequently illustrated with excerpts from the interview data. Each such illustration is referenced with the interview number (I, II, or III) followed by the page number. For instance, a quotation from the seventh page (p.7) of interview three (III) would be referenced like this:

III: p. 7.

4.1 Findings

4.1.1 Language Learning Orientations

The codes relevant to this section are:

- Integrative Language Learning Orientations (LLINT)
- Instrumental Language Learning Orientation (LLINS)

Language learning orientations are thought to be relatively stable, “long-standing goals and attitudes” toward language learning (Belmechri & Hummel, 2001, p. 225). As discussed in section 2.2.1.1, it is generally agreed that there are two main types of language learning
orientation: the integrative, which reflects a desire to identify with the target language culture; and the instrumental, which reflects an interest in learning a language for more utilitarian reasons such as employment. A learner’s overall language learning orientation often directs the particular language learning motivations that they exhibit (Belmechri & Hummel, 2001).

4.1.1.1 Coding for Orientation

The codes for an instrumental or integrative language learning orientation (LLINS/LLINT) were obtained from both the interview transcripts and the participants’ essays. This was achieved by first compiling a list of the language learning motives that each participant discussed, and then identifying whether these motives reflected an integrative or instrumental orientation. To illustrate, in the first set of interviews Participant A reported four different motives as follows: learning English to gain employment in China (MEC); gaining sufficient English to study in an English-speaking tertiary institution (MHE); learning English to pass an international English exam (MEX); learning to speak English to communicate and socialise with other English speakers (MSO). The first three motivations reflected more utilitarian concerns in line with the instrumental orientation: English for employment, higher education, and to pass an examination. The last motive, the desire to learn English to socialise with other English speakers, reflects the integrative orientation. Thus, at the beginning of his course of study Participant A could be said to have both an instrumental and integrative orientation toward language learning.
Another way in which the language learning orientations were identified was by looking at other comments that participants made during the interviews which were reflective of their language learning orientations. In each interview participants were always asked a question about whether they were interested in making friends with ‘Kiwi’ people: however, at times the participant offered the information without being prompted. The participant’s response to this question, as well as other comments they may have made around this topic, reflected their level of interest in the target language community and its people. To illustrate, in the second set of interviews Participant D and I had the following exchange:

R: Oh cool. Do you feel comfortable talking to them [D’s Kiwi neighbours]?
D: Yeah it’s good.
R: Yeah would you like to meet more Kiwi people to talk to them?
D: Yeah I want but no chance--
R: Yeah it’s hard to know how.       (II: p.19).

(See Appendix L for an outline of the conventions used in the interview transcripts).

Participant D’s comments reflected a desire to speak to other Kiwi people and were thus coded LLINT (an integrative language learning orientation). While this question was not regarded as a measure of the participants’ orientations, these comments were coded and triangulated with the data gained by looking at the motives each participant reported. It was from these two techniques, looking at participants’ motives and other comments about English speakers, that their language learning orientations were inferred.
4.1.1.2 Participants’ Language Learning Orientations

The table below shows each participant’s language learning orientation as inferred by the researcher at the beginning, middle, and end of their course of study.

**Table 2.**

*Language Learning Orientation*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant code</th>
<th>Data collection 1</th>
<th>Data collection 2</th>
<th>Data Collection 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Integrative &amp; Instrumental</td>
<td>Integrative &amp; Instrumental</td>
<td>Integrative &amp; Instrumental</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Instrumental</td>
<td>Instrumental</td>
<td>Instrumental</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Integrative &amp; Instrumental</td>
<td>Instrumental</td>
<td>Instrumental</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Integrative &amp; Instrumental</td>
<td>Integrative &amp; Instrumental</td>
<td>Integrative &amp; Instrumental</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows that Participant A, B and C’s language learning orientations remained stable throughout the course of the study. In contrast, Participant C demonstrated a change in LL
Orientation. Initially, she exhibited an integrative orientation toward learning English, saying that she wanted to “…know New Zealand people and ah lifestyle or many things” (I: p. 10). However, in the second and third sets of data collection, Participant C displayed only an instrumental orientation, saying in the second interview that she did not need to make Kiwi friends. Just before these comments Participant C had given a negative assessment of New Zealand people speaking about how some young New Zealanders had given her and her Asian friend a rude gesture and demonstrated “…not very good behaviour for us” (II: p. 6).

It may also be noted that the male participants (A and D) exhibited both an instrumental and integrative language learning orientation throughout the study. The two female students (B and C) demonstrated an almost entirely instrumental orientation toward learning English, with the exception of Participant C’s initial views.

4.1.2 Language Learning Motivations

The codes relevant to this section are:

- Motivation to learn English for employment in China (MEC)
- Motivation to learn English for higher education (MHE)
- Motivation to learn English for immigration purposes (MIM)
- Motivation to learn English to socialise with English speakers (MSO)
- Motivation to learn English to pass an English examination (MEX)
Motivation to learn English for international business (MIB)
Motivation to learn English to gain higher social status in China (MSS)
Motivation to learn English because of filial obligation (MFO)

Determining the participants’ language learning motivations is the central concern of this study (see 3.3.1). I sought to find out what their motives were, whether they changed over the course of their study and whether there were any common motives between these English language students. As discussed in section 2.1, motivation is chiefly concerned with the choice of a particular course of action, and the intensity with which we pursue this course (Dornyei, 2001b).

The intensity, or magnitude, of the participants’ motivation to learn English was based on the results of the modified sub-test from Gardner’s (1985b) AMTB. The table below displays the motivational intensity and desire to learn English for each of the four participants at the beginning (phase one of data collection) and end (phase three of data collection) of two terms at the University of Otago Language Centre (UOLC). For a full explanation of how these scores were obtained see section 3.3.4.
Table 3.

*Participants’ Motivational Magnitude*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant code</th>
<th>Data Collection 1</th>
<th>Data Collection 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Motivational Intensity</td>
<td>Desire to Learn English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>High (24)</td>
<td>High (25)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>High (23)</td>
<td>Medium (20)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>High (22)</td>
<td>Medium (19)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>High (28)</td>
<td>High (28)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* 0-10 = low motivational intensity/desire to learn English; 11-20 = medium motivational intensity/desire to learn English; 21-30 = high motivational intensity/desire to learn English.

The results show that all participants had a relatively high degree of motivational intensity and a strong desire to learn English throughout the period of the study. Participants A and D, exhibited a consistently high motivation at the beginning and end of their course of study at the University of Otago Language Centre (UOLC). Participants B and C also exhibited a consistently high motivational intensity. However, Participants B and C began their study at the UOLC with only a medium desire to learn English. According to the data, their desire to learn the target language had increased by the end of the study. Possible reasons for this increased desire to learn English are presented in the discussion chapter.

The participants’ motives for learning English were determined by analysing and coding
both the interview and essay data (see 3.3.4). From this data eight key motives emerged.

The table below shows the language learning motivations demonstrated by each student at the three different points of data collection.

**Table 4.**

*LL Motivations Over Three Phases of Data Collection*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant code</th>
<th>Data collection 1</th>
<th>Data collection 2</th>
<th>Data Collection 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>MEC</td>
<td>MEC</td>
<td>MEC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MHE</td>
<td>MHE</td>
<td>MHE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MEX</td>
<td>MEX</td>
<td>MEX</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MSO</td>
<td>MSO</td>
<td>MSO</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MFO</td>
<td>MFO</td>
<td>MIB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>MEC</td>
<td>MEC</td>
<td>MEC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MEX</td>
<td>MEX</td>
<td>MEX</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MFO</td>
<td>MFO</td>
<td>MFO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MHE</td>
<td>MSS</td>
<td>MSS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>MIB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>MEC</td>
<td>MEC</td>
<td>MEC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MHE</td>
<td>MHE</td>
<td>MHE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MEX</td>
<td>MEX</td>
<td>MIB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MSO</td>
<td>MSS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>MEC</td>
<td>MEC</td>
<td>MEC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MHE</td>
<td>MHE</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MEX</td>
<td>MEX</td>
<td>MEX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MFO</td>
<td>MFO</td>
<td>MFO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MSO</td>
<td>MSO</td>
<td>MIB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MIM</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* MEC = Motivation to learn English for employment in China; MHE = Motivation to learn English for higher education; MIM = Motivation to learn English for immigration purposes; MSO = Motivation to learn English to socialise with English speakers; MEX = Motivation to learn English to pass an English examination; MIB = Motivation to learn English for international business; MSS = Motivation to learn English to gain higher social status in China; MFO = Motivation to learn English because of filial obligation.
4.1.2.1 Learning English for Employment in China (MEC)

The code relevant to this section is:

- Motivation to learn English to gain employment in China (MEC)

The motivation to learn English to obtain what was frequently referred to as a “good job” in China (MEC) was the only common motive between all participants in all three phases of data collection. In addition, MEC was also the only motive to emerge from every participant’s essay. This motive came through clearly in the data through asking questions such as “tell me about why you want to learn English”, or through comments volunteered by the participants without prompting. For instance, when asked how English might help in his future, Participant A said:

…I think just for the job (III: p. 22)

In each interview, every participant was asked about how they thought English might be useful to them in the future or of a possible advantage to them in the future. In almost every instance, the participants’ first reply was that English would help them to find employment in China, or to conduct international business. For instance, when asked how English would help in her future, Participant B replied:

Job and my family (II: p. 9)
The table below shows the distribution of MEC among participants.

Table 5.

*Motivation to Learn English to Find Employment in China*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant code</th>
<th>Data Collection 1</th>
<th>Data Collection 2</th>
<th>Data Collection 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>MEC</td>
<td>MEC</td>
<td>MEC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>MEC</td>
<td>MEC</td>
<td>MEC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>MEC</td>
<td>MEC</td>
<td>MEC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>MEC</td>
<td>MEC</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Note. MEC = Motivation to gain employment in China.

Working in China was seen by all participants as an easier option than working in English language countries. However, the reasons participants cited this were cultural rather than linguistic. Participants A, B and D all cited *guanxi* (the CHC’s system of personal ties) as one of the factors that would make it easier for them to live and do business in China (see 2.3.1). Participant A said:

…I think- I back in China find a job better….yeah than here…because yeah *guanxi*.

(II: p.25)

As will be discussed in section 4.1.2.2, the motivation to learn English to gain employment in China (MEC) was often linked with the desire to learn English to complete tertiary
4.1.2.2 Learning English for Higher Education (MHE)

The code relevant to this section is:

- The motivation to learn English in order to gain access to higher education (MHE)

All participants reported that they wanted to learn English so that they could study at tertiary institutions where English was spoken. However, Participant B did not display this motive in the second set of interviews. Interestingly, in the second set of interviews Participant B also displayed a pessimistic view of her future success, and of her own language learning ability.

Table six below demonstrates how frequently participants reported this motive.
Table 6.

Motivation to Learn English for Higher Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant code</th>
<th>Data Collection 1</th>
<th>Data Collection 2</th>
<th>Data Collection 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>MHE</td>
<td>MHE</td>
<td>MHE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>MHE</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>MHE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>MHE</td>
<td>MHE</td>
<td>MHE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>MHE</td>
<td>MHE</td>
<td>MHE</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. MHE = Motivation to Learn English for Higher Education

For some participants, the motivation to learn English for higher education could be seen in both their essay and interviews; for others it only emerged from the interview data. In his essay Participant D wrote:

I need to learn English because I need to study in the Otago uni [university].

This comment was coded MHE (Motivation Higher Education). Similarly, in the third interview with Participant A reported:

…I must ah learning English and go to university. (III: p.15)
Frequently, the desire to learn English in order to participate in higher education was linked with the need to gain desirable employment in China. After making the comment above, the conversation continued:

R: Oh why is it important for you to go to university for you?……
A: Mm because I want- I want to study accounting and ah in- in China if you do not good ah subject and you very- you very hard ah to find another job. (III: p.15)

Thus, the instrumental need to gain English to go to university was often linked with the difficulty of finding appropriate employment in China. The idea that finding “good” employment in China was difficult and that English, and an overseas education, was a means of gaining a “good” job came through frequently during interviews. Another good illustration of the close link between employment in China and MHE can be seen in Participant D’s comments:

R: So why did you continue learning English after you left school?
D: Mm because I want to find a good job.
R: Yeah.
D: And I have…I want to have a Bachelor’s degree because I want to you know in China it’s difficult to find a job- to find a good job.
R: Yeah.
D: So- so I came here to study English.
R: And you think that will help with your career?
D: ….Yeah- yes I think if you have ah good English…you can have a better job.

(III: p. 23)

4.1.2.3 Learning English for Immigration Purposes (MIM)

The code relevant to this section is:

- The motivation to learn English to immigrate to an English-speaking country (MIM).

As table seven shows, only Participant D said that he wanted to learn English to immigrate to an English speaking country. However, all participants perceived that they would have contact with people who spoke English in the future as all reported that they wanted to learn English to participate in international business (see 4.1.2.6).

Table 7.

Motivation to Learn English for Immigration Purposes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant code</th>
<th>Data Collection 1</th>
<th>Data Collection 2</th>
<th>Data Collection 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
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<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>MIM</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. MIM = Motivation to learn English for immigration purposes.
Initially, Participant D reported that he wanted to learn English because he wanted to live in New Zealand as he thought “…living in New Zealand is easier…than China” (I: p.24). However, after a further ten weeks of study at the UOLC, Participant D reported in the second interview that he no longer wanted to live in New Zealand permanently, but instead just stay and work for a short time. When asked why he wanted to return to China to live there permanently he cited cultural differences between New Zealand and China as the main reason:

Yeah I don’t know but my parents want to come. But I said the culture is very- it is very different. So I think you live here is difficult- so hard. So I think if you want to travel here for f- three months it’s good- it’s better. But you- you want to live here for many years? No. (II: p. 17)

It is interesting to note Participant D’s reasons for not wanting to settle in New Zealand: his family would find the host culture difficult (see 4.1.2.8). The other participants also reported a preference for living and working in China as it was easier for them living in a familiar cultural setting.

4.1.2.4 Learning English to Socialise with English Speakers

The code relevant to this section is:

- The motivation to learn English to socialize with English speakers (MSO)
The motivation to learn English to interact with English speakers (MSO) was the only integrative motive elicited during data collection. This motive reflects an interest in the target language culture and people. MSO can be seen in exchanges like this one with Participant D which demonstrates both an interest in New Zealanders and in their different way of life, or culture:

D: …I come here I just know Chinese. It’s like China I don’t like that--
R: --yeah--
D: --I want I like because I come here…I will be in other countries I want to meet this country’s people--
R: --mmm--
D: --I- I want to feel the different life.
R: Mm mm.
D: So I want to meet the- some Kiwi people. (I: p.32)

The motivation to learn English to socialise with English speakers presents perhaps the most variation of any motive, both between participants, and over time in the case of a single participant. This is clearly demonstrated in the table below.
Table 8.

Motivation to Learn English to Socialise English Speakers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant code</th>
<th>Data Collection 1</th>
<th>Data Collection 2</th>
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<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>MSO</td>
<td>MSO</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. MSO = Motivation to learn English to socialize with English speakers.

As can be seen from the data display, Participant A exhibited a social motivation in all three stages of data collection, while Participant B did not report this motive in any of the three stages. Participants C and D initially expressed a desire to learn English to socialise with English speakers, but showed a change of heart by the end of the study. This apparent change can be seen in Participant C’s comments when asked about making Kiwi friends:

I don’t want to talk to Kiwis.  

(II: p. 12)

In both the second and third interviews Participant C reported that she was really only interested in associating with New Zealanders to improve her speaking. These negative comments about socialising with New Zealanders came after both Participants B and C experienced name-calling from New Zealand people who shouted “Asian Asian” and racist slurs which prompted Participant B to say that she was now “…scared to make Kiwi
friends” (I: p. 3; II: p. 12). Participant D also reported being sworn at by New Zealand people while on the street, and in the final interview no longer cited MSO as something that was important to him. The implications of this prejudice for participants’ motivation will be discussed in section 5.4.1.1.

It should be noted that participants reported not only that they wanted to learn English in order to interact with local speakers of the target language, in this case New Zealanders, but also with non-native speakers, such as their classmates. In this way, English was viewed as a means of international communication by some participants. For instance, in my first interview with Participant A he reported not only that he was interested in the culture of English-speaking people, but also that he was interested in all other cultures, particularly those at the UOLC. He said:

Therefore I learning English I will talk…with the different students. (I: p. 15)

4.1.2.5 Learning English to Pass an English Examination

The code relevant to this section is:

- Motivation to learn English to pass an examination (MEX).

