MOTIVATING LANGUAGE LEARNERS:
A CLASSROOM-ORIENTED INVESTIGATION OF TEACHERS'
MOTIVATIONAL PRACTICES AND STUDENTS' MOTIVATION

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Abstract

The teacher's use of motivational strategies is generally believed to enhance student motivation, yet there is scant empirical evidence to support this claim. This classroom-oriented investigation focused on how the motivational practices of EFL teachers in South Korea related to students' L2 motivation and motivated classroom behavior. In a first phase, the motivation of over 1,300 students was measured by a self-report questionnaire, and the use of motivational strategies by 27 teachers in 20 different schools was examined with a classroom observation instrument specifically developed for this investigation, the Motivation Orientation of Language Teaching (MOLT). The MOLT scheme, along with a post hoc rating scale completed by the observer, was used to assess the teachers' use of motivational strategies. The MOLT follows the real-time coding principle of Spada and Fröhlich's (1995) Communication Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) scheme, but uses categories of observable teacher behaviors derived from Dörnyei's (2001) motivational strategies framework for foreign language classrooms. The results indicate that the language teachers' motivational practice is directly linked to increased levels of the learners' motivated learning behavior and their motivational state. In a second phase, three high- and three low-motivation learner groups (selected from the initial sample) were compared in order to uncover the students' interpretations and understandings of the quality of their L2 instructional contexts in relation to their motivation and motivated classroom behavior. Results based on quantitative and qualitative datan (which were obtained using three new instruments specifically designed for this study) indicated that the motivational practices coexisting with different levels of motivation were woven into the contents and processes of L2 instruction and instruction in general. These contents and processes seemed to stem from teachers' and students' beliefs about what counts as learning in the L2 classroom and what is the best way to learn an L2.

Publications

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Can foreign language teachers do anything to improve their students' motivation? At a time when many students tend to opt out of foreign language (L2) learning as soon as they can, and even passively or actively resist attempts by teachers to involve them in L2 learning activities, it is hoped that theories of motivation will help L2 teachers to motivate their students. Theories of motivation generally seek to explain why and how individuals choose, perform, and persist in various activities, but ultimately, they are also expected to provide insights to those whose job it is to attempt to motivate others. Indeed, teachers are more interested in finding out what they can do to overcome deficits in students' motivation to learn than they are in explanations of what accounts for amounts of variance in language proficiency (a typical preoccupation in research). More specifically, teachers are eager to find ways of increasing the quantity and quality of students' engagement in learning activities, since students' active participation in class helps everyone learn more efficiently, and makes life more pleasant in the classroom.

Promoting engagement in classroom activities is especially important in foreign language learning contexts (as opposed to second language learning contexts) because communication in the L2 rarely occurs outside of the classroom. Yet, low L2 learning motivation in secondary schools, and concomitant low engagement in classroom activities represent a significant problem, which is compounded by the compulsory nature of most L2 study (Dörnyei, 2001c). Students often complain that L2 study is irrelevant to them, and frequently describe it as boring and difficult (Chambers, 1999). It is difficult to imagine that teachers bear no responsibility in this matter.

1.1 RATIONALE

Since Gardner and Lambert's (1959) pioneering social psychological approach to the study of L2 learning motivation, over four decades of research have demonstrated the importance of context in L2 learning motivation. Nevertheless, because of the emphasis in its conceptualization on the macro aspects of the social context, it is now widely accepted that

the research carried out within Gardner's social psychological paradigm provides highly pertinent insights into the relations between students' general attitudes toward L2 learning and L2 achievement but does not yield applications that are sufficiently helpful to L2 teachers. It appears that teachers are far more interested in motivating the students sitting in their classrooms than they are in the structure of their students' motivation. Since the 1990s, motivation research in the L2 field has been striving to respond to this criticism by becoming more teacher-friendly and focusing more on the micro context in which L2 learning takes place. For instance, a number of publications have described ways in which L2 teachers can intervene to promote students' motivation (e.g., Dörnyei, 2001a; Dörnyei & Malderez, 1999; Williams & Burden, 1997). Yet, as Gardner and Tremblay (1994) pointed out more than a decade ago, such motivational interventions, or motivational strategies as they are often referred to, can only be considered mere hypotheses until a systematic body of empirical research has demonstrated their effect on student motivation. This thesis represents an effort in this direction.

More recently, Dörnyei (2003a) and McGroarty (2001) have highlighted the need to explore L2 motivation grounded in concrete classroom situations. To this effect, Dörnyei (2003a) suggested focusing on students' learning behaviors (e.g., their levels of willingness to communicate[1] in the foreign language, engagement in learning activities, or use of self-regulation strategies) as dependent variables. The research reported here constitutes a response to these suggestions because it investigates students' engagement in learning activities that take place in their regular lessons.

1.2 MOTIVATION IN CONTEXT

The study of the dynamics of motivation in natural classrooms represents a trend that emerged in the field of educational psychology in the late 1980s, and gained popularity in the 1990s. It covers a variety of approaches, which have different names depending on the researchers' epistemological stance. For instance, it is referred to as the situated or context-sensitive perspective within a socio-cognitive framework (e.g., Boekaerts, 2001), and as the situative perspective within a sociocultural/socio-historical framework (e.g., Hickey & McCaslin, 2001; Op't Eynde, De Corte, & Verschaffel, 2001; Turner, 2001), or even as the cognitive-situative perspective (Volet, 2001a). Different intellectual traditions also tend to favor certain methods when researching contexts. For instance, contexts can be observed and described by an outsider (which represents an objective perspective of a material reality), or

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[1] For a comprehensive definition of the concept, see MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, and Noels (1998).

they can be examined through students' appraisals (which stand for a subjective perspective of a social reality). While researchers coming from all intellectual traditions tend to agree that it is important to combine the various theoretical approaches and methods, there are nevertheless tensions revolving around whether the context should be regarded as affecting an individual's motivation and behavior (as in the socio-cognitive view), or whether the context should subsume the individual (as in the sociocultural/socio-historical view).

In the L2 field, the study of motivation in context is referred to as the *situation-specific approach* (Dörnyei, 2002), or the *situated approach* (Dörnyei, 2005). According to Dörnyei (2005), this approach is process-oriented, and focuses on motivated language behaviors within the L2 classroom as outcomes, as opposed to adopting language-learning outcomes as the criterion measure for motivation. It is therefore socio-cognitive in nature. However, Dörnyei (2002) outlines an even more situated approach, pioneered in the L2 field by Julkunen (1989, 2001), which is termed *task motivation* (or *task-specific motivation*). The investigation of task-motivation entails inquiring into the motivational processes that fuel the quantity and quality of students' on-task behavior, using a learning task as the unit of analysis. It thus appears similar to the situative approach mentioned above. However, task motivation is rooted in a group dynamics view of the social context, as opposed to stemming from a sociocultural perspective. The group dynamics view regards task motivation as "*co-constructed*, that is, shaped by the dynamic interplay of the task participants' motivation" (Dörnyei, 2002, p. 144, original italics).

At the inception of this thesis in early 2003, a search of the L2 learning motivation literature revealed an absence of empirical studies focusing on the ebb and flow of learners' engagement in activities during non-experimental lessons, in relation to their teachers' instructional practices and use of motivational strategies. Perhaps, this can be explained to some extent by the fact that investigations of students' motivation and teachers' instructional practices during lessons is both complex and "messy" (Turner & Meyer, 2000). Yet, motivation can no longer be considered as mainly static and determined by cognitions. Authentic learning contexts are fluid and unique, if only because the contents of lessons and the immediate social context always change (Boekaerts, 2001). Consequently, the dynamic properties of motivation in such contexts become more obvious, as does the influence of students' emotions arising from their subjective appraisals (i.e., perceptions and interpretations) of specific learning situations. These appraisals are themselves set against a background of moods (i.e., relatively enduring emotional states) that students bring into the classroom from their daily life contexts.

Some models of L2 learning motivation (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998; Ushioda, 1998; Williams & Burden, 1997) do describe motivational processes as they happen over time, and are useful when it comes to accounting for variations of motivational intensity over time (e.g.,

during a task that requires sustained effort and thought, or during the years required to master an L2). However, these models of motivation do not appear to be particularly well suited to the study of the momentary fluctuations of motivated behavior over the course of a single period of non-experimental classroom instruction. This is because L2 lessons in secondary schools tend to offer a succession of brief activities (e.g., lasting 5 or 10 minutes each, or even less), which seldom promote deep attention to meaning or higher-level thinking skills. Consequently, in my interpretation of the results of the study presented here, I draw on Kuhl's (2000b) Theory of Volitional Action and Dörnyei's (2005) Task-Processing System and L2 Motivational Self System to extend Dörnyei & Ottó's (1998)'s process-oriented model of L2 motivation.

1.3 THEORETICAL APPROACH

The approach I follow stems from the situated approach (e.g., Boekaerts, 2001; Järvelä, 2001). This kind of approach regards the individual as context-sensitive. The demonstration of academic motivation is examined in authentic learning contexts, as it is "experienced at the constantly evolving person-context interface" (Efklides, 2005, p. 379). This requires taking into account general motivational beliefs and orientations, and trying to understand how teachers create learning contexts that support or constrain learners' engagement in learning. Researchers working from a situated perspective investigate the relationships between students' motivational dispositions and their perceptions and interpretations of classroom contexts. Research designs include the use of mixed methods (e.g., deductive and inductive, quantitative and qualitative) and mixed models (e.g., using theories borrowed from different traditions) because it is assumed that different methods and theoretical perspectives can complement each other, thus helping to confirm results, and uncover paradoxes and contradictions.

In this research, my main approach represents an etic perspective. For instance, in the first phase, I investigate the relationships between students' motivational dispositions measured by a questionnaire and my perceptions of their motivated behavior at group level. However, in the second phase, I add an emic perspective when I examine students' perceptions and interpretations of their classroom contexts and analyze these in comjunctiom with my own observations of the same contexts.

1.4 THE RESEARCH SITE: SOUTH KOREA

South Korea is a country that is remarkably homogeneous, where education and academic achievement are generally highly valued by parents and students alike, and where English as a Foreign Language (EFL) is part and parcel of education. Yet, many South Korean secondary school teachers of EFL are concerned about their students' passivity and apparent lack of motivation in lessons. The structure of South Korean students' motivational dispositions toward learning English has been the subject of some investigations. However, there are no published studies to date of the ebb and flow of their motivation during actual learning episodes in the classroom. This thesis sets out to start filling in this gap.

The South Korean setting is interesting for two main reasons. First, a search of the EFL and general motivation literature reveals that, among East Asian countries, South Korea has attracted much less attention than Japan or China. Second, South Korea presents somewhat of a paradox: a strong desire to achieve in English seems prevalent in South Korean society, yet data released in 2003 by the Korea Government Information Agency reported that South Korea ranked 110th worldwide in the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). Such low achievement is intriguing because it is in sharp contrast with South Korean students' high achievement in other subject domains. South Koreans frequently invoke the considerable linguistic distance between Korean and English as being the greatest obstacle for them in mastering English to a high level of proficiency. However, linguistic distance seems an unlikely cause in view of the fact that other speakers of distant first languages (e.g. Hungarians or Arabs) overall manage to become more fluent in English than South Koreans.

1.5 RESEARCH AIMS

In view of the above, the broad aims of this thesis are:
a) To investigate possible links between L2 teachers' motivational practices and their students' motivation;
b) To compare some high- and low-motivation learner groups in terms of their motivational goals and the motivational quality of their L2 learning experiences in order to find out if it might be possible to enhance students' motivation by modifying certain parameters of L2 instructional contexts.

1.6 Initial Limitations of the Study

The first set of limitations was of a pragmatic nature. Similarly to many other PhD studies, the broad parameters of the research were set according to the availability of participants, time constraints, and a very limited amount of personal funds that could be spent on field research. Thus, teacher-participants were recruited among personal acquaintances and among my graduate students, who in turn introduced me to other teachers, and whose principals had given me permission to visit their schools and collect data from their students for the purpose of this research. Field research involved visiting schools located throughout the province where I reside, observing lessons, and administering questionnaires. This process was time-consuming, had to fit in with the individual schools' regular schedules, and with my job work-schedule. Thus, teachers could only be observed for one or two lessons each.

A second set of limitations resulted from my inability to speak Korean beyond very basic classroom language and everyday transactions. This was restrictive in terms of methodology. For instance, it precluded interviewing students, and using classroom discourse analysis (which would always have included Korean in various proportions). However, in order to overcome this problem to some extent, an expert translator was recruited at times to help, in particular, with the design of questionnaires and the translation of responses to open-ended questions.

Finally, the decision to favor breadth over depth was deliberate. The gathering of data at multiple levels, and the use of a *mixed method approach* (which incorporates both deductive and inductive methods as complementary modes of inquiry), provided ways to examine different facets of motivation, and seek convergence of results (Turner, 2001). Furthermore, it fitted in with my plans to create a research base for future, more systematic, research activities within the South Korean middle school setting. In this research, I used a deductive approach in surveys and other quantifiable data but I also utilized qualitative-oriented methods such as classroom observations of the teacher and students, and short-answer questions to represent a more inductive approach.

1.7 Organization of the Thesis

In this introductory chapter, I presented the broad rationale behind this study. This is followed by the literature review, which is split across four chapters (chapters 2, 3, 4, and 5). In Chapter 2, I discuss the place and value in South Korean society of education in general, and of English in particular, as well as the characteristics of English learning as a field of study, with a focus on secondary schools. Chapter 3 provides an overview of motivation theories and

constructs taken from the fields of psychology and educational psychology, selected because they refer to factors that can influence students' academic motivational orientations and beliefs, which in turn may affect the way students perceive and assign meaning to classroom events. Chapter 4 consists of a review of some major theories of L2 learning motivation that are useful for understanding secondary school students' motivation to learn English as a Foreign Language (EFL), with a particular focus on constructs that are helpful for researching L2 learning motivation from a situated, process-oriented perspective. Chapter 5, the last chapter in the literature review, consists of a survey of the field with regard to motivating and includes a review of empirical studies that have investigated aspects of teachers' instructional practices in relation to students' engagement in normal classroom activities.

The study is the focus of the second half of the thesis. Chapter 6 sets out the research design, introduces the methods that were used, and gives a broad outline of the data analysis procedures. Chapters 7 and 8 present and discuss the results pertaining to Phases 1 and 2 of the study, respectively. Chapter 9 concludes the thesis by summarizing the results, discussing the theoretical contributions of the study, suggesting pedagogical implications, noting the limitations, and suggesting potential avenues for further research.

Chapter 2

Education and EFL teaching in South Korea

The fields of psychology (which includes academic motivation research) and psycholinguistics (which includes foreign language learning motivation research) have been dominated by theories emanating from the West. However, the research presented here takes place in a radically different context, that of an East Asian country. Consequently, in this chapter, I discuss the unique cultural and historical factors that have shaped the development of the South Korean educational system as a whole. I then follow with an overview of South Koreans' attitudes toward learning English, the EFL education provision in secondary schools and private language schools, and the general features of the national curriculum for EFL in middle school (the equivalent of Years 8, 9 and 10 in England). I conclude by outlining how the national curriculum tends to be translated into practice.

2.1 EDUCATION IN SOUTH KOREA: KNOWING ABOUT THE PAST TO UNDERSTAND THE PRESENT

Two main characteristics contribute to making South Korea a unique research setting. First, the country is one of the most culturally, ethnically, and linguistically homogeneous in the world (Further Education Funding Council, 1998). Second, South Koreans' strong zeal for education is unparalleled in the world (OECD, 1998). The South Korean education system is different from education systems in other countries because of the unique combination of a number of features. First, there is the early dominance and continuing presence of Confucian values linking educational achievement to moral virtue. Secokjnjjnkjbjhnd, unique historical developments led to the rapid build-up of the modern education system, which was influenced first by the Japanese, then by the Americans. Finally yet importantly, there is the national preoccupation with educational achievement and competitive examinations, often referred to as "education fever," and its concomitant "examination hell." Such preoccupation has deep historical roots, is present in all social groups, and often runs counter to the government's

attempts to coordinate education with the economic needs of the country. Each of these features will now be examined.

2.1.1 Korean Neo-Confucianism, Confucianism, and contemporary family values

Korean Neo-Confucianism.

Korea is often described as the most Confucian country in the Confucian sphere of Asia. From the 4th to the late 15th century, the influence of Confucianism[2], a philosophy that originated in China, was limited. However, it extended to the social and personal lives of Koreans (and to the education system) when, in 1492, Korea adopted a political system based on an indigenous form of Neo-Confucianism, which is essentially a rigidly prescriptive interpretation of Confucianism. Neo-Confucianism established numerous observances in order to regulate all interpersonal relationships, and enforced strict adherence to these regulations through apportioning collective responsibility and meting out collective punishment (e.g., to a whole family) for the misbehavior of one group member. Such enforcement methods also applied to schools, right up to the 1970s (De Mente, 2004). This form of government survived for about 400 years, and served as a means to justify the oppression of 90% of the population by the upper class (Park & Kim, 1998).

Confucianism.

According to the Chinese Classics, the fundamental principles of Confucianism apply to two dimensions of human life, which represent two sides of the same coin. The first dimension is the intrapersonal, which is comprised of life-long learning (i.e., developing one's knowledge "to its utmost extent," Chû Shî, cited in Legge, 1960), and self-cultivation (i.e., the pursuit of harmony with oneself, others, and nature). "Self-cultivation" starts with the self-regulation of material, physical, and selfish desires in order to devote oneself to the pursuit of virtue, moral integrity, benevolence, and the observance of the "rules of propriety" (see next paragraph). The aim is to achieve moral enlightenment through the individual and sincere pursuit of virtue, which must be reflected in behavior that is also "sincere", that is, coming effortlessly from both the mind and the heart (Kim & Park, 2000).

The second dimension of human life is the interpersonal. It subsumes "loving the people", and "*renovating the people*" (i.e., bringing about the same result in every other person; Legge, 1960). *Loving the people* requires one to act with both *jen* ("human-heartedness", i.e.,

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[2] For an overview of Confucian values and their influence on family values and educational achievement, see Kim and Park (2000).

benevolence, goodness, being in sympathy with others), and *yi* ("rightness", i.e., the observance of the rules of propriety). *Jen* and *yi* are inseparable, and must balance each other to maintain equilibrium and harmony within the individual, family and society. *Observing the rules of propriety* refers to knowing one's place and role within the family and within society, and to fulfilling the duties associated to this particular place and role (i.e., doing what is morally "right"), as prescribed by the Confucian doctrine.

Confucianism assumes that personal example and instruction are omnipotent, which translates into teacher-centered instruction. Further, education and scholarship confer moral authority. Consequently, teachers are expected to be strong, moral, and virtuous leaders; in return, they are obeyed and respected.

Contemporary family values.

Family (just like society) is viewed as hierarchically ordered (even between siblings). Relationships are based on benevolence and on the observance of the rules of propriety, rather than on equality and rationality as in the West. There is an emphasis on restraint of the self in order to preserve group harmony. Kim and Park (2000) explain how this translates into the relationship between parents and children:

> Parents demand love, reverence, obedience, and respect from their children. Children expect love, wisdom, and benevolence from their parents. Contrary to the popular misconception of Confucianism, excessive obedience or conformity on the child's part and authoritarianism or indulgence on the parents' part are considered undesirable and immoral…. Being filial to one's parents is not a matter of choice or a behavior in response to feeling indebtedness or gratitude, but it is considered to be a basic duty that everyone must fulfill… [A] father fulfils his duties because he loves his son, and he loves his son because he is the father (p.232).

2.1.2 Development of the South Korean education system

Early Confucian Education (late 4th century-958).

Education was introduced into Korea after China established suzerainty over the peninsula in 110 B.C. Formal education in Korea started in the late 4th century to teach Chinese ideograms and the Chinese classics to the sons of the upper classes, who were expected to become the future elite (Kim & Park, 2000). In theory, education was open to anyone, but in practice, the ruling class thought it was undesirable for commoners to be educated, and only the upper classes could afford the long years of study required to master the Chinese classics (Seth, 2002).

The deep roots of contemporary "education fever" and "examination hell": The civil service examinations (958-1894).

In 958, Korea adopted a series of highly competitive civil service examinations modeled on the Chinese system. Candidates had to demonstrate their knowledge of the Confucian classics, their ability to write poetry and essays, and their skills in Chinese calligraphy. In theory, the civil service examinations were open to anyone except to members of low caste groups[3]. However, in practice, successful candidates came from the "yangban" literati class, which formed under 10% of the population. Very few commoners took the exams because of restrictions such as regional quotas, the presence of low caste ancestors in applicants' lineages, and the barring of illegitimate sons. Moreover, corruption plagued the system, particularly those examinations that were held at irregular intervals and led to higher government positions than did the regular triennial exams (Won, 1997).

The rewards for passing a civil service examination were considerable. Being successful secured power and prestige in Korean society, as well as a piece of land (Park & Kim, 1999). Consequently, the introduction of the civil service examinations marked the beginning of the popular perception of education no longer as just an end in itself but more as preparation for competitive examinations, success in which would enable the students and their families to climb the social ladder and obtain recognition. In addition, the bias of the civil service examinations toward testing literary-based knowledge and skills for almost a thousand years led the majority of Koreans to develop a negative attitude toward specialist and technical education, a bias that is still in evidence nowadays (Further Education Funding Council, 1998; Seth, 2002).

The civil service examinations of yore have also influenced contemporary teaching, learning, and testing methods. For instance, because students were required to memorize the Chinese classics in order to master them, rote-learning is still strongly in evidence in contemporary South Korean education (Further Education Funding Council, 1998). Furthermore, the present-day mistrust of assessment that is not based on objective paper-and-pencil multiple-choice tests echoes the much older perception that some forms of the civil service examinations that tested applicants' ability to compose essays and poetry between the 14th and 19th centuries were unfair and open to corruption (Won, 1997).

First foreign influence (late 19th century-1910).

From the 14th to the 19th century, Korea remained the Neo-Confucian state par excellence. It virtually closed itself from the rest of the world and became known as the "hermit kingdom."

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[3] For instance, butchers, musicians, actors, prostitutes and slaves. Breen (2004) claims that, during the Joseon Dynasty (1392-1910), government- or privately-owned slaves made up as much as one third of the Korean population.

However, toward the 1880s, a group of Korean scholars who became known as the 'Enlightenment movement' blamed Neo-Confucian conservatism and rampant corruption for the backwardness of the country, and pushed for reform (Park & Kim, 1999). As a result, when the country eventually started to engage in international trade and diplomacy, attempts were made to introduce some Western knowledge and skills. For instance, hoping to spread their ideas among the population, Christian missionaries (mostly Americans) initiated the movement toward educating the masses by founding private schools and public institutes, including schools that taught practical subjects. For Koreans, this was the first exposure to Western educational values.

The movement toward mass education was greatly aided by the abolition of the civil service examinations in 1894. In particular, there was some effort to replace Confucian-oriented learning by a modern curriculum, and to establish schools regulated by the state and supported by it to some small extent. Nevertheless, the government attempts to reform the educational system appeared modest compared with the initiative of private groups and individuals and the bold curricular changes they introduced. Initiatives were further stifled when the Japanese colonized Korea by making it a protectorate in 1905, and by finally annexing it in 1910.

The Japanese influence: Education during the Japanese annexation (1910-1945).
During their thirty-five year occupation of Korea, the Japanese established a highly centralized system of mass education, which they had modeled after the 19th century German "Volksschule" (Kim & Park, 2000). The system implemented in Korea by the Japanese was uniform in content and quality, and aimed to bring the entire school-age population to an elementary level of education (albeit of a type in keeping with their oppressive aims).

Many features of the system that Koreans inherited from the Japanese are still present in contemporary schools, to a lesser or greater extent. For instance, children clean the school premises, including the lavatories. There are strict hierarchical relationships among students of different years, with younger students having to use respectful language to older ones. Instruction is predominantly based on choral recitation and memorization (practices that were already used by Koreans to rote-learn Chinese characters and quote from classical texts). Finally, government agencies maintain strict control of the curriculum, textbooks, and teacher training.

The American influence: Education in the post-liberation period (1945-1950s).
Following the surrender of Japan at the end of World War II, Korea was divided into Soviet and American occupation zones. Under the three year-period of the U.S. Military Government in Korea (USAMGIK), which preceded the creation of the new independent republic of Korea

(South Korea) on 15 August 1948, educating the South Koreans became an American priority. The intention of the USAMGIK was to promote anti-communism and democratic ideals, and raise literacy in the general population in order to bring about economic prosperity. To this effect, pro-reform Korean scholars and philanthropists (some of whom had been educated abroad), in conjunction with the USAMGIK, produced plans for a new education system that were based on the American belief in equal opportunities for all, and on the concept of American progressive education. The new South Korean government embraced the American ideal of education for all but felt that one ingredient was missing from it: an ethical basis. Therefore, it was decided that the new Korean education system would be based on "life-centered" and "morally centered" education (the latter in keeping with Confucian values).

Despite the ravages of the Korean War (1950-1953), the Rhee administration (1948-1960) managed to lay the foundations of this new education system, which included the implementation of an American-style 6-3-3-4 school ladder system in 1949 (i.e., six years in elementary school starting at age 5 or 6, three years in middle school, three years in high school, and four years in university).

Expansion: Quantitative (1960s-1970s), and qualitative (1980s-present).
South Korea's recovery from the devastation left by the Korean War was remarkable. In the 1960s and 1970s, while struggling to establish itself as a democracy, the country made rapid economic progress, and underwent profound social changes. The quick expansion of educational opportunities brought a sharp increase in the number of students, stiff competition to get into middle schools, high schools and higher education, but also deterioration in the quality of education (Cheong Wa Dae, n.d.). Since then, the pursuit to improve the quality of education has been relentless, leading, for instance, to reforms of the teacher education system, and regular revisions of the curriculum and teaching methods (Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, Republic of Korea, 2003). As a result, from having one of the lowest literacy and educational achievement levels in the world in 1960, South Korea now has one of the highest literacy rates in the world, as well as youngsters achieving top scores on international benchmark tests in math and science (Kim & Park, 2004).

2.1.3 "Education fever"

What is remarkable about the South Korean context is the degree to which people from all kinds of social backgrounds value educational achievement because of the social and economic rewards that it brings, not just to themselves, but also to their family. Park and Kim

(1998) have documented the high degree of congruence found among Korean parents, students, and teachers' beliefs about the goals of education, and the means to achieve them, which even leads to strong resistance to government proposals for educational reform, should reforms run counter to parents, students, and teachers' beliefs (Seth, 2002).

In Korea, social, financial, and intellectual success is dependent on gaining entrance into one of the elite universities in the country. Thus, students, parents, and teachers attach extremely high importance to obtaining a very high score in the university entrance examination (Hong & O'Neil, 2001). The rewards of getting accepted into a university, and preferably into one of the top universities in Seoul, are aptly summarized by Breen (2004):

> [S]chool and university provide Koreans with the most important social network in their life. Old Boyism works rather like the public school and Oxbridge system in that the higher the establishment is on a scale, the greater the sense of mutual support. If you are a graduate from a top university you can be confident that there are tens of thousands of 'seniors' out there who will do favours for you (p. 65).

Park and Kim (1998) explain how motivation to achieve (along with other attitudes and beliefs) has come to be shared by most Koreans. They argue that it is based on a strong affiliative motive, which is the outcome of the Korean interdependent mother-child relationship. This relationship is described as one of selfless devotion and dependence, culminating in the assimilation by children of those values and beliefs that are deemed appropriate within South Korean society. The mothers' indulgent devotion to their children, a critical component of their individual and social identity as mothers, results in a close relationship that provides children with emotional and physical security. Maintaining this close relationship and its resulting feeling of security strongly motivates children to please their mothers, who progressively encourage their children to extend the same kind of interdependent relationship to other members of the family and to teachers. Moreover, children soon come to realize that many mothers tend to regard their children's accomplishments as their own. Consequently, many students of all ages feel motivated to fulfill their mothers' aspirations vicariously, or at least to achieve for their family. This leads to an unusually high degree of compatibility (by Western standards) between students' values, those of their family, and those of teachers.

2.1.4 "Examination hell"

Recall that, in Korea, education traditionally earned people a respected position in society. Moreover, it has also been the means to climb the social ladder, particularly in the past three decades. Success in highly competitive examinations for government positions at provincial

or national levels, in the past as well as in the present, has always been, and continues to be sought after. In the same way that formal education from the 14th century to 1910 was largely organized toward the preparation for the competitive civil service examinations, it is no exaggeration to say that the contemporary South Korean educational system is also focused on preparing students for the university entrance examination, called the College Scholastic Aptitude Test (CSAT). The emphasis on academic achievement, particularly in the CSAT, and the competitive atmosphere are such that they exert a downward pressure, even on preschool education (Breen, 2004; Kwon, 2002).

To Westerners, it may appear as if Koreans are test and competition obsessed. Indeed, it is even mentioned by Korean researchers (e.g., Bong, 2003). Competition and test taking seem to be part of most people's lives as long as they are at school, employed in large companies, or seeking employment. Consequently, role models abound for students, be they peers or family. The bookstores are packed with thick manuals purporting to be the best to prepare you for TOEIC, TOEFL, IELTS, Junior TOEIC, to name but a few, for exams in how to use various software packages, word-processing skills, etc. Many people of all ages always seem to be preparing for some test or contest, to gain qualifications and/or promotion. School students of all ages are regularly entered for a number of contests such as English speech contests or science contests. Such contests usually take place at district, then provincial, and national levels.

School assessment of students is also competitive. Bong (2003) aptly describes the system:

> Students are constantly provided with the opportunity to gauge their performances in relation to those of their peers…. Report cards include students' within-class and within-grade rankings that further highlight students' normative standings…. In Korean secondary schools, a handful of test scores determine most of the subject grades. Progress is difficult to demonstrate unless they materialize as higher test scores. Even substantially improved scores cannot guarantee better grades if other students have performed better (pp. 333-334).

Numerous books offering practice multiple-choice questions based on national curriculum contents are on sale in the bookstores, and business is brisk in the "cram schools" that specialize in test-taking skill practice in various subjects. "Cram schools" operate mini-buses that pick up children before their lessons (sometimes as early as 5:30 a.m.) and then take them to school in the morning. Many children must be in school for private study in their classrooms by 7:30 a.m. When school finishes, usually around 4 p.m., some may have supplementary lessons in school (conducted by their regular teacher but for which the students must pay a fee), others may go back to "cram school" until midnight, or even later. High schools stay open seven days a week until at least 10:30 p.m., and many students are required to stay there for private study. Extra classes are also held during the school vacations.

In fact, there is no vacation for the students who are in their last two years of high school until the CSAT is over. Children often say, "If I sleep more than four hours, I'll have no hope whatsoever of getting into Seoul National University."

The CSAT is a one-day, all multiple-choice examination, covering all subjects. It takes place only once a year every November. Children who are goal-oriented and supported by their family and friends, and who are still very much in the majority, are well aware of how crucial gaining a high score in that exam is for their future. They regard the sacrifices they have to make, and the lack of sleep, as a small price to pay so they can realize their "dream." Diligence, family values, pursuing your dream are all values that are emphasized on television, even in commercials. These values are pervasive in South Korean society.

2.1.5 Equalization: Pursuing the egalitarian ideal of uniformity in education

Even though rank and status have always been important in South Korean culture, since the 20th century, a somewhat contradictory belief has emerged, namely, the egalitarian ideal of "uniformity in education." Seth (2002) claims that it is the result of an "intolerance of glaring social inequalities" stemming from the pride most Koreans take in being "'t'ong-il minjok' (united race/nation), a nation of one people, 'a single blood', and even 'a single mind'" (p. 145).

"Uniformity in education" includes two concepts: uniformity of educational content and quality (principles also shared with Japan, Taiwan, Singapore and Hong Kong), and the opening of educational opportunities to all in a fair way. The South Korean state has translated the principle of "uniformity in education" into an effort to equalize all schools so none acquire a better reputation than others—be they government schools or private schools, in Seoul or in the provinces, in urban or rural areas, or in poor or rich neighborhoods. The measures taken in pursuit of this aim are: regular rotation of teachers, vice-principals and principals; attempts to modify examinations so that extra tutoring only brings marginal advantages; and the imposition of identical regulations of tuition fees, admission procedures, curriculum, and facilities, in both government schools and private schools.

There are three types of schools in South Korea: those founded by central government ("national schools"), those founded by local government ("public schools"), and those that were started by private foundations ("private schools"). The ratio of private schools to government schools is high, compared with that of most other countries. In 2002, 24.2% of all middle schools and 46.1% of all high schools were private (Kim & Han, 2002). This is the result of past government policy, which, in order to expand secondary education rapidly at

minimum government expense, offered generous incentives to private foundations wanting to build schools.

Nowadays, the government pays the salaries of private school teachers. However, the government's support of private education is counterbalanced by strict control over private schools' student admission procedures, the curriculum, tuition fees, and facilities, which must all be the same as in government schools. For instance, South Korean students are allocated places in either public or private schools within their local education district by lottery (Further Education Funding Council, 1998; Kim & Han, 2002; Seth, 2002). Elementary and middle school education is now free, in both government and private schools. High school tuition fees still have to be paid by parents but the fees are the same in both government and private high schools (Kim & Han, 2002). Consequently, from a student point of view, there is hardly any difference between attending a government or a private school. This situation stands in sharp contrast with that in other countries such as the U.K.

Despite the measures mentioned above, the system does not fully succeed in equalizing the schools across the country because the concentration in certain urban districts of wealthier families, who can afford private tutoring, has created differences in academic excellence at the school district level. Districts cannot be too large, or else students would face an extraordinary long bus journey to school. Since high school students are often required to be in school from 7 o'clock in the morning or earlier, to 10:30 at night or later, often seven days a week, the commuting time must be reasonable. Consequently, some education districts have become known for their academic excellence, generating a self-fulfilling prophecy as more and more families want to move to them, driving property prices in those areas ever higher. Parents will go to great lengths to secure a place in a good education district for their children. For instance, they try to fake residence so their children will be included in the lottery draw of the education district of their choice. This has driven the government to impose strict regulations regarding residence qualifications, but parents continue to try and circumvent them (Seth, 2002).

Unlike in the U.K., no league tables or other statistical indicators of the quality of individual schools are available to the public. It is however possible to access the percentages of middle school students who go on to general academic high school (and thus are more likely to get into university), but only at the level of the education district. These figures are available on the homepages of the metropolitan and provincial boards of education, but no socio-economic indicators of the school population are available. In spite of the government's deliberate attempts to keep the public in the dark, parents know, by word of mouth, which

high schools manage to send more students to the three most prestigious universities in Seoul[4] (the unofficial yardstick by which the quality of schools is measured).

Seth (2002) explains how the public ranks schools. The hierarchy can be summarized as follows, starting from the most desirable:

- schools in Seoul
- schools in metropolitan districts
- schools in downtown areas
- schools in outlying built-up areas
- schools in fringe areas
- schools in rural areas.