The motivation to learn English to pass an English examination (MEX) may be seen as a very short-term, instrumental motivation. However, MEX featured strongly in both the oral and written data of all participants, only disappearing after this goal had been achieved. The
examination commonly spoken of among all participants was the International English Language Testing System (IELTS). However, Participants A and D both expressed a desire to pass other, internal, UOLC examinations. The table below demonstrates the wide distribution of this motivation:

Table 9.

Motivation to Learn English to Pass an Examination

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant code</th>
<th>Data Collection 1</th>
<th>Data Collection 2</th>
<th>Data Collection 3</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>MEX</td>
<td>MEX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>MEX</td>
<td>MEX</td>
<td>MEX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>MEX</td>
<td>MEX</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>MEX</td>
<td>MEX</td>
<td>MEX</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. MEX = Motivation to learn English to pass an examination

During the interviews, participants often discussed their desire to acquire a sufficient level of English to pass the IELTS or other examinations. Comments like this were elicited both by asking open questions, such as “why do you want to learn English?”, and also during more open discussion while the participant was talking about their future plans. A strong desire to learn English to pass the IELTS examination can be seen in this exchange with Participant B:

B: Because I see the books I can teach myself.

R: Yeah

B: Because just want to pass IELTS.

R: Yeah.

B: Yeah I don’t want to do another just IELTS. (II: p.6-7)

All participants expressed a similarly strong desire to pass IELTS throughout the study. The only participant that did not exhibit MEX at any point was Participant C during the third stage of data collection. This was natural given that she had just passed the examination. However, this also coincided with some more positive comments about her language learning ability as will be discussed in section 5.4.3.

4.1.2.6 Learning English for International Business (MIB)

The code relevant to this section is:

- Motivation to learn English to conduct international business (MIB)

Closely linked to the motivation to obtain employment in China (see 4.1.2.1), the motivation to learn English to succeed in international business was also widely reported among participants. For the purposes of this study international business was defined as business that took place in China or overseas that involved communication with English speaking people in any capacity. We can see MIB as distinct from the basic desire for employment in China (MEC) in the following exchange with Participant B:
B: I think I can find a good job. And ah if I do the business and ah I can talk foreigner friend maybe it’s easy to find- to- to get the chance [for a business deal]…..Yeah because I learn if I go to another place I can speak Chinese and Cantonese and maybe English so I can have a good basis--

R: --skill? Really good skill.

B: I think so. (III: p. 40- 41)

Here Participant B shows a desire not only for employment, but also to use her language skills to her advantage when communicating with people from other countries in a business capacity. In conjunction with MIB, English was always spoken of as a means of establishing relationships or as what Participant B refers to as “a good basis” for business.

The table below shows the distribution of MIB for all participants.

Table 10.

*Motivation to Learn English for International Business*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant code</th>
<th>Data Collection 1</th>
<th>Data Collection 2</th>
<th>Data Collection 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>C</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>MIB</td>
<td>MIB</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The data display shows that while no participant reported a desire to learn English to conduct international business in the first phase of data collection, all participants demonstrated this motive in the final set of interviews. There may be some correlation between each participant’s increased estimation of their future success, and the increased reporting of MIB. This will be explored in the discussion chapter (see 5.4.4).

4.1.2.7 Learning English to Gain Higher Social Status in China

The code relevant to this section is:

- The motivation to learn English to gain higher social status (MSS)

The motivation to learn English to gain higher social status in China (MSS) appears in the data from two out of the four participants. Coding for MSS was closely associated with words like “success” and “family” and the idea of desirability of others admiring, or being jealous of one’s achievements. MSS is also associated with the notion of “face”, which is a measure of one’s standing in relation to others in collectivist, and other, cultures (see 2.3.1). For instance, Participant B described how her parents wanted her to acquire English to get a good job, in order to gain “face” and appear “decent” to others (II: p. 10).

Unlike the motivation to learn English because of filial obligation (MFO), the desire for English as a means of increasing one’s social status was not necessarily solely to do with
family, but was also an expression of the participant’s own desires to climb the social ladder in China. To illustrate this distinction, consider the exchange with Participant B below:

B: I want to show my pow- power to others.
R: Yeah to others.
B: I want to them know I’m not- I’m not just a girl.
R: Yeah yeah. (II: p. 10).

The extract demonstrates Participant B’s desire to gain greater social status to improve her own standing as more than “…just a girl”. However, as was indicated above, this motive was also closely linked with the notion of family. More than once Participant B spoke of her family’s low status among her relatives who regarded her parents with disdain because of their low education. She reported a desire to learn English to raise their standing in the family. She said:

Yeah yeah yeah I just want to be successful….and my parents can tell everyone I have a successful daughter. (III: p. 37)

The table below shows a varied distribution of this motivation among participants.
Neither of the male participants ever expressed a desire to learn English to increase their status in society. However, it should be noted that a direct question which aimed to elicit this motive was never asked. Participant B displayed this social motive in the second and third interviews, while Participant C only discussed this motive in the second interview.

4.1.2.8 Learning English Because of Filial Obligation

The code relevant to this section is:

- The motivation to learn English because of filial obligation (MFO)

The motivation to learn English because of feelings of family obligation (MFO) is closely associated in the data with the motivation to learn English to gain employment in China in
order to look after one’s parents and extended family. In addition, the need to acquire English because of parents’ financial investments in the participants education was another important theme. Phrases like “I must”, “give them”, and “good life” were often associated with MFO. The motive of filial obligation came through strongly in comments from Participants B and D. This extract from a discussion with Participant D illustrates the broad definition participants’ gave to the notion of family which encompassed not only a desire to care for one’s parents, but for the extended family as well:

D: …Because I just want- I don’t want to spend my parents’ money in the future or everything.
R: Do you want to be successful- or is it your parents- your family as well?
D: Mm means ah ah for my family…for everybody
R: Yeah?
D: Yeah yeah I can give them a good life or something….you know in China for- they say if you have a good life you should help everybody in the whole family it includes your brother your sister your parents your uncle and everything…

(III: p.13)
Table 12.

Motivation to Learn English Because of Filial Obligation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant code</th>
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<th>Data Collection 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>B</td>
<td>MFO</td>
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<td>MFO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>MFO</td>
<td>MFO</td>
<td>MFO</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. MFO= Motivation to learn English because of filial obligation.

Table 12 above shows that Participant D expressed this motive for learning English in all three phases of data collection. While Participant B did not speak of the familial obligation motive until the second phase of data collection, she maintained that this had been an important reason for learning English throughout her study:

R: …this thing is always on your mind?

B: Yeah. (III: p. 34).

Both participants A, B and D employed emotive language when they spoke about this motivation for learning English as illustrated in this exchange with Participant B from the final set of interviews:

B:…but my parents paid more- many money to study- to get me to study here. I
think oh I have to get a good result together. But I’m afraid I can’t do that.

R: You’re afraid you can’t get six-point-five or five-point-five [in ILETS]?

B: Oh no in the future I afraid I- maybe in the future I can’t get more money to my parents--

R: --oh. Give them back the money. How do you feel- is that stressful?

B: Yeah- oh but my parents say the money is not important. But I want to give- give my parents is good life…I want to give them more comfortable life. (III: p.32)

As well as being discussed in the context of employment and money, MFO was also discussed in terms of being obligated to raise the status of ones family. In this way MFO and MSS were linked by the participants. Participant B spoke more than once about how she wanted to become proficient at English to raise her family’s status among her relatives as her parents did not have the “highest education” and were looked down on by their extended family (III: p. 37). English was a potential gateway to prosperity by which she could repay her parents who had “work[ed] hard” to educate their children (III: p. 38).

Participant A spoke not of the financial support that he would provide for his extended family, but of the English skills that he would use to further his family’s business. He spoke of how his uncle had “a factory” where his parents wanted him to utilise his English skills (II: p. 26).

Interestingly, the data does not show parental pressure to be the source of this feeling of obligation. This is seen in table 16, where none of the participants reported any parental
pressure to learn English by the last phase of data collection. However, at this final stage, Participants B and D still exhibited MFO.

Participant C did not mention MFO at any point in the study. Perhaps significant to this, Participant C was also the only student not to mention the high cost of studying English overseas. Finally, Participant A spoke of his need to learn English skills in order to help his family in their factory during only the second phase of data collection.

4.1.3 Attitude to Language Learning Environment in China

The codes relevant to this section are:

- Positive attitude to Chinese English language teacher (CHTPOS)
- Negative attitude to Chinese English language teacher (CHTNEG)
- Mixed attitude to Chinese English language teacher (CHTMIX)
- Positive attitude to Chinese English language class (CHCPOS)
- Negative attitude to Chinese English language class (CHCNEG)
- Mixed attitude toward Chinese English language class (CHCMIX)

The participants’ attitudes to their English language learning environment in China were elicited via specific questions in most interviews. However, as the interviews were semi-structured, at times I neglected to direct the interview to the topic of the Chinese learning
environment. This topic was seen as important as the participants’ views regarding their Chinese learning environment could be compared with their feelings about their New Zealand environment. Where possible, participants were asked open questions such as “[w]hat do you think about your Chinese teacher?” The two key attitudinal areas that emerged from the data were the participants’ attitudes to their teacher and their attitudes to the classroom, which included the curriculum and teaching style (see codes above). If participants expressed a positive or negative view their comments would be coded accordingly (POS/NEG). However, if they expressed a mixed positive and negative view point their viewed would be tagged as “mixed” (MIX).

To illustrate, Participant C showed an initially mixed attitude to her Chinese English language teacher. When asked about whether she preferred the Chinese or New Zealand teacher the following exchange took place:

C: Mmm I think advantage and disadvantage.
R: Mm can you tell me?
C: …Chinese teacher I think he is speaking Chinese.
R: Mmm.
C: So he taught you something….you can understand…quickly. (L: p.13)

The table below shows the variety of attitudes elicited from the participants.
### Table 13.

**Attitude to LL Environment in China**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant code</th>
<th>Data Collection 1</th>
<th>Data Collection 2</th>
<th>Data Collection 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>CHCMIX, CHTPOS</td>
<td>CHCMIX, CHTMIX</td>
<td>CHCMIX, CHTMIX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>CHTNEG, CHCNEG</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>CHTNEG, CHCNEG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>CHCMIX, CHTPOS</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>CHCMIX, CHTMIX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>CHCMIX, CHTPOS</td>
<td>CHCNEG, CHTNEG</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. CHC= Attitude to Chinese English language class; CHT= Attitude to Chinese English language teacher.*

The data display above shows in some cases a stable attitude toward the Chinese language learning environment, and in other cases an increasingly negative attitude. Participant B expressed a negative attitude to her previous language learning environment at the beginning and end of the study stating that she didn’t like the Chinese class as the teacher:

..always read the book and always test test test.  

(I: p. 6)

Participants A, C and D’s attitudes to their former learning environment either remained stable, or became increasingly negative. The most dramatic change can be seen in Participant D’s adjustment from reporting a mixed attitude toward his Chinese English teacher and a positive attitude toward the classroom, to a negative attitude towards both things. Participants B and C expressed mixed views about the Chinese classroom and positive views about the teacher initially, but both demonstrated mixed feelings about both
factors at the end of the study. Both mentioned that they now enjoyed the “free” teaching style in New Zealand compared with the more restricted one in China (I: p. 6). However, the limitation of not having complete data for the whole period of the study should be acknowledged as complete data may have shown a different trend.

4.1.4 Attitude to Language Learning Environment in New Zealand

The codes relevant to this section are:

- Positive attitude to New Zealand teacher (NZTPOS)
- Negative attitude to New Zealand teacher (NZTNEG)
- Mixed attitude to New Zealand teacher (NZTMIX)
- Positive attitude to New Zealand English class (NZCPOS)
- Negative attitude to New Zealand English class (NZCNEG)
- Mixed attitude toward New Zealand English class (NZCMIX)

To a large extent, participants felt that the New Zealand language learning environment was facilitating their language learning. Yet, despite this, most participants expressed negative views about their classroom and teacher at some point in the study. Negative views of the classroom teacher were often associated with the perception that the teacher was not friendly or caring; conversely, positive views of the teacher were often associated with friendliness. To illustrate, Participant B expressed a negative view of her teacher as she felt she did not like her or other Chinese students:
I don’t like this teacher…because she is not friendly…I think she don’t like Chinese people. (I: pp.5 & 6)

On the other hand, negative views of the classroom were usually associated with particular types of tasks. Both participants B and C found some tasks, such as singing and painting, to be uninteresting and a “waste of time”. For instance Participant C commented:

Ah painting. I think it will lost my time. (III: p. 25)

Participants were asked specific questions about how they felt about their New Zealand language learning environment and their new English teacher in all three phases of data collection. It should be noted that participants changed teachers during the two UOLC terms that the study spanned. The table below shows the participants’ feelings about the New Zealand language learning environment.
Table 14.

*Attitude to LL Environment in New Zealand*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant code</th>
<th>Data Collection 1</th>
<th>Data Collection 2</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>NZCMIX, NZTMIX</td>
<td>NZCMIX, NZTPOS</td>
<td>NZCPOS, NZTPOS</td>
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<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>NZCPOS, NZTMIX</td>
<td>NZCNEG, NZTMIX</td>
<td>NZCPOS, NZTPOS</td>
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<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>NZCMIX, NZTMIX</td>
<td>NZCMIX, NZTNEG</td>
<td>NZCMIX, NZTMIX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>NZCPOS, NZTPOS</td>
<td>NZCPOS, NZTPOS</td>
<td>NZCPOS, NZTPOS</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* NZC = Attitude to New Zealand English language class; NZT = Attitude to New Zealand English language teacher

Participant D’s views about the New Zealand language learning environment remained stable, as he expressed consistently positive views describing his teachers as “very responsible” and “very friendly” and the UOLC’s curriculum as “very good” and more interesting than the one in China (III: p. 5; II: p.13; I: p.34). It may be significant that Participant D had already been studying at the UOLC for several weeks before the other students arrived. In comparison, Participant D’s views of his former language learning environment were generally less positive. Although he initially expressed a positive view of his Chinese English language teacher, who he felt was very helpful, he said that the style of teaching in China was dull and uninteresting:

D: Teacher just teach us grammar or something…yeah we need more time to speak but ah [we don’t] have the chance in the Chinese class. (II: p. 14)
Participants A, B and C were in the same class initially and had each moved to a new class just before the second set of data collection. Participant A expressed increasingly positive views of the New Zealand language learning environment, speaking of how he enjoyed the curriculum. As was the case with other participants, Participant A’s increasingly positive comments were often accompanied with positive remarks about the usefulness of the type of English he was learning. This change is illustrated well in his reply to a question about where he would prefer to study English:

A: Ah first talk about ah I like ah studying English in China but now I study here a long time- not a long time but over six months ago. I like New Zealand learning and teacher more--
R: --yeah you prefer the teacher here.
A: Yeah because I ah learning English and useful for I have a job and work. And I will go to work when I finish study so I like it. (III: p. 20)

Participants B and C expressed initially mixed or positive views about their new learning environment. Both students did not like their teacher “…because she [was] not friendly” and did not like some nationalities, including Chinese people (I: p. 5). However, they also expressed some positive comments about their teacher in this early stage, thus, their views were coded NZTMIX. Later, when they changed to their new classroom prior to the second data collection they once again expressed mixed or negative views about their new class and teacher, Participant C saying that her teacher was “not professional” and did not ensure that the students had each been properly introduced to one another (II: p. 2).
Participants B and C both expressed some negative remarks about the curriculum during earlier interviews saying that while they liked the freedom of the new class, and how they could ask the teacher questions, they also found it difficult; as Participant C said “you can’t always understand” (I: p. 13). However, by the final set of data collection both were more positive. Participant C expressed a mixed view of both her New Zealand class and her teacher, and her Chinese class and teacher. She explained how the Chinese environment was too strict and the New Zealand environment too relaxed, and how she believed a happy medium should be reached:

R: What’s best for you?
C: Maybe I want ah mixed--
R: --yeah both combined.
C: Yeah yeah yeah. (III: p. 26)

By the third data collection Participant B displayed a positive view of both her New Zealand class and teacher and a negative view of her Chinese language learning class and teacher.

4.3.5 Perceived Language Learning Support in New Zealand

The codes relevant to this section are:
• Environmental Support High (ESHI)
• Environmental Support Low (ESLO)
• Environmental Support Medium (ESMED)

The degree of *environmental support* for a student’s language learning may be related to their view of the New Zealand language learning environment. For the purposes of this study *perceived environmental support for language learning* is defined as the degree of access to people or resources to aid language learning and answer questions (as perceived by an individual). The participants’ perception of environmental support was coded as high, medium or low depending on three factors:

• Firstly, the type of words that the participants’ used to describe the environmental support;
• secondly, the number of people who they reported could offer them assistance;
• and finally, whether they could obtain assistance both inside and outside of the language school environment.