For instance, the media often mention a certain area in downtown Seoul, inhabited by particularly wealthy families, where schools are regarded as being the best in the country.

At the time this research was conducted, most schools also strove to equalize learner groups. They did this by assigning students to classes at the beginning of the academic year, using a procedure which allowed average achievement scores in the major subject areas (based on the latest scores from the previous academic year) to be similar from class to class (Hong & O'Neil, 2001).

2.2 SOUTH KOREANS' ATTITUDES TOWARD LEARNING ENGLISH

Paralleling the catchphrase "education fever," the Korean and Asian media often comment on a South Korean phenomenon commonly known as "English fever," that is, a seemingly insatiable public demand for English tuition and English learning-related products, which has turned into a $3-billion-a-year industry in the country (Jerch & Chun, 2004, July 25). It is worthwhile noting that the government strongly disapproves of this phenomenon because it runs counter to the principle of equal opportunities. Nevertheless, most Koreans spend money, time, and effort on learning English. They regard it as a good investment because they have come to believe that the ability to compete on the global scene, and more prosaically on the national educational scene and job market, requires qualifications in English. The qualifications that they seek are those recognized by government offices and large companies, namely, high scores in the TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication) or TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language). Consequently, families are spending increasing amounts of money to send their children to private language schools. For instance,

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[4] Seoul National University—the public university which ranks first, and two private universities—Yonsei University, and Korea University (De Mente, 1998, p. 242).

while only 4% of elementary school children were enrolled in private language schools to learn English in 1990, this figure had risen to 50% by 1997 (Hanguk Kyoyuk Chaejeong Gyeongje Hakhoe, April 1997, June 1997). Some families have also started to send their children to be educated in English-speaking countries.

"English fever" thus shows no signs of abating, in spite of periodic government warnings about the undesirable effects on the nation's economy and social fabric that such excessive private spending generates. Yet, it could be argued that an important driving force behind "English fever" is the South Korean government itself inasmuch as the Civil Service and the universities[5] award, for instance, admission privileges and career advancement to individuals who obtain certain scores in the TOEIC, TOEFL or in the homegrown variety of standardized proficiency tests. Consequently, the so-called possession of "English ability" as demonstrated by high scores on standardized tests is regarded as an essential means of climbing up the social ladder in South Korea.

In sum, Koreans' apparent willingness to invest time, energy and money into learning English in the hope that it will secure a bright future for them and their kin, appears to be a positive political and social backdrop for EFL learning. Therefore, it seems surprising to hear many Korean teachers of English in secondary schools complain that their students are passive in lessons, and often lack motivation to learn English. Moreover, Korean students are also sometimes unwilling to learn English in general. One possible explanation may reside in many adults' ambivalent attitude towards learning English, which may communicate itself unwillingly to the children. De Mente (1998) claims that adult South Koreans perceive having to speak in English as exhausting, and the study and use of English as a somewhat unfairly imposed "burden" which most "do not accept willingly or in good spirit" (p. 454) partly because it smacks of cultural imperialism on the part of the United States. He attributes this resentful attitude to the fact that South Koreans' ability to understand and use English is closely linked to most of the goals they would like to achieve for themselves and their country. Ambivalent attitudes such as those described above also manifest themselves in somewhat contradictory government statements regarding education, such as announcing the "globalization" of Korean education while urging that the students' "national spirit" be strengthened (Seth, 2002).

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[5] Universities are highly regulated by the government, whether they are public or private (Jin, 2005, May 24)

2.3 Provision for English Language Teaching (ELT) in South Korea

2.3.1 ELT in the state sector

The South Korean government agencies tried to impose sweeping reforms in their schools through the 1997 seventh revision of the national curriculum (known as the 7th Curriculum). English was introduced as a required subject in elementary school starting from Grade 3 (age 8), even though few elementary school teachers felt able to teach it. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) became the officially advocated teaching approach, and teachers were asked to "teach English through English" (a somewhat unpopular policy named "TETE;" see Kim, 2002, for more details).

The intention of the government to have English teachers adopt CLT is laudable, if not practical. It is meant to help students develop the ability to communicate effectively with speakers of English on general, everyday topics, and stems from the recognition that the traditional Korean approach to foreign language teaching is inefficient in terms of producing competent users of English. Further, CLT appears to be the answer because of its worldwide kudos. Finally, the learner-centeredness of CLT is in harmony with the general school curriculum reforms in South Korea. Nonetheless, the government efforts to promote the use of CLT and the teaching of the four skills are thwarted by a lack of reform of the CSAT, which tests students' English achievement through 38 reading and 17 listening multiple-choice items (Jeong, 2004).

The government failed to take sufficient account of the fact that many school students are not motivated to learn English for communication, preferring to learn grammar in order to improve their chances of eventually gaining a high score in the university entrance test (e.g., Li, 1998). The government also seems to have largely ignored the effect the CSAT has on how teachers perceive their role, which is to do what parents, students, and the school expect of them, namely to thoroughly prepare the students for the examination (McGrath, 2001).

2.3.2 EFL teaching in private language schools

Paradoxically, even though teachers appear to believe they are doing what parents and students want them to do, families are spending increasing amounts of money to send their children to private language schools for conversation classes, and to "crammers" for exam-taking skills in all subjects, including English. For instance, while only 4% of elementary

school children were enrolled in private language schools to learn English in 1990, this figure had risen to 50% by 1997 (Hanguk Kyoyuk Chaejeong Gyeongje Hakhoe, April 1997, June 1997). English teaching in "cram schools" revolves around improving students' test-taking skills for the English section of the intensely competitive College Scholastic Aptitude Test (CSAT), rather than their overall English communicative competence. The courses are taught by Korean instructors, who may or may not have obtained teacher certification, and may also have failed the highly competitive teachers' recruitment exam set by the Boards of Education (which confers civil servant status to successful candidates and guarantees them employment in public secondary schools until retirement). However, these instructors can be more proficient in English than teachers in government schools because the former have to respond to market demands, and thus maintain a satisfactory level of English in order to remain employed.

Korean EFL instructors in private language schools usually teach special EFL examination classes (such as TOEIC and TOEFL), which, similarly to cram schools, focus more on test-taking skills. Private language schools also offer "conversation" classes for adults, as well as general English classes for children from kindergarten to high school level. Conversation classes are taught by "native speakers." The minimum employment qualifications required by the government for these foreign employees is to be a citizen of either the U.S.A., Canada, Britain, Ireland, Australia or New Zealand, and hold a B.A. degree in any subject. As a result, few of them are qualified teachers, and fewer still are qualified in TESOL.

Overall, in direct opposition to government policy and people's beliefs, the development of English communicative competence seems to be given a low priority, in both the public and private sectors. The reasons for this include a bias towards learning English in order to achieve high scores in tests that do not assess communicative ability, and a shortage of well-qualified local and foreign teachers of EFL. Yet, private language or "cram" schools are the places where many students and their parents feel that "real" teaching is taking place.

2.4 NATIONAL CURRICULUM FOR EFL IN MIDDLE SCHOOLS

The 7th National Curriculum booklet for Foreign Languages (Ministry of Education, Republic of Korea, 1998) includes statutory guidelines for the teaching of English as a required subject in elementary and middle schools, and for the teaching of English and second foreign language options in high schools. However, only the middle school curriculum for English will be discussed because middle schools constitute the setting in which the present study was carried out.

Besides explaining the rationale for making English a foundation subject and including general guidelines regarding the teaching of English, the curriculum booklet also includes a list of communicative functions and typical functional exponents, a words list (in alphabetical order), and a list of grammatical structures to be mastered.

2.4.1 Place of English in the school curriculum

According to the national curriculum, students study English as a foundation subject because the ability to communicate in English is regarded as part of the core competences students should acquire so that they are able to participate in the global economy and operate effectively in the social and cultural climates of the 21st century.

Language skills.
The curriculum stipulates that students are to be taught the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) in an integrated way, so they can gradually improve across the whole range of skills. Teachers are referred to items listed in the functions, vocabulary and grammar inventories, and asked to select items that are appropriate to their students' grade or level.

Differentiation.
The curriculum recommends that schools separate students into three ability tracks but schools are left free to decide how to organize learning groups. Consequently, most schools[6] teach intact homeroom groups ("tutor groups" in the U.K.) for social reasons and because the majority of parents are strongly opposed to this kind of differentiation. All homeroom groups are mixed-ability groups. Students are randomly allocated to a different homeroom group every academic year.

Time allocation.
Korean secondary schools begin their academic year on the second working day of March and finish their first semester near the end of July. The academic year is 34 weeks long, and is split into two semesters of equal length. During the first semester, the midterm examinations usually take place in mid-April and the final ones in early July. In the second semester, which starts in late August, students take the midterm examinations in mid-October and the final ones in December (Bong, 2005).

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[6] Out of the 20 schools that I visited for this study, only one operated a setting system with two ability groups.

By the time they reach middle school, children have received a minimum of 136 hours of English lessons in their primary schools (a single forty-minute period per week for two years, then two periods a week for another two years). In their first two years of middle school (equivalent to Years 8 and 9 in Britain), students receive about 76 hours of English instruction per year, at the rate of three 45-minute periods per week. In the third year, the amount of English tuition is increased to 102 hours, at the rate of 4 periods a week. This means that by the end of the first year in middle school, students have studied English for over 200 hours, which corresponds to the number of hours that may be reasonably expected to lead students to a Waystage level of proficiency (van Ek & Trim, 1991).

Number of students per class.

Class size in secondary schools is being progressively reduced to 35 students per class[7]. The target has been reached in high schools, and is progressively being met in middle schools. At the time this study was carried out, the average class size was 40 in urban areas. There is no difference in class size between private and government schools. However, class size in rural areas is usually below 30 due to a migration of the younger population toward the cities.

Assessment.

Internal examinations take place four times a year (one mid-term exam, and one final exam at the end of each of two academic semesters). They are multiple-choice tests (with 5 choices per item) that are written by the students' teachers at the year-group level. In addition, each examination can contain up to 5 short answer items (requiring a short, single-line, written answer). Students answer on computer cards, which are scored by computer, except for the 5 handwritten answers. The results obtained in these tests make up 80% of a student's score. The remaining 20 % is allocated for "performance-based assessment". Most teachers use the four nationally broadcast, multiple-choice listening tests as "performance-based assessment" component. Some teachers use the listening test for 10%, and a speaking or a written assignment for the remaining 10%. However, this new type of performance-based assessment is fraught with problems. One is that the national listening tests do not necessarily test what the students learned. This is because the dozen or so ministry-approved textbooks teach the same syllabus over the entire academic year but not over eight-week periods (i.e., the frequency of the examination). Another is related to the unpopularity with parents, students, and often school managers of alternative methods of assessments such as oral presentations or portfolios. Consequently, even if teachers do practice alternative forms of assessment, they

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[7] As an indication, I taught 47 or 48 students in all my middle school classes when I arrived in Korea in 1997.

often do so in a way that is inconsistent with their original intent. For instance, a 2000 report by the Korea Institute of Curriculum and Evaluation on the performance-based assessment scores in middle and high schools revealed a highly negatively skewed distribution of students' performance-based assessment scores across subject areas. This suggests that the new kind of scores "failed to discriminate among students' performances and merely worked as a mechanism to boost students' total scores" (Bong, 2003, p. 335).

2.4.2 Stated objectives for the teaching of EFL in middle schools

The Korean curriculum stipulates that middle school students are expected to acquire basic communication skills so they are able to understand and use everyday English. This is indeed very similar to the description of a Waystage level of proficiency. In addition, it is expected that the study of English will help students to become more open to foreign cultures and deepen their understanding and appreciation of Korean culture so that they can introduce it effectively to people from other countries. Accordingly, the following objectives have been formulated:

- To foster students' interest in learning English, and help them use English with increasing self-confidence.
- To enable students to acquire a basic ability to communicate their needs in English, and make themselves clearly understood in a range of common, everyday situations and topics.
- To develop students' ability to gather, interpret and relate information coming from foreign sources disseminated through the medium of English.
- To prompt students to see Korean culture in a new light, relativize themselves and value their own attitudes and beliefs, as well as those of people in other countries.

2.4.3 Ministry-approved ELT materials

Few teachers read or consult the national curriculum booklet. In practice, they rely on the set of materials they happen to be using in their school. This set of materials is one of a dozen or so specially written for use in South Korean schools, and are comprised of a textbook, teacher's guide and class CD-Rom, and sometimes flashcards. In South Korea, middle and high schools ELT materials are published by private South Korean publishing companies, but must be approved by the Ministry of Education and Human Resources and must conform to the national curriculum. All 7th Curriculum middle school English textbooks contain 16 units,

each of which must be covered in 7 or 8 class periods lasting 45 minutes each. In general, units are always structured in the same way, according to a focus on one particular skill: Listening activities appear at the beginning of each unit; they are followed by speaking, then by intensive reading, and end with guided writing activities.

The backbone of the 7th Curriculum textbooks consists mainly of communicative functions instead of grammatical structures but there are no indications how those functions should be taught other than through translation, repetition and memorization of very short (2 or 3 line) dialogues. The dialogues written to illustrate the use of the selected functions are not always situationally and linguistically appropriate, and constitute little more than a vehicle to teach grammar. In sum, the 7th Curriculum remains a synthetic syllabus using a notional-functional approach. It assumes that communicative functions can be represented by sets of exemplary sentences, and that language learning occurs through mastering those inventories in a linear and additive way, in isolation from broader communicative contexts. This is in direct contradiction with contemporary knowledge of the processes of second language acquisition. Consequently, the 7th Curriculum cannot but fail to develop students' communicative competence, even though it is professed to be the main curriculum objective.

All teachers' guides accompanying every set of materials contain an explanation of the national curriculum, a brief history of teaching methods from grammar-translation to communicative approaches, an outline of the structure of the textbook, and a procedural guide for each lesson. The emphasis in the national curriculum on modernizing teaching methods has meant that audio-visual equipment was purchased for every classroom in the late 1990s and has been updated since. Virtually every classroom is equipped with a very large projection TV and a computer so teachers can use Powerpoint presentations and the CD-Roms that accompany the textbooks.

2.4.4 Prevalent teaching approach

Teachers tend to rely heavily on their ministry-approved teaching materials, and usually believe the lesson plans in the teachers' guides are models of good practice. The version of CLT that has so far permeated into the textbooks and teachers' guides that schools have to use is Presentation Practice Production, which is still rooted in behaviorist learning principles (Willis, 1996), but teachers can easily use the materials and still apply procedures such as imitation, memorization, and grammar-translation. For instance, According to a survey of 97 Korean middle school teachers (Choi, 2000), their lessons appeared to retain a strong audiolingual-type flavor, and remain teacher-centered.

As for the use of English during lessons, Liu, Ahn, Baek, and Han (2004) asked 13 high school teachers to self-report their use of English, and found that it tended to be rather low (average: 32%). The analysis of the audio-recorded classroom discourse showed that teachers appeared to switch to Korean sometimes in an unprincipled way, and at other times, when they believed that students were having difficulty understanding (particularly when explaining new vocabulary or grammar, or giving background information), or to save time, highlight important information, or manage student behavior. This seems to reflect a belief that English is a body of knowledge to be understood and learned, with the help of the teacher in the role of "knower" whose responsibility it is to explain the language to the students.

The most extensive published study of South Korean middle school EFL teaching to date is that of Kim (2005). In her observations of nine demonstration lessons, she found that even though the teachers claimed to use CLT, in reality, they focused on language practice rather than on meaningful use of the L2, telling students what to say and how to say it. Further, students were asked to form groups, but collaboration was not necessary. This resulted in limited participation (usually only of good students), a general lack of sensitivity to individual differences, a failure to integrate the teaching of language and culture, and the setting of inappropriate homework assignments, often unrelated to the lesson. The most common type of homework is "previewing", which consists of reading the next text in the book, looking up new words, often trying to translate it into Korean, before it is studied with the teacher in the following lesson. This may be accompanied by or replaced by a memorizing task (for examples of lesson objectives and homework assignments, see, e.g., Kim, 2005). Overall, class materials and activities were not used effectively. Kim (2005) lists the following weaknesses:

- Inappropriate time to present the materials/activities
- Too much variety
- Lack of economical use of materials/activities
- Failure to include pre- and post-activities
- Inappropriate pacing
- Lack of time for internalization
- Lack of strategy to involve all the students
- Failure to integrate the four language skills
- Failure to recycle the target vocabulary and structure
- Lack of strategies to keep the students alert, etc. (p. 91)

These results are congruent with my own formal and informal observations of middle school EFL lessons (Guilloteaux, 2004).

2.5 SUMMARY

In this chapter,

- I provided a context in which to place South Korean middle school students' L2 motivation and the motivational practice of South Korean teachers of English.

- I gave an overview of the socio-cultural factors and principles that have been driving the development of the South Korean education system and have shaped the attitudes of South Koreans towards education.

- I reviewed the status of English and the state of ELT in South Korea, particularly with regard to middle schools.

Chapter 3

Motivation in Psychology

In this chapter, I first give an overview of how the field of motivation research has evolved in its attempts to account for, and predict variations in behaviors that involve making choices, exerting effort, and persisting, with a particular focus on educational settings. Then, I present a number of motivational theories and constructs, moving from those that deal with fairly stable, personality-related factors, to those that are more influenced by the socialization process and educational experiences, and are therefore habitual or preferential but somewhat malleable. Where applicable, I outline differences found in results from cross-cultural studies involving Asian samples. Due to the scope of the topic at hand, the theories and constructs discussed here necessarily represent a personal, hence subjective selection. However, they were chosen because they are related to L2 motivation theories mentioned in the next chapter, and/or because they informed the design of the study reported in this thesis and the interpretation of its results.

3.1 HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENTS AND TRENDS IN THE STUDY OF MOTIVATION

The scientific study of motivation in educational psychology originated circa 1930. Since then, it has developed into a sophisticated field of enquiry, particularly since the dethroning of behaviorism by cognitivism in general psychology. This development has been marked by a shift in scope, in conceptual frameworks, in approaches, and in the relationship between theory and practice, resulting in what Dörnyei (2001c) described as a field "in an exciting state of flux" (p. 18).

3.1.1 Shift in the scope of theories of motivation

Whereas early theories of motivation strove to be comprehensive by postulating relations between multiple constructs expressed as mathematical algorithms, the 1970s saw the start of

a new trend that gained momentum in the 1980s and 1990s. This new trend was to concentrate on the study of specific motivational constructs and build "reductionist models of motivation" (Dörnyei, 2001c, p. 12). However, since the turn of the millennium, the field has been witnessing what seems to be a renewed interest in building conceptual frameworks that are more comprehensive and use multiple perspectives to study motivation, not just in terms of its structure, but also as a dynamic process in natural classroom contexts (e.g., Järvelä & Niemivirta, 2001; Middleton & Toluk, 1999; Volet, 2001b). In psychology, Kuhl's (2000a, 2000b, 2001) Personality Systems Interaction (PSI) theory probably represents the most comprehensive attempt, to date, to account for both the structure and the process of motivation. I elaborate on this theory in Chapter 5.

3.1.2 Shift in conceptual frameworks

The shift that has occurred in the realm of theoretical perspectives has had a most profound effect. Early theories of motivation largely regarded individuals as responsive—that is, pushed into action by inner drives, or physical and culturally acquired needs resulting from some kind of deprivation. The view of individuals as pawns was reinforced when behaviorist theory increased its stronghold on psychology, and individuals' motivated behaviors came to be seen as reactions to external pressures in the form of external "reinforcers[8]," which pulled individuals into action. Consequently, the term "behavior control" (through reinforcement, non-reinforcement, or punishment), eventually became more frequent than "motivation" (Greeno, Collins, & Resnick, 1996).

Nevertheless, some psychologists who had been trained in the behaviorist tradition (e.g., Albert Bandura) started to recognize that the effects of reinforcement were mediated by individuals' cognitions. These cognitions included the value that individuals placed on the reinforcer, their expectation that the reinforcer would be delivered upon successful completion of the task, their beliefs about their competence to accomplish the task successfully, and their assessment of whether engaging in the action to receive the reinforcer was worth the effort and sacrifices it entailed (Brophy, 1999b).

The shift from empiricism/behaviorism to rationalism/cognitivism eventually became general in scientific research as a whole. Consequently, by the 1970s, behaviorism had largely given way to the cognitive perspective in educational psychology research. The cognitive perspective emphasizes the importance of mental activity in actively organizing, structuring,

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[8] A reinforcer is defined as "an event that increases the frequency of the behavior it follows" (Cameron & Pierce, 1994, p. 369).

and constructing mental representations of knowledge when trying to make sense of, and act on one's environment.

The 1980s and 1990s were marked by further developments related to the rise in importance of the context when studying motivation, when the cognitive perspective came to be complemented by social-cognitive and socio-cultural (or situative) approaches. These approaches represent different epistemological positions. Proponents of the social-cognitive approach believe that motivation does not reside entirely within the individual or entirely within the context. According to this view, students' cognitions regarding academic work (e.g., ability beliefs, outcome expectations when engaging in tasks) are influenced by social-contextual factors, such as the messages that the teacher sends about the difficulty of tasks, the information he or she gives about the importance of learning the material, or the perceived abilities of classmates (Urdan & Schoenfelder, 2006). In contrast, drawing from sociocultural theory, advocates of the situative approach (e.g., Blumenfeld, 1992; Hickey, 1997; McCaslin & Good, 1996; Turner, 2001) regard knowledge and motivation as socially constructed and distributed among participants within a given setting. The situative view of motivation is not uncontroversial. For instance, it can be argued that principles derived from group dynamics can account for motivational processes that the situative approach claims to explain (Dörnyei, January 2004, personal communication).

Although the person-in-context view of motivation has a long history (Lewin, 1935), it has only recently emerged as the dominant perspective in academic motivation research and theory (Urdan & Schoenfelder, 2006). However, there has yet to emerge a coherent theoretical framework that offers a solid research paradigm (Opt'Eynde, De Corte, & Verschaffel, 2001; Volet, 2001b). The field still faces some major challenges, including how to conceptualize the learner in context, and how to analyze the mutual interactions between the learner and the context (Anderman & Anderman, 2000).

3.1.3 Shift in methodological approaches

The shift in methodological approaches is linked to the shift in conceptual paradigms mentioned above. For example, the general psychologists who established educational psychology at the turn of the 20th century (i.e., James, and his students Hall and Dewey) favored research carried out in the field. In contrast, in the behaviorist period (from the 1930s to around 1960), research was carried out mostly in the laboratory.

Other changes have since taken place at the level of research perspectives. First, interest in investigating motivation as a function of both person and context has been revived. While the origin of the concept is not new since it was already present in Lewin's 1938 Field Theory

of motivation, in reality, the main trend had been to focus on the role played by either individual differences or contextual factors. However, since the late 1990s, an increasing number of studies have integrated both personal and contextual factors, thereby allowing for a more dynamic and situated approach to the study of motivation (Pintrich & Maehr, 2002).

Second, there has also been an attempt to go beyond traditional variable-centered approaches toward more person-centered analyses such as cluster analysis (a type of statistical analysis which detects patterns of motivational functioning), or by using qualitative methods of inquiry (Volet, 2001b). Third, some researchers have been interested in investigating how well contemporary motivational constructs and models generalize across cultures (e.g., Abu-Hilal, 2003; Bempechat & Elliott, 2002; Eaton & Dembo, 1997; He, 2004). Fourth, there has also been a recent increase in the body of research into the role of affect (which includes the construct of interest) and emotions in motivational processes. This goes well beyond the earlier focus on anxiety, and includes studies into other negative and positive emotions, and their relations to a greater variety of motivational constructs such as self-regulation (e.g., Dai & Sternberg, 2004; Pekrun, Goetz, Titz, & Perry, 2002; Schutz & DeCuir, 2002; Turner, 2002).

Finally, there has been a change—particularly since the mid 1990s—from an almost exclusive interest in motivational traits (i.e., the global and fairly stable aspects of motivation) across academic subject-domains toward a growing interest in domain-specific and task-specific motivation states (i.e., the momentary, transitory and fluctuating aspects of motivation). This change, noticed in particular by Murphy and Alexander (2000) in their extensive review of motivation terminology, is related to a trend to conceptualize motivation as a process rather than a product, in order to account for its fluctuations.

3.1.4 Shift in views of the relationship between theory and practice

Another shift can be observed in the way the field of motivation in educational psychology construes the relationship between theory and practice. It seems that over the last decade or so, there has been an increasing desire among motivation scholars not only to use theory to inform practice, but also to derive theory from practice. This means that more research is now being carried out while engaging in real and practical education-related tasks, such as designing learning environments, curricula, and schemes for the assessment of learning (Hickey & McCaslin, 2001).

3.2 Theories and Constructs Reflecting Motivational Dispositions

This section presents a selection of theories and constructs referring to within-person factors that can affect an individual's motivation in educational settings, and present trait (i.e., relatively stable) aspects. They vary in the extent to which they are genetically determined and/or a product of an individual's socialization history.

3.2.1 Need for achievement

Some early theories of motivation posited that the majority of motivated instances of human behavior could be viewed as attempts to reduce or satisfy physiological and psychological needs. These needs were thought to constitute an internal energy force, to fluctuate in intensity, and to operate either in isolation or in conjunction with other needs.

Murray's 1938 theory specified many human needs, two of which were relevant to education: the need for achievement and the need to avoid failure. These two concepts were subsequently taken up by McClelland, who developed them into his 1953 Achievement Motive theory. According to McClelland, the achievement motive consists of hope for success (associated with positive affect), and fear of failure (associated with negative affect). The achievement motive is considered to be a fairly stable and enduring (i.e., trait-like) disposition, which is learned through the process of associating environmental and internal cues with positive or negative affective states. It is assumed that, as associations become stronger, perception of the cues is sufficient to arouse an individual's tendency to act.

In 1957, Atkinson built on McClelland's achievement motive construct in his own Theory of Achievement Motivation, and posited a need for achievement. This need was hypothesized to vary according to individuals, to be learned at a young age, and to be shaped by the rearing practices that prevail in the home environment. Atkinson's theory predicted that in individuals with a high need for achievement (i.e., high in the motive to approach success, and low in the motive to avoid failure), tasks at an intermediate level of difficulty would elicit maximum levels of motivation. In contrast, individuals with a low need for achievement (i.e., low in the motive to approach success, and high in the motive to avoid failure) would be more likely to choose very easy tasks in which they were most likely to succeed, or very difficult ones in which most people would fail. However, these predictions were not always supported empirically.

3.2.2 Need for competence

Need-based constructs are still being examined in contemporary motivation research. For instance, Elliot, McGregor and Thrash's (2002) need for competence is derived from White's desire for effectance (White, 1959), the latter referring to a desire to investigate, manipulate, and master one's environment in order to experience the pleasure that is derived from engaging (i.e., interacting) effectively and competently with the environment. The need for competence is posited as a biologically based, individual difference factor. Because life experiences seem to impact on the quantity and quality of an individual's need for competence, it is considered malleable and capable of variations across the lifespan. Factors that influence the quantity and quality of the need for competence and result in individual differences include the following:

- Special talents (e.g., musical, athletic, artistic), which lead some individuals to experience early and frequent feelings of efficacy and pride in their accomplishments.
- A secure attachment between an individual and his/her caregivers.
- The kind of socialization (e.g., through modeling, encouragement, stimulation) individuals receive from their caregivers in areas relevant to competence.

It is suggested that the need for competence is essential to psychological well-being, and initially manifests itself in the behavior of infants who gain information about their competence directly through the effect their behavior has on the environment (Elliot & Moller, 2003). Elliot, McGregor and Thrash (2002) termed such motivation task-referential competence motivation, which they distinguished from past-referential competence motivation (in which competence is viewed in terms of an increase in present performance relative to past performance) and other-referential competence motivation (in which competence is viewed as outperforming others). The process of cognitive maturation is hypothesized to bring about the acquisition of competence information through temporal and normative standards (Elliot & Moller, 2003).

3.2.3 Conceptions of the self

Taken together, *self-conceptions* form a collection of images and cognitions about the self. They are thought to give substance to an individual's goals, thereby helping them to "assess their progress, evaluate their instrumental acts, and revise their aspirations" (Cantor, Markus, Niedenthal, & Nurius, 1986, p. 103). Self-conceptions differ in the degree of their elaboration, and in their location in time. Some are very detailed cognitive representations, while others

may be less well defined. Some are images of the current self, while others represent past or future selves. It is thought that images of past and future selves are likely to have more effect on motivation than images of the current self. Examples of past selves are the *good selves* that one likes to remember, and the *bad selves* that one would rather forget. Future selves are represented by possible selves, which include the *hoped-for selves*, the *expected selves*, and the *feared selves* (Markus & Nurius, 1986).

Possible selves are hypothetical images that give form, meaning, structure, and direction to an individual's hopes and fears. They are thus critical for inciting and directing purposeful behavior (Dörnyei, 2005; Oyserman, Terry, & Bybee, 2002). Whether they are to be approached (i.e., in the case of hoped-for or expected selves) or avoided (in the case of feared selves), they act as incentives for future behavior. They also help individuals to interpret and evaluate their current behavior.

There is now some empirical evidence that a positive possible self is a stronger source of motivation when it is counterbalanced by a feared self in the same domain (Oyserman, Bybee, Terry, & Hart-Johnson, 2004). However, individuals do not always have positive possible selves because the formative influence of their social environment may restrict their development (Alderman, 1999).

Self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987) offers a similar perspective to that adopted by Markus and Nurius (1986) outlined above. Higgins (1987) posited the existence of two standpoints on the self (one's own personal standpoint, and the standpoint of a significant other), and of three types of self-domains that can be viewed from either of the standpoints. These self-domains are:

- the *actual self* (an individual's representation of the attributes that either he/she or a significant other believes one possesses);
- the *ideal self* (an individual's representation of the attributes that either he/she or a significant other would ideally hope one to possess);
- the *ought self* (an individual's representation of the attributes that either he/she or a significant other believes one should possess, out of a sense of duty or moral obligation).

The ideal and ought selves are referred to as self-guides. It is assumed that individuals are motivated to bridge the gap (i.e., reduce the discrepancy) between their actual self and their personally relevant self-guides until they match. According to Higgins (1987), not all individuals are expected to have such self-guides, and self-discrepancies vary between individuals, those having a small discrepancy between their actual and ideal selves being presumed to be more motivated.

It is worthwhile noting that in his overview of the possible and ideal selves constructs, Dörnyei (2005) cautioned that, "the ideal self theory is still far from complete" (p. 101).

3.2.4 Action vs. state orientation

Action and state orientations were proposed by Kuhl in his theory of action control (e.g., Kuhl, 1992)[9]. The notions of action and state orientations represent a form of approach-avoidance system of regulation of behavior. Generally, it is believed that being state-oriented interferes with action. State-oriented individuals are prone to ruminating about potential negative events, procrastinating before starting a task, having trouble concentrating; as a result, they have a more passive, reactive style. *State orientation* has two forms: an individual's inability to self-generate positive affect under stress indicates a *decision-related state orientation*, and a person who is unable to reduce negative affect after experiencing failure or negative events is said to have a *failure-related state orientation*.

In contrast, action oriented individuals tend to work toward their goals in a directed, active, and self-regulatory fashion. Just like state orientation, action orientation also has two forms: decision-related action orientation, which is defined as an individual's ability to self-generate positive affect in stressful situations, and failure-related action-orientation, which refers to a person's ability to reduce negative affect after failure or negative events.

Action and state orientations are thus dispositions that represent the two poles of a continuous dimension related to a person's effectiveness in translating intentions into actions. State orientation is indicated by a low score on the individual difference measure called action-orientation (Kuhl, 2001).

3.2.5 Future time perspective (FTP)

Future time perspective (FTP) is a growing area of research in psychology (McInerney, 2004), which also seems to be gaining importance in educational psychology, as evidenced by the fact that a special double issue (March and June 2004) of the Educational Psychology Review was dedicated to the effects of time perspective on student motivation. A growing body of research (e.g., Creten, Lens, & Simons, 2001; Husman & Lens, 1999; Lens, Simons, & Dewitte, 2001, 2002; Peetsma, 2000) also attests to this. FTP has been defined as "the

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[9] Action and state orientations are reminiscent of Folkman and Lazarus's (1980) problem-focused and emotion-focused coping styles. *Problem-focused coping* represents an active, task-oriented style of response to stressful events, whereas *emotion-focused coping* represents a passive, emotional style of response such as self-preoccupation, rumination, and fantasizing. Similarly to action-orientation, problem-focused coping is associated with personal characteristics that promote more adaptive forms of behavioral regulation (Jackson, Mackenzie, & Hobfoll, 2000).

present anticipation of future goals" (Simons, Vansteenkiste, Lens, & Lacante, 2004, p. 122), and more precisely as "the degree to which and the way in which the chronological future is integrated into the present life-space of an individual through motivational goal-setting processes" (Husman & Lens, 1999, p. 114). It is easy to notice that the degree to which the future matters varies from person to person, and that people differ in their ability to anticipate the future, as well as foresee the future consequences of their present behavior. FTP deals with these issues. The extension of FTP is considered` an individual difference that has motivational consequences (Husman & Lens, 1999). For instance, most of the goals set by an individual with a short FTP are likely to be set in the near future. In contrast, most of the goals set by a person with a long (deep) FTP will be set in the distant future (Simons, Vansteenkiste, Lens, & Lacante, 2004). Individuals with a long FTP have been found to work with more intensity in certain subjects in the classroom (Peetsma, 2000), show more persistence in their goal striving (Husman & Lens, 1999; Peetsma, 2000), and derive more satisfaction from goal-oriented actions (Husman & Lens, 1999).

3.2.6 Limitations of a focus on personality-related motivational factors

An emphasis on personality-related motivational influences is useful when it comes to accounting for global motives, and for the energy sources of motivation. However, it neglects the powerful influence of (a) cultural and situational factors, (b) the specific cognitive processes that cause or mediate achievement-related outcomes, and (c) the subjective experiences that accompany goal striving. Global motives emerging from personality-related factors cannot account on their own for the whole gamut of specific ends pursued by individuals in given situations.

3.3 THEORIES AND CONSTRUCTS REFLECTING MOTIVATIONAL BELIEFS AND ATTITUDES

3.3.1 Expectancy-value models of motivation

The cognitive notion of expectancy refers to the degree to which individuals anticipate that their performance in a task will result in success. Value refers to "the relative attractiveness of succeeding or failing at a task" (Wigfield & Tonks, 2002, p. 54) or to "beliefs that individuals hold about the reasons they want to do an achievement task" (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002, p. 408).

The expectancy and value constructs were already present in some early motivation theories such as Tolman's and Lewin's in the 1930s but were reintroduced by Atkinson in his 1957 Theory of Achievement Motivation. Atkinson postulated that behavior was a multiplicative function of three components: need for achievement (see section 3.2.1), probability of success (an expectancy component mostly consisting of a judgment about competence), and incentive value (an affect-based component essentially related to the pride experienced in conjunction to accomplishment, i.e., a judgment about value). However, findings indicated that "probability of success" and "incentive value" seemed to play a larger role in motivation (operationalized as individuals' choice of tasks according to difficulty) than the more stable personality-related achievement motive (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). Moreover, the theory failed to explain why some failure-threatened individuals outperformed success-oriented ones in relaxed conditions (Kuhl, 2001).

A contemporary expectancy-value model has since been developed and updated several times by Eccles and her colleagues (e.g., Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). The expectancy component in the model is defined as an individual's competence-related beliefs with respect to upcoming tasks in the immediate or longer-term future (efficacy expectations), as well as their beliefs about their own ability in the given domain. According to Wigfield and his colleagues (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Wigfield & Tonks, 2002), the value component actually refers to a set of four types of subjective values:

- *attainment value* (i.e., the importance of doing well in a class or the perception that the tasks done in a particular class are central to one's sense of self);
- *intrinsic value*, (i.e., the enjoyment gained from doing an activity, or one's interest in a subject);
- *utility value or usefulness* (i.e., how well a task fits into one's current and future goals);
- *cost* (i.e., the negative aspects of engaging in a task such as performance anxiety, the amount of effort one will need to exert in order to complete the task, and the choices one has to give up in order to do this particular task).

In the Eccles et al. models, the expectancy and value components differ from Atkinson's in two respects. First, Atkinson's incentive value was deemed to be 1.0 minus the probability for success, whereas in contemporary expectancy-value theory it is assumed that expectancy and value are positively related to each other, which means that value plays a much more important role than in the Atkinson's model. Second, in the Eccles et al models, both components are linked to a broader range of psychological and socio-cultural factors. These factors are influenced by students' personal beliefs about the characteristics and demands of the task, short- and long-term goals, and students' self-schemas (i.e., their beliefs about what

kind of person they are or could become, their personality, their personal and social identities, and their academic ability). The students' beliefs and self-schemas are in turn presumed to be influenced by their perceptions of the attitudes, beliefs and expectations of their socializers (e.g., parents, teachers, peers), by their affective memories, and by their interpretations of previous achievement-related experiences (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002).

A major limitation to expectancy-value models is that they have difficulty accounting for behavior over time (Kanfer, 1990). While they offer important contributions regarding the values construct and can explain how individuals embark on given courses of action, they are less successful in accounting for the ways in which individuals maintain and sustain action until their intentions are fully realized.

3.3.2 Attribution Theory

Attributions are defined as the perceived causes of achievement performance. Attribution Theory is associated with the work of Weiner (e.g., 1985). It focuses on the effect of attributions on individuals' expectancies with respect to subsequent achievement strivings, and on the emotions arising out of the attributions. For these reasons, Attribution Theory falls into the category of expectancy-value theories. Nevertheless, it is quite distinctive because of its cognitive approach to emotions, and the prominent place it gives to them (e.g., see Hareli & Weiner, 2002).

Attribution Theory posits that all causes of achievement outcomes can be characterized according to three basic properties: locus, controllability, and stability:

- *Locus* refers to the location of a cause; it can be described as internal or external to the individual. When success is attributed to an internal cause (e.g., ability), the individual experiences pride and increased self-esteem; these, in turn, become motivators in subsequent achievement situations. Conversely, failure ascribed to internal causes results in a decrease in self-esteem. Such emotions are not experienced when success or failure are attributed to external causes.

- *Controllability* indicates whether an individual can do something about the causes of achievement outcomes, and gives rise to a number of emotions (Graham and Weiner, 1996). For instance, people express pity and sympathy toward individuals who are prevented from attaining their goals due to externally uncontrollable factors (e.g., lack of ability, physical handicap); conversely, individuals who fail because of internally uncontrollable causes (e.g., low ability) commonly experience shame, humiliation, or embarrassment. When failure results from externally uncontrollable

factors (e.g., noise, bias), individuals experience anger. On the other hand, they feel guilty when failure results from internally controllable causes (e.g., lack of effort, negligence).

- *Stability* pertains to the relative endurance of a cause over time. For instance, ability/aptitude is considered stable, whereas situational effort, knowledge, skills, and luck/chance are regarded as unstable. Success attributed to ability is assumed to lead to expectancies of success in future endeavors. Conversely, failure attributed to low ability is likely to lead to expectancies of failure in subsequent achievement situations. In contrast, failure ascribed to an unstable cause (particularly effort) is believed to lead to increased persistence (Graham & Weiner, 1996).

Attribution Theory has aroused some controversy. First, there seems to be some overlap between the stability dimension, and both the trait-state distinction used in personality theory, and the global-specific one proposed by researchers working on learned helplessness (see section 3.3.5). Second, there is some disagreement about whether it is possible to have attributions that are external to the individual, yet still controllable (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). The debate seems to hinge on who is regarded as being able to control the causes of the attributions. If, as argued by Stipek (2002a), the individual is making the attribution, it is not possible to have attributions that are external and controllable. On the other hand, as argued by Weiner (1986, cited in Pintrich & Schunk, 2002), an external and controllable attribution is possible if it is made by people who are perceived as instrumental to the failure or success (e.g., a teacher, parents or peers).

Findings from cross-cultural studies suggest that individuals across cultures (as well as within), may vary in the way they classify attributions. For example, South Korean adolescents are likely to attribute their successes to the social support they receive from their family, whereas they tend to attribute their failures to either insufficient personal effort, or inadequate ability to self-regulate—both of which they view as personality flaws (Park & Kim, 1999).

3.3.3 Self-efficacy

The construct of self-efficacy was introduced by Bandura (1977) as part of his social cognitive theory of motivation. Social cognitive theory postulates that achievement is dependent on interactions between an individual's behaviors, personal factors, and the conditions present in the environment (Schunk & Pajares, 2002, p. 16). *Self-efficacy beliefs* are "personal judgments of one's capabilities to organize and execute courses of action to attain designated goals" (Zimmerman, 2000, p. 83).

Self-efficacy is thus an ability construct (Graham & Weiner, 1996) which is task-specific, is assumed to differ from judgments of self-competence, the latter tending to be more stable across time and achievement situations, either in general or in specific domains. However, it is worthwhile noting that self-efficacy beliefs are sometimes assessed at a domain-specific level (Schunk & Pajares, 2002), which suggests some overlap, at least at the level of the measurement of the constructs. There is some empirical evidence[10] suggesting that self-efficacy beliefs may be responsive to changes in the instructional context, which in turn seems to imply that instructional interventions designed to raise self-efficacy might be effective in improving motivation to achieve.

Table 3.1 indicates how self-efficacy operates within the frame of a single learning situation. Three factors are hypothesized to affect students' levels of self-efficacy at the outset of a given activity:

- *prior experience* (e.g., of similar tasks or through observations of other people modeling the new task);
- *personal qualities* (e.g., abilities/aptitudes);
- *social support*, that is, the extent to which significant others encourage the students to learn, facilitate their access to educational resources, and teach them self-regulatory strategies such as goal setting, self-monitoring, self-evaluation and the use of learning strategies[11]. For instance, parents' academic aspirations for their children were found to influence the children's self-efficacy and affect the children's academic achievements (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, 1996).

Once students are engaging with the task, personal factors (e.g., information processing) and situational factors (e.g., teacher's feedback) provide them with cues about their performance and skills. If their own evaluation is positive, their motivation and self-efficacy will be enhanced. Should the evaluation be negative, they may still not necessarily lose motivation or self-efficacy, provided they believe that putting in more effort or using different strategies will lead to better performance (Schunk & Pajares, 2002, p. 25).

There is little doubt that optimistic self-efficacy beliefs are influential: Self-efficacy expectations have been found to be more predictive of actual outcomes than outcome expectations, which are personal beliefs about the consequences of doing well in a task (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2004). However, self-efficacy alone will not lead students to engage in tasks unless students also hold positive outcome expectations and believe that the tasks have value (i.e., that learning is important and/or useful), as represented in contemporary

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[10] See Zimmerman (2000), and Schunk and Pajares (2002) for brief reviews.

[11] For a brief review of empirical findings regarding the effect of self-regulatory strategies on self-efficacy, see Zimmerman, (2000, p. 87).

expectancy-value theories. Besides, according to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy is not important when it comes to practicing very familiar actions.

TABLE 3.1

Self-Efficacy for Learning and Achievement (Schunk & Pajares, 2002, p. 24)

	PreTask	*Task Engagement*	*Post-Task*
Personal qualities		Personal Influences	Motivation
Prior experience	Self-efficacy		
Social support		Situational influences	Self-efficacy

Finally, it is important to note that a cross-cultural study showed that self-efficacy beliefs least explained achievement motivation for Asian American students compared to fear of academic failure (Eaton & Dembo, 1997).

3.3.4 Learned helplessness

While the construct of self-efficacy is associated to the belief that "I can do it," *learned helplessness* is its counterpart—a belief that "I cannot do it, no matter what." The concept of helplessness was proposed by Seligman (1975), and has since been associated in the field of educational psychology with the work of Dweck and Leggett (1988). Helplessness is a state that arises when failure is unexpected (non-contingent), and is perceived as resulting from uncontrollable events. If helplessness is generalized from a single non-contingent experience to other experiences in which events were in fact controllable, it becomes learned.

Causal attributions are central to the theory of learned helplessness. The more internal, stable, and generalizable across contexts the learners' attributions are, the more vulnerable these learners will be when it comes to experiencing helplessness beliefs and concomitant loss of motivation, spontaneous attributions to low ability, passivity, display of negative affect such as boredom and anxiety, and deterioration of academic performance (Graham & Weiner, 1996).

3.3.5 Self-worth theory

Self-worth theory is associated with the work of Covington (e.g., Covington, 1992, cited in Covington, 2000). Self-worth refers to an individual's positive appraisal of their personal value in terms of how competent they appear to others in achievement situations. It is therefore closely related to the concepts of self-esteem and self-respect (Stipek, 2002a).

Self-worth theory assumes that human beings are naturally driven to establish and maintain a sense of personal worth and belonging in society, and that because society measures people's worth according to their ability to achieve, many students, perhaps even most of them, define their own worth in the same way. Thus, students who value the demonstration of ability because of its implications in terms of status but have doubts about their own ability are likely to develop a defensive repertoire of tactics designed to avoid failure or even possible implications of failure. The tactics that enable students to protect themselves from the negative implications of failure (i.e., an external as well as personal judgment of low academic ability) include "self-worth protection," "defensive pessimism," and "self-handicapping" strategies (Covington, 2000).

Students who resort to self-worth protection withdraw effort. They do not try, or make people think they do not try, thereby providing an excuse for failure that is preferable to trying and failing because of low ability. However, such behavior is likely to incur others' disapproval, get the students into trouble, and possibly result in punishment. Defensive pessimism involves lowering one's aspirations or announcing low competence or low aspirations to others before a task in order to lower the teacher's or others' expectations, or not taking studying seriously. Self-handicapping refers to the use of another set of defensive strategies designed to introduce ambiguity in the failure–low ability connection by minimizing the amount of information that is available to others regarding an individual's ability. Students can display a wide range of self-handicapping strategies (Covington, 2000; Stipek, 2002a), which include the following:

- Presenting the image of an attentive student while keeping a low profile and avoiding the teacher's attention, hoping the teacher will call on other students.
- Faking effort (e.g. by asking a question to which they already know the answer).
- Minimizing participation, for instance, by not volunteering.
- Claiming a handicap for not being able to study (e.g., sickness, or family problems).
- Procrastinating and doing work at the last minute.
- Attempting impossibly difficult tasks, which means that most likely anyone else would have failed, too.
- Cheating.

3.3.6 Goal theories

Goal theories assume that humans, when awake, are naturally active, so they are not concerned with explaining the initiation of action, only with accounting for its direction, intensity, and persistence (Brophy, 1999b). In educational psychology, the goal construct has been examined from perspectives that differ mostly in terms of their level of specificity (Kaplan & Maehr, 2001). At the most general level, goals represent life goals, or images of the self in the future (e.g., ideal selves). At the next level, goals correspond to more immediate personal pursuits; this level is represented by the *goal content approach*, which is relevant to all areas of life, including achievement contexts.

The most specific approach to goals, which is applicable to a variety of contexts outside education, is associated with social cognitive theory, and concentrates on goals that are highly task-specific, called target goals. Bandura's conceptualization of goals, which are defined according to their levels of challenge, proximity, and specificity, falls into this category. Such goals direct behavior toward meeting specified standards, but they do not really explain why individuals may be seeking to attain them.

An attempt at synthesizing the goal content and target goal approaches outlined above is represented by the achievement goal perspective, or goal orientation theory. Goal orientation research investigates the subjective meaning that students assign to a particular learning situation, using both previous experiences and informational input present in that situation (Järvelä & Niemivirta, 2001). It is also concerned with how such subjective meaning may influence the quality of students' actions, thoughts, and feelings as they approach and engage in tasks (Kaplan & Maehr, 2001). This is why goal orientation has provided a suitable framework to examine the quality of students' task engagement (Stipek, 1996).

3.3.7 Goal orientation theory

Achievement goals (also referred to as *goal orientations*) are constructs that were specifically developed to explain achievement motivation. They have no single, clear, explicit definition, which is agreed upon by all researchers (Elliot & Thrash, 2001). For instance, goals can represent the purposes of task engagement (e.g., Kaplan & Maehr, 2002; Midgley, Kaplan, Middleton, Maehr, Urdan, & Anderman, 1998), and/or ways of approaching and assigning meaning to tasks (in which case "goals" actually represent "orientations"). Moreover, they include "an omnibus combination of variables," such as "numerous beliefs, feelings about success, ability, effort, errors, and standards of evaluation" (Elliot & Thrash, 2001, p. 141).

In spite of the fuzziness surrounding the conceptual definition of (achievement) goals / goal orientations (e.g., see Bong, 1996), a consensus seems to have been reached in the literature on their cognitive nature. Goals are currently assumed to be internal, cognitive representations of what individuals are trying to do or want to achieve (e.g., Niemivirta, 1998; Pintrich, Conley, & Kempler, 2003), which guide individuals' behavior in a particular direction (Elliott & Thrash, 2001, p. 144). Like other schema-like knowledge structures, goals are sensitive to both contextual and intrapersonal factors (Pintrich, 2000, p. 102), and influence the way individuals perceive a given achievement situation (Järvelä & Niemivirta, 2001). Different goals may become preferred in different situations and acquire a trait-like quality, resulting in their being used as a default in the absence of strong environmental cues. Thus, some students may habitually be more focused on approaching (or avoiding) learning for its own sake than others who, for instance, may be more focused on grades. Furthermore, the same student may be more focused on developing competence in some subjects or in some situations, but may be more focused on grades in others (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002).

According to Elliot and McGregor (2001), "competence" is at the core of the achievement goal construct. Competence can be differentiated along two fundamental dimensions: "definition," and "valence." Definition refers to the standards or referents that are used to evaluate one's performance. There are three such standards:

- An *absolute* standard, when competence is evaluated according to whether one has mastered or fulfilled the requirements of the task itself. Individuals who define their competence according to an absolute standard strive to develop their skills and abilities, advance their learning, understand material, or complete or master a task. They are said to have a *mastery goal*.

- An *intrapersonal* standard, when competence is evaluated according to whether one has improved on one's own past attainment, or reached one's maximum potential attainment.

- A *normative* standard, when individuals evaluate their competence according to whether they have performed better, or have attained greater skill or knowledge than others. In such cases, individuals are said to hold a *performance goal*. Dweck (e.g., 1992), who identified the performance goal construct, like Nicholls (e.g., 1984) who preferred the term "ego involvement," included in the definition the notion of proving or demonstrating one's competence to oneself, thereby linking competence to self-worth and self-presentation.

The second dimension of competence, valence, determines whether an individual will adopt an approach or avoidance type of achievement behavior. Recall that such a distinction between approach and avoidance was a central aspect of early theories of achievement

motivation. If success is considered possible, the achievement situation is processed as positive and desirable; conversely, if failure is feared possible, it is processed as negative and undesirable. Further, some researchers have described individuals who are primarily motivated to avoid academic work (i.e., who try to get work done with a minimum of effort) as holding a work-avoidance goal (Nicholls, Cobb, Wood, Yackel, & Patashnick, 1990), also termed avoidance orientation (Skaalvik, 1997). Adopting a work-avoidance goal may reflect negative attitudes toward schoolwork, or represent an attempt to avoid failure or cope with the constraints and demands of the learning situation (Meece, Blumenfeld, & Hoyle, 1988).

In the 1980s and early 1990s, achievement goal theorists and researchers tended to distinguish between only two types of achievement goals, namely, mastery goals[12] and performance goals[13]. Early research indicated that mastery goals led to a particularly adaptive pattern of achievement behavior, whereas performance goals were labeled less adaptive, or even maladaptive (for a review, see Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). However, the number of variables included in the single construct of goal made it difficult to isolate which variable(s) was/were linked to the effects found in studies, particularly for the performance goal construct. This dichotomous perspective is now referred to as "normative goal theory" (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2001), or "mastery goal perspective" (Barron & Harackiewicz, 2001; Linnenbrink, 2005) in view of its strong emphasis on the benefits of mastery goals and the maladaptive consequences of a focus on performance goals.

There is general agreement among scholars about the benefits of pursuing mastery goals and the non-productivity of work-avoidance goals. However, inconclusive empirical results have led to an intense debate[14] regarding the early claims (e.g., Ames, 1992; Dweck & Leggett, 1988) that learning environments should be designed to promote mastery goals and discourage performance goals, and that performance goals engender maladaptive forms of achievement behavior. This debate has led to the re-examination of the performance goal construct in the light of the approach-avoidance motives and to its bifurcation into a performance-approach goal (i.e., striving to document superior ability), and a performance-avoidance goal (i.e., seeking to conceal relative incompetence). The former is linked to adaptive outcomes, whereas the latter is linked to less adaptive ones (Thrash & Elliott, 2001). Further, in view of the fact that classroom studies suggested that both mastery and

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[12] The concept of *mastery goal* is similar to that of *learning goal* (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Stipek, 2002a), *task-orientation* (e.g., Nicholls, Cheung, Lauer, & Patashnick, 1989), and *task goal orientation* (e.g., Midgley, Kaplan, Middleton, Maehr, Urdan, & Anderman, 1998).

[13] The concept of *performance goal* is similar to that of *ability goal* (Dweck and Leggett, 1988)*, ego-orientation* (e.g., Nicholls, Cheung, Lauer, & Patashnick, 1989), and *ability goal orientation* (e.g., Midgley, Kaplan, Middleton, Maehr, Urdan, & Anderman, 1998).

[14] For more details about the debate, see e.g., Barron and Harackiewicz, (2001), Brophy (2005), Elliot and Moller (2003), Grant and Dweck (2003). Harackiewicz, Barron, Pintrich, Elliot, and Thrash (2002), Midgley, Kaplan, and Middleton (2001), and Thrash and Elliott (2001).

performance goals could co-exist, goal theory was further revised and the revision became known as the "multiple goal perspective."

The multiple goal perspective is represented by the hierarchical model of achievement motivation (Elliot & Thrash, 2001), and a 2 × 2 achievement goal framework comprising mastery-approach, mastery-avoidance, performance-approach, and performance-avoidance goals. When the mastery goal construct is divided into two separate constructs along the approach-avoidance distinction, the mastery-approach goal construct indicates that individuals are focused on developing competence, whereas in the mastery-avoidance goal construct, their strivings are focused on avoiding incompetence. For instance, by trying not to make mistakes or misunderstand course material, perfectionists offer prototypical examples of behaviors associated with a mastery-avoidance goal (Elliot & McGregor, 2001). Few studies to date have subjected the new mastery-avoidance goal to empirical testing; investigations of the so-called trichotomous framework (mastery, performance-approach, and performance-avoidance goals) are more common (e.g., Elliot & Church, 1997; Wolters, 2004). Initial results suggest that mastery-avoidance goals are linked to more negative patterns of achievement behavior than are mastery-approach goals, and to more positive ones than are performance-avoidance goals (Elliot & McGregor, 2001).

While the distinction between performance-approach and performance-avoidance goals is now accepted by all goal theorists, some scholars remain convinced that any type of performance goal is undesirable (e.g., Midgley, Kaplan, & Middleton, 2001). Therefore, the debate goes on about the effects of pursuing performance goals (e.g., Elliot & Moller, 2003; Urdan, 2004). Recently, Brophy (2005) called for goal theorists to "move on from performance goals" (p. 167). He suggested potentially productive performance-approach goals be redefined by changing their label, for instance to "outcome goals," and by ridding the construct of its social comparison feature in order to emphasize achievement. In effect, this amounts to focusing on the afore-mentioned intrapersonal standard of the definition dimension of the goal construct, rather than on the normative standard. In terms of learning environments design, Elliot and Moller (2003), propose that educators strongly orient educational environments toward non-normative mastery goals, and allow performance-approach goals "to emerge of their own accord" (p. 351), without directly discouraging them.

In conclusion, it can be argued that goal theory has the merits of offering a parsimonious framework for the study of motivation, and of situating it more or less at the confluence of the individual and achievement contexts. Nevertheless, achievement goals cannot, on their own, account for the complexity of the motivational processes (Elliot & McGregor, 2001; Urdan & Maehr, 1995). For instance, the theory has so far neglected:

- the role of non-competence related goals such as social goals, which are clearly present in the classroom (Dowson & McInerney, 2003; Lemos, 2001);

- self-presentation and self-validation goals (Elliot & McGregor, 2001);
- goals involving task engagement in order to obtain tangible extrinsic rewards (e.g., money, privileges, social gains, or gaining approval from significant others; Kaplan & Maehr, 2002);
- how achievement goals are aroused and selected (Covington, 2000);
- how students prioritize among multiple and often competing goals.

Finally, the strong cognitive focus of goal theory also means that it largely fails to take into account the possible role of students' emotions other than anxiety in classroom contexts (for exceptions, see Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002; Turner, Thorpe, & Meyer, 1998).

3.3.8 Cross-cultural studies and performance goals

Cross-cultural studies provide some evidence in favor of the usefulness of performance goals as tied to the fulfillment of social goals. For instance, Asian American parents encourage their children to succeed academically, and underperforming is viewed as shaming the family (Eaton & Dembo, 1997). As a result, Asian students, such as South Korean middle and high school students, sometimes demonstrate higher performance goal orientations than mastery goal orientations (e.g., Song & Park, 2000). Furthermore, avoiding shame is thought to be a powerful motivator for students from collectivist (e.g., Asian) cultures, in contrast with individualistic students (e.g., from North American cultures), who are believed to be more motivated by the goal to experience feelings of personal pride (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Collectivist-oriented students are thus considered more likely to pursue performance-avoidance goals. They may also demonstrate avoidance goals that are stronger than those demonstrated by students in predominantly individualist nations, as was revealed in a cross-cultural study of South Korean, Russian, and American students (Elliot, Chirkov, Kim, & Sheldon, 2001). It is noteworthy, however, that in their study of the kinds of achievement goals displayed in St Petersburg classrooms, Hufton, Elliott, and Illushin (2002) reported little evidence of students with performance goals, when these are defined as the desire to do better than others. Instead, they found a number of students who were motivated to avoid appearing uncommitted or uncooperative in the eyes of their peers or their teacher. They suggest that this could be interpreted as a Russian equivalent of a performance-avoidance goal, and that such interpretation lacks the notion of wanting to avoid achievement behavior so as not to look stupid.

However, a more recent study (Urdan, 2004) reported only small and inconsistent moderating effects of cultural factors (e.g., family orientation) on the associations among goals (which were in line with previous findings), goal structures, and outcomes. In fact, this

is evidenced by findings that South Korean high school boys, who are from a predominantly collectivist nation, showed a particularly strong orientation toward the performance-approach goal of demonstrating superior ability in English in front of the teacher and peers (Lee & Lee, 2001). These results contradict those of Hufton, Elliott, and Illushin (2002) obtained with Russian students, since Russia is another predominantly collectivist nation.

3.3.9 Goal content perspective

When viewed from a content perspective, a goal is defined "as a cognitive representation of what it is that an individual is trying to achieve in a given situation" (Wentzel, 1999, p. 77, original italics). Wentzel contends that academically successful students are likely to hold goals that are congruent with the motivational and behavioral objectives made salient in the classroom, or at least that they are willing and able to pursue such objectives.

Wentzel (1999) argues that a goal content perspective is particularly useful for studying motivation within context on two accounts. First, it allows for the fact that students in school can pursue two types of goals at the same time: task goals, and social goals. Task goals refer to the accomplishment of academic tasks in order to learn new things and obtain good grades, and consequently lead to task engagement. As for social goals (e.g., making friends, having fun with others, developing a feeling of belongingness), their adoption and pursuit are assumed to be rooted in psychological needs for relatedness and belongingness, and in the emotional well-being generated by the satisfaction of these needs. Social goals and task goals can either complement each other if the students are able to coordinate effectively their simultaneous pursuit, or lead to the abandonment of one set of goals if students' goal coordination skills are inadequate.

Second, a goal content perspective allows for the possibility that a goal can emanate either from the individual or from the social context (Wentzel, 1999). This aspect is particularly interesting when dealing with settings in predominantly collectivist cultures (in which social enmeshment is considered a strength) because it recognizes that individual behaviors and goals are nested in relationships with others, and thus allows for the possibility that goal striving may be communally regulated as well as self-regulated. Research into communal aspects of self-regulation has recently investigated aspects of goal striving and locus of control, using a specially designed "Communal Mastery Scale" self-report instrument. Communal Mastery is defined as "the tendency to see oneself as having the potential for success through behavior that is an interwoven process of the self in relation to others" (Jackson, Mackenzie, & Hobfoll, 2000, p. 292). Results suggest that a high score on the

Communal Mastery scale indicates the presence of an emotional resource on which to draw during goal striving.

3.3.10 Self-determination theory (SDT)

Self-determination theory is essentially a more elaborate update of what is probably the most well known distinction in motivation theory, namely, that between intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. Individuals are said to approach a task with *intrinsic motivation* when they engage in it spontaneously, for the satisfaction or enjoyment derived out of doing the task itself. Vallerand and Ratelle (2002) distinguish between "intrinsic motivation to know," "intrinsic motivation to accomplish" (e.g., to surpass oneself), and "intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation." In contrast, students are said to engage in a task with *extrinsic motivation* when they desire to gain some incentive (e.g., money, food), or experience attractive consequences that will arise from task completion but are separate from the task itself. The traditional view of extrinsic motivation is represented by *operant conditioning theory*, which rests on the assumption that an environmental event directs an individual either toward or away from initiating a behavior by signaling the likelihood that the behavior will (or will not) result in rewarding or punishing consequences. The nature of the consequences determines whether the persistence of the behavior increases or decreases (Reeve, 2005).

An alternative and more modern view of extrinsic motivation is embodied in *self-determination theory* (SDT), which is associated with the work of Deci and Ryan (e.g., Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2002). Proponents of SDT view extrinsic motivation as a continuum representing different degrees of harmony between an individual's own way, and an externally prescribed way of thinking or behaving. SDT posits that all individuals tend to move toward situations, and engage in actions that are likely to satisfy three basic psychological needs, which are essential to their functioning and well-being. According to Ryan and Deci (e.g., 2002), the degree to which social contexts allow the satisfaction of these needs is believed to give rise to different types and qualities of motivation:

- The *need for competence* pertains to the need to experience opportunities to interact with the social environment, and show one's capacities confidently and effectively;
- The *need for relatedness* implies a need to feel that one belongs with, is cared for, respected by, and connected to significant others (e.g., a teacher, a family) who are disseminating goals such as classroom values;
- The *need for autonomy* involves a sense of unpressured willingness to engage in an activity. It is not to be confused with the need for independence.

Autonomy can be experienced along a continuum. When the initiation and regulation of an individual's behavior is under someone else's control, they act under pressure, and there is no autonomy (a condition STD terms external regulation). This is the case, for instance, when students work in environmental conditions where extrinsic rewards and punishments are salient. However, individuals often act out of a feeling of internal pressure, to avoid feelings of shame or guilt, or to gain approval from self or others; SDT terms this introjected regulation. The next condition, identified regulation, is represented by individuals who perform a valued activity, which they believe is instrumental in reaching a personally important and self-chosen goal. It is therefore somewhat internalized. Finally, integrated regulation is the most autonomous and internalized form of external regulation. It refers to behaviors that are instrumental but congruent with one's sense of self. When extrinsic motivation is combined with integrated regulation, it is positively associated with high quality learning and personal adjustment, and is similar to intrinsic motivation (Deci, Ryan, & Williams, 1996).

Autonomous forms of motivation have been associated with positive coping in Japanese high school students (Hayamizu, 1997), and in Japanese children (Yamauchi & Tanaka, 1998), replicating earlier findings from the United States by Ryan and Connell (1989). Greater well-being was found among Russian and American students who reported experiencing parents and teachers as being more autonomy supportive (Chirkov & Ryan, 2001). However, when autonomy is operationalized as personal choice, results are mixed. Iyengar and Lepper (1999) found that Asian American children showed most intrinsic motivation when trusted authority figures or peers made choices for them, whereas personal choice enhanced motivation more for American children. It would therefore appear that personal choice might not be as essential to collectivist-oriented children as it is to individualistic-oriented ones.

3.4 MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS DERIVING FROM STUDENTS' APPRAISALS OF THE CLASSROOM CONTEXT

In the previous sections of this chapter, motivation was presented from an individual difference perspective. However, such a perspective is incomplete. Motivated behavior in school is determined by a complex interaction of numerous student and situational characteristics. The situational characteristics to which I refer here belong to the *instructional context*. The term was borrowed from Turner and Meyer (2000), who defined it as "[including] the influences of the teacher, students, content area, and instructional activities on learning, teaching, and motivation" (p. 180).

A number of classroom factors influence student motivation, one of the most important of which is the dynamics of the learner group. The field of group dynamics has studied the development of negative relationship patterns in groups, and based on work in this field, detailed recommendations on how to develop cohesiveness, as well as adaptive group norms and group goals in the language classroom have been published (e.g., Dörnyei & Malderez, 1999; Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003; Ehrman & Dörnyei, 1998; Senior, 1997, 2002).

Because the presence of negative relationship patterns in learner groups was not a salient feature in my research setting, I limit my attention to the two classroom factors that were targeted for investigation in Phase 2 of this study. These are goal structures (i.e., messages in the classroom environment that make certain achievement goals salient, such as mastery or performance goals) and pedagogical caring.

3.4.1 Students' perceptions of the classroom goal orientation

The classroom goal orientation (or structure) refers to the type of achievement goal that is stressed in a given classroom. Consequently, a mastery-goal orientation is said to exist in a classroom when a teacher emphasizes individual progress, effort investment, and understanding of the material over test scores. In contrast, teachers who typically focus on evaluation, promote competition among students, and only reward the more able students are said to encourage perceptions of a classroom performance-goal orientation.

Goal orientation theorists (e.g., Church, Elliot, & Gable, 2001) often argue that students' perceptions of the classroom goal orientation/structure that students perceive influence their pursuit of particular achievement goals (e.g., mastery or performance), or that the classroom goal structure may even override their chronically accessible goals (Pintrich, 2000). However, some empirical studies have shown that the goals stressed in the classroom context tend to have no significant effect on students' personal performance goal orientations. For instance, Urdan and Midgley (2003) found that an increase in perceptions of performance-goal structure in the math class did not produce a similar increase in students' personal performance-approach or performance-avoidance goals in math.

Studies that examined the transition from elementary school to middle school revealed that, as students progress through the grades, they usually perceived an increasing focus on classroom-performance goals and a correspondingly decreasing focus on classroom-mastery goals (Anderman & Midgley, 1997; Urdan & Midgley, 2003). A recent study of South Korean girls' motivation extended these findings by demonstrating that students keep reacting to environmental pressures, even during their high school years (Bong, 2005).

Students' perceptions of a classroom mastery-goal orientation have been associated with the following:

- adaptive motivational outcomes such as use of more effective strategies, persistence, and selection of more challenging tasks (Wolters, 2004);

- more positive attitudes toward the class, and a stronger belief that effort can lead to success (Ames & Archer, 1988);

- positive coping strategies, leading in turn to positive affect (Kaplan & Midgley, 1999);

- perceptions of caring and respectful teachers by middle school students (Roeser, Midgley, & Urdan, 1996)

- use of self-handicapping, avoidance of help seeking, and a preference for avoiding novelty; perceptions of a classroom mastery goal structure emerged as a significant negative predictor of all three avoidance strategies in Turner, Midgley, Meyer, Gheen, Anderman, Kang, & Patrick (2002).

Students' perceptions of a stress on performance goals in the classroom were found to be positively associated with:

- higher levels of avoidance behavior (e.g., Urdan, Midgley, & Anderman, 1998; but for an exception, see Turner, Midgley, Meyer, Gheen, Anderman, Kang, & Patrick, 2002, in whose study students' aggregated perceptions of a performance goal structure in the classroom did not emerge as a significant predictor of avoidance behaviors);

- self-handicapping (Urdan, 2004);

- cheating, and beliefs in the acceptability of cheating, during early adolescence (Anderman, Griesinger, & Westerfield, 1998);

- less adaptive, or non-coping strategies, leading in turn to negative affect such as anger, frustration, and anxiety (Kaplan & Midgley, 1999).

In any case, student surveys alone are unlikely to be sufficient to evaluate classroom goal structures since questionnaires can be interpreted differently from the way they were intended. Indeed, in one study (Turner, 2001), students' self-report data indicated that students perceived their classroom as mastery-oriented while classroom discourse data suggested that the learning environment conveyed messages that were at odds with the promotion of mastery goals (e.g., low challenge, low expectations for students, praise for mundane accomplishments). The students recognized that challenge was low but reported very positive qualities of experiences within the social environment of their classroom, which was observed to be relaxed, pleasant, warm, and supportive. Turner (2001) concludes that the students and the teacher cooperated in creating and maintaining a classroom climate that privileged social

goals rather than content goals. She suggests that students interpreted the questionnaire items (e.g., "In math class, the teacher thinks mistakes are OK") as indicators of the social environment of the classroom, rather than as reasons that were communicated for trying to achieve. Similarly, Lemos (1993, 1996; cited in Lemos, 2001) used mixed methods, and obtained results indicating that students' perceptions of classroom goals are not always accurate.

Taken together, these cases show how the use of mixed methods can help to throw more light on motivation in context, and also tend to lend support to Urdan, Kneisel, and Mason's (1999) suggestion that classroom goal structures are perhaps "climate-like constructs" (p. 135).

3.4.2 Students' perceptions of the teacher and pedagogical caring

Wentzel (1997) highlights the importance of students' perceptions of "pedagogical caring," which refers to teachers' personal qualities and skills in promoting and sustaining positive child-adult relationships (also see Noddings, 2001). Viewed from an SDT perspective, warm, caring teachers encourage students' interest and motivation by helping them fulfill their need for relatedness (Urdan & Schoenfelder, 2006). In a longitudinal study on the role of perceived support and caring from teachers in middle school students' motivation, Wentzel (1997) provided empirical evidence that perceived pedagogical caring can predict current motivation, even after controlling for performance level, control beliefs, and previous motivation.