These three factors were determined from the participants’ comments, and codes were derived accordingly. To illustrate, Participant D’s perception of environmental support was coded as high (ESHI) in the final interview as he used positive language to describe the support, reported three different people who could help him, and had support for his language learning both at the UOLC and among his flat mates and girlfriend outside the language school.
The table below shows the perceived environmental support among all participants.

**Table 15.**

*Perceived Environmental Support for Language Learning*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant code</th>
<th>Data Collection 1</th>
<th>Data Collection 2</th>
<th>Data Collection 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>ESHI</td>
<td>ESHI</td>
<td>ESMED</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>ESMED</td>
<td>ESMED</td>
<td>ESLO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>ESLO</td>
<td>ESMED</td>
<td>ESMED</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>ESMED</td>
<td>ESHI</td>
<td>ESHI</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* ESHI= A perceived high degree of environmental support; ESMED= A perceived medium degree of environmental support; ESLO= A perceived low degree of environmental support.

Table 15 shows that participants exhibited a significant degree of variation in perceived environmental support. The reasons for these fluctuations will be discussed in the discussion section. Participants were asked a variety of questions in each interview to elicit their perceived degree of support such as, “If you had a question about English, where could you go for help”? In addition, during discussion about their language teacher and their living situation, questions about environmental support were often asked.

While Participant B expressed an initially medium view of her environmental support while living in a home-stay situation, later she related how she did not feel comfortable asking questions or practicing English in her new living situation with her cousin. She said that she often felt like crying when criticised for her pronunciation by her cousin and didn’t want to
practice her English in front of him:

Yeah and we have three people and my cousin talked and we three are talked I don’t like talk. I just listen. Because I afraid oh you have a lot of grammar problem…

(III: p.31)

Participants A and D both reported a combination of medium and high degrees of environmental support. Initially, Participant A reported having a number of people he could go to for help with his English including Taiwanese friends, a Kiwi friend, a classmate, and his teacher as well as resources like the dictionary. However, he reported less support by the last interview.

Participant C initially displayed a very low perception of environmental support, saying that she preferred only to ask her classmates for help, rather than her teacher or home-stay parents, as she had not been in New Zealand for a “long time” (I: p. 13). As time progressed, Participant C spoke more positively about the support in her environment, saying her teacher took “pleasure” in helping her “solve” questions (III: p. 26). However, up until the final set of interviews she maintained that she did not like asking her home-stay parents for assistance. By the final interview her attitude had changed slightly and she was a little more open to assistance from her home-stay family.

4.3.6 Parental Influence on Participants
The codes relevant to this section are:

- Parental pressure reported (PPY)
- Parental pressure not reported (PPN)

All participants demonstrated that they experienced some parental pressure to learn English at some point in the study. Parents pressured the participants to study hard to achieve good results in the IELTS examination or other tests, or simply for their child to gain status in China. Discussions about parental influence were kept as open as possible so as not to lead participants into a particular way of thinking. Questions like “do you discuss your language learning with your parents” and “do they give you any advice for learning English” were frequently asked.

Feelings of obligation to look after one’s family (MFO) were often linked with parental pressure. For instance, Participant D’s parents encouraged him to study harder, so that he could learn English and enter university:

D: …every time I call my parents- my mother or my father just find oh you should study harder. And I should study hard to go to university. I say okay okay okay. So you can’t play anything—

R: --ah just study--

D: --yeah you just study English… (II: p. 17)
But Participant D intimated that part of the reason for this study was so that he could get a good job and look after his family as he was an only child.

However, it should be acknowledged that none of the participants reported feeling upset because of this pressure. In fact, participants frequently spoke of their conversations with their parents in a positive light. For instance, Participant A discussed how he felt “very relax[ed]” after speaking with his parents who told him just to “look after [himself]” (III: p. 16).

Table 16.

_Presence of Parental Pressure_

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant code</th>
<th>Data Collection 1</th>
<th>Data Collection 2</th>
<th>Data Collection 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>PPY</td>
<td>PPN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>PPY</td>
<td>PPN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>PPY</td>
<td>PPY</td>
<td>PPN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>PPY</td>
<td>PPY</td>
<td>PPN</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. PP = parental pressure

Table 16 shows that Participants C and D demonstrated parental pressure during the first set of interviews, while Participants A and B did not. Yet, in the second set of interviews all four participants reported some parental pressure to succeed in English. Participants commonly reported that their parents regularly encouraged them to work hard. As Participant C said during the second set of interviews “[j]ust they wish I could pass the
IELTS test” (II: p. 5).

In the last series of interviews, no participant reported any pressure to work hard from their parents. Rather, participants’ reported how parents wished that their children have an “easy life” as Participant D put it (III: p. 13).

4.3.7 Perception of Language Learning Ability

The codes relevant to this section are:

- A low perception of their own English language learning ability (LLALO)
- A mixed perception of their own English language learning ability (LLAMIX)
- A high perception of their own English language learning ability (LLAHI)

All participants exhibited a low or mixed view of their language learning ability throughout the study. These views were elicited by asking participants about a variety of things such as how they felt about their current English ability, their performance in class, and their capacity to achieve their linguistic goals. Participant D exhibited a low view of his ability to learn English, in this case English vocabulary, when he said:

I just… every day just look at ah the vocabulary list. Look again again again. But I can’t remember. (II: p. 15)
All of Participant D’s comments about his own ability from this session would then be compared until a code emerged to describe his perception of his own language learning ability, whether low, mixed, or high. This was the way in which all participants’ codes were derived. The table below shows the participants’ mixed and low views of their own ability.

Table 17.

*Participants’ Perceptions of their own English Language Learning Ability*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant code</th>
<th>Data Collection 1</th>
<th>Data Collection 2</th>
<th>Data Collection 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>LLA LO</td>
<td>LLA LO</td>
<td>LLA MIX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>LLA LO</td>
<td>LLA LO</td>
<td>LLA LO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>LLA LO</td>
<td>LLA MIX</td>
<td>LLA MIX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>LLA LO</td>
<td>LLA LO</td>
<td>LLA LO</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. LLA = The participant’s perceived level of language learning ability*

Participants B and D exhibited a consistently low view of their language learning ability, Participant D describing his English as “very horrible” because he was unable to pass any tests (III: p. 7). Similarly, Participants A and C initially exhibited a low view of their own ability, but later in the study showed a mixed view of their capability. This mixed view is well illustrated by Participant A, who said that he had told his grandmother:

I’m here learning English. Sometimes it’s really hard sometimes I ah can do it.
This comment reveals that while he sometimes finds learning English difficult, on some occasions he is able to achieve results that were acceptable to him. Participant C also demonstrated this mixed view, saying that she had little vocabulary and that speaking was difficult. On the other hand she spoke positively of how she could answer almost all, “but not all” of the questions in class, and how she had improved her grammar and vocabulary over the term (III: p. 25). While participant C still had mixed views of her ability in the final interview, positive feedback, including good grades, seemed to increase her feelings of competence.

4.3.8 Perception of Future Language Learning Success

The codes relevant to this section are:

- Low estimation of future English language learning success (LLSLO)
- Mixed estimation of future English language learning success (LLSMIX)
- High estimation of future English language learning success (LLSHI)
- Success attributed to hard work (SAW)
- Success attributed to luck (SAL)

Participants’ views about their future success were, in general, considerably more positive than their views about their own language learning ability. Estimations of future success
were elicited by exploring participants’ goals and asking whether they felt they could achieve these goals, as well as by considering other comments that they made. A participant’s estimation of success was then coded as low, mixed or high. Table 18 shows each participant’s estimation of their future success.

Table 18.
Participants’ Estimations of Future LL Success

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant code</th>
<th>Data Collection 1</th>
<th>Data Collection 2</th>
<th>Data Collection 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>LLSHI</td>
<td>LLSMIX</td>
<td>LLSHI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>LLSLO</td>
<td>LLSMIX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>LLSLO</td>
<td>LLSMIX</td>
<td>LLSMIX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>LLSHI</td>
<td>LLSHI</td>
<td>LLSHI</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. LLS = The participant’s estimation of their future language learning success*

The data display above demonstrates an initially low, but increasingly high estimation of future success for Participants B and C, and a consistently high view for Participant D. Participant A demonstrated an initially high estimation of his future success in English, saying:

I think it’s hard so I must ah learning words every day…I think I will ah succeed

(I: p.16).
However, in the second interview he exhibited a mixed view of his ability. When asked whether he could achieve his language learning goals he replied that it would take “hard work and a long time” and that he was “not close” to achieving these goals (II: p.25). Yet, despite this more negative view, he still believed that he would succeed. In the final interview, he once again exhibited a high view of his future success.

In addition, questions about exactly how these language learning goals might be achieved were asked. On almost all occasions, present and future success was attributed to hard work (SAW) rather than luck or natural ability. This is apparent in the following exchange with Participant A which took place during the final interview:

R: ….do you think you are a good language learner. Good ability?
A: Ah no I always I think I learn- learning language not.
R: So why- why has your English got better then if you think you are not good. Why did you get better at English.
A: …hard work first (laugh). (III: p.21)

On only two occasions was good luck mentioned as a means of achieving success (SAL), and in both cases this was in the context of requiring luck to pass the IELTS examination. However, luck was never mentioned as the sole means of achieving success, but rather as an additional factor that is necessary to pass the IELTS examination. The attribution of success to both work and luck can be seen in the following:
D: If you do more exercises I think your speaking and listening is better...will be better.

R: Yeah.

D: But six-point-five [score in the IELTS examination] I think if you have good lucky

R: (laugh) Yip luck.

D: (laugh) If you have good luck...you will pass it.  

(I: p.27)

The table below shows participants’ attribution of future success. It should be noted that questions eliciting views attributions of future success were not specifically asked in the first two interviews, yet some participants volunteered information about this without being prompted.

Table 19.  
Participants’ Attributions of Future Success

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant code</th>
<th>Data Collection 1</th>
<th>Data Collection 2</th>
<th>Data Collection 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>SAW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>SAL, SAW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>SAW</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>SAW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>SAL, SAW</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>SAW</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. SA = The participant’s attribution of their future success*

The discussion section will explore the relationship between the participants’ view of their
own abilities and their estimations of future success (see 5.4.4). It is interesting to note that when participants felt they had failed to achieve their goals, such as getting a particular mark in a test, this failure was most often attributed to lack of practice. After failing to pass the test needed to move to the next class level Participant A said he looked at it in two ways:

A: …One is good other is bad.
R: Yeah.
A: Bad is I can’t go to Upper Intermediate.
R: Yeah.
A: But ah I think good is this tell me I need hard work. (III: p. 22).

4.3.9 Language Learning Strategies

The codes relevant to this section are:

- A high level of language learning strategies (LLSTHI)
- A medium level of language learning strategies (LLSTMED)
- A low level of language learning strategies (LLSTLO)

Language Learning strategies are specific techniques that a learner may employ to improve their ability in the target language. The strategies reported by participants were many and varied, ranging from strategies to improve oral skills, such as joining conversation groups
or speaking more in class, to using flashcards to learn vocabulary. The participants’ strategies for learning English were often elicited during a discussion of their language learning goals by asking questions such as “Do you have any ways to improve your vocabulary?” or “How do you think you will get better at speaking?” More open questions about how they liked to study and learn were also asked.

Participants were said to have a high level of language learning strategies (LLSTHI) if they reported four or more different strategies for learning English. Those who reported three strategies were labelled medium (LLSTMED), and those who spoke of two or less were labelled low (LLSTLO). For instance, Participant D displayed LLSTHI in the third data collection, reporting that he would improve his academic English by writing in his journal, watching some English programmes, listening to English tapes and going to a conversation group. Conversely, Participant B reported few strategies during the same phase of data collection, citing only learning vocabulary from a Chinese-English list and doing grammatical exercises as means of improvement. When asked how she would succeed in English she was unable to articulate any strategies saying:

I can’t find the best way to teach myself.  

(II: p. 9)

The table below shows a wide variation in the level of language learning strategies reported by participants throughout the study. Note that questions eliciting language learning strategies were not asked during the first interview. The importance of this line of inquiry only emerged due to information volunteered by some participants in the first interviews.
Table 20.

*The Level of LL Strategies Reported by Participants*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant code</th>
<th>Data Collection 1</th>
<th>Data Collection 2</th>
<th>Data Collection 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>LLSTHI</td>
<td>LLSTHI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>LLSTLO</td>
<td>LLSTLO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>LLSTLO</td>
<td>LLSTMED</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>LLSTHI</td>
<td>LLSTHI</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. LLS = Language learning strategy.*

Table 20 shows that Participants A and D both reported a high degree of language learning strategies when this was discussed. Conversely, the two female participants, B and C, reported low and medium levels of language learning strategies.

The discussion section will explore the relationship between the level of language learning strategies employed and the participant’s perception of their future success.

4.3.10 *Attitudes toward New Zealanders*

The codes relevant to this section are:

- A positive attitude toward New Zealand people (NZPPOS)
- A mixed attitude toward New Zealand people (NZPMIX)
Participants’ attitudes to New Zealanders varied throughout the study. Frequently, positive attitudes followed friendly encounters with New Zealanders, and negative or mixed attitudes were a result of negative encounters. For instance, Participant B said “I don’t like Kiwi” after some young people “shouted…Asian Asian” at her from a car (I: p.3&4). She felt that Kiwi people were unfriendly and some did not like Asian people.

On the other hand, while Participant C spoke about how Kiwi people swore at her, she also discussed how “kindly” and “friendly” her home-stay mother and father were (I: p. 9). She felt that while some were impolite, many New Zealanders were welcoming toward Chinese people, thus exhibiting a mixed view (NZPMIX).

The table below shows the variety of attitudes that participants expressed toward New Zealanders. Note that questions about these attitudes were not asked in all interviews.
Table 21.

*Attitudes toward New Zealanders*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant code</th>
<th>Data Collection 1</th>
<th>Data Collection 2</th>
<th>Data Collection 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>NZPPOS</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>NZPNEG</td>
<td>NZPNEG</td>
<td>NZPMIX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>NZPMIX</td>
<td>NZPMIX</td>
<td>NZPPOS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>NZPMIX</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>NZPMIX</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. NZP = Attitude toward New Zealand people*

4.4 Summary

This section summarises the key findings of this study and gives an indication of the focus of the discussion chapter (5.0).

4.4.1 Key Findings

The analysis has shown significant variation among participants in many aspects of their motivation, attitudes, and language learning. This section summarises the salient aspects of each of the categories discussed in chapter four.

4.4.1.1 Learner Motivations

The data shows that participants’ reported a range of language learning motivations. While some motivations such as the desire to learn English to gain employment in China (MEC),
the desire to learn English to pass an examination (MEX), and the motivation to learn English for higher education (MHE) remained relatively stable, other motives that were reported initially were later not discussed by some participants. For instance, the motivation to learn English to socialise with English speakers was initially reported by Participants C and D, but was not discussed by them later in the study. In addition, Participant D initially spoke of desiring English as a means of immigrating to New Zealand but later said that he did not want to do this any more.

Other motives which were not reported initially emerged in the second and third phases of data collection. Among these was the motivation to learn English because of filial obligation (MFO). While this remained constant for Participants B and D, Participant A only reported this motive in phase two of collection. Another of these later emerging motivations is the motive to learn English to conduct international business which was discussed only in the second and third stages of data collection. The possible implications of this will be discussed in section 5.4.4. The other motive to emerge later in the study was the motivation to learn English to gain higher social status in China, which Participant C only reported in phase two of collection, and Participant B in phases two and three.

The following chapter will discuss the possible implications of the motives reported by participants, as well as the potential reasons for the changes in these motivations.

4.4.1.2 Perceptions of Ability and Future Success
All participants reported relatively low views of their own language learning ability. These views either remained low throughout the course of the study, or in the case of Participants A and C, later rose to a medium estimation of their ability.

In contrast, participants displayed a wider variation of views regarding their future success in English language learning. While the male students, Participants A and D, exhibited only mixed or high estimations of their success, Participants B and C had low, then mixed estimations of success.

4.4.1.3 Presence of Parental Pressure and Environmental Support

There was some variation in the degree of environmental support, both between participants, and in individual participants. While Participants A and D reported medium and high levels of support at different phases of data collection, Participants B and C reported medium or low levels of support in different phases.