Furthermore, noting that correlations between adolescents' subjective reports of caregiving and observers' and parents' reports were typically weak or non-significant, and that students' subjective reports tended to be more powerful predictors in independent assessments of social and emotional outcomes than reports from other informants (Feldman, Wentzel, & Gehring, 1989), Wentzel (1997) studied middle school students' perceptions of several characteristics of caring and uncaring teachers. Five dimensions of pedagogical caring emerged from her data, which were drawn from the family socialization literature, and from Noddings' (1992) model of effective pedagogical caring in particular. One of Noddings' dimensions, "rule setting," was absent in Wentzel's data, suggesting that, in that sample, consistent enforcement of rules was not deemed as indicative of a caring or non-caring teacher disposition. The remaining four broad dimensions that emerged from the data were as follows:

- *Modeling:* indications that the teacher cares about teaching.
- *Democratic interactions:* indications that the teacher listens to what students have to say, that he or she treats everyone honestly and fairly, and keeps promises.

- *Expectations based on students as individuals and as learners:* indications that the teacher recognizes and shows concern about students' personal, social, and academic needs.
- *Nurturance:* characteristic related to the teacher's informal and formal evaluation of students' work.

Students' perceptions of the "teacher context" were also considered an essential factor in student engagement with learning activities in the classroom by Skinner and Belmont (1993). They identified three dimensions of teacher behavior: involvement, structure, and autonomy support. "Involvement" is the opposite of rejection or neglect: Teachers are said to be "involved" with their students when they know, take time for, express affection toward, enjoy interactions with, understand, sympathize with, and dedicate resources to their students in case of need. "Structure" is the opposite of chaos. Teachers provide structure when they communicate their expectations clearly, when they respond consistently and predictably, when they offer instrumental help and support, when they adjust teaching strategies to the students' levels. Finally, "autonomy support" is the opposite of coercion. Teachers who are autonomy supportive are not authoritarian and do not control students through force; nor do they use external rewards. Instead, they allow students some latitude regarding learning activities by providing options and/or opportunities to follow their own interests; they are respectful and acknowledge the importance of students' opinions, feelings, and agendas; and they establish relevance by providing a rationale for learning activities or by providing connections between learning activities and students' interests (Skinner & Belmont, 1993). Skinner and Belmont (1993) found that student and teacher perceptions of structure were modestly but significantly related over two measurements, whereas perceptions of involvement and autonomy support were only moderately related between the two types of informers on one measurement.

Perceived social and academic support from teachers was examined by Wentzel (1998). She found it to be positively related to middle school students' reports of perceived peer support, prosocial goals (i.e., efforts to share and to help peers solve academic problems) and mastery goal orientation (but not performance goal orientation), but negatively related to distress. Furthermore, perceived support from teachers was an independent, positive predictor of interest in class and interest in school, as well as of compliance to classroom norms (Wentzel, 1998).

Another different but related research perspective on the classroom social milieu, which extends Wentzel's work described above, is offered by Chang (2003) and Chang, Liu, Wen, Fung, Wang, and Xu (2004). Chang (2003) found that Chinese junior high school students' reactions to the aggression, social withdrawal, and pro-social leadership behaviors of peers tended to gravitate in the same direction as that shown by their teacher. Moreover, Chang's

(2003) results suggest that, in China, as indicated by Wentzel's work, a teaching style that is warm, responsive, and egalitarian is more likely to promote the internalization of the teacher's attitudes, values, and goals in adolescents than is an authoritarian, harsh, or intrusive teaching style. Chang, Liu, Wen, Fung, Wang, and Xu (2004) drew on the adolescent peer relations literature as well as on teacher influence research to investigate the potentially mediating influence of teacher liking or disliking of a given student on peer liking or disliking of the same student. They found that the extent to which students are accepted by peers is related both to their behavior and to their relationship with the classroom teacher, and that this effect is stronger among students who perceive their teacher as authoritative rather than authoritarian.

3.5 SUMMARY

This chapter focused on motivation research in the field of educational psychology. The main themes were as follows:

- Shifts in the scope of motivation theories, in conceptual frameworks, in research approaches, and in the relationship between theory and practice that have characterized the field since its inception in the 1930s.

- Theories and constructs referring to within-person factors that can affect an individual's motivation in educational settings and present relatively stable aspects.

- Theories and constructs that tend to be influenced by the socialization process and by educational experiences, and which are therefore habitual or preferential but at the same time also somewhat malleable.

- Differences found in results from cross-cultural studies involving Asian samples.

Chapter 4

Foreign language learning motivation

This chapter opens with a summary of the historical developments and a review of the trends that have taken place since the foundation of the field of second language learning motivation research. This is followed by a discussion of major second or foreign motivation theories and constructs, a number of which are related to the motivation theories and constructs presented in Chapter 3. The discussion is supported with empirical findings relevant to the design and interpretation of the results of the study presented in this thesis. Finally, the review narrows in focus by examining what is known about the EFL learning motivation of secondary school students in South Korea.

4.1 HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENTS AND TRENDS IN THE STUDY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING (L2) MOTIVATION

The field of foreign language learning (L2) motivation research was founded in 1959 by two Canadian social psychologists, Lambert and Gardner. Although they were not linguists, they became interested in second language learning because of the somewhat unusual Canadian socio-political environment, which is characterized by the coexistence of French- and English-speaking communities. The most universally accepted contribution of their work to the field has been that learning a second language is unlike learning any other subject. This is because it "involves imposing elements of another culture into one's own lifespace" (Gardner & Lambert, 1972, p. 193), and because it is easily influenced (positively or negatively) by a range of social factors, such as prevailing attitudes toward the language, geo-political considerations, and cultural stereotypes (Dörnyei, 2005). In other respects, though, the field, just like its counterpart in general and educational psychology, has undergone a number of shifts: in scope, in research perspectives, in its relation to practice, and in its relationship with the field of Second Language Acquisition research.

4.1.1 Shift in scope

The first empirical investigations related to L2 learning motivation took place in Canada, and were aimed at identifying and measuring variables that shared variance in common with measures of English-French bilingualism (Gardner & Lambert, 1959). Many such studies resulted in the proposal of Gardner and Smythe's (1975) pioneering socio-educational model of second language acquisition in school contexts, which has been revised several times (e.g., Gardner, 1985a; Gardner, 2000; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993a; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). It is interesting to note that, according to Gardner, "acquisition" involves "the development of *bilingual* skill in the language, and that this requires considerable time, effort, and persistence" (Gardner, 2001a, p. 4, my emphasis).

The studies also resulted in the production of the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB), which was originally developed to assess what appeared to be the major affective factors involved in the learning of French as a second language in Canada (see Gardner 1985b). The AMTB has certainly contributed to the popularization of motivation research. In just over four decades since its publication, it has been used in many different parts of the world to investigate students' motivation to learn second languages (e.g., Mondada & Doehler, 2004), heritage languages (e.g., Syed, 2001), foreign languages (e.g., Inbar, Donitsa-Schmidt, & Shohamy, 2001; Ushioda, 2001), and English as a foreign and international language (e.g., Brown, Robson, & Rosenkjar, 2001; Lamb, 2004).

4.1.2 Shift in research perspectives

Through the 1960s, 70s, and 80s, language learning motivation research was dominated by the *social psychological approach* of Gardner and his Canadian associates. This approach sought to integrate social psychology and individual psychology in order to explain differences in motivation to master the language of another community. The social element of the approach was apparent in the "integrative motive," which proposed that learner' attitudes toward the L2 and the L2 community would affect their L2 learning behavior. For instance, the first "Motivation" factor to emerge in a study of Anglophone high-school students studying French as a second language in Montreal was described as "characterized by a willingness to be like valued members of the language community" (Gardner & Lambert, 1959, p. 271). Such a perspective on motivation was well ahead of its time since macro-type, social approaches to motivation research (i.e., those focusing on motivational dispositions of communities) only started to become popular in the 1990s (Dörnyei, 2005). However, for this very reason, it also eventually started to be viewed as inadequate in terms of explaining how

motivation works in actual language classrooms. As a result, a new wave of motivation researchers from the U.S.A. and Europe started to call for a broadening of the research paradigm.

The 1990s *cognitive-situated period* in L2 motivation is usually recognized as having been heralded by Crookes & Schmidt's (1991) call to "[reopen] the motivation research agenda" but other researchers had also recommended changes in a similar vein at around the same time (e.g., Brown, 1990; Julkunen, 1989; Skehan, 1991). The suggested changes did not entail a rejection of the social psychological approach, but proposed to enrich it by taking into account what was happening in motivational psychology at that time (as described in Chapter 3 of this thesis), namely the adoption of a mostly cognitive and more "micro" perspective, which focused on motivation situated in the classroom.

Another shift in L2 motivation research occurred after the publication of Dörnyei and Ottó's innovative (1998) process model of L2 motivation. As a result, in the late 1990s, a new, *process-oriented period* began for L2 motivation research. The process-oriented period is characterized by an increasing emphasis on viewing motivation, not simply as a static product, but also as a dynamic process fluctuating over time. This movement is spearheaded by the research that has been carried out by Dörnyei, Ushioda (e.g., 2001), and colleagues in Europe. The new approaches are moving toward an integration of concepts from motivational psychology, personality psychology, and even neurobiology (Dörnyei, 2005). This in line with the trend observable in general psychology, as evidenced, for instance, by Kuhl's (2000b) Personality Systems Interaction theory of motivation, which will be discussed in Chapter 5 of this thesis.

4.1.3 Shift toward more relevance to classroom practice

The increasing interest in making motivation research more relevant to classroom practice was undoubtedly fuelled by the 1994 debate in the Modern Language Journal (Dörnyei, 1994a, 1994b; Gardner & Tremblay, 1994; Oxford & Shearin, 1994).

This shift is linked to the move toward a more situated research approach (including the influence of the teacher, classmates, task-partners, and significant others), and to the emphasis on viewing motivation as a process. This is because the investigation of the dynamics of motivation within actual learning situations may uncover the processes by which students become motivated in specific physical classroom environments, which include both educational and social dimensions. This, in turn, may yield implications directly relevant to classroom practice, in terms of practices that can develop and support students' motivation.

4.1.4 Shift toward integration into SLA research

According to Dörnyei (2005), the product-oriented approach (i.e., a focus on answering the question "What is motivation?") of traditional L2 motivation research—particularly the kind undertaken within the social psychological paradigm, is what has largely prevented its full integration into Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Dörnyei (2005) argues convincingly that this approach is in sharp contrast with SLA methods, which focus on answering the question "How does it work?", and concentrate on studying learner-language development from a situated, process-oriented perspective.

Dörnyei (2005) speculates that the introduction of the process-oriented approach to L2 motivation research means that SLA and L2 motivation researchers may now be able to share similar approaches when studying the same phenomenon of L2 learning. Nevertheless, he cautions that full integration can only take place if L2 motivation researchers focus on how motivational factors affect specific student learning behaviors during an L2 course such as students' engagement in learning tasks rather than their L2 proficiency.

4.2 THE SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGICAL APPROACH SPECIFIC TO L2 MOTIVATION THEORIES

Gardner's social psychological theory of L2 motivation has been used extensively to explore the structure of individual students' motivation, and links between students' existing quantity of motivation and their achievement in the L2. The theory comprises the construct of "integrative motivation" (previously termed the "integrative motive"), a model of second language acquisition derived from it, and a matching battery of psychometric tests designed to measure a variety of motivational factors (the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery, or AMTB). Due to space limitations, I have selected a few tenets of the theory for discussion, based on how helpful they are to appraise the results of empirical studies relevant to the research presented in this thesis.

4.2.1 Orientation and Motivation

A basic distinction was made in Gardner (1985a) but has frequently been misunderstood, namely that between *orientation* (i.e., a class of reasons for learning a language, representing a type of "goal" similar to that found in goal theory discussed in Chapter 3 of this thesis) and *motivation* (i.e., "the driving force in any situation," Gardner, 2001a, p. 6). Gardner's theory

does not belong to goal-type theories (Dörnyei, 2001c); therefore, its focus is on motivation, not orientations.

4.2.2 Integrative Motivation

Figure 4.1 shows Gardner's (2001a) conceptualization of "Integrative Motivation." based on an extract from his basic model of second language learning (pp.5-7), which is a revised version of his earlier conceptualization of the "Integrative Motive" (Gardner, 1985a). "Integrative motivation" subsumes three components. The first two, "integrativeness" and "attitudes toward the learning situation," are usually fairly highly correlated and are seen as supports for the third component, which is "motivation." In other words, a student who has high levels of "integrativeness," and/or "positive attitudes toward the learning situation," but is low in "motivation" is unlikely to achieve much in terms of L2 proficiency. Conversely, for motivation levels to be sustained over the long period needed to master an L2, a high level of "motivation" alone is insufficient; it needs to be supported by high levels of "integrativeness," and/or positive "attitudes toward the learning situation."

Gardner's (1985a) social psychological approach assumes that students' goals, when they engage in L2 learning, fall into two categories, an integrative orientation, and an instrumental one. An integrative orientation reflects a positive disposition toward a community of L2 speakers, accompanied by a desire to learn the L2 for the purpose of interacting with, and even becoming similar to valued members of the community of L2 speakers. An instrumental orientation refers to a desire to learn the L2 primarily for potential concrete gains associated with L2 proficiency, such as improved education, career, or financial prospects.

Even though "integrativeness" and "instrumentality" are the two most frequently highlighted concepts in L2 motivation studies (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005), "instrumentality" has not received much attention from Gardner. "Integrativeness" is assessed in the AMTB by scales tapping attitudes toward the group of L2 speakers, general interest in foreign languages, and a set of integrative orientation items reflecting reasons for studying the L2 based on attraction to the group of L2 speakers (MacIntyre, 2002).

Finally, Figure 4.1 indicates the function that Gardner (2001a, p. 5) attributes to "instrumental motivation" and to other motivational factors (e.g., a stimulating L2 teacher or course), within a class of variables that he termed "other support" in his model of second language learning. However, this miscellaneous class of factors appears somewhat artificially differentiated from "integrative motivation," and not particularly well integrated into the model (Dörnyei, 2005).

FIGURE 4.1 Conceptualization of Integrative Motivation

(Based on Gardner, 2001, pp. 5-7)

other support

e.g.,
- *Instrumental Motivation*
- stimulating L2 teacher
- stimulating L2 course

Integrativeness
(Emotional identification with the L2 cultural group)

CRITERIA
- An *integrative orientation* toward learning the L2
- A favorable attitude toward the L2 community
- An openness to, and respect for other cultural groups and ways of life (i.e., an absence of ethnocentrism)

Motivation

CRITERIA
- Persistence and constant effort
- Desire to achieve mastery of the L2
- Enjoyment of the L2 learning process

Attitudes toward the learning situation

(e.g., in the school context, it includes the teacher, the course, classmates, teaching materials, extra-curricular activities associated with the course, etc.)

Integrative Motivation

4.2.3 Misconceptions of Gardner's theory

There are two common misconceptions of Gardner's motivation theory (Dörnyei, 2005). One is that L2 motivation is simply the interplay of two components, an "integrative orientation / motivation" and an "instrumental orientation / motivation." It is not surprising that misconceptions abound, given that:

- The terms "orientation" and "motivation" have been used somewhat inconsistently in the past by Gardner himself.

- Gardner, for instance, still mentions both "integrative orientation" and "integrative motivation" but that the terms have come to refer to different concepts linked in complex hierarchical relationships (see Figure 4.1).

- Many of these terms sound confusingly similar (e.g., "integrativeness," and "integrative motive").

The other common misconception is that the theory revolves around a simple dichotomy of the type, "instrumental motivation is bad / integrative motivation is good," which is probably a consequence of Gardner's almost exclusive focus on "integrativeness."

4.2.4 Integrative orientation vs. other orientations

In a seminal paper, Canadian researchers Clément and Kruidenier (1983) were the first to challenge the "universality and exhaustiveness" (p. 288) of the instrumental and integrative orientations because of conflicting results that had been obtained in a number of empirical studies examining patterns of relationships between different orientations and achievement in L2 learning. They pointed out ambiguities in the definition of the construct of integrative orientation, and suggested that aspects of the learning context might influence the emergence of other orientations.

Indeed, four orientations emerged from Clément and Kruidenier's (1983) research, namely, instrumental, friendship, travel, and knowledge orientations, which appeared to sustain motivation in all eight groups of Canadian high school learners that they surveyed. Each group represented a different learning context, that is, the eight groups were obtained by permutations of three factors: the learners' ethnicity—English-speaking, or French-speaking; the learning milieu—monocultural, or multicultural; and the target L2—French, English, or Spanish. The instrumental, friendship, travel, and knowledge orientations were also found later in a study by Noels, Pelletier, Clément, and Vallerand (2000).

In their 1983 study, Clément and Kruidenier also identified a fifth orientation, termed sociocultural orientation, among unicultural-setting students learning Spanish as an L2 (an

ethnic minority language in Canada). A sociocultural orientation refers to "seek[ing] greater knowledge of the cultural and artistic production of the target [language] group" but implies "a rather distant or 'bookish' interest," therefore lacking the affective connotation that is an inherent aspect of integrative orientation (Clément & Kruidenier, 1983, p. 288).

Finally, Clément and Kruidenier's (1983) results suggested that an integrative orientation, whereby students learn an L2 in order to "identify" with valued members of the L2 group, requires assurance of one's first language and culture dominance, as well as familiarity with, and usually availability of the L2 group in one's immediate environment.

4.2.5 Integrativeness: Re-conceptualizations

Dörnyei (1990) was the next researcher to challenge (but from Europe this time) the conceptual definition and the dominant place of "integrativeness" in L2 motivation theory. His research was based on survey data obtained from young adult learners of EFL in Hungary, where direct contact with a community of English speakers, hence the opportunity to identify psychologically and emotionally with them seldom, if ever, happens. Dörnyei (1990) argued that foreign language learners could hardly be expected to form attitudes about the L2 community, particularly when the L2 is an international language. Instead, he proposed that identification be considered metaphorically, as "a more general disposition toward language learning and the values the target language conveys" (p. 65), "and in the case of the undisputed world language, English, this identification would be associated with a non-parochial, cosmopolitan, globalized world citizen identity" (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 97). This was already well illustrated in Dörnyei's (1990) conceptualization of an Integrative Motivational Subsystem (based on the set of integrative motives that emerged from the study), which includes the following four dimensions:

- A general interest in foreign languages, cultures, and people (related to Clément and Kruidenier's [1983] "sociocultural orientation").
- A desire to broaden one's outlook, to be current, more cosmopolitan, and avoid isolation (associated to Clément and Kruidenier's [1983] "knowledge orientation").
- A desire for new stimuli and challenges (includes Clément and Kruidenier's [1983] "friendship orientation," and the tourist dimension of the "travel orientation").
- A desire to integrate into another community (temporarily or permanently), with the help of the L2.

It is especially interesting to note that, compared to the set of integrative motives, the set of *instrumental motives* that emerged from Dörnyei's (1990) investigation was particularly homogeneous, and accounted for a large proportion of the variance in motivation.

"Instrumental motives" refer to those organized around a learner's striving toward his or her future career. Consequently, the results seemed to suggest that instrumental orientation might play a more crucial role than integrative orientation in foreign language learning environments. Moreover, Dörnyei's (1990) results showed that integrative and instrumental motives sometimes overlapped, particularly in the case of emigration, or even temporary sojourn, when the main motives are usually work or study but can be accompanied by a desire to identify with and integrate into a new community. Consistent with the above, Dörnyei (2002) subsequently redefined "integrativeness" as "a broad positive disposition towards the L2 speaker community, including an interest in their life and culture and a desire for contact with them" (p. 147).

The lack of fit between empirical findings and Gardner's meaning of "integrativeness" has led some researchers, such as Warden and Lin (2000) in the Taiwanese EFL environment, to conclude that integrative motivation does not exist in their particular setting. Other researchers suggest that it exists but in a different form. For instance, based on empirical data collected in the Japanese EFL context, McClelland (2000) proposed that, since English is an international language, integrativeness could refer to integration with the global community. The global community, in many ways, is an "imagined community," as conceptualized by Norton (2001), that is, a mental construction made of a combination of personal experiences and knowledge derived from the past, and of imagined elements related to the future.

Yet other researchers try to avoid using the concept because of conflicting results. Irie (2003) explains that this often happens in Japanese motivation studies because what is generally found is a factor that blends positive attitudes toward L2 communities and speakers of the L2 with utilitarian interests (e.g., traveling), which does not fit Gardner's original meaning. Instead, these composite factors are given new labels, such as "International Orientation" (Nakata, 1995a, 1995b) or "Intrinsic-Instrumental-Integrative Motive" (Kimura, Nakata, & Okumura, 2001). An elaborate adaptation of integrativeness has also been proposed by Yashima (e.g., 2002), which she called "International Posture." International Posture is presently operationalized into three variables: "interest in international vocation or activities," "interest in foreign affairs," and "intergroup approach-avoidance tendency" (Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide and Shimizu, 2004). Yashima (2002) found that Japanese university students' International Posture influenced their motivation and L2 self-confidence. Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide and Shimizu (2004) replicated these findings with Japanese adolescent learners of English.

Finally, a more recent reinterpretation of "integrativeness" by Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) may offer a more useful motivational concept because it is not specific to English as an international language and has the merit of being able to account for the high positive correlation often found between "integrativeness" and "instrumentality." On the basis of

findings from a large-scale survey of Hungarian school children (age 13-14), Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) suggest that it may be useful, especially in contexts where there is little or no direct contact with L2 speakers, to look at "integrativeness" from a perspective of "ideal" and "ought" selves (as discussed in Chapter 3). From this perspective, learners are said to have an "integrative" disposition if they are driven by an idealized image of themselves that includes the possibility of becoming competent L2 speakers. A learner with an ought L2 self as opposed to an ideal L2 self learns an L2 for non-internalized motives based, for instance, on fear of punishment or on fear of failure. Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) suggest that "integrativeness" be relabeled as the "Ideal L2 Self," and point out that the latter does not conflict with Gardner's original notion of "integrativeness" (see Section 4.8 for further details).

4.3 EXPECTANCY-VALUE RELATED COMPONENTS OF L2 MOTIVATION

Gardner's theory of L2 motivation provides some basic elements of a student's L2 domain motivational knowledge. However, other components have been investigated since the 1990s. A number of these components fall within an expectancy-value framework.

4.3.1 L2 research on attributions

There is an overall lack of research into the causal attributional processes of L2 learners (Dörnyei, 2001c), although notable exceptions are Ushioda (e.g., 1996), and Williams and Burden (1999). Ushioda's (1996) findings from her interview studies were congruent with the adaptive attributional patterns found in educational psychology (see Chapter 3). In Williams and Burden's (1999) study, the children (aged 10 to 17) showed different attributional patterns according to their age. Children aged 10 to 12 attributed their success to listening and concentrating, whereas older children cited a broader range of attributions including ability, level of work, circumstances, and others' influence; success was hardly ever attributed to the use of appropriate strategies.

4.3.2 Linguistic self-confidence and related attitudinal constructs

Linguistic self-confidence is a construct that was introduced by Clément and has been supported by empirical results (e.g., Clément & Kruidenier, 1985). Linguistic self-confidence reflects "a confident, anxiety-free belief that the mastery of a L2 is well within the learner's

means" (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005, p. 22). It is a socially defined construct, since it is mainly determined by the quality and quantity of either direct or indirect social contact with the L2 group and culture (Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994). In this respect, it is different from the cognitive construct of "self-efficacy" used in the psychological motivational literature (see Chapter 3). Linguistic self-confidence, though, does have a cognitive subcomponent named *perceived L2 competence* (Baker & MacIntyre, 2000), as well as an affective one, *L2-use anxiety*, or "the discomfort experienced when using a L2" (MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998, p. 551). Learners who are high in linguistic self-confidence tend to believe that they have the ability to achieve goals or complete tasks successfully.

Linguistic self-efficacy (Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000) is the task-specific form of linguistic self-confidence. It is a situation-dependent, cognitive component, which refers to learners' self evaluation of their existing L2 language knowledge and skills, with regard to whether or not they can—or think they can—meet the communication demands of a particular task, and whether they feel they have the ability to compensate for what they do not know. Dörnyei and Kormos (2000) and Dörnyei (2002) investigated the relationship between linguistic self-efficacy and task engagement. Task engagement was operationalized as the number of turns that Hungarian high school EFL students took at speaking the L2, and the number of words that they produced while engaged in an oral task. The task was especially designed for the study, but took place in the students' regular English classes. Both studies revealed that linguistic self-efficacy only affected the task engagement of those students who had positive attitudes toward the task; in other words, if students were negatively disposed toward the task, it did not matter whether they felt able or unable to complete the task satisfactorily. Consequently, it appears that if a student does not want to engage in an activity, whether or not she feels she can complete it may be irrelevant.

4.3.3 Value components of L2 motivation

For many secondary school students, learning an L2 remains primarily an academic requirement, which is often at best perceived as a means to achieve another end. In other words, they may be interested in obtaining high scores in an L2 test (which may only require the ability to do well in complex multiple-choice tests, and not test either oral or written proficiency in the L2), in order to pursue other meaningful personal goals. Recall that the term "instrumentality" is normally used to refer to learning an L2 for such utilitarian purposes.

Dörnyei and Kormos (2000), and Dörnyei (2002) investigated the instrumental benefits associated with the EFL proficiency of Hungarian high school learners. In these studies, the

authors preferred to use the term "incentive values" to instrumentality because, besides the usual pragmatic benefits mentioned by the participants, other incentives were mentioned such as traveling, making foreign friends, and understanding English songs. Dörnyei and Kormos (2000) found a negative correlation between learners with high task attitudes who reported an interest in incentive values and the number of words produced by these learners; they suggested it might be because such an interest was socially desirable rather than genuine. On the other hand, Dörnyei (2002) reported a highly significant, positive correlation between students with positive task attitudes who reported an interest in incentive values and the number of turns they had taken during the task. Dörnyei (2002) indicates that the result is in accordance with his theoretical proposition that task motivation is "fuelled by a combination of situation-specific and generalized motives" (p. 151). This conclusion is in line with Boekaert's theoretical position outlined in Chapter 3, and with Tremblay, Goldberg, and Gardner's (1995) suggestion (based on empirical data) that the trait motivation students bring to a given lesson may interact with classroom experiences to affect their state motivation during that lesson.

Finally, another noteworthy finding from the studies by Dörnyei and Kormos (2000) and Dörnyei (2002) was that some learners, who had negative attitudes toward the tasks used in their study, nevertheless engaged in L2 communication behavior when they held favorable attitudes toward the L2 course. This seems to lend support to Schumann's (1999) argument that some individuals may be "willing to endure" (p. 36) certain L2 learning experiences that they find unappealing or even unpleasant, just because of the contribution these experiences make to achieving a longer-term goal that they value (e.g., learning an L2). It also suggests to me that favorable attitudes toward an L2 course may be related to the positive value students attach to L2 learning in general, and that attitudes toward specific language learning tasks may be based on an affective type of response to these learning tasks, which can be self-regulated.

4.4 A HYBRID MODEL OF MOTIVATION: TREMBLAY & GARDNER'S (1995)

Gardner (2001) pointed out that his model of L2 motivation did not attempt to be comprehensive, and conceded that the motivation of "integratively motivated" individuals might be supported by other correlates or antecedents (Gardner, 2001a; Tremblay, Goldberg, & Gardner, 1995). Indeed, a revision of the socio-educational model was subsequently produced by Tremblay and Gardner (1995), which contained added variables originating from expectancy-value and goal theories.

FIGURE 4.2

Tremblay and Gardner's (1995) Model of L2 Motivation
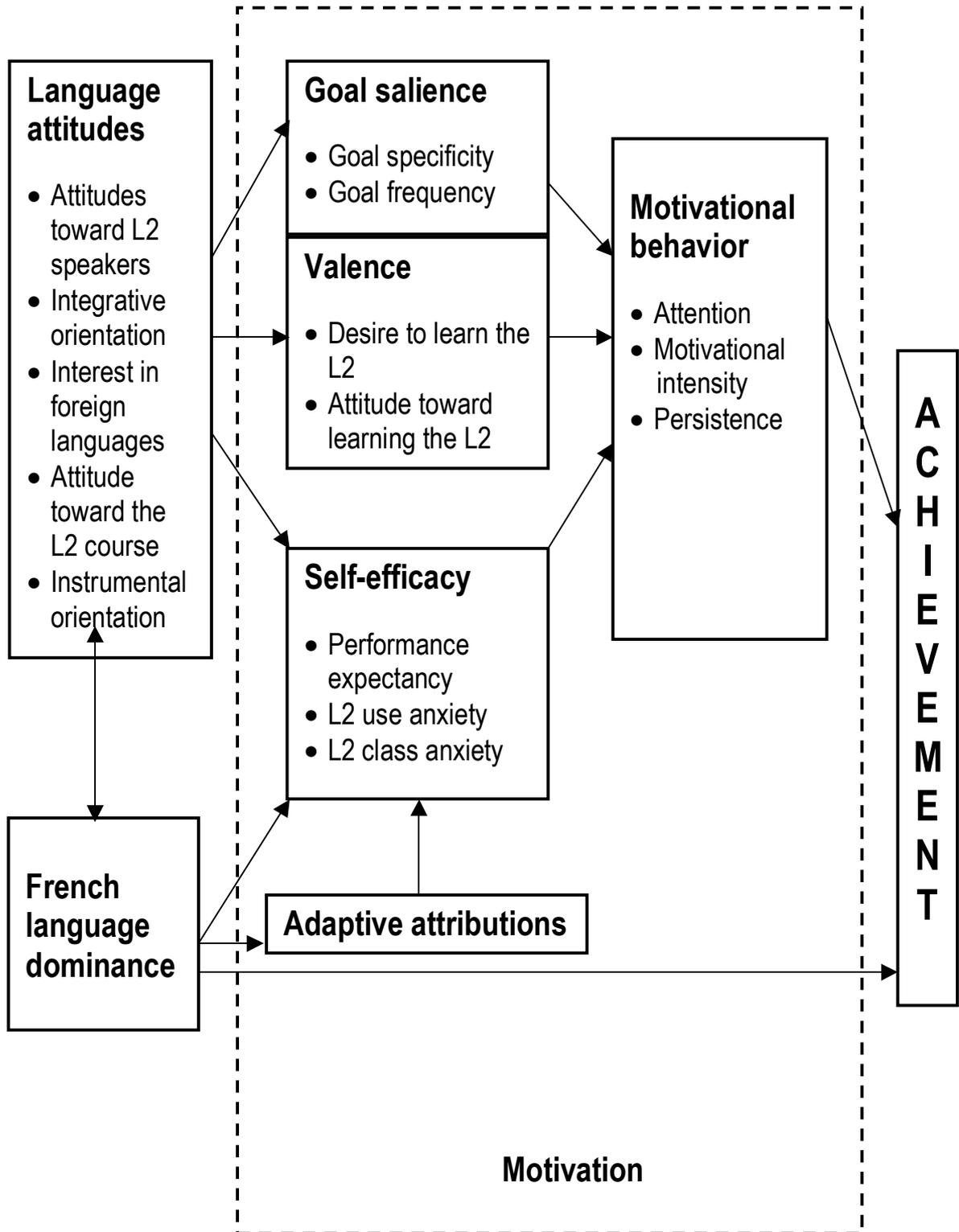
Figure 4.2 shows Tremblay and Gardner's (1995) extended model of L2 motivation. The overall design of the model suggests that an individual's L2 motivational knowledge base that is socially grounded but also has cognitive and affective components leads to motivated behavior, which in turn leads to L2 achievement. The expectancy components in the model include "adaptive attributions" and "self-efficacy," the latter being comprised of "anxiety" and "performance expectancy" (i.e., the expectancy that one will be able to perform certain activities in the L2 by the end of the course). The value component is labeled "valence," and is assessed using the traditional AMTB scales for "desire to learn the L2," and "attitudes toward the L2." Finally, the goal element is termed "goal salience." It refers to how specific students' goals are, and to how frequently they use goal-setting strategies. Tremblay and Gardner' (1995) empirical testing of the model revealed that the effect of the new variables did not alter the basic structure of the original model.

4.5. SELF-DETERMINATION THEORY (SDT) AND SECOND LANGUAGE MOTIVATION

Systematic empirical investigations of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation within the framework of Self-Determination Theory (SDT) were initiated in the L2 learning context at the turn of the millennium by Noels and colleagues in Canada (e.g.. Noels, 2001a, 2001b; Noels, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand, 2000). The research project had two major aims: (a) to investigate possible relationships between SDT constructs and L2 orientations identified by Gardner, and by Clément and Kruidenier (1983); (b) to examine how students' perceptions of their teacher's classroom behavior influence their sense of self-determination (autonomy) and enjoyment of L2 learning. The findings related to the latter aim will be discussed in Chapter 5. Noels, Pelletier, Clément and Vallerand (2000) also developed an instrument to assess self-determination theory constructs applied to L2 learning, namely, the "Language Learning Orientations Scale: Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and Amotivation."
With regard to the relationships between SDT constructs and L2 orientations, based on the results of several of their studies, Noels (2001a) proposed that L2 motivation may be fuelled to different extents by three types of orientations (i.e., reasons for learning an L2). Intrinsic reasons include experiencing stimulation, enjoyment, satisfaction, a sense of fun, or a sense of accomplishment. Extrinsic reasons (e.g., Gardner's "instrumental orientation") lie on a continuum similar to that postulated by SDT theory, with one pole consisting of external pressures (e.g., threats or rewards), and the other of internalized ones (e.g., because L2 learning is personally valued). Finally, integrative reasons relate to positive contact with speakers of the L2, and perhaps eventual identification with the L2-speaking community.

4.6 SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING MOTIVATION
AS A NEUROBIOLOGICAL PROCESS

As part of an attempt to formulate a comprehensive neurobiological account of post-critical period second language acquisition, Schumann (e.g., 1998, 1999, 2001a, 2001b; Schumann, Crowell, Jones, Lee, Schuchert, & Wood, 2004; Schumann & Wood, 2004) proposed a perspective on L2 motivation that is radically different from the others presented in this thesis (although another neurologically-based theory will be presented in Chapter 5). Instead of making speculative inferences on the basis of patterns observed in L2 motivation-related data regarding the mechanisms involved in L2 motivation, Schumann starts from a description of the neural mechanisms involved in moving an organism into action before going on to speculate how these mechanisms may underlie L2 motivation.

4.6.1 General neurobiological basis of Schumann's theory

A basic assumption of the theory is that post-critical period second language acquisition, whether it takes place in a classroom or in a natural setting, is "a paradigm case of sustained deep learning" (Schumann & Wood, 2004, p. 24). Proficiency in a second language implies "deep," expert knowledge, the achievement of which requires an extended (i.e., "sustained") period of learning, learning being one instance of activity. Schumann and Wood (2004) claim that their theory of L2 learning motivation is rooted in the biological notion of "value" as the basis for all activity. They define *value* as "a bias that leads an organism to certain preferences and enables it to choose among alternatives" (Schumann & Wood, 2004, p. 24). These preferences include those that are evolutionarily set (i.e., related to the organism's survival), as well as those that are learned through life experience (i.e., related to the organism's emotional, intellectual, and social well-being). This is based on current neuroscientific knowledge, which shows that human beings tend to seek continuously a state of positively regulated life, thanks to an "aggregate of dispositions laid down in brain circuitry that, once engaged by internal or environmental conditions, seeks both survival and well-being" (Damasio, 2003, p. 36).

Preferences are hypothesized to be stored in a memory for value, along with the characteristics of the stimulus situation from which they sprung, and the "relevance to [the organism's] goals, its ability to adapt, its hedonic sense, and its sense of self" (Schumann & Wood, 2004, p. 25). While current neuroscientific knowledge allows to postulate the existence of memory systems possessing such properties, it is worthwhile noting that the existence of a single memory module, which would store explicit preferences alongside some

unconscious, innate "values" as hypothesized in Schumann and Wood (2004) based on Leventhal (1984) and Edelman (1992), appears unlikely. This is because currently available neurological evidence tends to support the existence of a variety of different memory systems, making a particular distinction between implicit (or unconscious), and explicit (conscious or declarative) memory systems (e.g., Kuhl, 2000a, 2000b; LeDoux, 1998).

Schumann argues that since evolution is conservative, the neural systems that organisms use when foraging to feed or mate may also be adapted to the purpose of learning. Consequently, he suggests that learning can be viewed as a form of mental or intellectual foraging involving motor activity to acquire information, knowledge, or skill (Schumann, 2001b; Schumann & Wood, 2004). Thus, just as a change in the homeostatic value-system of an animal (e.g., low glucose levels) causes it to undertake motor activity to achieve the goal of feeding, a given situation in an L2 classroom, for instance, may generate in a student a desire to learn the L2, or at least engage in a given activity. Such a desire constitutes a goal or incentive motive, which is held over time in "value memory." The achievement of this goal requires both motor and mental activity. The intensity of the incentive motive is modulated by the appraisal information in relation to the assessment of the current stimulus situation.

In Schumann's theory, the motivation process (i.e., how an organism is driven into action) can thus be described as follows:

- Motor and/or mental activity is the result of *action tendencies* (i.e., expressions of the readiness to undertake mental or physical action),
- Action tendencies are the result of *emotions* (patterns of neural and chemical responses in the body that are communicated to the brain as feelings) such as joy, fear, anger or shame.
- Such emotions are generated through the *appraisal of stimulus events* (coming from an organism's internal and external environments) in terms of their emotional relevance and motivational significance when compared to the contents of the "value memory" system.

Stimulus appraisal therefore occupies a key position in the theory and is the area where Schumann attempts to link neurobiology to psychology and second language acquisition (SLA).

4.6.2 Stimulus appraisal: Where neurobiology meets psychology and SLA?

A fair amount is known in neurobiology about the role and mechanisms of stimulus appraisal as a process of detection of either what is trouble for an organism with a view to getting rid of

it, or what constitutes an opportunity with a view to reaching out for it (see, e.g., Damasio, 2003; LeDoux, 1998). Stimulus appraisal and the automated emotions triggered by trouble- or opportunity-signaling events occur in the body and in a variety of brain regions outside of conscious awareness; they only reach consciousness, that is, become conscious emotional *feelings*, when the emotional body states are represented in working memory. Consequently, neuroscientists (e.g., LeDoux, 1998, p. 67) report that appraisal research in psychology "can be weak" when it is based on verbal reports or conscious introspection of emotion states and their causes, particularly if it is done after the episode is over. However, Schumann's (1999) proposal of appraisals as the basis for L2 motivation is based on selected items from existing self-report L2 motivation questionnaires, which were categorized along Scherer's (1984) five theoretically-postulated dimensions along which stimulus appraisals are made:

- novelty (as opposed to familiarity),
- pleasantness (fosters approach or avoidance?),
- goal/need relevance,
- coping potential,
- compatibility with social or cultural norms, with expectations of significant others, and with self or ideal self.

Therefore, this aspect of Schumann's theory is perhaps the weakest one. Yet, based an a case study of an L2 learner, he made a pertinent remark about appraisals in general, namely, that stimulus appraisals can be positive or negative on any of the five dimensions listed above, and that "positive appraisals along any of the five dimensions promote SLA" (Schumann, 1999, p. 37). I will return to this point in Chapter 5 (section 5.3.1).

4.7 THE DÖRNYEI-OTTÓ PROCESS-ORIENTED MODEL OF L2 MOTIVATION

The fluctuation of L2 motivation over time and the conceptualization of motivation as evolving in stages have been matters of interest since the late 1990s, particularly in Europe (e.g., Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998; Manolopoulou-Sergi, 2006; Ushioda, 2001; Williams and Burden, 1997). A process-oriented approach can potentially integrate various research trends, and seems necessary when trying to account for the evolution of motivation over time, or when examining motivation in relation to specific learner behaviors and classroom processes (Dörnyei, 2000b, 2001c, 2005). However, the only fully developed and comprehensive process-oriented model of L2 motivation to date is Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) and its subsequent elaborations (Dörnyei, 2000b, 2001c).

4.7.1 Theoretical basis of the Dörnyei-Ottó process model of motivation

The Dörnyei-Ottó process model of motivation is based on Heckhausen and Kuhl's *Action Control Theory* (e.g., Heckhausen, 1991; Heckhausen & Kuhl, 1985; Kuhl & Beckmann, 1994). Action Control Theory is elaborate, but it is only necessary to highlight one main aspect here. Since motivation accounts for not only why individuals come to engage in an activity but also for how long they persist and how much effort they invest in it, Action Control theory distinguishes two sequentially ordered phases within the motivated behavioral process:

- the *predecisional phase* ("choice motivation")—forming an intention to act;
- the *postdecisional phase* ("executive motivation")—initiating action, persevering, and overcoming obstacles until the action is eventually completed.

4.7.2 Aims and outline of the Dörnyei-Ottó process model of motivation

When Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) conceived their process model of motivation, their aim was twofold. First, they wanted to introduce a process-oriented perspective of motivation as an alternative to the product-oriented approach, which was dominant at the time. Second, they wished to synthesize, within a unified framework, various lines of research on motivation in the L2 field and in educational psychology.

In order to achieve these aims, the Dörnyei-Ottó model divides the motivated behavioral process into three main stages (or phases) occurring in the following sequence: the "preactional stage," which precedes the decision to act, then two stages that follow the decision to act: the "actional stage" and the "postactional stage." Figure 4.3 presents an updated version of the model.

The key tenet of the process-oriented approach is that each of the three stages of the motivated behavioral process cycle is associated with different motives. Consequently, such a perspective can integrate different motivational theories since they tend to focus on motives affecting different stages of the motivational process. For example, Dörnyei (2005) indicates that "the Canadian social psychological construct is effective in explaining variance in choice motivation but to explain executive motivation, more situated factors need to be taken into account" (p. 86). Restrictions of space prevent a full discussion of every motivational influence listed in the model (interested readers are referred to Dörnyei, 2001c). However, I will indicate here the type of motivational theory or construct that seems particularly effective in explaining variance at each stage of the motivated behavioral process.

4.7.3 Preactional stage

The preactional stage is related to "choice motivation" in Action Control Theory. It refers to the phase during which an individual is engaged in the process of forming an intention to act, and in selecting an action plan in order to realize the intention to act. Three sub-processes can thus be distinguished within this stage: "goal setting," "intention formation," and "initiation of intention enactment." These occur sequentially, but the sequence can be aborted at any time before reaching the impulse to act. Moreover, the pace at which the sub-processes succeed each other can vary. They can happen almost simultaneously, or the whole sequence can cover a considerable period, depending on the nature of the action being contemplated.

Goal setting

Goal setting starts either in an individual's imagination in the form of broad "wishes and hopes," in "desires," or in "opportunities" emerging from an individual's context when a wish, hope, desire, or opportunity has been selected as a goal to be pursued. This goal (e.g., to complete an assigned task) is the first concrete decision that the individual makes, but the fact that he or she has a goal does not mean that an action will necessarily be initiated because there is not yet any commitment to act. The choice of goals that L2 learners make is influenced by:

- their "subjective values and norms," which are the result of experiences relating to all things foreign, and are well represented in the construct of "integrativeness" (see sections 4.2.2 and 4.2.5);
- the relative strength of the "incentive values" (see sections 4.3.3 and 4.2.4) they associate with learning the L2, such as intrinsic reasons (see section 4.5), and instrumental benefits (e.g., Gardner's instrumental orientation/motivation);
- family members and teachers' expectations, and the school climate.

Intention formation

Once a goal has been adopted, it is essential to add some form of "commitment," as well as an "action plan," to generate an "intention." In other words, the learner needs to quit thinking "I want to," and start to think "In order to do this, I will …" *Commitment* (e.g., to comply with the teacher's instructions) may require putting one's self- or social image at risk, and foregoing more pleasurable or rewarding activities. An *action plan* does not need to be complete (or written down) because its role is to help an individual to initiate enactment. Indeed, it can be added to or modified as action moves toward completion. However, it should outline some concrete guidelines, such as steps to follow and relevant strategies that

FIGURE 4.3

A Process Model of L2 Learning Motivation*

Preactional Stage	**Actional Stage**	**Postactional Stage**

CHOICE MOTIVATION

Motivational functions:

- Goal setting
- Intention formation
- Initiation of intention enactment

Main motivational influences:

- Attitudes toward the L2 and its speakers
- Values associated with L2 learning, with the learning process itself, and with its outcomes and consequences
- Expectancy of success, and perceived coping potential
- Various goal properties (e.g., goal relevance, specificity and proximity)
- Learner beliefs and strategies
- Action vs. state orientation
- Environmental support or hindrance
- Perceived consequences for not acting

EXECUTIVE MOTIVATION

Motivational functions:

- Ongoing appraisal of stimuli present in environment and of own progress
- Generation of subtasks and implementation
- Action control (self-regulation)

Main motivational influences:

- Quality of the learning experience (pleasantness, need significance, coping potential, self and social image)
- Sense of autonomy
- Teachers' and parents' influence
- Classroom reward- and goal structure (e.g., competitive or cooperative)
- Influence of the learner group
- Knowledge and use of self-regulatory strategies (e.g., goal setting, learning and self-motivating strategies)

MOTIVATIONAL RETROSPECTION

Motivational functions:

- Formation of causal attributions
- Elaboration of standards and strategies
- Dismissal of intention, followed by further planning

Main motivational influences:

- Attributional factors (e.g. attributional styles and biases)
- Self-concept beliefs (e.g., self-confidence and self-worth)
- Received feedback, praise, grades

*Note. Based on Dörnyei (2005, p. 85, and 2001c). For a full schematic representation and discussion of the model, see Dörnyei (2001c).

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can be used. In sum, only after an individual has added some form of commitment to an adopted goal, as well as generated some kind of concrete action plan—at least to get started on the implementation of a goal, can one say that an *intention* has truly been formed. The factors that influence the intention formation stage of the motivation process belong mostly to motivational constructs falling within an expectancy-value framework, such as expectancy of success (e.g., linguistic self-confidence, L2 anxiety, perceived L2 competence), need for achievement, and cost-benefit calculations. However, self-determination in the form of learner autonomy (section 4.5) and various goal properties also play a significant role, as do learners' beliefs about L2 learning, knowledge of learning strategies, and adequate L2-specific knowledge, since these are important when it comes to developing quality action plans. In order to assist learners in the development of such plans, it is also helpful if they are presented with suitable task opportunities and options. Finally, commitment can result from a powerful and perhaps urgent external demand (e.g., the need to pass a language test to fulfill a graduation requirement), or emerge from a unique opportunity that is "too good to be missed."

Initiation of intention enactment

For an "intention" (i.e., the equivalent of an "I'm going to do this" internal statement) to be translated into action (i.e., the equivalent of an "I'm doing it" internal statement), some kind of "action-launching impulse" is further required. The latter is dependent on the fulfillment of two conditions: the availability of the means and resources needed for the intended action to take place, as well as the opportunity to start the action. If either of these fails to materialize, or in some cases when some powerful obstacle or distraction is encountered, action will not take place; the intention may remain, but it will be unrealized. Occasionally, when individuals feel close to abandoning an intention to enact, they may still propel themselves into action by contemplating the consequences of a lack of action. Motivational theories and concepts that are effective in accounting for what influences variations at this stage include:

- Kuhl's concept of *action vs. state orientations* (see section 3.2.4), since they represent personality dispositions relating to an individual's effectiveness in translating intentions into actions;
- *Perceived behavioral control*, as in Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behavior (1988; 1991). The Theory of Planned Behavior is a social psychological theory in which it is assumed that action is determined by an individual's intention to perform a specific behavior, and by the perceived ease or difficulty of performing it. The intention is itself determined by the relative importance of the individual's attitudes toward the behavior in question, and by his or her perception of the social pressures to perform the said behavior.

4.7.4 Actional stage

The actional stage corresponds to "executive motivation" in Action Control Theory. It refers to the phase when individuals have translated their intention into action—when they have crossed the metaphorical Rubicon of action (Hechhausen, 1991, cited in Dörnyei, 2001c). In the actional stage, "learners are engaged in *executing* a task, they continuously *appraise* the process, and when the ongoing monitoring reveals that progress is slowing, halting, or backsliding, they activate the *action control* system to save or enhance the action" (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 81, original italics). This action-control system, or self-regulation, is what enables learners to persevere until the action is eventually completed. Thus, three interrelated sub-processes make up the action process of the actional stage, namely, "appraisal," "generation of subtasks and implementation," and "action control." The action process and its components are essentially identical to what Dörnyei (2002, 2005) calls, in the specific context of task (situated) motivation, the "task processing system." Dörnyei's "actional stage" and "task processing system" are fully in line with some current models of situated motivation used in educational psychology to investigate motivation in actual learning situations (e.g., Järvelä & Niemivirta, 2001; Volet, 2001a).

Appraisal
Appraisal consists of students' ongoing processing of the stimuli present in the learning environment, and of their constant monitoring of the progress they are making toward the outcome of the learning-specific action. When they monitor their progress, either they compare their actual performances with performances they expect, or with performances that could result from pursuing alternative courses of action.

Generation of subtasks and implementation
Similarly to "task execution" in Dörnyei's (2002, 2005) "task processing system," the "generation of subtasks and implementation" sub-process refers to the students' engagement in learning-supportive behaviors as they follow the task instructions that the teacher provided, or the action plan that they themselves drew up. It is directly related to the teachers' motivational qualities and practices, which are explored in Chapter 5.

Action control
Action control processes represent the mechanisms involved when students use a set of self-regulatory strategies (i.e., goal-setting, language learning, and motivation maintenance strategies) in order to cope with the competition between their social and academic goals

during lessons, and manage and control their efforts in the face of difficulties and distractions. Action may proceed—more, or less smoothly—to a satisfactory outcome, that is, to the realization of their intended goal. In this case, students will naturally engage in the "postactional stage" discussed in the next section. However, learning-supportive action may be terminated if action control mechanisms fail. Theories and concepts that best capture particularly influential factors at the actional stage of the motivational process include:

- Schumann's (1999) stimulus appraisal theory and its five dimensions (section 4.6.2), which cover key concepts from SLA and educational psychology on what constitutes quality in a learning experience;

- Self-determination theory (sections 3.3.10 and 4.5), and how students' sense of autonomy can be enhanced or thwarted by parents as well as by teachers and by teachers' practices inside the classroom;

- Self-regulation (see Chapter 5), and how individuals can help themselves by controlling their own motivational states through the timely use of appropriate strategies;

- Theories and concepts that deal with the influence of the learner group on an individual's motivation.

4.7.5 Postactional stage

In the postactional stage, learners examine their behavior in retrospect and evaluate the outcome of their action, thereby possibly forming inferences regarding future similar or related actions. They may have completed the intended outcome, or they may be about to resume their attempt to complete it after an interruption, or they may even have abandoned all attempts to ever complete. No matter the extent to which they have realized their intended goal, learners are likely to evaluate what they have accomplished by comparing their original goal to their actual achievement and forming causal attributions by hypothesizing links between what they did or did not do, and the extent to which they achieved their intended goal. Such *evaluation through retrospective introspection* enables learners to enrich their store of accumulated experience, elaborate their internal standards, and enlarge their repertoire of action-specific strategies. Once the evaluation process is over, the original intention to act is dismissed since it has been acted upon. This *dismissal of intention* is followed by further planning, and by the beginning of a new motivated actional process cycle.

The factors that influence the postactional stage of the motivation process are mostly linked to attribution theory (section 3.3.2), and to theories dealing with self-concept beliefs

(e.g., self-worth theory, section 3.3.5; general/linguistic self-confidence and self-efficacy, section 3.3.3, and related constructs, section 4.3.2; learned helplessness, section 3.3.4).

4.7.6 Limitations of the model

Dörnyei (2005) acknowledges that the model has limitations, even though it is helpful in understanding motivational evolution. He lists two shortcomings. First, it is difficult, in real educational contexts, to isolate the actional character of a concrete learning activity from that of the series of activities making up a concrete lesson, itself nested in activities that make up a course that is embedded in the rest of the activities of the school curriculum. It is not easy to define when one actional process starts and ends. The second problem is that it is not common for students to be engaged in only one actional process at a time. It is likely that they will be engaged in other ongoing activities, which will probably interfere with the actional process in question.

4.8 DÖRNYEI'S L2 MOTIVATIONAL SELF SYSTEM

In line with the latest developments in personality and motivation research, Dörnyei (2005) has outlined a new conception of L2 motivation, the L2 Motivational Self System, in order to increase understanding of individual variations in L2 learning. The *L2 Motivational Self System* is composed of three dimensions:

- The *Ideal L2 Self*, that is, the L2-speaking person we would like to become, which acts as a motivating factor because we desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal self;
- The *Ought-to L2 Self*, that is, an L2-"knowing" person we feel we ought to become in order to avoid possible negative outcomes;
- The *L2 Learning Experience*, "which concerns situation-specific motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience" (Dörnyei, 2005, p.106).

The Ideal and Ought-to L2 Selves both concern future motivational perspectives (i.e., constitute what Ushioda, 2001, calls "teleological" factors in learners' motivational configurations), whereas the L2 Learning Experience concerns the past and present of L2 learning and L2-related experiences (the "causal" dimension in Ushioda's 2001 terminology). Based on Ushioda's (2001) findings that motivation could be fuelled either by future-related factors or by past/present L2-learning factors, it appears possible to speculate that the strength of L2 motivation may be dependent on the learner's ability to develop a salient vision of an

L2 Self, or on the quality of the L2 Learning Experience. It seems that L2 teachers have a role to play in both these areas.

4.9 LANGUAGE LEARNING MOTIVATION OF SOUTH KOREAN LEARNERS

EFL motivation research in South Korea has been carried out among diverse school populations: at the university level, but also with elementary, middle, and high school students. Two lines of research have emerged, one linked to the field of Educational technology in which EFL motivation is examined alongside learners' motivation in other core curriculum subjects, and the other focusing exclusively on EFL motivation. Outside Korea, the motivation of South Koreans (together with Chinese and Japanese) studying ESL in language centers mostly prior to graduate school entry was recently investigated in Australia (Woodrow, 2006), using Gardnerian and goal orientation constructs.

4.9.1 Theoretical frameworks used in EFL motivation research in Korea

In the first and most recent line, the EFL motivation of middle and high school students was investigated alongside their motivation in other core subjects in the South Korean curriculum, namely, Korean, math, and science. The researcher, Mimi Bong, is a specialist in Educational Technology who works mainly within a goal-orientation theory framework using confirmatory factor analysis. Her South Korean motivation studies have appeared in leading international educational psychology publications (e.g., Bong, 2001, 2003, 2004a, 2004b, 2005).

The other line is represented in the work of South Korean researchers linked to the EFL teaching field. The results of their empirical investigations can be found in locally published journals and in a few doctoral dissertations. For the most part, these researchers have worked within a Gardnerian paradigm, taking on board Dörnyei's elaborations from the early 1990s. They have explored the underlying structure of students' motivation, often while looking for relationships with students' EFL achievement and their use of learning strategies (e.g., Kang, 2000a, 2000b; 2001; Nam-Jung, 1996; Song, 2004). A small number of studies have also examined the effect of different instructional contexts on motivation. For example, students' anxiety and motivation were investigated in the light of two types of conversation courses (Kim, 1998, 2000), and of a content-based university TEFL methods course (Hwang, 2002a, 2002b); one study also documented the effect that a model elementary school specializing in the teaching of English had on students' motivation and achievement (Song, 2004). Besides

the Gardnerian paradigm, a goal orientation theoretical framework has also been used to investigate the EFL motivation of South Korean learners by South Korean researchers linked to the EFL teaching field (e.g., Hwang, 2002; Kim, 1998, 2000), and more recently by non-Koreans (e.g., Woodrow, 2006). Finally, one longitudinal study (Kang, 2001) adopted a process view of motivation by examining the transition between middle and high school.

4.9.2 Methods used in EFL motivation research in South Korea

The research methods that have been used are varied but they have tended to rely on self reports, either in the form of survey questionnaires, interviews, and/or free-style essays. Two exceptions are Peacock's (1996) and Kim's (2003) investigations of the effects of learning materials on the classroom motivation of university students, in which both researchers assessed motivation using observations of a small selection of students and of the class as a whole. Nevertheless, a limitation is that the observers concentrated on recording mostly risk-taking behavior, which is a very specific type of motivated or on-task behavior.

4.9.3 Integrative and instrumental orientations of South Korean EFL learners

A traditional integrative orientation factor, that is, the presence of a desire to integrate into the target language community or become similar to its members has been reported in every segment of the population of EFL learners in South Korea. It is present among university learners (Kim, 2004; Miyahara, Namoto, Yamanaka, Murakami, Kinoshita, & Yamamoto, 1997, cited in Irie, 2003), as well as elementary school students (Song, 2004). In the latter study, the factor was not labeled but comprised items indicating that children wanted to study English because they wanted to live in other countries, understand English movies and songs, and were interested in foreign cultures (in this order). In middle and high school populations—alongside a broad integrative orientation represented by a desire for contact with members of other communities through English, and knowledge, socio-cultural, and travel orientations—a separate "identification" factor emerged indicating that students would like to "be similar to Americans," and "think and behave like English/Americans do" (Kang, 2000a, 2000b). Incidentally, the broad integrative orientation factor explained the highest amount of variance among the four orientations identified through factor analysis. This prompted Kang (2000b) to suggest that it might be beneficial for students' motivation to

enrich language courses with more cross-cultural components in a bid to meet students' integrative objectives.

An instrumental orientation is not identified nearly as clearly across the EFL learner population. Recall that an instrumental orientation refers to learning English for pragmatic gains. Consequently, it is perhaps not surprising that an instrumental orientation only emerged distinctly among university EFL students since it is likely that they are better able than younger students to perceive the links between what they do in school, examinations, and career prospects. The instrumental orientation of South Korean university students is defined by a general interest in passing English examinations in order to

- gain access to further courses,

- get a job, have greater job security,

- have a higher paying job,

- be able to get a raise easily in a future job,

- be able to change jobs more easily, and

- obtain social recognition (Kim, 2004).

In contrast, studies involving elementary and secondary school learners report a form of instrumental orientation factor. However, it is blurred by indications that they regard L2 learning just like any other subject they have to learn at school, and includes items related to Clément and Kruidenier's (1983) knowledge, instrumental and travel orientations. Further, students appear to develop a more marked instrumental orientation over the years they spend in school. For instance, among 116 fifth graders (aged 10-11) in an elementary school in Seoul, Song (2004) identified a factor indicating that children want to get good results in English, and that they study English because their parents want them to, and because it is a compulsory subject at school. This is reminiscent of what Clément and Kruidenier's (1983, p. 281) termed "school instrumental orientation." As for middle school EFL learners, the equivalent factor that emerged in Kang's (2000a) study was named "knowledge-instrumental" because items representing a knowledge orientation overlapped with items related to instrumental and travel orientations, the first one being more salient and suggesting that learning English was considered by the students to be part and parcel of getting an education. When the same students were surveyed again after their transition to high school, it was found that more items related to an instrumental orientation had gained higher factor loadings than knowledge orientation-related ones; therefore, the factor was named in reverse, that is, "instrumental-knowledge" (Kang 2000b). This suggests that South Korean EFL learners may acquire a more developed sense of instrumentality as they progress through the education system. Results showed that the more the students lack in instrumental-knowledge orientation,

the more likely it is that they will attribute their success or failure to causes that are beyond their control (Kang, 2000b).

Just as it was found in Song (2004) that elementary school children indicated that they are motivated to study English because it is a compulsory subject at school, some L2 researchers in Taiwan have posited the existence of a "required orientation" (Chen, Warden, & Chang, 2005; Warden & Lin, 2000). That is, they have argued that students in Confucian-influenced societies may be motivated by requirements. By using exploratory factor analysis, Kim (2004) was also able to find the presence of a clear "required orientation" factor among 325 South Korean university EFL learners, which was distinct from the integrative and instrumental orientation factors that had also clearly emerged. This suggested that the fact that an EFL course is a curriculum or graduation requirement, or a requirement for access to further courses can be a motivating factor for South Korean university EFL students. However, the results of correlational and canonical analyses showed that, whereas an integrative orientation was strongly and positively related to the predictor set consisting of motivation intensity, desire to learn English, and interest in English, an instrumental orientation had only a small effect, and a required orientation had a negative effect. This last result was unexpected because Warden & Lin's (2000) results had shown that a required orientation among Taiwanese students had a positive effect on motivation.\As for the relationship between integrative or instrumental orientations and language performance (i.e., oral), Woodrow (2006) found that neither of them was related.

4.9.4 Factors affecting South Korean middle and high school EFL learners' motivation

A unique of series of studies (Kang, 2000a, 2000b, 2001) sought to identify how South Korean EFL learners' orientations and motivation develop during the transition from the last year in middle school to the first year of high school, and how the relationships between orientations and motivation, and between motivation and achievement differ during that period. The author devised a questionnaire comprising more than 150 items (based on established survey instrument scales), which aimed to tap into the variables included in Tremblay and Gardner's 1995 model of L2 motivation (see Figure 4.2). The scales included Orientations, Attitudes toward Americans, Attitudes toward learning English, Need for achievement, Motivational intensity, English teacher evaluation, English course evaluation, English use anxiety, English class anxiety, Self-evaluation of English competence, Desired English proficiency, Causal attributions, Goal frequency, Goal specificity, Desire to learn English, Persistence, and Attention. Students' school examination results were also collected

as a measure of students' achievement. Orientations were first subjected to exploratory factor analysis, and the orientations factors were saved as new variables, which were then entered into a new factor analysis with the rest of the variables. Correlations were then calculated between orientations and motivational factors. The same procedure was carried out on the data set obtained during the middle school year and the high school year.

Five types of orientations were found among the 243 third grade middle school students (age 14-15) who took part in the study. Besides the broad integrative, the "identification," and the "knowledge-instrumental" orientations described in the previous section, Kang (2000a) also found a "Motivational Extrinsic Orientation," and a "Cognitive Extrinsic (external criteria for success or failure) Orientation." The former refers to an indication that Korean middle school students work hard—not out of interest, but to get good grades and teacher approval—and prefer easy work, while the latter indicates that they are dependent on the teacher or other external criteria to assess their own progress.

When the students moved to high school (N= 192), they continued to report the broad integrative orientation, the "identification," and the "instrumental-knowledge" orientations. Besidesthese orientations, Kang (2000b) also found the presence of intrinsic and extrinsic orientations. Indeed, results showed that the intrinsic / extrinsic orientations were more relevant to the South Korean secondary school context than the integrative/ instrumental orientations (Kang, 2001).

As for South Korean EFL high school learners' linguistic self-confidence, it was more closely associated with intrinsic and instrumental-knowledge orientations than with integrative orientation, suggesting that the higher students perceive their competence to be, the higher their intrinsic orientation is. Further, self-confidence and attributions mediated the observed developmental processes from extrinsic to intrinsic motivation (Kang, 2000b). Consequently, the author recommends that foreign language teachers develop their students' self-efficacy by matching the difficulty of language tasks to students' ability, by providing them with meaningful, achievable, and success-engendering tasks, and by supplying adequate strategies and positive feedback. Finally, intrinsic and extrinsic orientations correlated more with the perception of the learning environment and the students' evaluation of the teacher than did integrative and instrumental-knowledge orientations.

When the orientation factors were entered as variables with other motivational factors into a second factor analysis in order to explore the structure of South Korean middle school students' motivation, it was found that the main factor, which was labeled "Motivation (Extrinsic)," explained almost 20% of the variance in the EFL motivation of the middle school students in the study. This finding echoes that of Lee's (1999), who reported that extrinsic motivational factors were the most common among the 522 South Korean middle school and high school EFL learners who took part in his investigation. However, when Kang

(2000b) carried out a follow-up study of the middle school students after they moved to high school, he found an extrinsic orientation to be important again but, as it loaded on a factor mostly composed of Gardner's traditional integrative motivation, it was labeled as part of an "integrative motive."

The extrinsic motivation factor found in Kang (2000a) explained more of the variation than did integrative or knowledge-instrumental orientations. It was composed of constructs related to motivated behavior (i.e., persistence, attention, goal frequency, motivational intensity, goal specificity), and of constructs related to students' attitude toward learning English as one school subject among others (i.e., their need for achievement, English use anxiety, English class anxiety, and the negative influence of an extrinsic motivational orientation). Cognitive-extrinsic motivation loaded positively on this first factor, indicating that South Korean middle school students rely on grades and on the teacher to guide learning and give them reliable information regarding their own progress. In contrast, motivational extrinsic orientation had a higher, negative loading, suggesting that they tend to avoid challenge, prefer easy work, and work hard to gain their teacher's approval, but that such an orientation has a negative influence on their motivation, or vice-versa. What is noticeably absent from this factor is any reference to any attitude-based construct belonging to Gardner's classic integrative motive.

The more extrinsically-oriented middle school students were, the less likely they were to be motivated to learn English ($r = -.59$), and the more likely they were to evaluate their teacher and their course negatively ($r = -.33$ and $r = -.39$, respectively). The more integratively-oriented they were, the more likely they were to be motivated to learn English ($r = .30$), and the more likely they were to evaluate their teacher and their course positively ($r = .23$). Finally, there was a low significant correlation between middle school students who have a knowledge-instrumental orientation and the motivation factor ($r = .24$); middle school students who have a knowledge-instrumental orientation were also found to be more likely to evaluate their teacher and their course positively ($r = .19$ and $r = .26$, respectively).

Maladaptive attributions were more salient than adaptive attributions. On the other hand, both integrative and knowledge-instrumental orientations had a strong positive relationship with adaptive attributions ($r = .35$, and $r = .43$, respectively), which implies the importance of students' experiences of success or failure related to their knowledge purposes or their interest in the target culture. South Korean middle school EFL students who relied on grades and on the teacher to guide learning and give them reliable information regarding their own progress were not likely to attribute their success or failure to luck, context, or ability ($r = -.32$), or vice-versa.

The teacher evaluation factor explained more of the variance in motivation than did the course evaluation factor, which indicates that the teacher might have a greater motivational

impact on Korean middle school students than the course. Interestingly, when the student moved to high school and the study was repeated (Kang, 2000b), the teacher evaluation factor explained the lowest amount of variance in their motivation.

Finally, Kang (2000a) found no difference in language learning motivation between male and female South Korean middle school EFL students.

4.9.5 Attitudes toward learning English and English-speakers

Two studies vary in their reports concerning South Korean students' attitudes toward learning English and toward speakers of English, with the more recent research showing a negative trend.

In an earlier study, Lee (1999) found that South Korean middle school students' attitudes toward Americans were "highly favorable," and their interest in foreign languages "strong." Their parents reported to be more interested in English that the parents of high school students; however, when compared with middle school students, high school students' attitudes toward English classes were more positive. In that study, results indicated that attitudes toward learning English correlated with intrinsic motivation and influenced achievement, and an interest in foreign languages correlated with motivation to improve oneself.

In contrast, Choi (2005) showed, through a repeated study involving around 200 children, that while South Korean elementary school children's exposure to English had increased over the seven years that separated her two surveys, their attitudes toward English speakers and toward learning English had deteriorated. What had remained constant over the period of seven years was the children's strong perception (92% of the respondents each time) that they needed to learn English for their future, but that they did not enjoy learning it.

4.9.6 Task attitudes and perceived value of L2 course

In the extremely competitive South Korean educational context in which English test results play a significant role, it appears that, for a number of students, the incentive value of an L2 course in terms of its future pragmatic paybacks may override low task attitudes. For instance, in a study by Jung (1999), it was found that, even though South Korean middle school students in one school preferred tailor-made EFL materials developed specifically for them to the textbook used in class, they considered they learned more when working from the textbook because they were concerned about their performance in English tests.

4.9.7 Goal orientations of South Korean EFL learners

Mastery goal orientation: Striving to develop English proficiency.
A mastery goal orientation, namely, the goal of developing proficiency in English, has been identified among South Korean university EFL students (Hwang, 2002a; Kim 1998, 2000; Woodrow, 2006), high school students (Bong, 2001, 2004a; Lee & Lee, 2001; Nam-Jung, 1996), and middle school students (Bong 2001). Appendix E shows the means and standard deviations of the mastery orientation factors for EFL found in Bong's (2001) middle and high school boys and girls' samples.

Analyses of associations between students' mastery goals and perceptions of the value of English (i.e., its importance and usefulness, and students' intrinsic interest in it) suggest that they may be bidirectional. If students aim to develop their competence in English, they may subsequently develop an interest in English. Conversely, it is also likely that when students realize that English is important and useful, and/or when they become more interested in it, they may become more willing to tackle challenging work and improve their proficiency (Bong, 2001, 2004a). Mastery goals have been found to be significant predictors of achievement in English with high school students (Nam-Jung, 1996), and the most significant predictors of oral performance with Korean, Japanese and Chinese EAP students preparing for entry into graduate school in Australia (Woodrow, 2006).

Performance goal orientation: The importance of showing competence.
Some South Korean L2 motivation researchers (Kim, 1998, 2000; Nam-Jung, 1996) have used Hayamizu, Ito, and Yoshizaki's (1989) trichotomous system of performance goals when investigating the motivation of South Korean university EFL learners. According to Hayamizu, Ito, and Yoshizaki's (1989), learners with *performance α (ego-social) goals* engage in academic tasks try to gain approval and avoid negative judgment from their parents, teachers, and peers. In contrast, learners with *performance β (utilitarian) goals* work at their studies for practical reasons, such as to achieve good grades and pass examinations. It must be noted that a disadvantage of the performance α (ego-social) goals and performance β (utilitarian) goals is that they both subsume the approach and avoidance dimensions. Finally, learners who adopt *work-avoidant goals* aim to complete their work by making a minimum amount of effort, often eliciting help from others, or simply guessing at answers.