Conversely, all students reported parental pressure in either the first or second phase of data collection. Yet none of the participants indicated that they were experiencing this pressure in the last phase of data collection. It should be noted that data about parental influence was not obtained in all phases for all participants.

4.4.1.4 Language Learning Orientations
All participants shared an instrumental orientation for learning English. However, Participants A, C, and D also exhibited an integrative language learning orientation. It is interesting to note that Participant C’s orientation changed from exhibiting both an instrumental and integrative orientation to only displaying an instrumental one.

4.4.1.5 Presence of Language Learning Strategies

All participants reported employing some learning strategies in their language learning. These strategies ranged from memory strategies such as using word cards, to strategies for practicing their speaking skills such as joining a conversation group.

While Participants A and D reported using a high number of learning strategies (i.e. more than four specific techniques), Participants B and C had low or medium strategy use.

4.4.1.6 Attitudes to Language Learning Environments

Participants discussed both their views of the Chinese language learning environment and teacher and their views of the New Zealand class and teacher. They exhibited a range of views in both categories and, in many cases, these views changed considerably over the course of the research.

The participants’ views of their New Zealand classroom and teacher were varied. Participant A had mixed or positive views, while Participant D had consistently positive
comments about both facets of the New Zealand LL environment. On the other hand, Participant C had either mixed or negative views of the New Zealand LL environment, while Participant B was positive, negative, or mixed in the first two phases of data collection, but spoke positively about her new LL environment in the end.

Similarly, the participants’ views of the Chinese language learning environment changed over time, with the exception of Participant B who remained consistently negative. Participants A, C, and D initially exhibited mixed or positive views of their former language learning environment. However, the last data collected showed mixed views in the case of Participants A and C, and negative views for Participant D. It should be noted that data was not obtained for these views in every stage of data collection.

In general, at the end of the study Participants were more positive about the New Zealand LL environment and more negative about the Chinese LL environment. The exception to this is Participant D who was always positive about his New Zealand teacher and classroom. The implications of this will be discussed in section 5.2.1.

4.4.2 Concluding Comments

It should be noted that data was not always obtained for all factors and all participants in every phase of data collection. This is because due to the informal semi-structured nature of the interviews some questions were not asked in particular interviews, and thus no data could be obtained. Section 6.1.2.1 discusses the limitations and potential advantages of the
semi-structured interviews.

The findings summarised above may have implications for how we conceive learner motivation as they indicate that motivation may be dynamic, rather than static. The discussion chapter will explore these findings with reference to relevant theory and to the three research questions. It will draw upon theory to provide suggestions for what may have caused the changes in learners’ views of their learning environments and in their motivations. It will also discuss a number of other factors that may have impacted on the participants’ motivation and general language learning such as their attributions of success and use of learning strategies.
5.0 Discussion

This chapter begins by providing a response to the study’s research questions (see 5.1). Sections 5.2, 5.3, and 5.4 attempt to shed further light on the research findings by referring to other research from the SLA field. These sections follow the order of the three research questions first addressing possible influences on the participants’ changing view of their language learning environment; next exploring the influence of cultural and educational background on the participants’ language learning; and finally discussing other factors that may have impacted on the participants’ language learning and changing motivations. The latter portion of the chapter provides a discussion of the limitation of Dornyei and Otto’s (1998) and Dornyei’s (2001a) process model of motivation.

5.1 Answering the Research Questions

This section provides responses to the three key questions that prompted the investigation. It should be noted that these responses are offered with the limited scope of the study in mind. As such, they provide an insight into learners from mainland China studying English in the particular context outlined in section 3.3.2.

5.1.1 Question One: How do students from a Chinese cultural background view the New Zealand language learning environment?

The students who participated in the study displayed positive, negative, and mixed attitudes toward their New Zealand language learning environment at the University of Otago Language Centre (UOLC) (see Table. 14). While one participant exhibited a consistently positive view of his classroom and teacher, the remaining three participants changed their views over time, for the most part becoming more positive as their course progressed. There may also be some correlation between this increasingly positive view of the New Zealand language learning environment and an increasingly negative retrospective opinion.
of their English language learning environment in China.

5.1.2 Question Two: Does cultural and educational background influence the language learning motivations of Chinese L2 learners of English studying English in a New Zealand cultural setting?

It appears that the participants’ cultural background may have had some bearing on their motivations for learning English. In particular, the participants’ shared Confucian Heritage Culture (CHC) may have influenced the motive to learn English to gain higher social status in China (MSS), that of familial obligation (MFO), and perhaps the motive to learn English to gain employment in China (MEC) (see 5.3). The students’ common cultural background may also have influenced their common desire to learn English to get a university education in an English-speaking country (MHE). There is also some evidence to suggest that the social and economic system in China had a large bearing on the decision to learn English at all. Furthermore, their shared CHC educational background may have also influenced their shared motivation to learn English to pass the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) examination (MEX). However, there are multiple factors that may have influenced these motivations aside from educational and cultural backgrounds, as will be discussed later in this chapter.

5.1.3. Question Three: Do the language learning motivations of these students change over the course of their study?

Participants displayed significant variability in the direction of their motivations over time, but showed a consistently high motivational magnitude (the intensity of motivation) at both the beginning and end of the study (see Table. 3). The possible influences on motivational change include environmental, classroom, and language attainment factors (see 5.5). Despite these changes, some motives remained stable throughout the study, such as the motivation to learn English to gain employment in China, which was constant among all participants.
5.2 Influences on Participants’ Views of their LL Environment

Some potential influences on the participants’ attitudes toward their new learning environment emerge from interview data. These influences include the perceived utility of the New Zealand language learning environment and their relationship with the language learning teacher.

5.2.1 Perceived Utility of the New Zealand LL Environment

The data suggests that there may be some correlation between longevity of study in New Zealand and an increasingly positive attitude of the New Zealand language learning environment. The two participants who initially expressed negative or mixed views about the New Zealand language learning environment reported a more positive attitude by the end of their second term at the University of Otago Language Centre (UOLC). In fact, by the end of the six-month research period, three of the four had positive views of their new environment, and one expressed mixed views (see 4.1.4).

Dörnyei and Otto (1998) discuss several possible factors that may influence the learner’s perception of their learning experience. One of these factors, “goal/need significance” (whether the learner perceives that the language learning environment is supporting their learning goals and needs) may partly account for the increasingly positive view expressed by some participants.

As illustrated in section 4.3.4, negative attitudes toward the New Zealand language learning environment during the first phases of data collection were frequently due to the perception that facets of the communicative teaching style, such as painting, singing and group work, were a waste of time. This is hardly surprising given the contrast between their former language learning environment, with its larger classes and more teacher-centred approach, and their new language learning environment in New Zealand (see 2.3.1.1). Participants spoke a lot about these differences, describing the difference in the classroom layout, the number of students, and the smaller amount of homework in the New Zealand class.
However, over time, participants reported understanding the utility of using English in class, and of some of the tasks that they performed. This was aptly illustrated by Participant A who said that after a “long time” in New Zealand he liked the curriculum and teacher more than that in China as the content and “team” projects would be “useful” for his future job (see 4.3.4 & III: p. 18). Thus, it may be said that, given time, the participants were able to see that their new language learning environment was “… instrumental in satisfying needs or achieving goals” (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998, p. 58). It seems that participants were making a retrospective comparison between their former language learning classrooms in China, and their new language learning environment in New Zealand, and eventually recognizing the utility of the new approach (see 4.1.3 & 4.1.4).

Within the process-oriented framework, it is suggested that a positive view about the quality of the learning experience can have an important influence on learner motivation, particularly in executive motivation phase (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998). Given this suggestion, it is interesting to note that this increasingly positive view of the language learning environment expressed by Participants A, B, and C coincides with an increased desire to learn English in Participants B and C (see 4.1.2).

It is interesting to note that Participant D, who had already been studying at the UOLC for several weeks when the study began, was the only student to display a consistently positive attitude toward his New Zealand teacher and classroom. This may suggest that he had already adapted to his new learning environment and thus been able to see the usefulness of the teaching content. Although this cannot be confirmed from the data the general pattern of the other students’ motivations suggests it is probable. The limitations of this factor will be discussed later in this chapter.

5.2.2 Affective Factors: Perception of Teacher’s Attitude

Perhaps most significant in shaping their view of the New Zealand language learning environment were the students’ perceptions of their teacher’s attitude toward them. While the teacher’s ability was also seen as important, the participants’ perception of whether the
teacher was “friendly” and “cared about” them was more often reported as the reason for liking or disliking the teacher. This point is clearly illustrated when we compare Participant B’s perception that her teacher was “not friendly” with Participant D’s positive view of his “very friendly” teachers; while Participant B disliked her teachers at this point in the study, Participant D thought his teachers were excellent (see 4.1.4).

It seems that negative perceptions of their teacher’s attitude toward them may have been a source of anxiety for some students, particularly the two female students, Participants B and C. Both students initially reported feeling that the work was difficult, and the teacher hard to understand (see 4.1.4). They also reported feeling upset that they had not been properly introduced to other students (see 4.1.4). Empirical evidence supports the idea that a learner’s perception of their teacher’s attitude toward them may be a source of situational anxiety (cf. Bailey, 1983). The perception that the teacher disliked them because they were Chinese, coupled with the fact that they felt they had not been properly introduced to other students, is likely to have created some tension in the classroom (see 4.1.4). A tense classroom atmosphere is another documented cause of anxiety which has been shown to undermine students’ ability to function in class (Xiao, 2006).

It is not clear in this case whether this anxiety was a facet of the student’s personalities (trait anxiety) or whether the language learning situation itself was the sole trigger for anxiety (state anxiety) (see 2.1.1.1). There is some evidence that CHC values, and particularly the importance of guanxi and ren, may also have influenced this anxiety (see 5.3.2.1).

5.3 Influence of Confucian Heritage Cultural (CHC) Factors

Within the temporal and sampling limitations of this study it may be suggested that the participants’ shared CHC background may have had some influence upon their language learning motivations and their attitudes toward learning English. In the same way as we may see the Socratic and Christian traditions as influences on the education and thinking of
Western nations, so we see “the influence of the Confucian tradition, not its determinism” on the thinking and educational systems in CHCs (Carsen, 1998, p.738). Educational studies have established that there are characteristic ways that Chinese learners think, work, and generally behave that reflect their cultural background (see Biggs, 1992, 1994, 1998). These cultural factors are viewed not as the sole influences on this group of learners, but as some of many potential influences on the participants in this study (see 2.3.1).

This section will discuss the influence of the participants’ shared CHC background firstly on their language learning motivations, and later on their perceptions of the New Zealand language learning environment.

5.3.1 Influence of CHC on Participants’ LL Motivations

There is evidence to suggest that the participants’ cultural background may have had some influence on their motivations for learning English. It has already been noted that different cultures may exhibit different beliefs about, and motivations for, language learning (see 2.3.2 & 2.3.3). This section discusses a number of facets of Confucian Heritage Culture that may have influenced the participants’ language learning motives in this study.

5.3.1.1 Influence of Collectivism and Filial Piety on Motivation

Some of the language learning motives reported by participants seem to reflect both collectivist values and the notion of xiao (filial piety). Collectivism is concerned with the individual “in relation to their significant others” such as members of the extended family (So & Walker, 2006, p. 26). The needs of the individual are seen as secondary to the needs of the group, whether it be family or state (see 2.3.1). Similarly the CHC notion of xiao is concerned with showing respect and devotion to one’s family, particularly one’s parents, and putting their needs before one’s own (see 2.3.1). These facets of CHC may be seen in Participant A, B and D’s motivation to learn English because of feelings of filial obligation (MFO), and Participant B’s motive to learn English to gain higher social status (MSS).
As noted in section 4.1.2.8, MFO was associated in the data with the need to find suitable employment in China in order to earn money to look after one’s family. In addition, MFO was associated with the need to repay the family’s financial contribution to the learner’s education. In line with the literature, the participants’ definitions of ‘family’ were not limited to their parents, but also extended to uncles, aunts, and cousins, who they also felt compelled to support in the future. In CHCs this benevolence toward one’s family is traditionally seen as the most fundamental of all human virtues, and one’s relationship with one’s family as the most important of all relationships (So & Walker, 2006). This extract from Participant D (see 4.1.2.8) shows an awareness of these Confucian Heritage Cultural values:

[Y]ou know in China for- they say if you have a good life you should help everybody in the whole family it includes your brother your sister your parents your uncle and everything….

(III: p.13)

Participants A, B, and D viewed English as a means by which they could attain good jobs, or contribute to the family business, thus helping them to fulfill their obligations to financially support their family. This is in line with the literature on the status of English in China which emphasises that English attainment is considered by many Chinese as a pathway to a more prosperous future (Jin & Cortazzi, 2002; see 2.3.2).

Interestingly, none of the participants said that their anxiousness to repay their parents and look after their family was prompted by direct parental pressure; on the contrary, parents would frequently remind their children to look after themselves and not to worry about anything, even when encouraging their children to work hard (see 4.3.6). This perhaps highlights the idea that this filial piety was not necessarily due to overt parental pressure, but was an implicit expectation that motivated Participants A, B, and D. Dörnyei (2001a) places parental and teacher influence as an influence on the actional phase of motivation. Later in this chapter I will discuss the limitations of this classification as it appears that, given the important position parents occupied in the lives of these students, parental
influence may have been an underlying force in all stages of their education and language learning.

While the motivation to learn English to gain a higher social status in China (MSS) was in some cases an individualistic motive, in Participant B’s case it also may be seen to reflect both the values of xiao and collectivism. Participant B discussed how she needed to become successful so that her family could gain a higher standing among their relatives (see 4.1.2.7). Her parents had been an object of disdain among the extended family because of their low education (see 4.1.2.8). As related in 4.1.2.7 Participant B felt that English was a means by which she could succeed professionally and thus raise the standing of her parents when the extended family saw that they had “a successful daughter” (III: p. 37). Even without professional success, it seems that Participant B may have regarded English attainment alone as a mark of status among her relatives (cf. Jin & Cortazzi, 2002). Thus, the motivation to learn English to gain higher social status reflects Participant B’s filial piety and concern for the needs of the group (in this case her parents) above her own.

5.3.1.2 Influence of Face on Motivation

The Confucian cultural notion of “face” may also be seen as an influence on the motivation to learn English to raise one’s social status (MSS). As discussed in section 2.3.1, face is a social-psychological construct concerned both with the standing of one individual in relation to the other, and with ritual politeness (Lee-Wong, 1994; So & Walker, 2006). MSS closely reflects the first key element of face as it is concerned with the status that English would afford an individual in relation to others.

The two female participants, B and C, were the only learners to exhibit MSS (see Table 11). They spoke of a motivation to learn English so that others would admire or be jealous of them. English was discussed as a means of gaining status and prestige. As Participant B put it, acquiring English was a way to show her “power” to others so that they would know she was “not just a girl” (see 4.1.2.7). In fact, the term “face” was specifically mentioned by participants’ in connection with this motive (see 4.1.2.7). While face is somewhat
concerned with politeness, it is also concerned with feelings of self-esteem; if somebody has face, they are held in high esteem by others (So & Walker, 2006). Thus, the data suggests that there is a correlation between the CHC notion of face and the motivation to learn English to gain status or esteem in society.

5.3.1.3 Influence of the Concept of Guanxi on Motivation

The Confucian principle of *guanxi* (personal ties or relationships) seems to have influenced the participants’ shared motivation to learn English to gain satisfactory employment in China (MEC). As discussed in section 2.3.1, *guanxi* is the “…complex network of reciprocal obligations” by which one may progress, not only in business, but also in many other fields (Wilson, 1997, p. 54). Thus, *guanxi* is both personal and utilitarian in nature (So & Walker, 2006).

While there may have been multiple reasons that participants wished to work in China in the future, *guanxi* was specifically mentioned by Participants A, B, and D as a cultural influence on MEC. For instance, section 4.1.2.1 quotes Participant A who said that he thought he could find a better job in China because of *guanxi* (II: p. 25). Participants saw that this system of personal ties would help them first to gain employment and later to build strong business relationships in the business community (see 4.1.2.1). While some participants discussed how they might learn English and later obtain work in other countries, working in China was seen as an easier option for this cultural, rather than linguistic, reason (see 4.1.2.1).

5.3.1.4 Influence of Parents and Perceptions of Cultural Difference

Another motive that may have been influenced by the learners’ CHC is the motivation to learn English and immigrate to New Zealand, or another English-speaking country (MIM). While some students spoke of a desire to work in other countries, Participant D was the only learner to express a personal desire to live and work in another country, in this case New Zealand, on a permanent basis. However, after the first phases of data collection,
Participant D had changed his mind (see 4.1.2.3). As discussed in section 4.1.2.3, he cited cultural reasons for this change:

D: The culture is very- it is very different. So I think you live here is difficult- so hard. 

(II: p. 17)

Participant D discussed how his parents would find it difficult to adjust to the host culture, and how, because of this, he would not move here permanently (see 4.1.2.3). In this sentiment we can see the overarching collectivist and familial concerns often exhibited by those from CHC backgrounds; he seemed to be concerned first for his parents’ well-being, and then for his personal preferences.

As discussed in section 5.3.1.3 above, the other participants also reported a preference for living and working in China as it was easier for them living in a familiar cultural setting.

5.3.1.5 Influence of CHC on Instrumentalism

Language learning orientations are thought to be relatively stable, long-standing goals and attitudes toward language learning which may be either instrumental (utilitarian in nature) or integrative (concerned with identification with the L2 community) (see 2.2.1.1; Belmechri & Hummel, 2001). These orientations are likely to influence a learners’ subsequent motivations, which by Gardner’s definition may also be instrumental or integrative (Gardner, 1985a).

As detailed in section 4.1.1 all participants demonstrated a consistent instrumental orientation, while Participants A and D additionally had an integrative orientation. The relative consistency of all participants’ orientations is in line with the notion that language learning orientations, unlike motivations, are relatively stable, “long-standing” goals or attitudes (Belmechri & Hummel, 2001). It is interesting to note that other empirical studies also show instrumental orientations and goals to be more common in Chinese learners than integrative ones, as they were in this study (cf. Li, 2006; Liu, 2006).
In some contexts instrumental orientations, and their subsequent instrumental motives, are also thought to be more likely to predispose Chinese learners to success in SLA (cf. Liu, 2006). This is different from Gardner and Lambert’s (1972) and Gardner’s (1985a) claim that the integrative orientation is more likely to be an antecedent of language learning success (see 2.2.1.1). Chen, Warden and Chan (2005) found that integrativeness played no significant role in motivating Chinese EFL students. Furthermore, Li’s (2006) study of Chinese university students in the UK found that instrumental orientations were dominant, and that the students with instrumental orientations were “committed to their goals and persisted to attain them” (p. 55). It is noteworthy that in the present study all students had consistently medium or high levels of motivational magnitude over the six-month research period (see 4.1.1 & 4.1.2).

5.3.2 Views of New Zealand LL Environment Influenced by Culture

Though there is still much research to be done in order to understand how cultural and educational heritage influences students’ perceptions of culturally different language learning environments, this heritage is likely to be an influence (Carsen, 1998). Learners' beliefs about language learning are almost certainly influenced by past experiences, both of education in general, and particularly language learning education (Ellis, 1994, p. 479). Like all cultures, CHC may be described as having a particular culture of learning, that is, “socially transmitted beliefs and expectations about what good learning is” (Jin & Cortazzi, 1998, p. 749; 2006). With this culture of learning come expectations about how the curriculum, classroom, teacher and students should operate (Biggs, 1992, 1994, 1998; Jin & Cortazzi, 1998). Learners who “…have learned to learn in a particular way, one that is conditioned by a specific educational culture…” are likely to take certain beliefs about appropriate ways to learn with them when they move to a different cultural setting (Carsen, 1998, p. 736).

This section will discuss how CHC and the related culture of learning may have impacted on the participants’ views of their new language learning environment.
5.3.2.1 View of Language Learning Teacher

The data shows that the key concern that participants expressed in connection with their New Zealand language learning teacher was their perception of their teacher’s attitude toward them; a good teacher was seen as and “friendly” and caring, while a bad teacher was seen as uncaring and “not friendly” (see 5.2.2). While this concern with their relationship with the teacher may be explained in multiple ways, there is some evidence that it may have been influenced by the student’s Chinese Heritage Cultural background, and specifically the concepts of ren and guanxi.

The notion of ren was defined earlier as humaneness, benevolence or love (So & Walker, 2006; see 2.3.1). According to Jin and Cortazzi (1998), for learners from CHCs the ideal language learning teacher should exhibit ren, showing a friendly and warm-hearted attitude toward students (see 2.3.1.1). Thus, ren may be seen as a key facet of the Chinese culture of learning (Jin & Cortazzi, 1998). Perhaps the participants’ concern with whether they felt their teacher to be caring and friendly is reflective of this Confucian value. In any case, the teachers who were perceived to exhibit ren were described as good teachers, while those who did not were spoken of by Participants B and C in a negative way (see 4.1.4).

The participants’ concern with their relationship with the language learning teacher may also reflect the notion of guanxi, that of personal ties or relationship networks (So & Walker, 2006). According to CHC tradition, any relationship, whether business, personal, or educational, should begin with the establishment of a personal bond (So & Walker, 2006; see 2.3.1). Thus, guanxi is a fundamental concept of social interactions in CHCs by which one may build the relationships necessary to succeed (see 5.3.1.3). Perhaps, in the context of guanxi, the students’ perception that their teacher was not friendly was seen as a failure to establish the necessary ‘personal bond’ on which a teacher-student relationship could be built. Reflection on the concept of guanxi may also partly account for Participant B and C’s anxiety at feeling they had not been properly introduced to some of the students in their class (see 4.1.4). In both cases, the data suggests that Participants B and C in
particular felt that an appropriate bond had not been formed.

5.3.2.2 View of Classroom & Curriculum

At some point in the study all participants contrasted their former learning environment in China with the new, freer, environment in New Zealand (see 4.1.4). While their assessments were both positive and negative, the participants clearly viewed the new environment through the lens of their previous educational experience in China, frequently making direct comparisons between the two. It should be acknowledged that while some of these comparisons were made as a response to prompting questions, yet others were volunteered while speaking about different issues. In any case, the data itself shows how the participants were able to assess their new learning environment in the light of the old.

When they compared the New Zealand language learning environment with that in China, the key theme was freedom versus restrictiveness. For instance Participant C compared her class in China which she described as too “strict” with that in New Zealand which was “too much free” (see 4.1.4). They also compared the more traditional grammatical orientation in the Chinese classroom with the more communicative approach in New Zealand classrooms. Participant D compared the “boring” work in his language learning class in China with what he saw as the more “interesting” curriculum at the UOLC which allowed him more opportunity to speak (see 4.1.4). Conversely, Participants B and C reported that they often did not like communicative activities in the New Zealand classroom, particularly singing and painting, saying that they were often a waste of time (see 4.1.4).

Although English teaching practices are changing in modern China, the language learning class has traditionally been far more formal and teacher-centred than classes in the West have become (see 2.3.1.1). Given the large Chinese classes “where respect for the teacher and the text often predominate over the asking of questions and posing of doubts”, it is not surprising that Participants B and C found some aspects of the curriculum gave them freedom, but in some cases, wasted their time (Jin & Cortazzi, 2006, p. 19). The students’ socialisation in the more formal CHC environment appears to have influenced the way they
perceived the New Zealand language learning environment. However, as was noted earlier in 5.2.1, after time in their new environment, the participants appeared to see the benefits of what Participant D described as a “very different” but “better” approach to language teaching (I: p. 37).

5.4 Influences on Language Learning and Motivational Change

The data reveals a number of factors that may have influenced the participants’ language learning motivations and attitudes toward language learning. This section begins by detailing the environmental factors that may have influenced the participants’ language learning, and in some cases caused them to change their motivations. Next, other influences such as learner individual differences, linguistic achievement, and parental influence are discussed. Finally, I discuss the possibility that some of the changes in motivation that participants reported throughout the study may simply be due to the inherent variability of human responses.

5.4.1 Environmental Influences on Motivation and Language Learning

A number of environmental factors are thought to influence learner motivation during the pre-actional and actional phases of language learning (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998; Dörnyei, 2001a). This section will discuss how the participants’ motivation to learn English to socialise with other English-speakers (MSO) seems to have been influenced by negative encounters with native speakers early in their New Zealand experience. In addition, the impact of environmental support on learner motivation will be discussed. Finally, I will discuss the possible impact of the participants’ financial status on their motives for learning English.

5.4.1.1 Negative Impact of Environmental Prejudice

There is some evidence to suggest that negative encounters with New Zealand people early
in their time at the UOLC may have caused participants to reassess, and even change, their 
motivation to learn English in order to socialise with English speakers (MSO). Participants 
C and D both initially reported wanting to acquire English in order to make New Zealand 
friends and learn about the New Zealand way of life (see 4.1.2.4). However, shortly after 
arriving in New Zealand, these students reported experiencing racist behaviour from New 
Zealanders who shouted comments such as “Asian Asian” and swore at them (see 4.1.2.4). 
Soon after this experience Participant C said that she no longer desired to socialise with 
New Zealanders. Participant D similarly changed his motivation, though he maintained a 
desire to learn English to make New Zealand friends for some time after the racist incident. 
Perhaps significant in this, Participant A did not report any such racist slurs, and 
maintained his motivation to learn English for social reasons (MSO) throughout the study.

According to Dörnyei’s (2001a) list of motivational influences, attitudes to the L2 and its 
speakers may influence learners in the pre-actional stage of LL. However, as these 
motivational influences are merely described as the “main”, not the only, influences on 
motivation in each of the three stages it seems likely that these attitudes may have 
influenced Participant C and D’s changes in motivation during the actional stage of 
learning as well (Dörnyei, 2001a, p. 21). Given these negative encounters with New 
Zealanders reported by these participants it is not surprising that their desire to “integrate” 
into this host community might be reduced.

5.4.1.2 Influence of Environmental Support

Though Li (2006) found a positive correlation between a supportive language learning 
atmosphere and motivation in Chinese students studying English in the UK, this 
relationship was not evident in the current study (see 4.3.5) That is, students who reported 
high levels of support did not necessarily have a higher motivation to learn English. In fact, 
according to the questionnaire data, all participants had relatively high levels of 
motivational magnitude throughout the study, so there was little room for higher levels to 
be indicated (see 4.1.2).
Yet while a high level of environmental support did not necessarily differentiate the magnitude of learner motivation, there is some evidence to suggest that the converse, active discouragement, as opposed to a lack of support, may have had a negative impact on linguistic self-confidence (see Clément, 1980; 2.2.2.1). This can be seen in the data from Participant B who described how her cousin, whom she lived with, often criticised her by saying she had “a lot of grammar problem[s]” - a comment which made Participant B feel like crying (see 4.3.5; III: p.31). She felt reluctant to speak English in front of her cousin or others who came to their house, and reported a very negative view of her English ability (see 4.3.5 & Table 17).

In line with Clément’s (1980) definition of linguistic self-confidence as not only a cognitive, but also a socially constructed phenomenon, Participant B’s linguistic self-confidence seems to have been low because of these negative social encounters when using English. Self-Determination Theory proposes that a learner’s motivation is influenced by environmental factors which affect self-perceptions of their own competence and autonomy (Noels, Clément, & Pelletier, 1999). It seems that the critical environment in which she lived may have affected Participant B’s perception of her own competence, possibly decreasing her linguistic self-confidence, but not her overall motivation to learn English.

5.4.1.3 Course-Specific Motivational Components

The impact of classroom factors on learner motivation received much attention during the cognitive-situated period of motivation research. Dörnyei (2001a) relates how classroom factors may have a profound effect on the day-to-day fluctuations in learner motivation. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) propose four major factors that will impact on whether a student is motivated to learn by the course or not: interest, relevance, expectancy, and satisfaction. Two of these factors, interest and relevance, may partly account for why Participants A and D appear to have been motivated to learn in their language learning classroom, while Participants B and C initially expressed a more negative attitude to their environment.
The first factor, interest, refers to “…the individual’s inherent curiosity and desire to know more” about the language learning environment and the material being studied (Dornyei, 1994, p. 277). The notion of interest is closely related to that of intrinsic motivation which is a motivation to learn an L2 because of feelings of enjoyment and satisfaction embodied in the activity (see 2.1.2). According to Self-Determination Theory, intrinsically motivated learners often express a greater interest in the course material (Ryan, Mims & Koestner, 1983). Overall, Participants A and D reported enjoying the language learning experience in New Zealand, and particularly the curriculum, which Participant D described as both interesting and “very good” (see 4.1.4). In contrast, Participants B and C did not express the same interest in their environment; Participant C described the material as uninteresting (see 4.1.4). Thus, Participants A and D’s interest in the course material may have been a factor which motivated them in the language learning classroom.

The second component, relevance, centres on whether learners perceive the course to be in line with their ultimate goal: acquiring the L2 (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991). As was noted in 5.2.1, learners began to speak more positively about the language learning environment as they began to see its utility in helping them to acquire the English skills that they desired. However, initially Participants B and C were more negative than their peers, relating how they felt some communicative activities were a waste of time (see 4.1.4). Thus, whether the participants felt the course material to be relevant to their ultimate goal may be seen as an influence upon classroom motivation.

However, there are limitations to how far Crookes and Schmidt’s (1991) concepts may be applied with certainty to the present study. First, while Participants A and D expressed interest in the course material, it is difficult to tell whether this interest was a result of an intrinsic interest in the classroom material, the L2, or another factor. In addition, whether this interest translated into a higher level of motivation to complete classroom tasks is uncertain as no classroom observations were conducted. The potential of classroom observations in this context will be discussed in the conclusion.

Furthermore, there may be explanations other than Crookes and Schmidt’s (1991) concept
of relevance to account for why Participants’ B and C had an initially more negative view of the New Zealand LL classroom. Perhaps their more negative view of the New Zealand language learning teacher or the perception that they had not been properly introduced to their classmates also negatively influenced their views of the language learning activities. Thus, while the data suggests that the concepts of interest and relevance may be salient in this case, other factors may have also played a part.

5.4.2 Impact of Learner Individual Differences on Motivation and LL

While learner individual differences are most often discussed in the context of language acquisition, SLA literature reveals that some differences may also impact on learner motivation. In this section the individual differences of knowledge of language learning strategies and the learners’ sex will be discussed in relation to their impact on the participants’ language learning and motivations.

5.4.2.1 Presence of Language Learning Strategies

According to Dörnyei and Otto (1998) and Dörnyei (2001a), knowledge of self-regulatory strategies such as language learning strategies is likely to positively influence learner motivation in the actional phase of motivation. As discussed in 2.1.1.2, an explicit knowledge of these strategies can make language attainment appear more achievable, and language learning more enjoyable, thus motivating students to learn (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998). However, according to Xiao (2006) Chinese learners often have a small repertoire of language learning strategies to draw from as teachers in China often employ a limited number of strategies and students tend adopt their teacher’s methods.

As discussed in 4.3.9, the male participants (A and D) reported a consistently high number of language learning strategies, while the female participants (B and C) displayed a low or medium number of strategies (see Table. 20). Interestingly, the students’ relative knowledge of language learning strategies appears to have had no obvious impact on their motivational magnitude, as all participants displayed a fairly high level of motivational
intensity at the beginning and end of the study. However, within the limited sample size of the study, a correlation may be seen between the level of strategy use that learners reported and their perception of their future success. Participants A and D both reported high strategy use and mostly high anticipations of their future success. On the other hand, Participants B and C exhibited low or medium levels of strategy use, and had only low or mixed views of their future success.

How can we account for this apparent correlation between strategy use and perceptions of future success? Perhaps high strategy use fostered feelings of greater self-efficacy in the male participants. This is in line with definitions of self-efficacy in the SLA field which emphasise that a learner’s view of their future success (feeling of efficacy) may be based upon multiple factors including the learner’s own past learning experiences and also behaviours modeled from teachers and peers (mediated learning) (Dörnyei, 1994; 2001b). However, other empirical studies have found that there is no link between feelings of self-efficacy and estimations of future success in Chinese learners; rather, hard work and fulfilling societal requirements are seen as precursors of success (see Chen, Warden & Chang, 2005; Li, 2006). Possible future research into this individual difference will be discussed in the concluding chapter.

Dörnyei (2001a) discusses how teachers can build “…learners’ confidence in their own abilities by teaching them various learner strategies” (p. 97). However, once again the data in this study revealed no obvious correlation between the level of language learning strategies and the participants’ views of their own abilities. While the male participants had high views of future success, all participants had consistently low or mixed estimations of their own abilities in all phases of data collection (see 4.3.7).

5.4.2.2 Sex Differences and Language Learning

Within the small sample size of this study (two male and two female participants), there are observable differences in the language learning orientations and behaviours exhibited by male and female participants. As discussed earlier in this chapter the two male participants
(A and D) exhibited a generally more positive view of the New Zealand language learning environment and a higher use of language learning strategies than their female counterparts (see 5.3.2.2 & 5.4.2.2). In addition, both male participants had a consistently integrative orientation throughout the study, while only Participant C of the female respondents showed any integrative orientation, and this only for a limited time (see 4.1.1.1). However, there are no observable gender differences in the distribution of motivations.