Nam-Jung (1996) investigated the relationship between Hayamizu, Ito, and Yoshizaki's (1989) performance goals and achievement in English in a sample of South Korean high school EFL learners. Results showed that:

- Performance β (utilitarian) goals were significant predictors of achievement in English.
- Students' achievement did not significantly differ, whether they were high or low in performance α (ego-social).
- The higher the students were in work-avoidant goals, the lower their achievement was.

In another study (Hwang, 2002a), 53 South Korean EFL university students reported moderately high performance β (utilitarian) goal orientations and mastery-learning goal orientations (with means of around 3.40-3.50); in contrast, they were lower in performance α (ego-social) goal orientations (with means near 2.40).

Similar results were obtained by Kim (1998, 2000) in data from 59 questionnaires and 18 interviews collected in two different instructional contexts: traditional reading classes (where students read English texts aloud and translated them), and communicative-oriented conversation classes. In both contexts, students showed a tendency toward both mastery and performance-type goals, particularly utilitarian-type performance goals. Regardless of the instructional context, a main reason these university students engaged in academic tasks was to raise their grades or grade-point average. Of particular interest was that the mastery and work-avoidant goals were predictors of foreign language anxiety in the traditional instructional environment, whereas the mastery and performance α (ego-social) goals were predictors of foreign language anxiety in the communicative classroom setting. This suggests that traditional language classrooms may be uncomfortable for students who want to give the illusion they are working but like to do little. As work-avoidance goals were not found to be predictors of foreign language anxiety in the communicative classroom setting in this study, one might even speculate that students who hold work-avoidant goals could feel less anxious in communicative classrooms because it might be easier to avoid doing work in such environments. More research is needed to investigate these aspects. Finally, the results also hint at the possibility that communicative classrooms may not feel cozy to learners whose main reason for engaging in work during English lessons is to try to gain approval and avoid negative judgment from parents, teachers, or peers.

Mastery, performance-avoidance goal orientation, self-efficacy and value of English:
Using confirmatory analysis, Bong (2001) examined the relationship between self-efficacy, perceived value of English (labeled as "task value"), and mastery, performance-approach, and performance avoidance goal orientations among middle and high school South Korean EFL male and female learners. Appendix E shows Bong's (2001) questionnaire items and the means and standard deviations related to each of these factors.

Somewhat surprisingly, the performance-avoidance goals (i.e., seeking to conceal relative incompetence) reported by South Korean middle school EFL learners in Bong's (2001) study correlated positively with mastery goals (i.e., striving to develop skills and abilities, advancing learning and understanding material). A similar positive relationship between performance avoidance goals and mastery goals ($r = .25$, $p < .01$) was recently found by Woodrow (2006) in her study of Korean, Japanese, and Chinese university-level ESL students suggesting that they, unlike Westerners, may be motivated at the same time by the task and by fear of failure.

Bong (2001) found that performance-avoidance goals also demonstrated significant positive relations—as opposed to negative or non-significant ones in previous research—with both self-efficacy and value of English. Bong (2001) suggests that "as middle school students feel more efficacious and perceive English as having greater task-value, they not only put forth effort to improve their competence and document their superior ability but also try hard to avoid looking incapable" (p. 32). It is possible that middle school students exhibit similar levels of approach and avoidance tendencies because they are still keen at that age to please their parents, who put external pressure on them to succeed.

4.9.8 Intrinsic, identified, introjected, and extrinsic reasons for learning EFL, goal orientations, and self-efficacy

Lee and Lee (2001) examined the relationships between four classes of reasons why Korean high school students work in English lessons (borrowed from the SDT framework, i.e., intrinsic, identified, introjected, extrinsic), four different goal orientations (mastery, performance-approach, performance-avoidance, work avoidance), and self-efficacy. The results indicated that self-efficacy scores:

- were strongly correlated with scores of intrinsic reasons for learning English ($r = .67$) and mastery goal orientation ($r = .61$),
- were moderately correlated with scores of performance-approach goal orientation ($r = .36$) and identified reasons for learning English ($r = .35$), and
- had lower but still significant correlations with score of performance-avoidance goal orientation ($r = .27$) and introjected reasons for learning English ($r = .26$).

Correlations between self-efficacy and work-avoidant goals did not reach statistically significant levels.

The authors also found that a performance-approach goal orientation (i.e., striving to document superior ability) was the most common goal orientation among the 193 South Korean high school EFL students who took the pursuit of a performance-approach goal, a

process that in turn enhances their intrinsic interest and sense of efficacy in English. The researchers concluded by suggesting that teachers might increase students' interest and confidence if they were to equip them with appropriate strategies to help them pursue their performance-approach goals. For students with performance-avoidance goals (i.e., those who seek to conceal relative incompetence), they recommended (a) that teachers try to establish the relevance of English in relation to the students' future in order to foster positive attitudes toward learning English, and (b) that lessons be better adjusted to students' level.

4.9.9 Students' perceptions of their classroom goal structures and self-efficacy in relation to school examinations

In a longitudinal study involving 375 South Korean high school EFL female learners, Bong (2005) found that their perceptions of the classroom performance goal structures (see section 3.4.1) increased significantly throughout the school year. Between the first and the second semester, girls perceived a statistically significant decrease in the mastery goal emphasis in their English classes (when the emphasis is on developing English competence rather than test scores), whereas they perceived a statistically significant heavier stress on relative ability and competition. Such a significant increase in students' perceptions of their classrooms' performance goal structures appeared not only in English but also in Korean and math—the other subjects that were included in the study. The author points out that the ability grouping policy that applies in English and math cannot adequately account for these changes since Korean groups are mixed-ability and show similar changes. Rather, she speculates that the increases more likely constitute "responses to regular classroom events, including the evaluative feedback on the students' first semester final examinations" (Bong, 2005, p. 667). She explains:

> Testing and grading in Korean secondary classrooms are highly competitive and unidimensional (Bong, 2003, 2004b). It is not surprising that students gradually perceive a reduced mastery focus and a heightened performance emphasis in this type of learning environments… the present results introduce a disconcerting possibility that such perceptions become stronger during each year of secondary schooling" (p. 667).

Interestingly, there was no evidence that low-achieving girls taught in lower tracks responded more negatively to perceived classroom performance goals than did their better-achieving peers taught in upper tracks. However, it is important to note that the changes in students' perceptions of the achievement goals stressed in their instructional environments were found to explain changes in students' motivation. This suggests that teachers' efforts to

create more motivationally adaptive instructional environments are likely to be beneficial to students' motivation.

With regard to self-efficacy, it was found that it fluctuated significantly around school examinations (four times a year), dropping before the girls took exams, and rising after they were over.

Finally, the girls' personal achievement goals and perceptions of the value of English demonstrated few changes over the course of the year.

4.10 SUMMARY

This chapter reviewed the field of second/foreign language (L2) learning motivation. The discussion focused on the following main points:

- Several shifts that have occurred in the field since its foundation in the late 1950s (e.g., shifts toward making motivation more relevant to classroom practice, considering it as a situated process, and integrating it into SLA research).
- The social-psychological approach specific to the field.
- The expectancy-value related components of L2 motivation, Tremblay and Gardner's (1995) hybrid model of motivation, and Self-Determination Theory-related components of L2 motivation – all of which represent an attempt to bring L2 motivation more in line with motivation theories in educational psychology.
- L2 motivation as a neurobiological process.
- The Dörnyei-Ottó's (1998) process model of motivation, and Dörnyei's (2005) L2 Motivational Self System.

The chapter closed on a review of studies concerning the L2 motivation of South Korean learners.

Chapter 5

The dynamics of motivation and motivating

In this chapter, I present two complementary views of how motivation may function at the experiential student-instructional context interface: The first is a personal synthesis of perspectives found in the educational psychology and L2 motivation literatures; the second is Kuhl's (2000b) theory of volitional action. These are followed by a brief discussion of pedagogical interventions or motivational strategies derived from motivational theories and by a review of relevant empirical studies. The chapter concludes with an overview of Dörnyei's (2001a) framework of motivational strategies, which served as the background for the design of the classroom observation instruments used in the current study.

5.1 CLASSROOM MOTIVATION:

WHAT IT MAY BE, WHERE IT MAY COME FROM

When it comes to defining how motivation functions in the classroom, it appears that a unified consensus and research paradigm have yet to emerge (Volet, 2001b), and that scholars are still grappling with the task of integrating self and context (Järvelä, 2001). In particular, there are two areas of interest for researchers working in the classroom setting. The first one is the study of students' behaviors, cognitions, and emotions in connection with specific learning situations—that is, their motivation as a situation-specific *state*. The second area of interest is the study of students' motivation to learn in school settings in general, or in specific domains (i.e., school subjects such as a given modern language)—that is, students' motivation as an enduring disposition or *trait*. The distinction between *state* and *trait motivation* is not exclusive to the educational psychology field; it was also recognized in the L2 field, by Tremblay, Goldberg, and Gardner (1995).

An interesting notion proposed by Brophy (1998) is to regard trait motivation as a schema that is triggered in learning situations and influences how learning activities are perceived. As a schema, trait motivation would represent a cognitive structure composed of

an open set of linked components. Some of these components, such as conceptual and skills components, could be acquired through direct teaching, while others, such as value and attitudes components, could be stimulated through exposure to a variety of learning situations, and through modeling and socialization by significant others (e.g., through communicating suitable expectations, giving corrective feedback, or using rewards). In this case, it is possible to hypothesize that appropriate teacher interventions designed to stimulate state motivation will have positive repercussions on trait motivation.

Classroom motivation can be considered in two ways: as a process (e.g., Pintrich and Schunk, 2002; in the L2 field, Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998) or as both a process and a product/end-state (e.g., Brophy, 1998; Winne and Marx, 1989; Wolters, 2003). Motivation as a process refers to the cognitive processes that account for students' choice, effort, and persistence in learning activities. Motivation as a product or state is defined by Wolters (2003) as "a student's willingness to engage in and persist at a task" (p. 190). The latter definition appears useful for investigating motivation in the classroom. Moreover, it is in accord with situative, socio-cultural perspectives, which conceptualize motivation "in terms of active participation and engagement in learning activities" (Turner & Meyer, 2000, p.5). Finally, it also coincides with teachers' usual views of students' motivation (e.g., see National Research Council & Institute of Medicine, 2004).

In the L2 field, Julkunen (2001) proposed a model of motivation that could be used to investigate the relationship between trait motivation and situational/task motivation (i.e., state motivation). The model was based on one that was developed in educational psychology by Boekaerts (1987). Julkunen (2001) suggested that trait motivation and state motivation interact to produce a situation-specific action tendency, which refers to "the learner's readiness to devote his/her personal resources, that is, time, energy, competence, and so forth, to completing a task" (Julkunen, 2001, p. 30). Assuming that the concepts of "readiness" (Julkunen, 2001) and "willingness" (Wolters, 2003) can be taken as similar (neither author elaborated on their meaning), the definition of the hypothesized "situation-specific action tendency" is very close to Wolters' (2003) conceptualization of "motivation-as-a-product" quoted above. The situation-specific action tendency seems to indicate an intention that usually precedes the initiation of behavior with an added component, namely, persistence to see the action through to completion.

A factor identified empirically by MacIntyre, MacMaster and Baker (2001), which they labeled "Action Motivation," appears to support the existence of Julkunen's (2001) situation-specific action tendency. The "Action Motivation" factor includes items related to the kind of behavior teachers typically associate with motivated students, items describing how long it takes individuals to act on a previously made decision, items indicating rumination (intrusive and enduring negative thoughts that prevent individuals from initiating or changing a

behavior), and items indicative of volatility (tendency to abandon pleasurable activities in favor of new ones to satisfy a desire for change).

Sustained engagement in learning activities is regarded as a key mediating factor between individual differences variables (e.g., ability, motivational beliefs) and achievement outcomes (Connell & Wellborn, 1991). Engagement is believed to have strong links with progress and development of expertise in any subject (Winne & Marx, 1989). From a behaviorist/empiricist research perspective focused on directly observable behavior, it is conceptualized as on-task behavior. However, the prominence of the cognitivist/rationalist paradigm in the field of educational psychology has influenced a conceptualization of engagement as cognitive (mental) engagement, which can only be assessed indirectly, for instance, through self-reports. The cognitive perspective has lately been accompanied by a growing recognition of the role of affect in motivation research in general (e.g., see Dai & Sternberg, 2004a, 2004b). Consequently, engagement is also viewed as student motivated behavior that can be indexed by not only behavioral, but also cognitive and affective indicators. According to Fredricks, Blumenfeld, and Paris (2004), behavioral engagement is related to on-task behavior, and ranges from completing the work and complying with rules to participating in the school organization. Emotional engagement is related to attitudes and affective responses within the classroom setting, also includes interest, and ranges from just liking to deeply valuing school-related activities. Finally, cognitive engagement implies more than behavioral engagement, and is associated with varying levels of effort (which indicates an investment in, or commitment to learning), as well as use of self-regulation strategies.

Engagement in tasks/learning activities is considered crucial, particularly for language learning (e.g., Littlewood, 2004) since, for many students, L2 use occurs only, or mostly, during lessons. Littlewood (2004) defines "engagement" as "the learners' active personal involvement with the task, whatever the nature of that task may be" (p. 323). For Dörnyei (2003a), student's engagement in task-supportive learning behaviors is also important in task (i.e., situation-specific) motivation. It constitutes task execution, that is, one of three interrelated components (i.e., appraisal, task execution, and action control) of his dynamic Task-Processing System. Appraisal (the on-going processing of all the stimuli coming from the learning environment and of the progress made toward the outcome of the task) refers to the interaction of trait and state motivations mentioned earlier. Persistence to see a task through to its completion is another of the essential components of task motivation in Dörnyei's system, and is called action control (i.e., self-regulatory mechanisms that are used to enhance or safeguard the learning-specific action in which the student is engaged). Dörnyei's (2003a, 2005) Task Processing System has the advantage of bringing together the perspectives presented earlier in this section. This is why I placed it at the core of my model for understanding L2 learning motivated behavior in classroom contexts.

5.2 Emergence and Basic Functioning of Motivation During L2 Lessons

Figure 5.1 shows how I conceived of "the situational conditions as the stage for the emergence and functioning of motivation" (Lemos, 2001, p. 130) as motivated behavior during L2 lessons. The diagram is an adaptation of Volet's multi-dimensional and multi-level framework for understanding learning and motivation in context (Volet, 2001, p. 69). At the core of the model is Dörnyei's (2005) Task-Processing System, which gives an account of how students' motivated behavior occurs within immediate situations in L2 lessons, during tasks (i.e., learning activities). The overall context is represented at different levels of specificity, going from macro on the outside toward micro in the center. The closer the levels are to the center, the more sensitive the factors that they represent are to the instructional context and to the social context of the classroom. Conversely, the further away the levels are from the center, the more the factors that they represent are habitualized or general. However, the more habitual cognitions, feelings, and emotions of the outer levels are always ready to exercise an influence at the micro-level, depending on how a learning activity is experienced and processed (this is why the arcs are represented by broken lines).

In Figure 5.1, the context, conceived as the situational backdrop for the emergence and functioning of motivation during lessons, is—somewhat artificially—split into two areas: students' internal factors, and external contextual factors. From a psychological point of view, it indicates that these two components of situated motivation can be examined using two different perspectives. The top half of the model focuses on the student's cognitions, motivations and emotions; it is thus cognitive-oriented. In contrast, the bottom half represents external contextual factors such as the students' socio-cultural environment, their school environment, and the immediate social and physical learning context. It is therefore oriented toward inquiry of a cross-cultural/cultural and social psychological nature. I will now examine briefly both areas as well as the core of the model.

5.2.1 Students' internal factors

According to Volet (2001b), on which this model is based, the top half of Figure 5.1 is inspired by Boekaert's (1999) model of adaptive learning, which can incorporate a *minimum* (my emphasis) of three levels of specificity: a general level, a domain-specific level, and a situation-specific level. Since Boekaert (1999) mentions that there can be more than three levels, I added an extra level, namely a course-specific one (see Dörnyei, e.g., 2001c).

FIGURE 5.1

Conceptualization of the Situational Backdrop for the Emergence and Functioning of

Motivation during L2 Lessons

Students' cognitions, motivationsa nd emotions related to learning in school, and L2 learning in lessons

DÖRNYEI'S (2005) TASK-PROCESSING SYSTEM (AT THE DYNAMIC INTERFACE)

Students' social settings, school environment, and social & physical L2 learning context

STUDENTS' INTERNAL FACTORS

general motivational dispositions and beliefs

L2 domain motivational knowledge base

motivational tendencies re. the current L2 course

APPRAISAL of an immediate situation in an L2 lesson

TASK EXECUTION

VOLITIONAL ACTION

immediate L2 classroom context & task

current L2 course & instruction

L2 learning as a field of study

place & value of education, (and of L2) in immediate social environment & in society

EXTERNAL CONTEXTUAL FACTORS

Typical Characteristics of the Factors

Stable

Habitual / preferential

Variable

Context-sensitive

Unique

Specific to L2 learning as a field of study

Distinct from other subjects

Constant

Note. Based on Volet (2001b, p. 69).

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The upper, outer ring of the model is the most general level. It represents a student's inclinations to engage in school learning activities in particular ways. These general motivational orientations and beliefs tend to be stable, and some may even be related to personality traits.

The next level down as we move inward refers to the students' L2 motivational orientations and beliefs that constitute their habitual or preferential motivational base for the L2 domain. It is worthwhile noting that this base does not necessarily coincide with the general academic motivational base because, unlike any other subjects, L2 learning is associated with social and identity issues, and is largely abstract yet more skill-based than content-based.

As we continue to move down toward the core, the third level is that of the students' motivational tendencies relating to the specific L2 course they are currently attending. These motivational tendencies can vary from one L2 course to another, according to the students' perceptions and interpretations of how relevant, pleasant, and satisfying they find the experience of language learning on an activity-by-activity, lesson-by-lesson basis. Finally, the students' individual cognitive, motivational, and emotional appraisals of a specific learning situation or activity constitute the most specific level of students' internal factors. For instance, students are likely to engage in a task and complete it if their L2 linguistic self-confidence is high, if they are interested in the topic of the text they are asked to work on, and if there is a pleasant, supportive atmosphere in the classroom.

5.2.2 External contextual factors

The bottom half of the multi-level framework presented in Figure 5.1 shows how the contextual factors can be conceptualized. The socio-cultural values and beliefs regarding the place of education and of the L2 in society are situated at the most general level, which is represented on the periphery of the diagram. These values, though not static, are generally more constant than changeable. L2 learning as a school subject is represented on the next level up as we move toward the core. Although these two external factors are distal ones, just like the distal internal factors, they nevertheless exert an overarching influence on the dynamic motivational processes that are activated as a lesson unfolds. Chapter 2 of the thesis focused on external contextual factors pertaining to South Korea, the country where this research was carried out. The effects of macro social psychological factors operating at this level have been well documented in the extant L2 research, which I reviewed in Chapter 4.

At a more micro level, the current L2 course and instructional practices can easily affect motivation in context, even if students have generally positive attitudes toward L2 learning.

For instance, some students may experience fluctuations in motivation from course to course depending on whether they chose it, or whether it is compulsory. Classroom motivation may also vary according to the materials that are used, the social climate of the classroom, and the personal and professional qualities of the teacher.

Finally, the most specific level is that of the immediate L2 classroom, that is, its social and physical environment (e.g., the degree of social support for learning afforded by the teacher and peers at any given moment during the lesson), and the activity or task. Due to the ever-changing nature of subject contents, activities, or social interactions, the particular configurations of the classroom context that students and teachers encounter in classrooms tend to follow patterns but are always unique. Looking for systematic patterns of change in motivated behavior constitutes a prime field of interest for situated motivation researchers (Boekaerts, 2001).

5.2.3 Dörnyei's Task Processing System

At the center of the diagram is the most specific level of context: the "dynamic, experiential, person-context interface" (Volet, 2001b), that is, the location of student-learning situation transactions. This is where students form their subjective appraisals of the current activity within its real-life instructional and social setting, leading to their engagement in learning behaviors that can be situated anywhere on a continuum ranging from unproductive to highly productive.

FIGURE 5.2

The Three Mechanisms Making Up Dörnyei's Task-Processing System

(from Dörnyei, 2005, p. 82)

Task processing

Appraisal

Action control
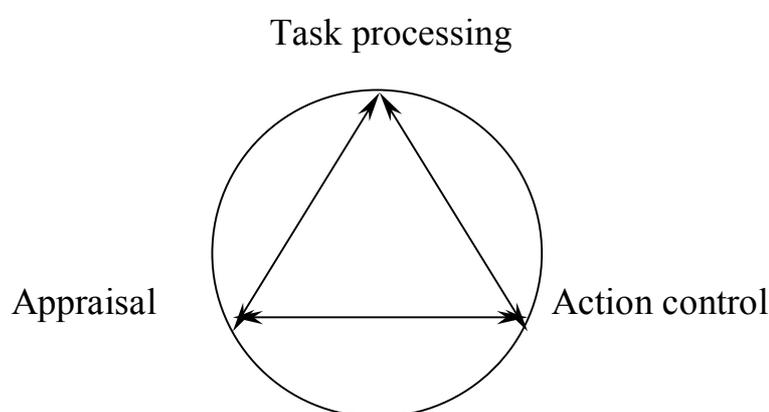
Dörnyei's Task Processing System is useful here, precisely because it operationalizes "the dynamic interface between motivational attributes and specific language behaviors" (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 81). Another reason for placing the Task Processing System at the core of my model is that it is based on empirical data gathered from a series of studies on the co-construction of task motivation by participants engaged in communicative pair activities (Dörnyei , 2002; Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000; Kormos & Dörnyei , 2004). I explained in Chapter 4 (section 4.7.5) how the Task Processing System fitted into the actional stage of Dörnyei's process-oriented model of L2 motivation. Figure 5.2 shows a schematic representation of the three interrelated mechanisms that make up the task processing system, namely, task execution, appraisal, and action control. Dörnyei (2005) defines them as follows:

> *Task execution* refers to the learner's engagement in task-supportive learning behaviors, following the action plan that was either provided by the teacher (via the task instructions) or drawn up by the student or the task team. *Appraisal* refers to the learner's continuous processing of the multitude of stimuli coming from the environment and of the progress made toward the action outcome, comparing actual performances with predicted ones or with ones that alternative action sequences would offer. This importance attached to the appraisal process coincides with Schumann's (1998) emphasis on 'stimulus appraisal'. Finally, *action control* processes denote self-regulatory mechanisms that are called into force in order to enhance, scaffold, or protect learning-specific action. (p. 81, original italics)

The drawback of the Task Processing System is that it only explains how task motivation functions in very general terms. However, it seems that Dörnyei's Action Control bears a strong resemblance to Kuhl's (e.g., 2000a, 2000b) "volitional action." Since Kuhl's (2000a, 2000b, 2001) process model of motivation as volitional action is a fully developed functional theory, it appears to complement Dörnyei's Task Processing System theory by offering a neurobiologically- and experimentally-based, functional account of how such a system might actually work.

5.3 A THEORY OF VOLITIONAL ACTION

Most of the motivation theories that were discussed in Chapters 3 and 4 attempted to explain behavior on the basis of contents of thoughts and feelings (e.g., some attributional beliefs are more adaptive than others). However, they did not expound on the volitional aspect of motivation, that is, they did not make clear the processes by which students will themselves into action or keep themselves productively engaged until they reach their desired goal. In contrast, the theory presented in the next section accounts for the mechanisms of motivation, including volition.

5.3.1 Personality Systems Interaction (PSI) theory

Personality Systems Interaction theory, or PSI (Kuhl, 2000a), builds on Kuhl's previous Action Control Theory (e.g., Kuhl, 1986). PSI is based on neurobiological evidence, and is supported by a systematic body of empirical research. It is a fully-fledged theory of motivation and personality. PSI calls attention to the mechanisms underlying the dynamics of motivation and personality—that is, to the functional characteristics of the cognitive "macrosystems" (akin to modules) posited to underlie the functioning of motivation and personality, and to the functional relationships among these systems. For instance, PSI tries to answer questions such as, How does a specific system become activated? What does it do when it is activated? What enables the activation of a connection between two systems?

Being based on neurobiological and experimental evidence, PSI is in line with Schumann's (e.g., 1998, 1999, 2001a, 2001b) neurobiological perspective on L2 motivation in the Second Language Acquisition (SLA) field. Kuhl (2000b) aptly summarizes the core concept of PSI theory, and outlines broad implications for education as follows:

> PSI theory shows how biased activation of affect in relation to key cognitive systems can lead to inflexible cognitive and self-regulatory styles. An understanding of how affective bias operates in relation to cognition and self-regulation suggests opportunities for altering personal styles through new targets of training and therapy. Whereas content-based theories lead to modifications of contents such as controllability beliefs, or the types of goals students pursue …, PSI theory suggests changing cognitive and self-regulatory mechanisms for instance, by changing the way a person regulates affect. (p. 666)

Affect therefore occupies a central place in PSI since it is assumed that motivational problems occur because of an individual's impaired ability to move between different affective states. Biased activation of affect (which could be due to personality dispositions, task demands, and/or other situational constraints) impacts on the energy flow between the systems (outlined in section 5.3.2.), generating specific patterns and sequences of interaction among them that may be far from optimal for motivation. In other words, what appears important in terms of motivation in classrooms is not to feel positive affect throughout the duration of lessons, but rather the ability (and opportunity) to feel a variety of more, or less positive or negative types of affect, and the ability to move easily between these different affective states. This adds a new, and more complex dimension to Schumann's (1999) statement that "positive appraisals along any of [the dimensions of novelty, pleasantness, goal or need relevance, coping potential, and compatibility with social or cultural norms, expectations of significant others, and self or ideal self] promote SLA" (p. 37). Positive appraisals may not be sufficient.

According to PSI, it appears that a strong positive (or negative) bias in terms of stimulus appraisals may not be desirable for SLA, which requires deep sustained learning fuelled by motivation stemming from an individual's ability and opportunity to experience positive and negative affects of different intensities, and success in moving from one affective state to another. Consequently, positive appraisals along any of Schumann's (1999) five dimensions may promote SLA indirectly by sustaining motivation in easy L2 learning activities but it is unlikely that they will sustain deeper, more meaningful L2 learning.

Provided the assumptions behind PSI theory hold (see section 5.3.3), it appears to deal with all the major challenges of motivation research, as listed by Dörnyei (2001c). For instance, Kuhl claims he addressed the challenge of unconscious volition (Kuhl, 2000a, p. 136). He also provides numerous examples that testify to the comprehensiveness of the theory, and to its ability to deal with the challenges of context, time, and cognition vs. affect (Kuhl, 2000b, 2001). Finally, it seems that the way students deal with multiple and sometimes-conflicting goals and activities could be explained through affect regulation.

5.3.2 Functional profiles of the four macro-systems in PSI

Kuhl believes that human beings require four cognitive macro-systems for enacting their intentions and following them through: Intention Memory, Intuitive Behavior Control, Extension Memory, and Object Recognition. Figure 5.3 depicts these systems. The four systems function in antagonistic relationships; that is, the stronger a system is activated, the stronger it inhibits the activation of adjacent systems.

Intention Memory (IM)
As its name indicates, Intention Memory (IM) is a memory structure for the encoding of intentions (i.e., abstract, explicit, verbal representations of actions selected for future enactment). It is associated with sequential, analytical thinking. IM forms its abstractions from its low-level counterpart, a system that controls concrete actions called the Intuitive Behavioral Control (IBC) system

Intuitive Behavioral Control (IBC)
Intuitive Behavioral Control (IBC) is a system that runs genetically prepared automatic programs, but also contains behavioral programs for the performance of simple actions, and controls the realization of intentions (previously held in Intention Memory) into actions.

Extension Memory (EM)

Extension Memory (EM) acts as a repository to parallel-distributed networks of intuitive, self-related knowledge, which represents everything that is needed, valued, desired by, and meaningful to an individual, including emotional states, personal past experiences, extended goal representations attached to potentially acceptable outcomes, and possible selves (Kuhl, 2000a, p. 135). It thus constitutes a fast, extensive database, capable of providing relevant information for complex decision-making. Kuhl (2000b) explains that some concepts of expectations used in personality and motivation research are attributed to the operation of EM, such as "action-outcome expectancies, self-efficacy expectancies, optimism, and controllability beliefs" (p. 679). EM provides impressionistic feelings because it is associated with intuitive-holistic (as opposed to sequential) processing. It is therefore assumed that individuals are not fully aware of the contents of EM, and cannot fully express them verbally, although some contents may reach analytical or even verbal consciousness, depending on an individual's meta-awareness skills. To be activated, EM requires a person to relax and move out of tension (i.e. "ex-tension"), that is, they must reduce or tone down ("downregulate" in Kuhl's terms) negative affect; this process occurs largely below consciousness.

The kinds of contents assumed to be held in Schumann's Value Memory (see section 4.6) appear similar to those of EM. However, Value Memory also acts as a repository for active goals, which are held in Intention Memory in PSI. As I explained in my critique of Schumann's theory (see section 4.6.1), PSI is likely to be the more accurate representation of the two theories.

The contents of EM accommodate most aspects of Dörnyei's (2005) L2 Motivational Self System (see section 4.8): the Ideal L2 Self, the Ought-to L2 Self, and the past (as opposed to the ongoing) experiences related to L2 learning and the current L2 learning environment.

Object Recognition (OR)

Object Recognition (OR) is the low-level counterpart system of Extension Memory (EM). It provides EM with elementary sensations and concrete perceptions from the internal and external environment (e.g., things, persons, thoughts, and needs). An "object" is a sensation or perception that has been abstracted (i.e. isolated) from its context in such a way that it can be subsequently recognized across different contexts. When it is activated by negative affect, it becomes sensitive to, and amplifies perceptions of discrepancies between situational conditions (e.g., "I don't understand this word") and what is wanted, which is represented in EM (e.g., be good at English).

Although "stimulus appraisal" (a term used in neurobiology and by Schumann, e.g., 1999) is not part of Kuhl's terminology, there is a similarity between Schumann's "appraisal

of stimulus events" discussed in section 4.6.2, and the functional properties of Kuhl's OR system. Both refer to an organism's monitoring of the internal and external environments for cues ("objects" in Kuhl's terminology) in terms of their emotional relevance and motivational significance when compared to the contents of what Schumann calls the "value memory" system, that is, Extension Memory in this case.

Because one function of OR is to monitor the external environment for cues in terms of their motivational significance, OR is relevant to the ongoing (as opposed to the past) aspects of "the L2 Learning Experience," one of the three dimensions of Dörnyei's (2005) L2 Motivational Self System (see section 4.8).

5.3.3 The theory of volitional action and its assumptions

The volitional core of Kuhl's (2000) PSI rests on two basic, so-called "modulation assumptions," which explain the affect conditions under which the functional links between the systems operate, and the mechanisms that these functional links enable. According to PSI theory, connectivity between the systems is inhibited unless a specific change in affect occurs.

Figure 5.3 shows the systems and their main functions, represents their connectivity by dashed parallel lines, and depicts the modulation assumptions as follows: A solid arrow indicates that a certain type of affect facilitates connectivity between the two systems, while a dashed arrow shows that it inhibits it.

Function of positive affect
Positive affect [A+] facilitates enactment of simple goals that do not require forethought or problem solving, or assists implementation of simple behavioral routines, such as those based on prior learning. However, A+ is not sufficient to help students implement intentions such as learning difficult materials. In this case, students first need to learn to tolerate periods of inhibited or reduced positive affect [A+ → A(+)]. This can be done by loading their Intention Memory with a difficult intention (e.g., the teacher can draw their attention to the difficulties that need to be overcome before they succeed).

Function of inhibited positive affect
Inhibited or reduced positive affect [A(+)] activates Intention Memory (IM). When IM is active, it maintains explicit representations of actions that cannot be implemented immediately because the timing is not appropriate, or because an appropriate solution has not yet been found. As long as positive affect remains reduced or inhibited, IM is active, and there is no connectivity with Intuitive Behavior Control (the "no entry" sign is blocking the

FIGURE 5.3

Theory of Volitional Action (Based on Kuhl, 2000a; 2000b, p. 668; 2001)

Intention Memory (IM)
(Left hemispheric)

- *Associated with sequential, analytical thinking*
- *Maintains abstract, explicit, verbal representations of desired actions that cannot be carried out immediately (intentions)*

Extension Memory (EM)
(Right hemispheric)
- *Impressionistic feelings*
- *Associated with intuitive-holistic processing*
- *Is the repository for the "integrated s (implicit representations of extended parallel-distributed networks of knowledge and experiences related personal needs, emotions, values, goals and actions for their fulfillment etc.)*
- *Functional locus of complex decision*

Self-control

Self-regulation

A (+)
Associated personality disposition:
INTROVERSION

A (−)
Associated personality disposition:
STABILITY

1st Modulation Assumption

2nd Modulation Assumption

Perceptions from Object Recognition or NEEDS

A +
Associated personality disposition:
EXTRAVERSION

A −
Associated personality disposition:
NEUROTICISM

Intuitive Behavior Control (IBC
Controls concrete actions
- *runs genetically prepared automatic programs*
- *runs intuitive behavioral routines based on prior learning*
- *is the output system of IM*

Object Recognition (OR)
Specializes in identifying perceptions (in internal and external contexts)
(When activated by A−, OR is sensitive to objects that are not congruent with EM contents)

Notes. **A+**: positive affect. **A−**: negative affect. **A(+)**: inhibition of positive affect. **A(−)**: downregulation of negative affect. **Dashed parallel lines**: inhibition or activation of the energy *within* a target system in relation to its corresponding source system (when one system is active, the other is passively awaiting instructions). **Dotted arrow**: inhibition of a given function (indicated by a "no entry sign" blocking the activation of the adjacent system). **Solid arrow**: facilitation of a given function (indicated by the arrow pushing the "no entry" sign away, thereby enabling activation of the adjacent system.

pathway in Figure 5.3). This means that explicit intentions (e.g., wanting to study) are difficult to carry out, especially if the individuals are reminded, or remind themselves of their intentions since the activation of IM may be experienced subjectively as loss of energy. Biased activation of IM in relation to Intuitive Behavior Control can lead to procrastination, conditioned responses, giving in to external demands, and external rather than internal control.

First Modulation Assumption (volitional facilitation)

According to this first modulation assumption, a surge of positive affect (A+) terminates an active phase in Intention Memory (IM) by activating the connectivity between IM and its output system, Intuitive Behavior Control (dashed arrow pushing the "no entry" sign out of the way in Figure 5.3). Consequently, the maintenance function of IM stops, and the individual can begin to enact the intention, now that it has gone through to Intuitive Behavior Control (IBC). Positive affect [A+] provides the affective basis that mobilizes the necessary energy to implement the intention.