Given the small number of participants in this research it is unclear whether these individual differences are a product of personality, sex, or other factors. It should be noted that participants had learnt English for different lengths of time (between 6 and 13 years), which may also have been influential (see Table. 1). It seems that there is little research that has comprehensively studied male and female differences in language acquisition (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). While some research shows that females often achieve more highly than males in particular language learning tasks, there appears to be little evidence to suggest that they have any advantage in overall second language acquisition (see Eisenstein, 1982).

5.4.3 Influence of Language Learning Achievement on Motivation

Studies in the SLA field suggest that language learning achievement may have an observable impact on motivation. While some studies, such as Strong’s (1983) research, have shown a strong correlation between these factors, other studies, such as Gardner, Masgoret, Tennant and Mic’s (2004), have found only a small relationship between achievement and language learning motivation. According to the process-oriented framework, “received feedback”, such as grades or praise, are most influential during the post-actional, retrospective stage of learning motivation (Dörnyei, 2001a, p. 22).

The data suggests that there may have been some relationship between achievement and learner motivation, particularly in the case of Participant C. Table 9 shows how all participants reported a consistent motivation to learn English to pass examinations (MEX), particularly the IELTS examination. The sole exception to this was during the last interview
conducted at the end of the academic term when Participant C had achieved the score that she wanted in IELTS, and thus decided to leave the UOLC and continue her education overseas (see 4.1.2.5). This is significant not so much because Participant C was no longer motivated to learn English to pass an exam, but because she now had a somewhat more positive estimation of her linguistic ability (see 4.3.7). It should also be noted that Participant C had the opportunity to sit the exam again and get a higher score, but that she deemed the score she had gained to be adequate, and so decided to continue studying in Australia. This finding supports Dörnyei’s (2001a) theory that feedback is most likely to influence the learner at the post-actional stage of learning, as Participant C had finished her term at the UOLC and seemed to be evaluating her progress with reference to her grades. The limitations of Dörnyei’s (2001a) framing of this factor will be discussed in the conclusion.

Stigler, Smith and Mao’s (1985) study of self-perception of competence of Chinese children found “…a significant correlation between grades and perceived competence” (p. 1268). Notably, grades were seen as a more significant measure of competence than the children’s natural ability. This is reflected in the data as Participant C reported feeling more confident in her English ability after receiving the high IELTS grade, although she still had a mixed view of her competence (see 4.3.7). Stigler et al. (1985) note that perceived cognitive competence played a part in the student’s motivation to achieve highly in language learning. However, in Stigler et al’s (1985) study, the Chinese children’s “…comparatively stronger interest in rising above their current level of competence”, was seen as an even stronger influence on motivation than their perceived current cognitive competence (Stigler et al. p. 1269).

5.4.4 Influence of Attributions of Success on Motivation

Attribution theory argues that that the subjective reasons which we attach to our failures and successes influence our beliefs about whether we will achieve future goals (see 2.2.21; Weiner, 1972, 1976, 1992). A number of scholars in SLA describe how learners from CHC backgrounds are more likely to attribute future success to controllable factors such as hard
work, than those from Western cultural backgrounds who often see ability as paramount (see 2.3; Biggs, 1998, 1999; Graham, 1994; Rueda & Chen, 2005; Li, 2006). This is reflected in the present study, in which learners most often attributed success to hard work, not to natural ability. Success was only attributed to luck with reference to the IELTS examination, yet even then hard work was still cited as the most important factor in achievement (see 4.3.8).

This pattern of attribution may predispose learners with a Confucian Cultural Heritage background to language learning success, as it encourages persistence in the face of failure (Biggs, 1998). This is evident in the popular sayings “[i]f you make enough effort, you can grind the iron pillar into a needle” and “thirty percent talent, seventy percent study” (Jin & Cortazzi, 2006, p. 12). Confucianism has always exhorted students “…to make continuous efforts to learn, since diligence ultimately outweighs ability” (Jin & Cortazzi, 2006, p. 12). This was shown in section 4.3.8, which records Participant A’s feelings that his failure to pass a test and ascend to a higher language learning class was both bad and good; bad because he had not achieved his objective, but good as it motivated him to work harder. As Participant A said:

I think good is this tell me I need hard work. (III: p. 22)

Participant A’s comments are closely similar to Biggs’ (1999) commentary on this issue where he writes:

[b]lame for Chinese means ‘you are lazy and so your ability is not high, but with more effort it could be’ (p. 93).

Thus, negative feedback, if not too harsh, may actually motivate students from CHCs to work harder in order to achieve more highly. This attribution pattern partly accounts for why Chinese learners consistently out-perform their Western counterparts in many school subjects (Biggs 1998, 1999). It “…clearly encourages persistence after failure, while ability attributions predict a low probability of future success, and hence disengagement” (Biggs,
Thus, attribution of success may be seen to have a direct link to a learner’s motivational intensity as negative feedback may encourage CHC students to work harder at language learning. According to the data, all participants had a consistently high level of motivational intensity, yet low views of their own ability (see 4.3.7). Research shows that Chinese students frequently have lower estimations of their own ability than their Western counterparts (Liu, 2007; Stigler et al., 1985). If participants had attributed success to ability, of which all students professed to have very low levels, perhaps they would not have had such high levels of motivation.

It is also interesting to note that Participants A and D both had medium or high estimations of their future success in English, while Participants B and C had initially low estimations which became higher as time progressed (see 4.3.8). This increasingly positive estimation of future success in their English studies may have some relationship with the increased reporting of the motivation to learn English to successfully conduct international business (MIB) (see 4.1.2.6). This motive was only associated with either medium or high estimations of future success and only emerged in the second and third phases of data collection. It seems likely that as these students became more confident of their ability to ultimately succeed in learning English, they felt more able to apply their knowledge in a business setting where they would interact with native speakers.

5.4.5 Changes in Motivation and Unconscious/Irrational Influences

It is possible that some of the variation in learner motivation obtained from the data may be due, not to quantifiable environmental factors or individual differences, but rather to unconscious or irrational phenomena. Ellis (1994) also questions “…the extent to which learners are sufficiently aware of their affective states and cognitive processes to report on them” (p. 674). According to Dörnyei and Otto (1998):

[t]here is no doubt that there are a number of unconscious or irrational issues that underlie (motivate and demotivate) student behaviour (p. 62).
For instance, affective factors, such as anxiety, may be attributed to external or internal factors which the learner may or may not be aware of (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991).

Yet, despite the inherent variability of human behaviour, research shows that “…many aspects of student behaviour are quite logical and rational” (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998, p. 63). Motivation may be seen to be influenced by a number of the well-researched factors discussed above such as cultural and educational background (see Biggs, 1998, 1999), individual differences (see Ellis, 1994; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Oxford 1993a, 1993b), and classroom factors (see Crookes & Schmidt, 1991). In fact, psychologists generally accept that “…most of the significant thoughts and feelings that affect language achievement are conscious and known by the learner” (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998, p. 63). Thus, while there must be some element of unconsciousness and irrationality in learner motivation, many motives and motivational influences can be accounted for by SLA researchers.

5.5 Summary

This chapter has discussed how the participants exhibited a variety of views about their New Zealand language learning environment which were, at different times, negative, mixed, or positive (see 5.2). However, the data suggests that all the participants’ views became increasingly positive as time progressed and they began to see the utility of their new learning environment with its communicative teaching style (see 5.2.1).

The discussion also detailed how the learners’ cultural and educational background may have influenced their language learning motivations, and possibly predisposed them to share an instrumental orientation (see 5.3.1 & 5.3.1.6). In particular, the participants’ shared CHC seems to have influenced the desire to learn English for social status (MSS), employment in China (MEC), higher education (MHE), and passing examinations (MEX). However, individual learner differences were also shown to be possible influences on learner motivation and language learning orientation. Individual learner differences such as
sex and knowledge of language learning strategies also appear to have impacted both learner motivation and language learning orientations (see 5.4.2.1 & 5.4.2.2).

The participants showed significant variation in the motives for learning English over the course of the research. It was proposed that both learner achievement and attributions of success may have influenced their language learning motivations and motivational change (see 5.4.3 & 5.4.4).

Finally, this chapter outlined how some of the variation in learner motivation seen throughout the study may be attributed to unconscious or irrational phenomena (see 5.4.5). However, it was also noted that while learners may exhibit some irrational or illogical motivational behaviour, many of the thoughts and feelings that impact on learning achievement are known to the learner (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998, p. 63).

The study has confirmed that motivation is a dynamic phenomenon, changing with the different external and internal influences that language learners’ encounter (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998; Dörnyei, 2001a, 2003a, 2005). In line with other studies in the field, it is suggested that there may be a correlation between language learning achievement and changes in motivation or views of their own ability (see Dornyei, 2001a; Gardner et al., 2004; Strong, 1983). It is also proposed that the participants’ shared CHC background may have predisposed them to attribute success to hard work, and failure to a lack of work, rather than to a lack of ability (see Biggs, 1998, 1999; Graham, 1994; Li, 2006; Rueda & Chen, 2005). This pattern of attribution may have encouraged the learners to work harder in the face of failure and perhaps contributed to their consistently high level of motivational magnitude. Yet, while this study agreed with Dörnyei and Otto (1998) and Dörnyei’s (2001a) proposal that motivation is dynamic, it also found that their process model was too limited to account for the variety of motivational influences described by participants.

The concluding chapter will discuss the contribution of this research to the study of motivation in SLA. It will also discuss the limitation of the present research and suggest possibilities for the future directions of research in this area.
6.0. Conclusion

This chapter will begin by discussing the conclusions of the present research in relation to the research questions. I will continue by outlining the theoretical and pedagogical implications of the study. Later, I will discuss the limitations of the study and offer suggestions for future research that may minimise some of these limitations. The discussion of limitations will centre on: the restrictions of the time-period and the number of participants in the research; and the limitations of the methods of data elicitation. Some possible directions for future research in this area will also be discussed.

6.1 Conclusions from the Research

Within the temporal and sampling limitations of the study it can be concluded that students from a Chinese cultural background may have a variety of views about the New Zealand language learning environment. This research suggests that these students may begin to view the environment more positively over time if they perceive that the material presented in the classroom is both interesting and relevant to their learning goals. Retrospective comparisons with the Chinese learning environment appear to have caused some participants to evaluate the New Zealand LL environment positively, and others negatively (5.3.2.2).

The participants’ shared Confucian Heritage Culture (CHC) and its associated cultural values had a much greater influence on their language learning than was anticipated. This background seems to have also influenced some participants’ views of their teachers and the language learning curriculum in New Zealand. CHC places high value upon developing good interpersonal relationships and places the teacher as a figure of both authority and care. These factors appear to have impacted on the participants’ perceptions of their teacher (see 5.2.2 & 5.2.3.1); Students who saw the teacher as falling short of the CHC ideal of warm-heartedness (ren) and not establishing a personal relationship with them (guanxi) had
a more negative view of their language learning teacher than those who thought their teacher fulfilled these ideals.

It can be concluded that cultural and educational background may also impact on the motivations of learners from Confucian Heritage Cultures (CHCs). In fact, the motivations to learn English because of obligations to one’s family, to gain a higher status for oneself or one’s family, and to gain employment in China may all stem from this background. These motives appear to have been influenced by a range of CHC values including: collectivism and filial piety which seem to have fostered the motivation to learn English because of feelings of filial obligation; the CHC notion of *face* which appears to have contributed to the motive to learn English for social status; and the concept of *guanxi* which influenced the participants’ shared motive to gain employment in China rather than elsewhere. In addition, the participants’ shared perception that New Zealand culture was very hard to live and work in because it was very different from China was another cultural factor influencing the motivation to immigrate to New Zealand (see 5.3.1.5). This CHC background also seems to have influenced the participants’ language learning motivations, and possibly predisposed them to share an instrumental orientation (see 5.3.1 & 5.3.1.6).

However, other factors aside from educational and cultural background appear to have influenced the participants’ motivations. Environmental influences such as environmental prejudice seems to have negatively influenced student motivation to learn English in order to socialise with English speakers (see 5.4.1). While environmental support did not appear to be a significant influence on motivation, the opposite of this, active environmental discouragement, appears to have reduced one learner’s linguistic self confidence (see 5.4.1.2). Other important influences on motivation were what Dörnyei (2001a) describes as *course specific motivational components*. In this case, participants who saw classroom activities as being both relevant to their learning goals and intrinsically interesting appear to have been more motivated than those who saw the tasks as irrelevant and uninteresting (see Crookes & Schmidt, 1991).

Individual learner differences such as sex and knowledge of language learning strategies
also appear to have impacted on both learner motivation and language learning orientations (see 5.4.2.1 & 5.4.2.2). While there was no apparent difference between the motivations of male and female participants, there was some difference in their language learning orientations or the “…long-range goals and attitudes” which are often pre-cursors to motivation (Belmechri & Hummel, 2001, p. 225). While both male participants, A and D, had consistently integrative and instrumental orientations throughout the study, only one female participant exhibited any integrative orientation, and this only at the beginning of the study. In addition, the male participants had a generally more positive view of the New Zealand language learning environment and employed a wider range of language learning strategies. It has been suggested that participants who have a wide repertoire of learning strategies may have had higher estimations of their future success than their peers (see Dörnyei & Otto, 1998; Dornyei, 2001a). However, given the small number of participants in this study (two male and two female participants) it is unclear whether these differences were due to gender or were a product of other individual differences such as personality.

6.2 Theoretical Implications of the Research: The Process Model

The process model of motivation articulated first by Dörnyei and Otto (1998) and later revised by Dörnyei (2001a) provides a useful synthesis of much of the previous research into motivation in SLA. It highlights a number of environmental, cognitive, and other influences on motivational behaviour, while also describing the temporal changes in motivation that may be seen in the present study. However, the model may not sufficiently account for some of the motivational influences that are likely to impact on those from CHC backgrounds.

6.2.1 The limitations of prescribing main motivational influences

The process model presents language learning motivation in three distinct phases, with three sets of distinct motivational influences. Given the findings of this research, we should perhaps question whether these three distinct categories of motivational influence are justified. While Dörnyei and Otto (1998) acknowledge that there may be some overlap
between the preactional and actional motivational phases, they also maintain that “…the motivational influences associated with the actional phase are not directly related to the motives affecting earlier stages of the process” (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998, p. 52). This claim is based upon Heckhausen and Kuhl’s Action Control Theory which proposes that “…very few forces have a global effect on every stage of the actor’s behaviour…” (Dornyei & Otto, 1998, p. 52; see 2.2.3). Similarly, in Dörnyei’s (2001a) later schematic representation of the model, the three phases and their corresponding motivational influences are distinct; each set of motivational influences is presented in a short list under one of the three phases (see Appendix F).

While some of the influences that the participants described in this study adhered to the model, at other times these influences proved significant during a different phase in the action sequence to that which the researchers specify. For instance, the participants’ attitude toward New Zealanders appears to have been an influence on motivation during the actional phase, not only the pre-actional phase as described in the process model (see 5.4.1.1).

However perhaps most significant when researching learners from CHC countries, parental influence is listed in the process model as being a factor that impacts on motivation during the actional stage. Yet, in this study parental influence seems to have been an important underlying factor in the choices that the participants made, and in the LL motives they exhibited, in all phases of action. Participants B and D maintained a strong motivation to learn English because of feelings of filial obligation throughout the study from the pre-actional to the post-actional phases of motivation (see 5.3.1.1). Furthermore, Participant B reported wanting to learn English to raise the status of her family in China in the actional and post-actional phases (see 5.3.3.1). Thus, despite Dörnyei and Otto’s (1998) sentiments to the contrary, the influences of parents and cultural background do indeed appear to have had a “global effect on every stage…” of the participants’ behaviour (p. 52).

6.2.2 Proposed Changes to the Process Model
It is true that some factors may be more salient to particular phases of motivation. For instance, the influence of classroom factors will obviously be most relevant to the actional phase of motivation in which learners are engaged in learning in the classroom environment. However, the three sets of motivational influences offered by Dörnyei and Otto (1998) and Dörnyei (2001a) are too limited to describe the multifarious factors that may influence learner motivation at any stage of their language learning. This is particularly true in the case of second language learners from CHC backgrounds where parental and societal influences may have an important influence on motivation at any phase of motivation (see Chen, Warden & Chang, 2005).