Function of negative affect:

Negative affect [A−] facilitates the recognition of unexpected or unwanted objects by the Object Recognition (OR) system when it monitors the external and internal environments. In other words, negative affect [A−] amplifies cues in the external and internal environments that are incongruent with some personal standards, expectations, needs, extended goals, or other contents in Extension Memory (EM). This means that individuals whose ability to downregulate negative affect is impaired (e.g., those high in neuroticism, or high in state-orientation) may often experience uncontrollable rumination about unwanted objects.

L2 classrooms are characterized by negative affect. Oxford (1999a) cites several studies revealing that classroom activities and teaching methods, as well as teacher-learner interactions, promote anxiety. A common suggestion (see, e.g., Oxford, 1999a) is to advise teachers to reduce language anxiety in the classroom. In contrast, according to PSI, the ability to tolerate periods of negative affect is a pre-requisite for pursuing difficult goals such as language learning (which may indeed explain why some anxiety has been found to be helpful or "facilitative," see, e.g., Oxford, 1999a).

Second Modulation Assumption (suppression of the unwanted)

According to this second modulation assumption, the downregulation of negative affect [A− → A(−)] enables communication between the system specialized in recognizing unexpected or unwanted objects (Object Recognition, or OR), and Extension Memory (EM), in which

these objects can either become integrated or be rejected because they are not compatible with the existing contents.

The stronger the activation of EM is, the stronger the inhibition of self-discrepant objects (e.g., unwanted perceptions or thoughts that may lead to unwanted distraction, failure experiences, and self-incongruent wishes and norms imposed by others) and the better the ability to concentrate on task-relevant information. Moreover, in the case of coping with failure, because EM contains extended goal representations characterized by large networks of potentially acceptable outcomes, it provides alternatives in case of failure.

In addition, access to knowledge about past personal experiences stored in EM can reduce uncertainty when trying to predict future events in order to feel more in control of one's environment. Students who find it difficult to downregulate negative affect (and thus access EM) cannot reduce uncertainty by using knowledge from past experiences, and consequently become certainty-oriented (Kuhl, 2001, p. 247).

Finally, when EM is activated, goal-directed behavior benefits from emotional support provided by the connection of the goal that is being pursued to extended networks of relevant aspects of the self in EM. These aspects of the self provide meaning for the goal, as well as past positive emotional experiences.

5.3.4 Eight possible phases of a conative cycle

Kuhl's (2000b) refers to the full, hypothetical cycle of motivation and self-regulation (or volition) as the "conative" cycle (p. 676). The full cycle comprises eight phases (see Figure 5.4). However, not all behaviors require going through the full, eight-phase cycle. For instance, when enacting intentions for which the context of implementation is specified (e.g., when the individual knows the place, time, and specific behaviors that are available), Phases 1 through 6 may be bypassed. Moreover, the temporal sequence shown in Figure 5.4 is only one example among many because the theory posits that, depending on personality dispositions, task demands, or other situational constraints, any system can be activated at any time while generating constraints for other systems at the same time.

Phase 1: Problem perception.
Problem perception involves noticing a discrepancy between perceived state or elementary sensation provided by Object Recognition (OR) and some expectation or standard provided by Extension Memory (EM), which leads to experiencing negative affect. Situational conditions that can increase negative affect include the presence of situational factors that induce stress or lead to anticipation of failure. Conversely, problem perception is

FIGURE 5.4

One Possible Temporal Sequence of a Full Conative Cycle

(Adapted from Kuhl, 2000b, p. 677)
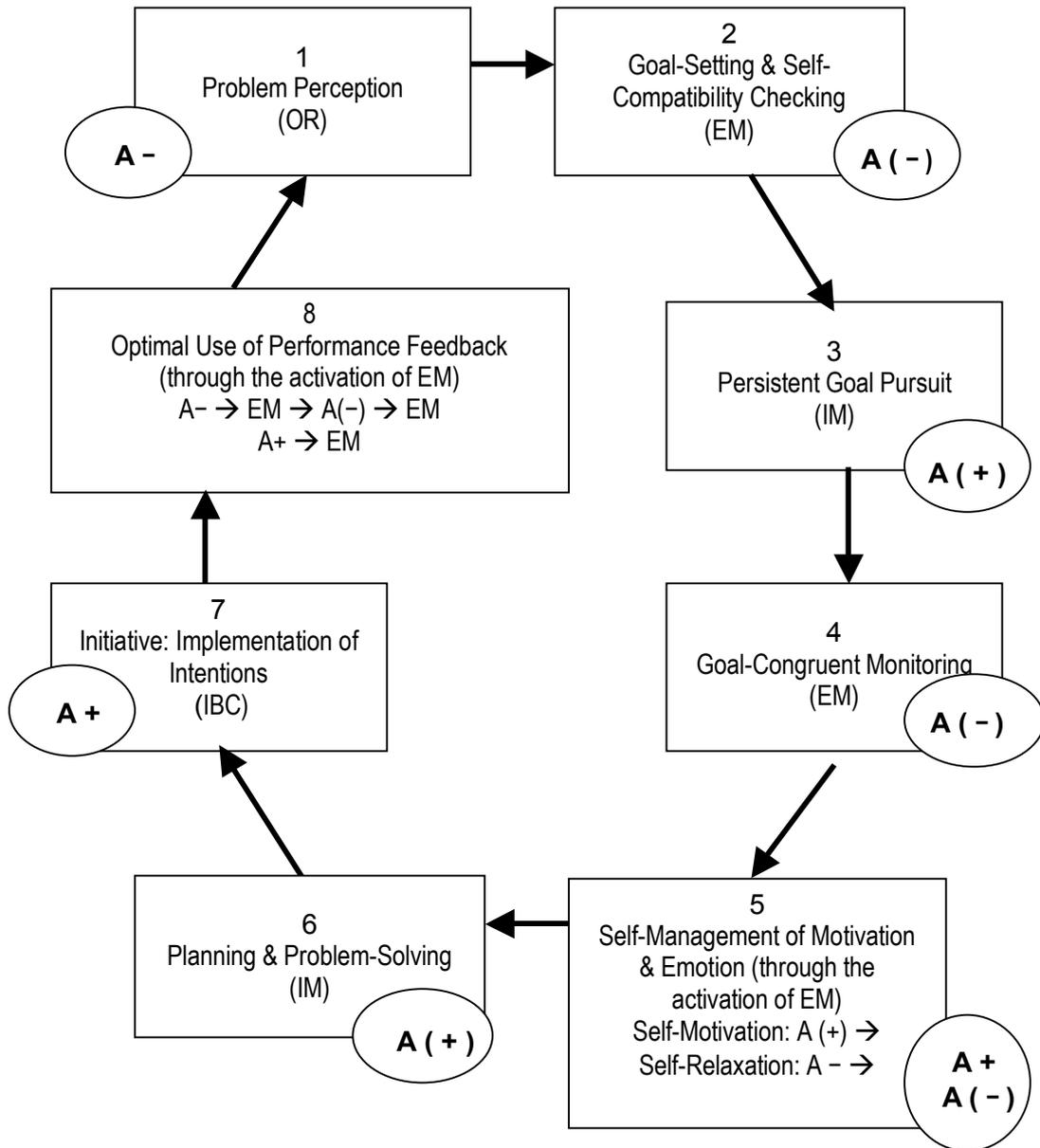
Notes.

OR = Object Recognition;
EM = Extension Memory;
IM = Intention Memory;
IBC = Intuitive Behavior Control;
A − = negative affect;
A (−) = downregulation of negative affect;
A + = positive affect;
A (+) = inhibition of positive affect

facilitated by already present negative affect. Recall that if prolonged, this phase may lead to dysfunctional ruminating, so it should be terminated by the activation of EM to enable goal-setting.

Phase 2: Goal-setting and self-compatibility-checking.
This phase can start either with the activation of Extension Memory (EM), which downregulates negative affect, or with the downregulation of negative affect, which activates EM. First, EM assists in the formation of a realistic, attainable "goal" (i.e., "a representation of a desired outcome," Kuhl, 2000b, p. 682) because it can provide a holistic feeling of possible, achievable outcomes based on an extended number of relevant past experiences. Second, the goal under consideration is checked for compatibility with the needs, values, and other aspects of the self associated with an extended network of positive affects. Consequently, if the goal is compatible, its pursuit will likely benefit from a great deal of positive emotional support from EM.

Phase 3: Persistent pursuit of a difficult goal.
A goal is defined as difficult, not when it requires a great deal of effort to accomplish it, but when it lacks specification, requires problem solving, or cannot be enacted immediately. Once a difficult goal has been selected among the many possibilities provided by Extension Memory (EM), the student needs to translate it into an "intention" (i.e., "the representation of an envisaged action," Kuhl, 2000b, p. 682) encoded in Intention Memory (IM). This intention is typically encoded in an abstract form lacking specification so enactment can be more flexible and better adapted to future conditions. This process requires another change in affect, so the starting condition for Phase 3 is the inhibition of positive affect. However, some students, such as those who are highly impulsive or intolerant of frustration, have trouble inhibiting positive affect or tolerating periods of low positive affect, which causes them to avoid difficult tasks.

Phase 4: Goal-congruent monitoring of internal and external environment.
Efficient monitoring of the internal and external environments for goal or self-congruent information enables the timely use of self-regulatory strategies, such as attending to relevant contextual cues or using self-relaxation. Goal-congruent monitoring requires neither concrete specifications of what is being looked for, nor constant conscious awareness. Instead, it runs in the background of conscious attention. It is in fact supported by Extension Memory (EM), and consequently the more strongly EM is activated, the better the student will be able to concentrate on task-relevant information. However, because goal-congruent monitoring is supported by EM, it requires activation of EM through downregulation of negative affect.

Phase 5: Self-management of motivation and emotion.

To set in motion the mechanisms of self-motivation, the systems can be activated as follows. After losing positive affect resulting from loading a difficult intention in Intention Memory (IM), a student can activate relevant self-knowledge in Extension Memory (EM), such as prior successes in similar situations; this will provide positive emotional support, thereby restoring positive affect. Students who have not learned how to offset a loss of positive affect (resulting from loading IM with a difficult intention) by using self-motivation run the risk of avoiding difficult tasks in order to avoid the negative feelings associated with difficult intentions. Self-relaxation refers to a downregulation of negative affect by activation of EM in response to negative affect detected in the monitoring phase (e.g., being afraid of failure).

Phase 6: Planning and problem-solving.

This phase requires the sustained activation of Intention Memory (IM) and analytical thinking in order to engage in deep processing, such as problem solving, or planning related to an intention held in IM. The student must therefore have the ability to make the transition from, for instance, positive affect following a phase of self-motivation in Phase 5, to inhibited positive affect necessary for the activation of IM. When long periods of inhibited positive affect are needed, positive affect may drop so much that planning and problem-solving will require repeated shifts back and forth between Phase 4 (goal-congruent monitoring through activation of EM), Phase 5 (restoration of positive affect—self-motivation, or downregulation of negative affect—self-relaxation, by activation of EM), and Phase 6.

Phase 7: Initiative and implementation of intention.

When Intention Memory (IM) is active, a sudden, conscious or unconscious, surge of positive affect terminates the activation of IM to activate in turn the Intuitive Behavior Control system (IBC), which enacts the intention. The surge of positive affect could come from an external source, for instance from praise from a teacher, or from the joy of finding a solution to a problem, or it may be generated by the self-motivation mechanism.

Phase 8: Efficient use of performance feedback.

It is important for students to connect both success and failure feedback to Extension Memory (EM). In the case of success, the event can be incorporated into the extended network of personal values stored in EM, and can become a source of positive affect for the future. In the case of failure, it is important to connect the feedback to the extended network of action alternatives stored in EM.

5.3.5 Summary of problems rooted in affect, and possible consequences

Kuhl (2000b) explains that problems rooted in affect can originate from the affective climate that teachers create in the classroom, as well as from the way students manage (i.e., regulate) their own affective states. When teachers have a teaching style that is excessively biased toward *negative* affect, their students may have trouble forming self-congruent, realistic goals, recruiting intrinsic motivation in support of these goals, and utilizing feedback in an adaptive way. On the other hand, teachers whose teaching style is excessively biased toward *positive* affect unwittingly create a climate that is likely to breed students who may avoid difficulty, may be self-avoidant, and may be insensitive to problems.

As for students, they can encounter a number of affect-related problems. Perhaps the most common is the impaired ability to downregulate negative affect [A− $\rightarrow$ A(−)]. Such students may have difficulty

- forming realistic goals,
- concentrating on task-relevant materials,
- terminating unwanted ruminations,
- setting priorities.

Students with impaired ability to change from downregulated negative affect to downregulated positive affect [A(−) $\rightarrow$ A(+)] cannot translate implicit goals or wishes into explicit intentions.

Those with impaired self-motivation (i. e., whose ability to restore positive affect from downregulated positive affect [A(+) $\rightarrow$ A+] is impaired) remain focused on unrealistic thoughts and ideas without having the energy for implementation.

Finally, when students' ability to change from downregulated negative affect to negative affect [A(−) $\rightarrow$ A−] is impaired, the self system cannot grow and its function remains underdeveloped.

5.4 Teaching Interventions and Motivational Strategies Derived From Motivation Theories

5.4.1 Teaching interventions based on PSI Theory

PSI theory has been the newest theory so far, so its proposed interventions remain to be tested empirically. Kuhl (2000b) emphasizes that PSI theory can help teachers to identify individual differences and select suitable intervention techniques that can optimize teaching. The

identification of individual differences is done through the assessment of students' volitional functions, which is carried out by using the Volitional Components Inventory (VCI; Kuhl & Fuhrmann, 1998). The VCI assesses more than 30 volitional functions, and informs teachers or psychologists about whether an individual's problem is a deficit in "self-motivation" or "self-relaxation" (as defined in section 5.3.4, "Phase 5"), and which micro-component of these or other macro-functions is impaired. In theory, once teachers or psychologists are in possession of this information, they should find it easier to adjust their behavior to the children's individual needs, and design an individualized intervention program. While this sounds feasible for psychologists, it seems unrealistic to expect teachers to master PSI theory, assess their students, as well as design, initiate, and see through a number of individualized intervention programs while continuing to teach their usual courses. Fortunately, PSI also offers general guidelines regarding teachers' behavior in the classroom.

Since regulation of affect is at the core of PSI, it follows that teacher interventions consist of helping students practice making the necessary affect transitions that are adaptive for the kind of deep sustained learning required when learning an L2. Consequently, PSI recommends that teachers should focus on helping students learn to self-regulate affect, that is, learn to terminate certain affective states and enter new ones. Kuhl (2000b) lists some basic principles regarding how teachers can achieve this:

- Teachers should respond attentively and encourage students, but only after students have expressed discouragement; this is to train students to restore positive affect and accept difficult challenges.
- Teachers should promote difficulty awareness. For instance, "before initiating a difficult segment of curriculum, the teacher can explain to students that this work will be harder than usual, and try to generate some positive feelings to counterbalance the expected drop in positive affect." (p. 691).
- Teachers "can encourage students to come back from the negative affect associated with failure experiences and think instead, 'What benefits could this experience have for me?'"(p. 691)
- Teachers can help students learn to "form realistic goals that are based on extended networks of routes for action (e.g., 'Can I think of at least three different things I could do to reach this goal?')." (p. 691)

A number of techniques can be used to strengthen a person's ability to downregulate negative affect, even without any direct training in self-relaxation skills. According to the second modulation assumption of PSI theory, this can be done by developing Extension Memory. Kuhl (2000b, p. 697) suggests the following as suitable activities:

- Requesting two or more options for action (or asking students to think about two or more potential meanings of a communicated message);
- Creative activities;
- Teaching awareness of bodily sensations (as in some relaxation procedures).

All the interventions summarized above are grounded in elaborate, sound theory, which is backed by neurobiological and experimental evidence. However, the interventions themselves have yet to be tried and tested in classrooms.

Although they are not linked to PSI, some studies have investigated the relationship between affect and instructional practices. It appears that students are more likely to experience positive affect when they are given opportunities to engage with conceptual issues underlying problem solving (Stipek, 2002b), and when they are placed in contexts where instructional is challenging (Turner, Meyer, Cox, Logan, DiCintio, & Thomas, 1998).

5.4.2 Motivational strategies derived from a goal content perspective

Speaking from a goal content perspective (see section 3.3.9), Wentzel (1999) points out that "interventions to change maladaptive motivational orientations toward learning must begin with attention to students' social and emotional needs" (p. 80). Results (for a review, see Wentzel, 1999) seem to support the hypothesis that, in the social environment of the classroom, it is more likely that students will adopt and pursue the goals valued by those (other students and/or the teacher) who help them meet their social and emotional needs. However, an alternative type of interventions might begin with paying attention to the quality of instructional activities since these may affect perceptions of pedagogical caring. This is suggested by results from a study by Mac Iver, Young, and Washburn (2002) who found that the frequency of active learning opportunities (i.e., "hands-on," "minds-on," and going beyond the textbook activities) in 63 middle school science classrooms predicted perceptions of pedagogical caring and intrinsic value.

5.4.3 Motivational strategies derived from the construct of "interest"

Interest can be conceptualized at two different levels of analysis. On a first level, interest refers to an individual's habitual predisposition or relatively stable tendency, in which case it is usually termed *individual interest*. On a second level, *situational interest* refers to "current engagements," and "describes a state or an ongoing process during an actual learning activity (Krapp & Lewalter, 2001, p. 212). Situational interest is a psychological (i.e., affective-

cognitive) state "that has been triggered by exposure to specific objects or experiences and refers to the heightened attention or concentration that is directed to the object or the experience" (Ainley & Hidi, 2002, p. 44). It is presumed that new individual interests develop in three stages (Krapp & Lewalter, 2001). First, a situational interest is aroused by external stimuli for the first time; then, if this situational interest lasts during a given learning phase, the initial attraction may develop into a more stable motivational state; finally, this more stable interest may develop into a relatively enduring individual interest. This suggests that if educators knew how to generate (catch) but even more importantly, how to sustain (hold) situational interest, it might help their students to develop over time an individual interest in their courses. This would relieve them of the impossible task of trying to fit the course contents and activities to every student's personal interests (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002).

A number of factors have been identified as potentially effective in promoting situational interest. For instance, it was found that group work, puzzles, and the use of computers caught students' interest initially; however, it failed to maintain it (Mitchell, 1993). This suggests that using the "bells and whistles" approach to stimulate students does not serve the long-term development of interest (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). In contrast, using meaningful activities and giving opportunities for active learning (i.e., learning requiring behavioral engagement and/or engagement in conceptual thinking and problem solving) seems to contribute to maintaining interest (Mac Iver, Young, & Washburn, 2002; Mitchell, 1993; Stipek, 2002b).

5.4.4 Motivational strategies derived from a Future Time Perspective

In education, Future Time Perspective (as seen in section 3.2.5) deals with matters concerning the degree to which the future is important to students, and students' ability to anticipate the future and foresee the future consequences of their present behavior. In some classrooms, students' attention is oriented to the future importance of their present behavior, while in others no explanations are given to students regarding how their current task-engagement is instrumental in attaining a future goal. Since the turn of the millennium, the Research Center for Motivation and Time Perspective at the University of Leuven has been actively involved in mapping out the motivational implications of referring to the future importance of present activities. A main question they have been trying to answer is whether it is possible to motivate students by pointing out to them the future contingencies of their present schoolwork.

Results indicate that teachers who stress the future extrinsic benefits of students' present behavior, such as gaining approval from others or being financially successful, are likely to forestall students' conceptual learning, performance, and persistence. Rather, teachers should focus on the future intrinsic benefits of engaging in the present task, what is usually referred

to as perceived instrumentality, that is, "an individual's understanding of the instrumental value of a present behavior" (Husman & Lens, 1999, p. 116). Simons, Vansteenkiste, Lens, and Lacante (2004) recommend that, depending on the task, teachers stress how active participation in a given task will contribute to the development of students' competencies and skills, help them attain a valued goal, and/or provide them with the opportunity to contribute to the community. Further, teachers should clarify the future instrumentality of the task in ways that are non- pressuring and non-controlling by maximizing students' opportunities for choice and self-decision. Finally, when pointing out the future relevance of students' behavior, teachers should go beyond generally stating that an activity serves students' future and give a clear rationale that allows them to fully grasp the specific meaning and importance of the activity.

However, teachers need to pay attention to yet another factor, which derives from both personality and life circumstances, and appears to play a crucial role in the relationship between motivation and perceived instrumentality, namely, students' optimism about their future. Perceived instrumentality was found to enhance motivation only if students were optimistic about their own future. If students had a pessimistic outlook on their future, realizing the importance of school had a demotivating effect (Van Calster, Lens, & Nuttin, 1987).

It seems to me that PSI theory, in particular an individual's underdevelopment of Extension Memory, and/or an impaired ability to activate it, could account for individual differences in FTP. Recall that a basic assumption of PSI is that Extension Memory (EM) is the repository of extended networks regarding aspects of the self (including possible selves, see section 5.3.2), and that when EM is activated, goal-directed behavior benefits from emotional support provided by the connection of the goal being pursued to EM. This is because the aspects of the self that are held in EM should provide meaning for the goal, as well as past positive emotional experiences. Moreover, optimism, which was found to play a key role in FTP-based motivational interventions, was said by Kuhl (2000b, p. 679) to be attributed to the operation of EM. Since students with an underdeveloped EM would lack well-defined future goals or possible selves, and/or have an impaired ability to link present events taking place in the classroom to the realizations of their future goals (a short FTP), it can be hypothesized that such students might benefit from interventions that develop Extension Memory and improve its function. Simons, Vansteenkiste, Lens, and Lacante's (2004) strategies are compatible with such interventions.

5.4.5 Motivational strategies derived from Self-Determination Theory

Self-Determination Theory (SDT, see section 3.3.10) has yielded many useful implications for the study and design of instructional contexts. For instance, Deci, Ryan, and Williams (1996) found that instructional contexts that can facilitate intrinsic motivation or the internalization of extrinsic motivation are characterized by "the provision of choice, optimal challenge, informational feedback, interpersonal involvement, and acknowledgement of feelings" (p. 166). Since classroom activities are always organized (albeit to various degrees), teachers cannot use tasks to create intrinsic motivation in their students, but they can facilitate and support its development by using learning activities that have the appeal of novelty, challenge, or aesthetic value (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The past three decades have seen a lively debate over the negative effects of extrinsic motivation and extrinsic rewards in general, and their effect on intrinsic motivation in particular (Urdan, 2003). Some useful findings have emerged from the research carried out during that period. Expected, tangible rewards (i.e., those that one can see, touch, feel, or taste) tend to decrease intrinsic motivation, whereas unexpected tangible or intangible rewards (i.e., verbal, symbolic, or abstract) do not. To be effective, rewards need to be valued by their potential recipients and timely administered. Further, extrinsic rewards have been found to interfere with the process and quality of learning, for instance by making students passive when it comes to processing information. Extrinsic rewards have also been found to make students more prone to negative affect, and less prone to experience positive emotion (Reeve, 2005, pp. 145-146). Finally, more research is needed to investigate the effects of rewards used to entice students to engage in activities that are neither fun nor interesting (Urdan, 2003).

In the L2 motivation field, Noels and her colleagues (Noels, 2001a; Noels, Clément, & Pelletier, 1999; Noels, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand, 2000) followed SDT to investigate possible relationships between the intrinsic motivation of L2 learners and the motivational aspects of their teachers' communication style. The results showed a low correlation between students' intrinsic motivation, and their perceptions of the teacher as autonomy-supportive (e.g., giving students some freedom regarding what activity to do, how to do it, or when to complete it) and as providing informative feedback (i.e., giving students information—in a positive and uncritical way—on how they can improve their competencies). In other words, the more students perceived their L2 teachers as controlling (e.g., using threats, imposing goals and deadlines, making them work under reward conditions) and as failing to provide informative feedback, the less they were intrinsically motivated. However, the directive influence of the L2 teacher's communication style on the students' sense of self-determination (autonomy) and enjoyment did not reach significance with students who

pursued learning primarily for extrinsic reasons. This indicates that learners who studied an L2 because it was a requirement were less sensitive to their teacher's communication style than learners who had freely chosen to study the L2. Finally, whereas the perception of the L2 teacher as being controlling (vs. autonomy-supporting) has a negative influence on intrinsic motivation, the learners' more general perceptions of the teacher as being negative (vs. pleasant) only mediates this relationship (Noels, 2001a).

In the studies of the relationship between motivation and autonomy in L2 learning surveyed above, there was a tendency to regard motivation as a product of autonomy. However, Spratt, Humphreys, and Chan (2002) presented results from a large-scale study of Hong Kong university students suggesting a more complex relationship in which motivation precedes autonomy in many cases. The authors conclude that, when teachers are facing learner resistance to engaging in autonomous practices, rather than continue to practice direct autonomy training, an alternative could be to focus on developing intrinsic motivation and on helping students to believe in the effectiveness of their own efforts. They suggest that teachers themselves be models of motivation, spend more time on activities in which learners wish to engage for their own sake, introduce the kinds of motivating activities in which learner-centeredness can be integrated as a precursor to learner autonomy, and recognize the diversity of students' learning styles and preferences for ways of learning.

Finally, Wu (2003) extended Noels' research by adding the new dimension of the immediate learning environment. In a quasi-experimental study in order to examine the influence of the classroom environment on the L2 intrinsic motivation of young foreign language learners (aged 4 to 6) in China, classroom observations were used to collect data on the instructional practice and the learning process in an experimental and a control group, and interviews were carried out after the experiment to measure students' intrinsic motivation, perceived competence, and perceived autonomy. The results indicated that motivational instructional practices of the experimental group (see Table 5.1) generated positive variance in perceived competence and perceived autonomy, which in turn led to enhanced L2 intrinsic motivation. In other words, providing young L2 learners with a predictable learning environment, moderately challenging tasks, adequate instructional support and evaluation that emphasizes self-improvement is an effective way to develop students' perceived competence. Furthermore, students' perceptions of autonomy are enhanced when they are given some freedom to choose the learning content, methods, or performance outcomes, and when they are provided with integrated strategy training. In turn, an increase in perception of competence and enhanced sense of autonomy elicit significantly higher L2 intrinsic motivation. The results also suggested that variables related to the instructional environment are mutually dependent and interact in complex ways, so, if teachers of young L2 learners want to create a motivating classroom environment that is conducive to the development of

TABLE 5.1

Different Instructional Practice Adopted in the Experimental and Control Groups

(extracted from Wu, 2003, p. 507)

	Experimental Group	Control Group
Teaching procedure	Five stages: • Brainstorming and introduction of an activity; • Presentation and mechanical drills; • Communicative drills; • Meaningful production and creative use; • Evaluation.	Two stages: • Presentation and mechanical drills of isolated language items; • Presentation and memorization of the required learning materials
Teaching and learning activities Activity types	• Teacher-intensive activities (e.g. presentation of language items; TPR activities; big book reading; etc.); • Teacher-initiated activities (e.g. open-ended dialogue, role-playing and dramatic play; story revision and retelling, etc.); • A few learner-initiated activities (e.g. composing an ending for a story; free discussion; designing a dialogue or role-play under a particular topic, drawing a picture and describing it, etc.)	Mainly teacher-intensive activities, often taking the form of competitive games
Participant organization	• The teacher working with the whole class; • Independent seatwork; • Pair work; or • Group work.	The teacher working with the whole class
Evaluation Practice	• Giving reasons, which are based on past performance in the same or similar tasks; • Helping students to recognize that their own efforts and learning strategies were means towards success rather than ability, luck, or task difficulty.	• Providing few reasons, or • Giving reasons according to a normative standard, or whether the learner performed better or worse than his peers.

intrinsic motivation, it is especially important that they adopt a comprehensive approach to classroom intervention.

5.5 DÖRNYEI'S L2 MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES FRAMEWORK

Traditionally, motivational psychologists have been more concerned about *what* motivation is than about *how* we can use this knowledge to motivate learners. Recently, however, there has been a marked change, and more and more researchers have decided to look at the pedagogical implications of research by conceptualizing motivational strategies. *Motivational strategies* can refer to instructional interventions consciously applied by the teacher to elicit and stimulate student motivation, or to self-regulating strategies that are used purposefully by individual students to manage the level of their own motivation. The motivational strategies discussed here belong to the first type, namely, to instructional techniques used by teachers.

A survey of the educational psychology literature related to the study of motivation in the classroom reveals many publications on teacher behaviors that should be effective in fostering student motivation in the classroom (for reviews in educational psychology see, e.g., Brophy, 2004; Ginsberg & Wlodkowski, 2000; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002; within the area of language education see, e.g., Alison & Halliwell, 2002; Dörnyei, 2001a, 2006; Williams & Burden, 1997). Yet, it also reveals the absence of a theory-based framework that could accommodate the diverse behaviors—although Dörnyei (2001a) is a notable exception in the L2 field. His model for a motivational L2 teaching practice comprises four main dimensions:

- *Creating the basic motivational conditions*, namely, laying the foundations of motivation through establishing a good teacher-student rapport, a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere, and a cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms.
- *Generating initial motivation,* that is, "whetting the students' appetite" by using strategies designed to develop positive attitudes toward the language course and language learning in general, and to increase the learners' expectancy of success.
- *Maintaining and protecting motivation* through promoting situation-specific task motivation (e.g., by designing stimulating, enjoyable, and relevant tasks), by providing learners with experiences of success, by allowing them to maintain a positive social image even during the often face-threatening task of having to communicate with a severely limited language code, and finally, by promoting learner autonomy.
- *Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation* through the promotion of adaptive attributions and the provision of effective and encouraging feedback, as

well as by increasing learner satisfaction and by offering grades in a motivational manner.

- Figure 5.5 presents the schematic representation of the model, indicating the main macro-strategies associated with each dimension. The macro-strategies are further broken down into over 100 motivational techniques. The reader is referred to Dörnyei's book on motivational strategies (2001a) where these are explained in detail. Dörnyei's L2 motivational strategies framework served as the theoretical basis for designing the classroom observation instruments in the current investigation.

While the motivational strategies reported in the L2 motivation literature are usually grounded in sound theoretical considerations, there has been very little research in the past to answer this crucial question: Do the proposed techniques actually work in language classrooms? This deficiency was already highlighted by Gardner and Tremblay (1994) over a decade ago: In reflecting on the potential usefulness of motivational strategies, they argued that, from a scientific point of view, intuitive appeal without empirical evidence was not enough to justify strong claims in favor of the use of such strategies. They therefore recommended that these strategies be considered as mere hypotheses to be tested, and highlighted a number of possible pitfalls to avoid in such research. The fact that there may be a discrepancy between the assumed and the actual motivational power of certain motives or motivational strategies is indeed a real concern, which is well reflected in the title of a very recent paper by Chen, Warden, and Chang (2005): "Motivators that do not motivate."

- In retrospect, however, it can be seen that Gardner and Tremblay's (1994) recommendations have hardly been taken up by scholars in the L2 field. This is partly because validation studies of motivational strategies are labor-intensive, since they require the application of experimental designs and/or extensive classroom observation. At the time of writing, only one published study (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998) had the explicit objective to provide empirical data about the effectiveness of 51 motivational strategies (selected from a list, drawn up by Dörnyei, 1994a, of about 100). However, that study only relied on teachers' self-reports about how important they considered strategies and how often they used them; it was not based on documentation of the actual nature of the participating teachers' motivational practice (which would have been more objective), nor on the students' classroom behavior to which such practice might have been linked.

The current study is aimed at filling this gap by providing empirical data obtained in a large-scale investigation in 40 EFL classrooms in South Korea, involving over 1,300 learners.

FIGURE 5.5

The Components of a Motivational L2 Teaching Practice (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 29)

Creating the basic motivational conditions
- Appropriate teacher behavior.
- Pleasant and supportive atmosphere
- A cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms

Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation
- Promoting motivational attributions
- Providing motivational feedback
- Increasing learner satisfaction
- Offering rewards and grades in a motivating manner

Motivational teaching practice

Generating initial motivation
- Enhancing the learners' L2-related values and attitudes
- Increasing the learners' expectancy of success
- Increasing the learners' goal-orientedness
- Making the teaching materials relevant for the learners
- Creating realistic learner beliefs

Maintaining and protecting motivation
- Making learning stimulating
- Presenting tasks in a motivating way
- Setting specific learner goals
- Protecting the learners' self-esteem and increasing their self-confidence
- Allowing learners to maintain a positive social image
- Promoting cooperation among the learners
- Creating learner autonomy
- Promoting self-motivating learner strategies

It examines the link between teachers' motivational teaching practice and their students' language learning motivation. A novel feature of the study is that, in contrast to the usual practice of L2 motivation research that relies on the use of self-report questionnaires, the research paradigm includes a salient classroom observation element. For this purpose, I developed a new classroom observation instrument, the Motivation Orientation of Language Teaching (MOLT). This observation scheme was used to assess the quality of the teacher's motivational teaching practice, as well as the level of the students' motivated behavior. The MOLT follows the "on-line" assessment principle of Spada and Fröhlich's (1995) Communication Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) scheme, but uses categories of observable teacher behaviors derived from Dörnyei's (2001a) motivational strategies framework for foreign language classrooms.

5.6 SUMMARY

In this chapter, I review the literature on motivating, which makes up a small body in comparison to the extensive literature on motivation theories. This reflects how little of the theory has been translated into practice. In particular, I presented and discussed:

- A personal theory of how motivation may function at the experiential student-instructional context interface, based on a synthesis of perspectives and empirical findings drawn from the educational psychology and L2 motivation literatures;
- Kuhl's (2000b) theory of volitional action.
- Pedagogical interventions or motivational strategies derived from motivational theories and empirical studies relevant to my research.
- Dörnyei's (2001a) framework of motivational strategies.

Chapter 6

Methodology

This chapter has two aims: first, to allow readers to evaluate both the appropriateness of the methods used in this study and the reliability and validity of the results; second, to enable the replication of the study. To achieve these aims, I begin the chapter by setting out the research questions. Next, I discuss some key methodological issues and considerations concerning the research design of this investigation before presenting the research design itself. Then, I introduce the methods that were used, describe the participants and the research sites, explain the processes used to create the instruments specially designed for this research, and summarize the data collection procedures. Finally, I outline the approaches used to analyze the data.

6.1 Research Questions

A multi-level approach was used by integrating the perspective of the researcher with that of students, and by applying different methodological approaches to produce answers to the following research questions:

a) Are L2 teachers' motivational practices linked to student motivation?
b) How do high-motivation learner groups differ from low-motivation groups in terms of their L2 motivational goals, their perceptions of the L2 classroom goal structure, the way they describe how their L2 teacher cares about them, and the emotional tone of the feelings they expressed during L2 lessons?