The process model of motivation needs to be developed to account for this variety. It is proposed that Dörnyei’s (2001a) three discrete lists of main motivational influences be combined to form one list of influences. This list of influences ought not to be treated as comprehensive, because a single list is unable to account for the multitude of factors that may influence a learner’s motivation. In addition, it is necessary to articulate how some motivational influences might have global significance in all phases of motivation. This is particularly important in the case of learners’ underlying cultural values that are a result of their socialisation. It may be argued that such values are likely to remain relatively constant and may influence motivation during any phase of action.

6.3 Pedagogical Implications of the Research

It is hoped that the findings of this small scale study will contribute to an understanding of how learners from CHC backgrounds may perceive the New Zealand language learning environment. These findings may have implications for how teachers present communicative activities within the language learning classroom. Language teachers need to ensure that students, particularly those from CHC who might not be familiar with the communicative style, are sufficiently aware of the purpose and usefulness of communicative tasks. This also requires teachers to speak to their students about their language learning motivations and goals for learning the L2. An understanding of these
things may help language teachers to better tailor the classroom curriculum to help students to realise their objectives for language learning.

The findings of this study may also have implications for the teaching of language learning strategies, as participants who had a higher number of strategies had an overall more positive outlook on language learning and higher estimations of their future LL success. This implies that teachers need to explicitly teach language learning strategies that will help students to improve particular different skills (see Dörnyei & Otto, 1998; Dörnyei, 2001a). Given the wealth of SLA literature that explains effective language learning strategies and how to teach them, this is perhaps a good way for teachers to foster their students’ linguistic self-confidence and LL motivation (see Oxford, 1990 for a detailed discussion).

This research also highlights the need for teachers to be aware that students from different cultural backgrounds may view criticism from the teacher in different ways. The data suggests that bad grades may in fact be an incentive to work harder for some learners from CHC backgrounds. While it does not directly deal with whether criticism from teachers may be a motivating influence, it is also possible that this type of feedback may be motivating. Thus, teachers should perhaps have frank conversations with their students about these issues, asking them about what kind of critiques they received from their former LL teachers, and what kinds of criticism they would like to have from the New Zealand language teacher. If the use of criticism proves to be a motivating influence for some students it would be unwise for teachers to focus only upon giving positive feedback.

This study also has implications for New Zealand secondary schools. It emphasises the need for New Zealand schools to better educate their students about the need to welcome international students given that three of the four participants in the study reported experiencing racist behaviour from high school or university students. China has been, and still is, the main source country for international students studying in New Zealand. Recently, however, the number of Chinese students has been in decline (Merwood, 2007). Research indicates that many Chinese students initially wish to stay in New Zealand, but their “experiences in New Zealand play an important role in their ability to achieve their
goal…” (Merwood, 2007, p. 6). Environmental prejudice and feelings of isolation are likely to discourage these students from staying in New Zealand in the long term. It is perhaps important for New Zealanders to understand the CHC notion that all relationships ought to first begin with the formation of personal ties (guanxi). If we wish to continue having Chinese students come and study in New Zealand, it is important that we learn to build these personal ties with members of this ethnic group.

6.4 Limitations of the Research and Suggestions for Future Research

While this study revealed a number of potentially useful findings that may help us to better understand the LL motivations of learners from a Chinese cultural background and the way that they may view the New Zealand learning environment, there were a number of limitations. This section discusses how the limitation of time and the small number of participants reduced the amount of data that I was able to draw on in order to see patterns of behaviour among participants and offer explanations for these patterns. Finally, the limitations of the method of data collection and analysis will be discussed. In particular, I will focus on the difficulties of participant self-reporting during semi-structured interviews, and of requiring participants to read and understand English questions.

6.4.1 Temporal and Sampling Limitations

As was briefly articulated in the discussion chapter, the limited time scale and number of participants in this study sometimes made it difficult to draw conclusions about various learner behaviours and characteristics. The study was conducted over a six-month period which coincided with two terms of study for the participants at the University of Otago Language Centre (UOLC). While it was noted that changes in learner motivation may happen over a short space of time, such as days or months, a longer period of data collection may have revealed different findings (cf. Dörnyei, 2005). A longer research period may have seen the participants increase in linguistic ability and confidence which may have impacted on their motivations (see Gardner et al., 2004; Strong, 1983). In addition, it might have revealed whether the increasingly positive view of the New Zealand
language learning environment revealed in the data was due to the participants becoming accustomed to, and seeing the utility of, this new environment, as proposed in section 5.2.1. Thus, similar projects in the future could consider conducting research over a longer period of time.

However, it should be acknowledged that while the research was conducted over a relatively short period of time, the data collection was intensive; the three stages of collection yielded a substantial amount of qualitative and quantitative data. In addition, the data reveals that this six month period was probably a significant time in the participants’ lives in which they moved away from their parents and for some, gained a measure of independence for the first time. For this reason, though the time scale was short, the data revealed some potentially useful findings from a period in time when the participants were experiencing a difficult transition from one cultural environment to another.

Another limitation foreshadowed in the discussion is the small number of participants in the study. While this study aimed to gain an in-depth understanding of the attitudes and motivations of Chinese learners studying in a particular cultural environment, the small sample of only two male and two female participants limited the extent to which firm explanations could be reached to account for the participants’ behaviour. For instance, given that there were only two males and two females in the study it was not clear whether differences in learner orientations, attitudes, or repertoire of learning strategies were due to gender or other factors (see 5.4.2.2). A larger sample size may have made the reasons for the participants’ different learning motivations clearer to the researcher. However, the objective of this study was not to provide findings that could be directly applied to other areas but to describe the language learning motivations and attitudes of a particular group of learners in a particular socio-cultural context.

6.4.2 Methods of Data Collection and Analysis

The ways in which data were collected and analysed in this study have several inherent limitations. The limitations of each method will be discussed with reference to how these
effects may be reduced in future research.

6.4.2.1 Limitations of Semi-structured Interviews

The use of semi-structured interviews carries with it the limitation of participant self-reporting (see 3.3.4.2). Some participants may only say things that they believe the interviewer wishes to hear. This problem may be exacerbated when one interviews learners from CHCs, where people are generally socialised to obedience and compliance (Biggs, 1998). In addition, given that these interviews asked questions about the learners’ cognitive and affective processes, it should be acknowledged that participants could only respond truthfully if they were sufficiently aware of their own processes (see Ellis, 1994).

Another limitation of self-reporting in the present study is that participants are likely to have become increasingly comfortable with the researcher as time progressed and they have built a relationship. As this study was concerned with attitudinal and motivational change, this may mean that the changes that participants reported in their motives over time were partly due to their increasing ease with the interviewer which could have made them more inclined to reveal their thoughts and feelings. Yet, this limitation may be somewhat mitigated by several factors: firstly, triangulation which allowed me both to compare data sets for sites of agreement and also findings between different participants; and secondly, the fact that all participants made what may be considered quite revealing comments about themselves, their culture, and the host culture from the first interview onwards. This would seem to indicate that they felt some degree of ease throughout the interview process. To illustrate, participants made negative comments about New Zealand people, the language centre they attended (in which I work), their own learning ability, and their previous learning environment in China, in the first interview session.

A further limitation of these interviews was that students reported on their feelings about the classroom and curriculum, their level of motivation, and their own language learning ability, but I had little means of verifying their comments aside from triangulation with other data sources. Future research in this vein might consider making classroom
observation one of the methods of data collection in addition to using interviews. This would be particularly useful for verifying whether those students who reported enjoying the communicative method of teaching employed in New Zealand were actually more motivated to learn in the classroom setting (see 5.4.1.3). In addition, observations could give an insight into whether the explicit teaching of learning strategies would increase the participants’ estimations of their future success (see 5.4.2.1).

Another possible limitation of the interviews was that two interviewees (Participants B and C) shared the first two sets of interviews. This may in some way lessen the significance of points of convergence between Participants B and C in the research. However, it should be noted that while these two participants did show some similar motivations, their motivations for learning English and their views of their own abilities were by no means identical. For instance, section 5.3.1.1 discusses how Participant C reported a much lesser degree of motivation due to feelings of filial obligation than the other three participants.

It may also be argued that the interview question “how might English help you in the future” limited participants to a response that discussed only instrumental motivations for learning English (see 4.1.2.1). This question may have lead participants to feel obliged to consider and report the instrumental usefulness of English for their future lives rather than eliciting responses that demonstrated an integrative motivation. Yet, it should also be noted that open questions like “tell me about why you want to learn English” were also asked (see 4.1.2.1). Such questions gave participants an opportunity to discuss any motivations for learning English that they so chose. Furthermore, it may also be significant that participants mentioned instrumental motives for learning English repeatedly, even when not being asked directly about possible instrumental motives.

Finally, the informal, conversational nature of these interviews may be seen as having both advantages and disadvantages. One of the disadvantages of this style of interviewing is that it is often difficult to ensure that all of the points that the interviewer wishes to discuss are covered. While a rough guide to the interview questions were compiled for each interview, the conversational nature of these interviews meant that questions were sometimes omitted
or the interviewee failed to answer as they began speaking about another, unrelated, point.

On the other hand, this style of interviewing may have been advantageous in some respects. One advantage is that the less rigid format of the interview allowed for emerging lines of enquiry to be pursued that would not have been discussed if the interviewer had retained sole control over the direction of the interview. Participants were allowed the freedom to explore their opinions and feelings about their language learning, even if these thoughts were not in response to questions by the interviewer. Furthermore, this informal style is likely to have fostered a more comfortable relationship between the interviewer and participants, as the interview was more like a conversation than a formal interview. In addition, as indicated above, the participants retained some control over the interview process which potentially allowed a more even distribution of power between interviewer and interviewee.

6.4.2.2 Language Limitations

A key limitation of the questionnaires, interviews, and student essay was that they all required the participants, who were of pre-intermediate to intermediate English proficiency, to understand questions in English in order to reply. While a Chinese translator was available in the interviews, it is impossible to tell whether all questions and replies were understood as the speaker intended them to be. Likewise in the essay, where students could respond in Chinese or English, students may have had difficulty understanding the question and forming an appropriate reply.

There are two key linguistic limitations in the questionnaires. First, while the questionnaire was piloted on Intermediate-level Chinese students, and the participants had the opportunity to ask questions as they completed the questionnaire, they may have misunderstood some of the questions because of their limited knowledge of English. Secondly, the questionnaire was initially intended by Gardner (1985b) for use with English-speaking students of French in Canada, but was altered for the purposes of this study. It should be acknowledged that using this method of data elicitation in a different context may have impacted on ed the
findings. Perhaps future research in this vein could compile a questionnaire written in Chinese that is specifically designed for Chinese learners in the New Zealand context.

6.4.2.3 The Limitation of Researcher Bias

Qualitative studies are sometimes considered less reliable than quantitative studies as it is argued that the researcher’s own assumptions can bias them toward particular interpretations of the data (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This limitation is salient to the present study in which my own previous experiences of how students from mainland China interact in the classroom and seem to view language learning may have been a factor in my interpretation of the data. In addition, even my consideration of other SLA studies and theories of motivation may have directed me toward particular interpretations of the findings.

The primary issues at stake are: dependability, the extent to which findings can be relied upon to match reality; and confirmability, whether these findings can be confirmed from the data itself (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Section 3.2 discusses the way in which re-coding was used to determine the extent to which coding was consistent throughout the study (see Philp, 2003). The use of grounded theory and triangulation may also have gone some way toward ensuring that data interpretation was a reflection of the data itself (see 3.3.5.3). However, it should perhaps be acknowledged that the potential for researcher bias exists in any study, even in replicable quantitative studies (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

6.5 Concluding Comments

It is hoped that this study will contribute to a better understanding of the language learning motivations of those from CHC backgrounds - a particularly under-researched area of SLA. It was discovered that culture may play a more important role in learner motivation than was previously thought. The research confirmed that those from CHC backgrounds often exhibit an instrumental orientation, but also showed that this orientation can be
accompanied by a high level of motivational intensity. Additionally, it found that learner motivation is dynamic rather than static, and in that it may change over a period of weeks given particular environmental, classroom, or language attainment influences. Finally, the findings show that the traditional notions of integrative and instrumental motives may be insufficient to account for some of the motivations articulated by Chinese students. For instance, the motivation to learn English because of filial obligation does not fall neatly into either category (see Chen, Warden & Chang, 2005). This highlights the need to specifically account for cultural factors in any discussion of learner motivation and not be limited by particular theoretical models.
7.0 References


Deci, E. (1972). Intrinsic motivation, extrinsic reinforcement, and inequity. *Journal of*
Personality and Social Psychology, 22, 113-120.


8.0 Appendices

Appendix A

Gardner’s Socio-Educational Model of L2 Acquisition

Appendix B

The Attitude/Motivation Test Battery

Appendix A.1
The Attitude/Motivation Test Battery

INSTRUCTIONS

The following instructions precede the Likert form items. The items are presented in a random order, and for school children each item is typically followed by the scale as indicated in the example below. Other versions used for university level students use the format as suggested by Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswik, Levinson and Sanford (1950).

Following are a number of statements with which some people agree and others disagree. There are no right or wrong answers since many people have different opinions. We would like you to indicate your opinion about each statement by circling the alternative below it which best indicates the extent to which you disagree or agree with that statement.

Following is a sample item. Circle the alternative below the statement which best indicates your feeling.

1. Canadian hockey players are better than Russian hockey players.

Strongly Disagree Moderately Disagree Slightly Disagree Neutral Slightly Agree Moderately Agree Strongly Agree

In answering this question, you should have circled one of the above alternatives. Some people would circle Strongly Disagree, others would circle Strongly Agree, and still others would circle one of the alternatives in between. Which one you circled would indicate your own feelings based on everything you know and have heard. Note, there is no right or wrong answer. All that is important is that you indicate your personal feeling.

Please give your immediate reactions to each of the following items. Don’t waste time thinking about each statement. Give your immediate feeling after reading each statement. On the other hand, please do not be careless, as it is important that we obtain your true feelings.

* Items for the Likert Scales

Attitudes toward French Canadians

1. French Canadians are a very sociable, warm-hearted and creative people.
2. I would like to know more French Canadians.
3. French Canadians add a distinctive flavour to the Canadian culture.
4. English Canadians should make a greater effort to learn the French language.
5. The more I get to know the French Canadians, the more I want to be fluent in their language.
6. Some of our best citizens are of French Canadian descent.
7. The French-Canadian heritage is an important part of our Canadian identity.
8. If Canada should lose the French culture of Quebec, it would indeed be a great loss.
9. French Canadians have preserved much of the beauty of the old Canadian folkways.
Most French Canadians are so friendly and easy to get along with that Canada is fortunate to have them.

Interest in Foreign Languages

1. If I were visiting a foreign country I would like to be able to speak the language of the people.
2. Even though Canada is relatively far from countries speaking other languages, it is important for Canadians to learn foreign languages.
3. I wish I could speak another language perfectly.
4. I want to read the literature of a foreign language in the original language rather than a translation.
5. I often wish I could read newspapers and magazines in another language.
6. I would really like to learn a lot of foreign languages.
7. If I planned to stay in another country, I would make a great effort to learn the language even though I could get along in English.
8. I would study a foreign language in school even if it were not required.
9. I enjoy meeting and listening to people who speak other languages.
10. Studying a foreign language is an enjoyable experience.

Attitudes toward European French People

1. The European French are considerate of the feelings of others.
2. I have a favourable attitude towards the European French.
3. The more I learn about the European French, the more I like them.
4. The European French are trustworthy and dependable.
5. I have always admired the European French people.
6. The European French are very friendly and hospitable.
7. The European French are cheerful, agreeable and good humoured.
8. I would like to get to know the European French people better.
9. The European French are a very kind and generous people.
10. For the most part, the European French are sincere and honest.

Attitudes toward Learning French

Positively Worded Items

1. Learning French is really great.
2. I really enjoy learning French.
3. French is an important part of the school programme.
4. I plan to learn as much French as possible.
5. I love learning French.

Negatively Worded Items

1. I hate French.
2. I would rather spend my time on subjects other than French.
3. Learning French is a waste of time.
4. I think that learning French is dull.
5. When I leave school, I shall give up the study of French entirely because I am not interested in it.
Integrative Orientation

1. Studying French can be important to me because it will allow me to be more at ease with fellow Canadians who speak French.
2. Studying French can be important for me because it will allow me to meet and converse with more and varied people.
3. Studying French can be important for me because it will enable me to better understand and appreciate French Canadian art and literature.
4. Studying French can be important for me because I will be able to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural groups.

Instrumental Orientation

1. Studying French can be important for me only because I'll need it for my future career.
2. Studying French can be important for me because it will make me a more knowledgeable person.
3. Studying French can be important to me because I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job.
4. Studying French can be important for me because other people will respect me more if I have a knowledge of a foreign language.

French Class Anxiety

1. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in our French class.
2. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in our French class.
3. I always feel that the other students speak French better than I do.
4. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my French class.
5. I am afraid the other students will laugh at me when I speak French.

Parental Encouragement

1. My parents try to help me with my French.
2. My parents feel that because we live in Canada, I should learn French.
3. My parents feel that I should continue studying French all through school.
4. My parents think I should devote more time to my French studies.
5. My parents really encourage me to study French.
6. My parents show considerable interest in anything to do with my French courses.
7. My parents encourage me to practise my French as much as possible.
8. My parents have stressed the importance French will have for me when I leave school.
9. My parents feel that I should really try to learn French.
10. My parents urge me to seek help from my teacher if I am having problems with my French.
### Appendix C

Dörnyei’s (1994) Components of Foreign Language Learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LANGUAGE LEVEL</th>
<th>Integrative motivational subsystem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Instrumental motivational subsystem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LEARNER LEVEL</td>
<td>Need for achievement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-confidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Language use anxiety</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Perceived L2 competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Causal attributions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-efficacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LEARNING SITUATION LEVEL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course-specific motivational</td>
<td>Interest (in the course)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>components</td>
<td>Relevance (of the course to one’s needs)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expectancy (of success)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Satisfaction (one has in the outcome)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher-specific motivational</td>
<td>Affiliative motive (to please the teacher)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>components</td>
<td>Authority type (controlling vs. autonomy-supporting)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Direct socialisation of motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Modelling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Task presentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group-specific motivational</td>
<td>Goal-orientedness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Components</td>
<td>Norm and reward system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group cohesiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Classroom goal structure (cooperative, competitive or individualistic)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix D

Williams and Burden’s Framework of L2 Motivation

Motivational Strategies in the language classroom

Table 3 Williams and Burden’s (1997) framework of L2 motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INTERNAL FACTORS</th>
<th>EXTERNAL FACTORS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic interest of activity</td>
<td>Significant others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• arousal of curiosity</td>
<td>• parents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• optimal degree of challenge</td>
<td>• teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived value of activity</td>
<td>• peers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• personal relevance</td>
<td>• The nature of interaction with significant others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• anticipated value of outcomes</td>
<td>• mediated learning experiences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• intrinsic value attributed to the activity</td>
<td>• the nature and amount of feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sense of agency</td>
<td>• rewards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• locus of causality</td>
<td>• the nature and amount of appropriate praise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• locus of control re: process and outcomes</td>
<td>• punishments, sanctions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• ability to set appropriate goals</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mastery</td>
<td>The learning environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• feelings of competence</td>
<td>• comfort</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• awareness of developing skills and mastery in a chosen area</td>
<td>• resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• self-efficacy</td>
<td>• time of day, week, year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-concept</td>
<td>• size of class and school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• realistic awareness of personal strengths and weaknesses in skills required</td>
<td>• class and school ethos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• personal definitions and judgements of success and failure</td>
<td>The broader context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• self-worth concern</td>
<td>• wider family networks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• learned helplessness</td>
<td>• the local education system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes</td>
<td>• conflicting interests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• to language learning in general</td>
<td>• cultural norms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• to the target language</td>
<td>• societal expectations and attitudes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• to the target language community and culture</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other affective states</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• confidence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• anxiety, fear</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developmental age and stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix E

Dörnyei and Otto’s Process Model of L2 Motivation

Appendix F

Dörnyei’s Process Model of L2 Motivation

Dörnyei, 2001, p. 22.
Appendix G

Questions Guiding Data Collection

1. What general motivation orientation does each student exhibit?

2. What are the factors that initially motivated each student to embark on their course of study?

3. What are the language learning motivations of each student at the middle point of their course, and after completing their 20 week course of study?

4. What are the student’s perceptions of the English language and of New Zealanders?

5. How does the student view the New Zealand learning environment, compared with their previous learning environment in China?

6. Are there any common motivational factors among students who share a common cultural background?
Appendix H

Participant Information Sheet

INFORMATION SHEET FOR PARTICIPANTS

Topic: The Language Learning Motivations of Students of English from a Chinese Cultural Background

Thank you for showing an interest in this study. Please read this information sheet carefully before deciding whether or not to participate. If you decide to participate I thank you.

If you decide not to take part in this study that is ok, there will be no disadvantage to you of any kind and I thank you for considering our request.

What is the aim of this study?

I am a Masters student in linguistics at Otago University. I am interested in finding out why students from China study English and what they think about the New Zealand style of teaching. I plan to interview between four and six people from China. These participants will be interviewed three times: once at the beginning of their time at the Language Centre; then after one term of study at the Language Centre; and finally after two terms of study here. This will help me to find out whether the participants ideas have changed over their time in New Zealand. The interviews will be recorded. Afterwards, I will listen to the interview tapes and write down what was said. This will help me to understand reasons why these students are studying here and compare the reasons given by different speakers. By doing this
project, I will learn more about why people from a Chinese cultural background study English and what each person thinks about the New Zealand classroom.

**What type of participants are we looking for?**

Participants who are from mainland China and are studying English at Otago Language Centre for at least two terms.

**What will Participants be Asked to Do?**

Should you agree to participate in this study, you will:

- Be interviewed **three times**. Each interview should take approximately **45 minutes**. A Chinese-speaking translator will be present at the interview to explain any words or ideas that you find difficult to understand in English. The interview will be audio recorded.

- In interview one and three you will be asked to complete a short **questionnaire** about you motivations for learning English. This should take about **20 minutes**.

- You will also be asked to write a **short essay** about why you want to learn English at the beginning of the study and at the end of the study. You can choose to write this essay in Chinese or in English. This essay should only take between **1 hour and 1.5 hours** to write.

The **total amount of time** that is requested of you is approximately **6 hours** over a period of 20 weeks.
How will this project help?

Anything you say or write during this study will be helpful for my research. Taking part in this project may help you feel more comfortable speaking to people or being recorded. It will also give you more practice speaking and writing in English. Please be aware that you may decide not to take part in this project without any disadvantage to yourself of any kind.

Can participants change their mind and withdraw from the project?

You may withdraw from participation in this project at any time and without any disadvantage to yourself of any kind.

What data or information will be collected and how will we use it?

The data that is to be collected is the answers given during the interviews, the responses to the two questionnaires, and the two written essays. Biographical data such as age, gender, nationality and languages spoken will also be collected.

This project involves asking a series of pre-planned questions. However, the interviewer may ask some additional questions to clarify your responses. Consequently, although the University of Otago Human Ethics Committee is aware of the pre-planned questions that will be asked in the interview, some additional, related questions may be asked, that the Committee has not been able to review.
In the event that the questioning makes you feel hesitant or uncomfortable you are reminded of your right to refuse to answer any particular question(s) and also to withdraw from the study at any stage without any disadvantage to yourself of any kind.

The data collected will only be used for me transcribe and analyse for my Masters study. The only people that will have access to it are me, the Chinese translator and my course supervisor.

**How will the information from the interviews be used?**

The results of the study will be published and will be available in the library but every attempt will be made to preserve your anonymity. Participant’s names will not be published. You are most welcome to request a copy of the project should you wish.

The data collected will be securely stored in such a way that only those mentioned above will be able to gain access to it. At the end of the study any personal information will be destroyed immediately except that, as required by the University’s research policy, any raw data that is used in the study will be kept in secure storage for five years, after which it will be destroyed.

Reasonable precautions will be taken to destroy data gathered by email. However, the security of electronically transmitted information cannot be guaranteed. Caution
is advised in the electronic transmission of sensitive material.

**What if participants have any questions?**

If you have any questions about this study, either now or in the future, please feel free to contact:-

Sarah Mearns
Researcher
Home: (07) 4710001
Email: measa249@student.otago.ac.nz
Appendix I

Participant Consent Form

CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPANTS

Topic: The Language Learning Motivations of Students of English from A Chinese Cultural Background

I have read the Information Sheet concerning this project and understand what it is about. All my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I understand I am free to ask for further information at any time.

I know that:-

1. my participation in the study is entirely voluntary;
2. I am free to withdraw from the study at any time without any disadvantage;
3. The data on audio-tapes will be destroyed at the conclusion of this study but any raw data that is used in the study will be kept in secure storage for five years, after which it will be destroyed;
4. this project involves asking a series of pre-planned questions, however, the interviewer may ask some additional questions to clarify my responses and that in the event that the questioning makes you feel hesitant or uncomfortable I may refuse to answer any particular question(s) and also to withdraw from the study at any stage without any disadvantage to myself of any kind;
5. while people are sometimes nervous about being recorded, there is no evaluation
of your performance. Anything I say and any way I say it will be helpful for my project. Taking part in this project may help you feel more comfortable about speaking to people or being recorded in the future. Please be aware that you may decide not to take part in this project without any disadvantage to yourself of any kind;

6. the results of this project may be published and available in the library but every attempt will be made to preserve my anonymity;

7. I understand that reasonable precautions have been taken to protect data transmitted by email but that the security of information cannot be guaranteed.

I agree to take part I this project.

________________________________________  ______________________
(Signature of participant)    (Date)
Appendix J

The Basis of the Questionnaire from Gardner’s (1985) AMTB

Appendix A.2

The following instructions precede the items for the scales, Motivational Intensity, Desire to Learn French, and Orientation Index. The scoring key is not shown on the questionnaire when administered, and the items are presented in a random order.

Please answer the following items by circling the letter of the alternative which appears most applicable to you. We would urge you to be as accurate as possible since the success of this investigation depends upon it.

Items for the Scales Using the Multiple Choice Format

Motivational Intensity

Scoring Key

I actively think about what I have learned in my French class:

3  a) very frequently.
1  b) hardly ever.
2  c) once in awhile.

If French were not taught in school, I would:

2  a) pick up French in everyday situations (i.e., read French books and newspapers, try to speak it whenever possible, etc.).
1  b) not bother learning French at all.
3  c) try to obtain lessons in French somewhere else.

When I have a problem understanding something we are learning in French class, I:

3  a) immediately ask the teacher for help.
2  b) only seek help just before the exam.
1  c) just forget about it.

When it comes to French homework, I:

2  a) put some effort into it, but not as much as I could.
3  b) work very carefully, making sure I understand everything.
1  c) just skim over it.

Considering how I study French, I can honestly say that I:

2  a) do just enough work to get along.
1  b) will pass on the basis of sheer luck or intelligence because I do very little work.
3  c) really try to learn French.

If my teacher wanted someone to do an extra French assignment, I would:

1  a) definitely not volunteer.
3  b) definitely volunteer.
2  c) only do it if the teacher asked me directly.

After I get my French assignment back, I:
When I am in French class, I:
1) volunteer answers as much as possible.
2) answer only the easier questions.
3) never say anything.

If there were a local French T.V. station, I would:
1) never watch it.
2) turn it on occasionally.
3) try to watch it often.

When I hear a French song on the radio, I:
1) listen to the music, paying attention only to the easy words.
2) listen carefully and try to understand all the words.
3) change the station.

Desire to Learn French

During French class, I would like:
1) to have a combination of French and English spoken.
2) to have as much English as possible spoken.
3) to have only French spoken.

If I had the opportunity to speak French outside of school, I would:
1) never speak it.
2) speak French most of the time, using English only if really necessary.
3) speak it occasionally, using English whenever possible.

Compared to my other courses, I like French:
1) the most.
2) the same as all the others.
3) least of all.

If there were a French Club in my school, I would:
1) attend meetings once in awhile.
2) be most interested in joining.
3) definitely not join.

If it were up to me whether or not to take French, I:
1) would definitely take it.
2) would drop it.
3) don’t know whether I would take it or not.

I find studying French:
1) not interesting at all.
b) no more interesting than most subjects.

c) very interesting.

If the opportunity arose and I knew enough French, I would watch French T.V. programmes:
2  a) sometimes.
3  b) as often as possible.
1  c) never

If I had the opportunity to see a French play, I would:
2  a) go only if I have nothing else to do.
3  b) definitely go.
1  c) not go.

If there were French-speaking families in my neighbourhood, I would:
2  a) never speak French to them.
3  b) speak French with them sometimes.
1  c) speak French with them as much as possible.

If I had the opportunity and knew enough French, I would read French magazines and newspapers:
3  a) as often as I could.
1  b) never.
2  c) not very often.

Orientation Index

I am studying French because:
1  a) I think it will some day be useful in getting a good job.
2  b) I think it will help me to better understand French people and way of life.
2  c) It will allow me to meet and converse with more and varied people.
1  d) A knowledge of two languages will make me a better educated person.
Appendix K

Questionnaire

My English Study

The purpose of this questionnaire is to find out a little more how you feel about learning English and your reasons for learning English.

- You will read some statements and will be asked to circle the alternative (a, b, or c) which you agree with the most.

- There is no right or wrong answer. All we want to know is what you think about each of these things.

- If there are any words or questions that you do not understand please ask and we will explain them to you.

Please circle the alternative (a, b, or c) which you agree with the most.

Motivational intensity

When I go home, I think about what I have learnt in my English class:

a. a lot.
b. almost never.
c. sometimes.

If I was unable to study English at a language school I would:

a. study some English on my own from books and tapes.
b. stop studying English.
c. find another kind of English class and attend e.g. night classes.

When I have a problem understanding something in my English class I:

a. immediately try and find the answer.
b. wait until I have a test and then try and find the answer.
c. just forget about it.

When I have English homework to do I:

a. complete it, but do not worry if I do not understand everything.
b. work hard, making sure that I understand everything.
c. do it quickly so that I can do other things.

When I think about how I study English I would say I:
a. sometimes work hard to learn English.
b. don’t work very hard to learn English.
c. always work hard to learn English.

If my teacher wanted somebody to do an extra English assignment I would:

a. say no.
b. say yes.
c. agree to do it only if she told me I had to do it.

When my teacher gives me back my English assignment I:

a. look carefully at it, and make sure I understand my mistakes.
b. just put the assignment in my bag and don’t look at it.
c. look at the assignment, but don’t take time to understand my mistakes.

When I am in English class I:

a. answer a lot of questions that the teacher asks us.
b. answer only the easier questions that the teacher asks us.
c. never answer any questions unless I have to.

I watch English T.V:

a. never.
b. sometimes.
c. a lot.

When I hear an English song on the radio I:

a. listen carefully, trying to understand all of the words.
b. listen, but do not try and understand all of the words.
c. turn the radio off.

During English class I would like:

a. to speak both Chinese and English.
b. to speak mostly Chinese.
c. to speak only English.

Outside of the Language Centre I:

a. try never to speak English.
b. try to speak English most of the time instead of Chinese.
c. speak English sometimes, but mostly speak Chinese.

Compared with other subjects I think English is:

a. the best.
b. the same as all other subjects.
c. the worst.

If there were an English Club in my neighbourhood in China I would:

a. go there sometimes.
b. go there a lot.
c. never go there

If I could choose to study English or not I:

a. would definitely study English.
b. would not study English.
c. am unsure whether I would study English.

I think studying English is:

a. boring.
b. sometimes interesting.
c. very interesting.

If I learnt English very well I would watch English T.V. programmes:

a. sometimes.
b. a lot.
c. never.

If I had the opportunity to go to see an English play I would:

a. go only if I had to.
b. definitely go.
c. not go.

If there were English-speaking families in my neighbourhood in China I would:

a. Never speak English to them.
b. speak English with them sometimes.
c. speak English with them a lot.

If I knew English very well I would read English magazines and newspapers:
a. as often as I could.
b. never.
c. sometimes.
Appendix L

Transcription Conventions

Transcription Key

- **Boldface**  
  Words said in Chinese

- **Bold and italicised**  
  Chinese words with no English equivalent

- **Plain font**  
  Words said in English

- **A sequence of dots …**  
  A sequence of dots indicate a pause

- **Underline**  
  Underlining indicates a word that was emphasised

- **?**  
  Rising intonation

- **.**  
  Falling intonation

- **(?)**  
  Incomprehensible word or phrase

- **y-**  
  A hyphen after a sound indicates a false start

- **y--**  
  A double hyphen indicates an interruption from another speaker

- **S-P-E-L-L**  
  A series of capital letters separated with hyphens indicates the speaker spelling a word aloud

- **(laugh)**  
  Non-linguistic utterances such as laughter or coughing are enclosed (cough)

- **R**  
  Represents the researcher
Appendix M

Example of an Annotated Interview Transcript