6.2 METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES AND CONSIDERATIONS

6.2.1 Quantitative research methods

Quantitative research methods have been the most commonly employed methods in L2 motivational research because of the initial influence of social psychology and a concomitant

emphasis on results that are reliable, replicable, and generalizable to different types of L2 learner populations. Dörnyei (2001c) aptly defines quantitative research:

> [Quantitative research] employs categories, viewpoints and models as precisely defined by the researcher in advance as possible, and numerical or directly quantifiable data are collected to determine the relationship between these categories, to test research hypotheses and to enhance the aggregation of knowledge. (p. 192)

Because L2 motivational researchers have traditionally targeted the more general and stable aspects of L2 motivation, *cross-sectional surveys* (i.e., surveys administered at a single point in time), involving self-report questionnaires with closed-ended items have been widely used in L2 motivation research. Cross-sectional surveys are particularly oriented toward the measurement of stable perceptions and behaviors because they typically require participants to average their subjective experiences across situations in order to produce generalized theories about their experiences, which are then reflected in the self-reports.

Survey methods have both advantages and disadvantages. A major advantage is that data collection and processing are relatively inexpensive, fast, and economical in terms of labor. On the other hand, for the reasons outlined in the previous paragraph, they cannot yield data on the contextual variability of learners' L2 motivation and, in the case of cross-sectional surveys, on its temporal variability. This is a major drawback when the facet of motivation under study is the learners' L2 motivation as it is manifested during lessons. Another downside of survey approaches to investigating L2 motivation is that participants' responses to questionnaires containing no open-ended items are constrained by the constructs researchers have imposed on the respondents rather than derived from the respondents' own expressions of their understanding of the phenomenon under study (Elliott & Bempechat, 2002). Despite these limitations, quantitative survey methods have produced significant advances in the understanding of academic motivation and L2 motivation.

6.2.2 Qualitative research methods

Qualitative, or interpretive methods are not yet commonly used in L2 motivation research, although they have been advocated over the past decade (e.g., Dörnyei, 2001c, in press; Ushioda, 1996). A main difference between quantitative and qualitative/interpretive methods is that the latter focus on the participants' rather than the researcher's interpretations and priorities. Thus, qualitative methods can be more contextually sensitive than quantitative ones because researchers do not set out to test preconceived hypotheses; rather, they tend to define analytic categories only during the process of research.

Qualitative methods exclude the collection of numerical data in favor of natural data in the form of researchers' field notes (e.g., notes taken during classroom observations), participants' verbalizations of their experiences (e.g., interviews, journal entries, or answers to open-ended items in questionnaires), and/or authentic documents (e.g., recorded speech samples, texts written by participants, video-recordings of lessons). The analysis of these data consists of discovering meaningful themes and patterns. Consequently, researchers can learn about students' L2 motivation from, for instance, descriptions constructed after having observed the students engaged in classroom activities and from students' accounts of their feelings relating to their L2 teacher and engagement in L2 class activities. From observation notes, it is possible to appreciate how teachers select, sequence, modify, and create activities to cater to their students' specific needs and the constraints of their particular environment.

With their potential for yielding rich and varied data, qualitative research methods accompanied by quality in-depth analysis and interpretation can lead to uncovering the structure of events when the meanings and perspectives of individuals are important. The main drawbacks are that qualitative-type studies are labor-intensive and usually involve only a small number of participants, which makes it impossible to generalize the findings since the few participants may not be representative of the population being studied. However, the latter drawback can be overcome to some extent by using appropriate sampling methods (see next section, and for more details, Dörnyei, 2007).

6.2.3 Combined use of quantitative and qualitative research methods

One way of enhancing the positive attributes of both methods and of overcoming some of their shortcomings is to combine the two paradigms in a single research design. Dörnyei (2001c; in press) outlines such research designs as follows:

- *Two-phase designs* for systematic sampling of participants in qualitative studies: In these, there is a first quantitative phase involving a large sample, the aim of which is to identify, through quantitative analysis, certain learners or learner groups that represent either typical or extreme cases of key aspects of what is being researched. In a second phase, the selected subsample of typical or extreme cases is further investigated using qualitative methods.
- *Dominant – less dominant designs*: These draw mainly on one research paradigm but also include one small component of the study drawing on the other paradigm. For example, the material gathered in a small-scale, exploratory, open-ended interview study can be used to construct a quantitative questionnaire for a large-scale survey.

- *Mixed-methodology designs*: In these, the two paradigms are mixed in one or several of the steps of the research design.

6.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

6.3.1 Selection of the criterion/dependent variable

The *dependent* or *criterion* variable refers to the variable that is expected to be affected by or respond to changes in other variables called the independent variables. Considering (a) that motivation is the antecedent of action, and (b) that the main aim of this research is to investigate relationships between facets of learners' L2 learning motivation and L2 teachers' instructional practices, using a behavioral measure of students' motivation is more likely to draw meaningful inferences about the hypothesized link between the teacher's motivational teaching practice and students' motivation. Consequently, the dependent or criterion variable selected for this study in Phase 1 is the learners' behavioral engagement in classroom activities in terms of the extent of task engagement (active participation or paying attention) and volunteering during teacher-fronted activities. In Phase 2, "engagement" is operationalized in terms of an aspect related to its emotional dimension, namely the learners' metacognitive awareness (i.e., "how the students felt," Turner & Meyer, 2000, p. 76) at certain times during the lessons. The independent variables are a selection of students' internal factors as well as contextual factors, the latter including a special focus on the teacher's motivational practice.

6.3.2 Longitudinal vs. cross-sectional research

Cross-sectional studies refer to investigations that take place at a single point in time. In contrast, longitudinal studies are carried out over an extended period and possess three additional characteristics, namely, (a) data are collected for each variable at least twice without offering any treatment in between the two periods of data collection, (b) from one period to the next, the participants are the same or are drawn from the same population, and (c) the analysis involves some comparison of data between the periods (Dörnyei, 2001c). At the inception of this study, an important decision had to be made: Should a longitudinal or cross-sectional design be adopted? In other words, should each research site be visited more than once, or should the sample size be increased to the level that is appropriate to produce statistically significant results? The former option would have enhanced the picture obtained

of each class but would have reduced the number of L2 classes that could be included in the sample. In order to be able to combine classroom observation data (where the unit of analysis was the learner group) with a student survey, the second option was chosen, and 40 learner groups with a student population of over 1,300 were included in a first phase. In a second phase, a small selection of learner groups, which had been found through quantitative analyses carried out in Phase 1 to represent extreme cases (i.e. "high motivation" vs. "low motivation") were further investigated using mixed methods.

Although six learner groups (drawn from the initial sample of 40 used in Phase 1) were revisited in Phase 2, the research presented in this thesis cannot be classified as longitudinal on two accounts. First, the only identical type of data that were collected during both periods was the classroom observational data. Second, no attempt was made to compare the classroom observational data obtained in Phase 2 to those obtained in Phase 1. This is because restrictions on access to sites meant that the Phase 2 observations fell either immediately before or after internal examinations, a factor known to alter South Korean high school girls' self-efficacy, which decreases prior to such exams and increases after they are over (Bong, 2005). In view of the importance of examinations in South Korean society (see Chapter 2), it is not unreasonable to suspect that such variation in self-efficacy may also affect middle school students' engagement in classroom activities. Consequently, to be valid, a comparison of learner groups' engagement would have required at least two visits at similar points either before or after internal examinations. If the teacher-learner group units had been kept intact for a second academic year, the groups could have been revisited at times that would have made comparisons appropriate. However, this option had to be ruled out because it is common practice in South Korea to randomly assign learners to new groups every academic year; as s a result, teachers never continue teaching the same groups of students (and seldom the same students) from one academic year to the next.

6.3.3 Research design selected for this study

The research design was conceived to enquire into the students' attitudes toward the subject, the teacher, and the course, and to assess their engagement during L2 lessons. It was based on two crucial assumptions: (a) that the teachers' instructional practices could make a difference when it came to promoting students' motivated behavior in their classrooms, and (b) that motivating instruction represents a merging of teachers' practices designed to provide motivating learning experiences in L2 lessons with students' perceptions of such experiences as being motivating. Consequently, the design included means of investigating the L2

teachers' motivational and general teaching practices, as well as their students' perceptions of these.

The first objective of Phase 1 was to examine possible relationships between L2 teachers' motivational teaching practices, their students' current motivational state toward the L2 course, and their students' motivated learning behavior (i.e., task engagement). The second objective of Phase 1 was to identify, through the quantitative analyses carried out in Phase 1, a pool of motivated and unmotivated learner groups from which I could draw a sample for Phase 2 of the study.

The objective of Phase 2 was to compare the two "extreme" types of learner groups identified at the end of Phase 1 along several motivation and instruction-related dimensions in order to gain some understanding of what kinds of L2 instructional practices may garner more student motivation. To achieve this aim, links were sought between the students' reports of their motivational goals and perceptions of the L2 classroom goal structure, their perceptions of how caring their L2 teachers were, their "metacognitive awareness[15]" during classroom activities, and the instructional and motivational strategies I observed in their L2 classrooms.

Figure 6.1 shows a schematic representation of what was measured, when, by what kind of instrument (see "Instruments" section below for full descriptions), and how each data collection point fitted in with the conceptualization of the situational backdrop for the emergence and functioning of motivation-as-behavior during L2 lessons.

6.4 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

In this section, I reiterate several points that are mentioned elsewhere in this chapter but examine them from an ethical perspective.

Because this investigation concerns the lives of teachers and their students within their own classrooms, its execution gave rise to a number of ethical issues and dilemmas:

- *Informed consent, confidentiality, and anonymity*: Potential teacher-participants and students were informed of the aims of the research, the purpose for which the data would be used, and of the tasks that they would be expected to perform. They were told that participation could be withdrawn at any time. The principals of the teachers who volunteered were sent a letter of introduction. The letter, which was written by my supervisor, outlined the general purpose of the research and requested permission to carry out lesson observations in their school and collect

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[15] Here, "metacognitive awareness" refers to "how the students felt" (Turner & Meyer, 2000, p. 76), and not to what is usually understood by "metacognitive" in applied linguistics. The meaning used here is closer to what is understood as "metacognitive" awareness in clinical psychology, namely, the awareness of transient mental events.

data from students. Specific measures were taken to ensure the confidentiality of the data, and the participating students, teachers, and schools were assured that I would protect their anonymity in any future publications based on the research.

- *Achieving an equitable cost-benefit balance:* I promised the teachers and the two Education Boards concerned that I would send them a copy of any future publication based on the research. After each observation, the teachers were offered the opportunity to see the filled-out observation schedule and ask me questions concerning how to motivate students. Furthermore, whenever possible, I taught one of the teacher's lessons while he or she watched or had a break. Finally, to thank the two Education Boards concerned, I have been giving regular in-service training workshops on motivating L2 learners since 2004.

- *Amount of shared information:* Before each visit in Phase 1, I showed the teacher-participants the classroom observation scheme that I would be using. However, they did not receive a copy so that they would not tailor their teaching to fit the categories of the observation scheme.

- *The issue of deception:* As the primary principle of research ethics is that no harm should come to the participants (Dörnyei, 2007), I believed that it was not inappropriate to partially withhold from the teachers the real reason why they were selected for Phase 2 of the study. I thought that it would be unkind to reveal to some of them that their students were particularly *un*motivated. Second, I felt that I should not disclose the contents of the Phase 2 students' survey, which, inter alia, asked the students to express why they felt that their English teacher cared about them. Since this item essentially amounted to asking students to evaluate their L2 teacher while being inside their classroom, an honest answer could pose some real threat to them (Dörnyei, 2003b). Moreover, although the teachers were not supposed to be present when I administered the questionnaire, I had to take into consideration that they might walk into the room at any time or ask their students about the survey. Consequently, I needed to (a) convince the students that their answers would be confidential (which was a procedural matter) and (b) choose an instrument whose the wording would not offend the teachers.

Finally, my main assurance for ethical correctness was provided by close consultation with my supervisor and with a professor of Korean Education in South Korea. Both were knowledgeable about ethical issues, and both vetted every instrument and every step of the procedures that I used.

FIGURE 6.1

Areas Targeted for Investigation with Corresponding Methods of Investigation
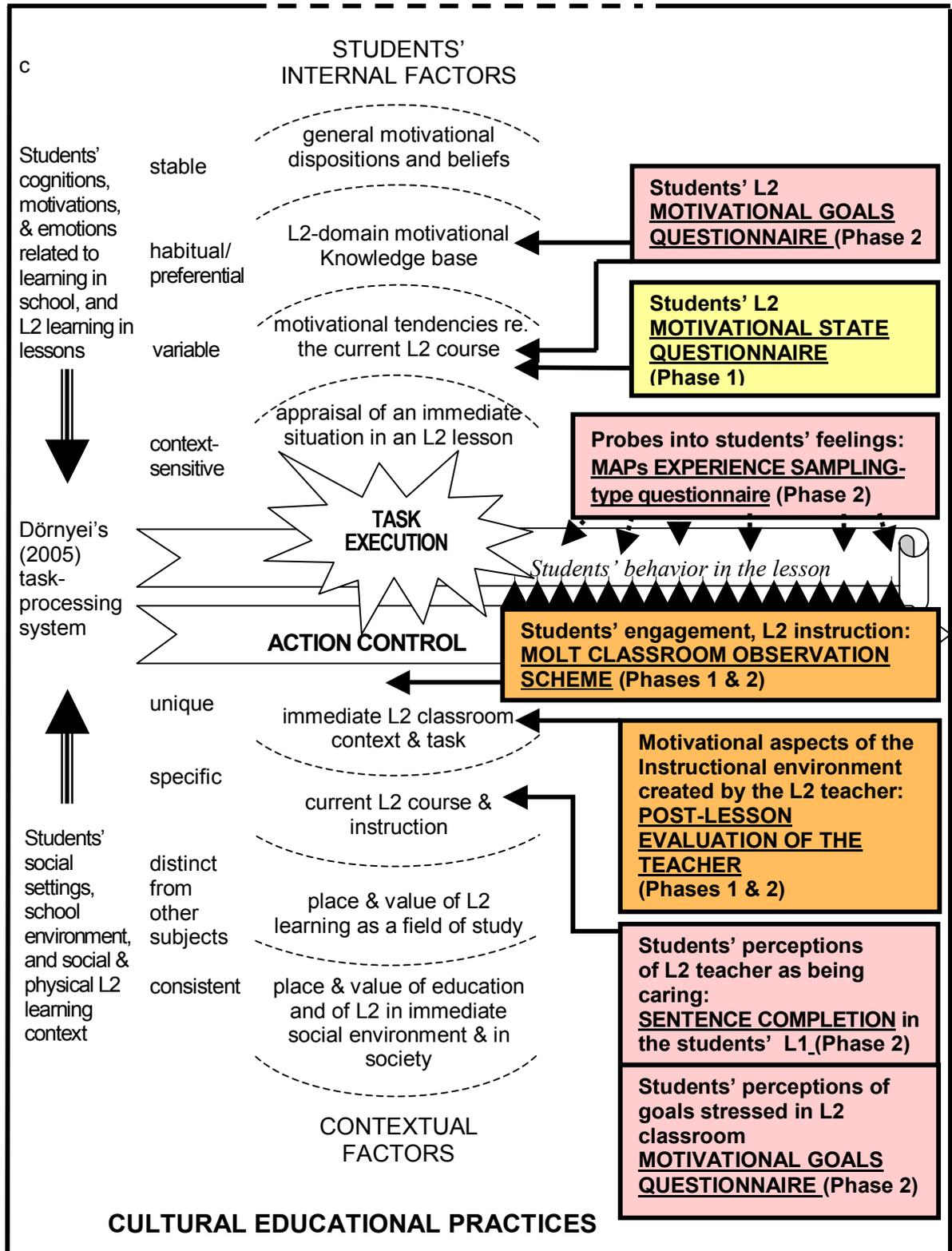
6.5 PARTICIPANTS

6.5.1 Sampling

The main sampling criterion for this study was to generate as much diversity as possible in terms of school location and the teachers' age, qualification, experience, and level of English proficiency. A summary of the number of participating schools, students, learner groups and teachers is given in Table 6.1.

TABLE 6.1

Participating Schools, Students, Learner Groups and Teachers (By Phase)

Phase	Schools	Students	Learner groups	Teachers
Pilot phase	3	294	8	4
Phase 1	20	1381	40	27
Phase 2	6	215	6	6

Recall that in South Korea, there is a conscious effort to provide equal educational opportunities for secondary school children. In particular, students who reside in a specific local education district are allocated to a school within the district through a lottery system, and teachers, vice-principals, and principals in state schools are rotated within their provincial or metropolitan (not just local) education district, usually every four years. From a sampling perspective, this guaranteed a certain degree of school comparability, and thus helped to avoid ending up with a biased sample. To ensure a large enough sample size, I approached a wide network of regional contacts and also applied snowball sampling, that is, participating teachers introduced me to other willing participants who met my criteria.

Based on results from Phase 1, a purposive sample of "extreme" types of learner groups was selected for Phase 2 of the study. Several teachers who had learner groups that fitted the criteria (high vs. low motivation) were asked if they would take part in a follow-up investigation. Three teachers for each category were eventually recruited for Phase 2. They were not told how or why they had been selected.

6.5.2 Participating Schools

After recruiting potential teacher participants, I sent their principals a letter of introduction outlining the general purpose of the research, which had been written by my supervisor, Professor Zoltán Dörnyei. In the end, twenty middle school principals granted permission to carry out research in their schools. These were located in a variety of mainland, island, rural, urban, and metropolitan sites within one large region of South Korea, and within a radius of about 140 km from my home. The characteristics of each research site are outlined in detail in Appendix A.

6.5.3 Teacher-Participants

Although there was a gender imbalance among the 27 participating teachers (4 males, 23 females), they represented a diverse population in terms of age, qualification, experience, and level of English proficiency (see Appendix B for a summary of the teacher-participants' biographical data). Their ages ranged from 23 to 44 (M = 31.69; SD = 7.36) and teaching experience from 1 to 20 years (M = 8.46; SD = 6.95). Regarding qualifications, the majority (77.8%) held first degrees in Eglish Education (i.e., TEFL) and could thus be classified as specialist English teachers, while a small proportion had majored in English Language and Literature (14.8%) and fewer still in the teaching of subjects other than English (7.4%). All were asked to evaluate their own level of proficiency in English: None of them rated themselves as fluent, but 30% judged themselves to be "Advanced," 40% "Higher Intermediate," and 30% "Lower Intermediate." Finally, five out of the 27 participating teachers had taken part in local or provincial level teaching contests and had won awards. This is admittedly a high proportion (relative to the general population of English teachers in the province) but it is not unexpected due to the degree of self-confidence teachers probably needed to volunteer for such a study.

6.5.4 Student-participants

The composition of the student sample in each phase is described in Table 6.2 according to year group and gender. All students spoke Korean as their first language. In light of the considerable washback effect (i.e., teaching to the test) of the university entrance examination in Korea, I excluded high school classes from the sample in favor of middle school. Among the latter, Year 1 and Year 2 learner groups (12-13 and 13-14 year olds) were preferred over

Year 3 students (14-15 year olds) whenever possible. By the time I visited them, Year 1 students had received over 150 hours of English tuition since elementary school, Year 2 students over 220 hours, and Year 3 students over 300 hours (for more details on the type of instruction they received, see Chapter 2, section 2.5). Few students were able to hold a basic conversation in English. Most were only able to express themselves in 1- or 2-word utterances or rely on a very limited selection of sentences memorized from their textbooks. This is not surprising since most of the classroom language practice consists of closed-ended exercises (e.g., multiple-choice items, gap-fillers).

TABLE 6.2

Composition of Student Sample (By Phase)

	Male %	Female %	Total %
Pilot Phase (N=294)			
Year 1 (age 12-13)	10	53	63
Year 2 (age 13-14)	9	28	37
Total	19	81	100
Phase 1 (N=1381)			
Year 1 (age 12-13)	37	9	46
Year 2 (age 13-14)	18	28	46
Year 3 (age 14-15)	5	3	8
Total	60	40	100
Phase 2 (N=255)			
Year 1 (age 12-13)	33	22	55
Year 2 (age 13-14)	8	37	45
Total	41	59	100

6.6 INSTRUMENTS

6.6.1 The Motivational Orientation of Language Teaching (MOLT) classroom observation scheme

To assess the L2 teachers' motivational and general L2 teaching practice as well as the learners' behavioral engagement in classroom activities, I developed a classroom observation scheme, the Motivational Orientation to Language Teaching (MOLT) specifically for this

study. The MOLT (see Appendix C) combines two established schemes/ frameworks: Dörnyei's (2001a) system of motivational teaching practice, and Spada and Fröhlich's (1995) classroom observation scheme, the Communicative Orientation to Language Teaching (COLT). To replicate the real-time nature of Part A of the COLT, the MOLT follows a time-sampling format, whereby relevant classroom events are recorded every minute in an ongoing manner.

The content categories included in the MOLT concerned features of the learners' motivated behavior and the teacher's motivational teaching practice. The former was operationalized as the students' levels of behavioral engagement in instructional events. More precisely, it refers to the observer's assessment of the learners' level of motivated behavior in terms of the proportion of students who paid attention or actively participated during the class, and who eagerly volunteered during teacher-fronted oral activities. Table 6.3 presents a description of the three variables belonging to the "learners' motivated behavior" cluster. The attention and participation variables were encoded similarly to Emmer (1971, cited in Good & Brophy, 2003) but in this case, a three level-scale was used as follows: "very low = a few students," "low = 1/3 to 2/3 of the students," and "high = more than 2/3 of the students." For the purpose of the analyses, a conservative stance was taken and "Learners' Motivated Behavior" was equated with only the "high" level of engagement.

The aspects of the teacher's motivational teaching practice included in the MOLT were based on Dörnyei's (2001a) model of motivational teaching practice described earlier. I selected 25 motivational variables that were clearly definable and observable using the real-time observation scheme; these are presented in Table 6.4. These variables were grouped into categories, namely, Teacher Discourse, Participation Structure, Encouraging Positive Retrospective Self-Evaluation, Task Design, and Learners' Motivated Behavior. In accordance with Spada and Fröhlich's (1995) concept of the "primary focus" coding convention, whenever two different events belonging to the same category took place within a one-minute time segment, the event that was recorded was the one that had taken up the greater portion of the one-minute segment. However, events that involve students working on tasks—and therefore variables belonging to the "Activity Design" category—do not fall under the "primary focus" coding convention. This is because the variables in the "Activity Design" category represent the addition of a variety of motivational elements to the basic design of a task. Since several such elements can be added to a single task, whenever this was the case for a task being worked on by the students within a one-minute time segment, all the relevant elements were recorded for that one-minute segment.

There is also space to record brief field notes as well as a few other categories in the MOLT related to classroom activities (e.g., choral work, seat work). This kind of data offers

TABLE 6.3

Observational Variables Measuring Learners' Motivated Behavior

Variables	Description
Attention	*Students appear to be paying attention, e.g., by looking at the teacher and following his/her movements, by looking at visual stimuli, by turning to watch another student who is contributing to the task, by following the text being read, by making appropriate nonverbal responses, and/or by not displaying any inattentive of disruptive behavior.*
• Very low attention	• A few students pay attention
• Low attention	• 1/3 to 2/3 of the students pay attention
• High attention	• More than 2/3 of the students pay attention
Participation	*Students take an active part in classroom interaction or work on assigned activity.*
• Very low participation	• A few students pay attention
• Low participation	• 1/3 to 2/3 of the students pay attention
• High participation	• More than 2/3 of the students pay attention
Volunteering for teacher-fronted activity	*Students volunteer readily to participate in a teacher-fronted activity without the teacher having to coax them in any way*
• No volunteering	• Students do not volunteer; the teacher has to call on them
• Slow volunteering	• Students need encouragement before a few of them eventually volunteer
• Eager volunteering	• At least one third of the students volunteer readily without the teacher having to coax them in any way.

TABLE 6.4

The 25 Observational Variables Measuring the Teacher's Motivational Practice

Variable	Description
Signposting	The period of time during which the teacher states the lesson objectives explicitly or gives retrospective summaries of progress already made toward the realization of the objectives.
Social chat	The period of time during which the teacher engages in chat unrelated to the lesson with the students; the chat can be initiated by either party.
Stating the communicative purpose/utility of the activity	The period of time during which the teacher, when presenting an activity, mentions either its communicative purpose, its usefulness outside the classroom, or its cross-curricular utility; or describes the intended purpose of the activity, or the way the activity fits into the sequence of activities planned for the given lesson.
Establishing relevance	The period of time during which the students are expected to listen to the teacher attempting to make a connection between what has to be learned and their lives. "Establishing relevance" is the teacher discourse equivalent to the "personalization" element in task design. N.B.: If the teacher attempts to establish relevance by asking students questions about their lives, the period of time during which this is done is recorded under "referential questions."
Promoting integrative values	The period of time during which the teacher promotes contact with L2 speakers and cultural products, encourages students to explore the L2 culture and community, or mentions intellectually or affectively positive aspects of making contact with the L2 culture(s) and L2-speaking peole.
Promoting instrumental values	The period of time during which, for instance, the teacher highlights the role that the L2 plays in the world and the potential usefulness of knowing the L2 for both themselves and their community, or mentions the incentive benefits associated with the knowledge of the L2, such as how it will help them accomplish goals that they value.

Arousing curiosity or attention	When presenting an upcoming activity, the period of time during which the teacher raises the students' expectations that it is going to be interesting and/or important. For instance, the teacher may ask them to make guesses and predictions about the upcoming activity, or point out fun, challenging or important aspects of the task or contents to be learned.
Scaffolding	The period of time during which the teacher provides appropriate strategies and/or models them so as to lead students to complete an activity successfully (e.g., the teacher thinks aloud while demonstrating, reminds students of previously learned knowledge or skills that will help them complete the task, or has the class brainstorm a list of strategies to carry out a task).
Promoting cooperation	The period of time during which the teacher sets up a cooperative learning task, or expressly encourages students to help one another and/or offers them suggestions regarding how best to do this.
Promoting autonomy	The period of time during which the teacher offers students a choice of activities or sets such work as oral presentations, projects, or displays; in the absence of these, the teacher encourages students to use a dictionary or the Internet, or to do research on their own, or involves students in making decisions regarding the timing of an activity.
Referential questions	The period of time during which the teacher asks the class genuine questions (questions to which he or she does not already know the answer), including questions on students' own lives.
Group work	The period of time during which students work in groups or do a mingling activity (or other type of fluid pair activity).
Pair work	The period of time during which students work in fixed pairs.
+ tangible reward	The period of time during which students can receive tangible rewards (e.g., candy, stickers) for taking part in an activity successfully.
+ personalization	The period of time during which students have an opportunity to express personal meanings (e.g. experiences, feelings, or opinions).
+ element of interest, creativity, fantasy	The period of time during which the students engage in an activity that contains ambiguous, paradoxical, problematic, controversial, contradictory, or incongruous material, or connects with students' interests or values, or contains an exotic element, and/or involves creativity or fantasy.

+ intellectual challenge	The period of time during which the students engage in an activity that presents an intellectual challenge (e.g., it is puzzle-like; students solve problems, discover something, overcome obstacles, avoid traps, find hidden information)
+ tangible task product	The period of time during which the students work on the production of a tangible task outcome (e.g., a poster, a video-clip, a brochure).
+ individual competition	The period of time during which the students engage in an activity that has an element of individual competition.
+ team competition	The period of time during which the students engage in an activity that has an element of team competition.
Neutral feedback session	The period of time during which the teacher goes over the answers of an exercise with the class, refers students to an answer key and has students check their own answers, or gives feedback regarding a completed activity in an impersonal manner.
Process feedback session	The period of time during which the teacher focuses on what can be learned from the mistakes that have been made, and on the process that was required to arrive either at the correct answer or at the production of a product of an acceptable or commendable standard.
Elicitation of self/peer correction session	The period of time during which the teacher encourages students to correct their own mistakes, revise their own work, or review their peers' work, and/or correct each other's mistakes.
Effective praise	During a 1-minute segment, the teacher offers at least one instance of praise—for effort or achievement—that is sincere, specific, and commensurate with the student's achievement. That is, the teacher does not simply say "Good job!" but specifies what is good about the job. N.B.: General praise (e.g., "Good job!" or "Well done!"), ability feedback ("You are very good at English"), or praise involving social comparison ("You did better than anyone else in the class") is not recorded as "effective praise."
Class applause	During a 1-minute segment, the class celebrates the success, risk-taking, or effort of a student or group by applauding sincerely at least once, either spontaneously or following the teacher's lead.

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the possibility to explore links between language learning activities and the learner group's level of engagement.

6.6.2 The Post-lesson Teacher Evaluation Scale

In order to increase the reliability of the appraisal of the teachers' motivational practice, a short rating scale was also newly developed and piloted for this study (see Table 6.3). The scale consists of nine 6-point semantic differential items; these are filled in after each lesson to provide a post hoc evaluation of the teacher's behavior. Drawing partly on Gardner's "Attitudes toward the L2 teacher" scale (Gardner, 1985), the 9 bipolar adjectives focused on various motivation-specific features of the teacher's instructional behavior, such as the teachers' less tangible professional qualities (e.g., instructional clarity, enthusiasm, ability to stay focused) and their "immediacy" behaviors (e.g., verbal and non-verbal expressions of kindness and warmth). Table 6.5 gives a definition of each variable of the Post-Lesson Evaluation of the Teacher scale.

6.6.3 Student Motivational State Questionnaire (Phase 1)

The Student Motivational State Questionnaire (see Appendix F for the English and Korean versions of the questionnaire) underwent piloting before being administered in Phase 1. It assesses the students' situation-specific motivational disposition in relation to their current L2 course, and so does not include items seeking to tap more general attitudinal or motivational factors, such as the incentive values of English proficiency or integrativeness. It comprises three multi-item scales, which assess the students' attitudes toward their current L2 course ("Attitudes toward the course"), their perception of their ability to cope with L2 learning and achieve desired goals in terms of L2 proficiency ("linguistic self-confidence"), and their general level of anxiety when they have to use the L2 in their current class ("L2 classroom anxiety"). Some items were adapted from existing and commonly used scales (e.g., Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994; Gardner, 1985b), and some were newly written. The items were translated from English into Korean by an expert and back into English by several graduate students. During this process, minor modifications were made until I was satisfied that the Korean translation was accurate The Student Motivational State Questionnaire is presented in Table 6.6. The final version has 20 items rated 1 ("not at all true") to 6 ("very true") on a Likert scale.

TABLE 6.5

Post-Lesson Evaluation of the Teacher: Variables

Variable	Description
Competent L2 user ←→ *Incompetent L2 user*	The observer's assessment of the teacher's level of proficiency in English for classroom purposes (i.e., the teacher is a good model inasmuch as s/he uses and teaches appropriate, accurate L2 within the classroom).
Focused/Task-oriented ←→ *Unfocused/wastes time*	The extent to which the teacher's actions are purposeful, how effectively s/he uses time, and the extent to which s/he allows students to distract him/her away from the lesson.
Clear ←→ *Confusing*	The extent to which the teacher provides clear and timely instructions and explanations.
Increases students' expectancy of success ←→ *Increases students' expectancy of failure*	The extent to which the teacher scaffolds tasks and provides adequate support so that students feel confident that they know what to do and how to do it.
Kind, caring, creates a pleasant atmosphere ←→ *Unkind, uncaring, creates an unpleasant atmosphere*	The extent to which the teacher treats students with kindness, warmth and respect, and students appear to feel comfortable and relaxed.
Radiates enthusiasm ←→ *Unenthusiastic*	The extent to which the teacher appears to enjoy teaching.
Humorous, light-hearted style ←→ *Dry style*	The extent to which the teacher uses humor to lighten up the proceedings, and /or shows that s/he has a sense of humor and does not take all situations seriously.
Encouraging ←→ *Not encouraging*	The extent to which the teacher encourages students verbally and non-verbally.
Creative, takes risks ←→ *Uncreative, does not take risks*	The teacher's level of creativity and risk-taking as demonstrated in his/her use of teaching materials, task design and classroom participation structures.

6.6.4 Motivational Goals Questionnaire (Phase 2)

The Phase 2 student questionnaire has two objectives: (a) to assess students' achievement goal orientations, which include a hypothesized class of milieu-related achievement goals referring to the desire to achieve to please significant others in recognition of their support; (b) to measure students' perceptions of the achievement goals stressed in their L2 classroom (i.e., classroom goal structures). This questionnaire should be seen as exploratory because I borrowed items from scales designed for Western school environments and created some new ones in a bid to adapt it more closely to the South Korean context.

   Motivation goal orientations and students' perceptions of the goal structures in the classroom were measured using items adapted from scales belonging to the Patterns of Adaptive Learning Survey (PALS) personal goal orientation subscales (Midgley, Maehr, Hicks, Roeser, Urdan, Anderman, Kaplan, Arunkumar, & Middleton, 1997, cited in Urdan & Midgley, 2003), from Anderman, Griesinger, and Westerfield (1998)'s Personal Extrinsic Orientation and School Mastery scales, and from Stipek (2002a, p. 171). In addition, following a brainstorming session with a Korean expert (also the questionnaires translator) and two bilingual high school students, I included items from Skaalvik's (1997) "Avoidance Orientation" scale. All items were adapted to apply to English language learners in relation to their current EFL course at school. Students reported the extent to which they agreed that the statements in the questionnaire were true for them. Ratings ranged from 1 = "not at all true" to 6 = "very true."

   Because the existing instrumentation did not tap a potentially important source of motivational goals for participants studying in a South Korean environment, a brief subscale was also developed specifically for this study to measure the motivational influence of family/significant others (Gardner's "milieu," 1985) in the way they provide support and stimulate a desire to achieve as a means of acknowledging this support. The scale, which I named "milieu-related goal orientation," was developed simultaneously in Korean and English by the translator and me during the brainstorming session mentioned above. In this, we were inspired by Hobfoll's Communal Mastery Scale (Jackson, Mackenzie, & Hobfoll, 2000, p. 293), a measure of Communal Mastery, which is defined as "the tendency to see oneself as having the potential for success through behavior that is an interwoven process of the self in relation to others (op. cit., p. 292). The rest of the questionnaire was translated into Korean following the same procedure as the Phase 1 questionnaire.

TABLE 6.6

Student Motivational State Questionnaire (Phase 1)

Attitudes Toward the Course (9 items, Cronbach Alpha: .85)

- I wish we had more English lessons at school this semester.
- I like English lessons this semester.
- English is one of my favorite subjects at school this semester.
- When the English lesson ends, I often wish it could continue.
- I want to work hard in English lessons to make my teacher happy.
- I enjoy my English lessons this semester because what we do is neither too hard nor too easy.
- I would rather spend time on subjects other than English. (REVERSED)
- Learning English at school is a burden for me this semester. (REVERSED)
- In English lessons this semester, we are learning things that will be useful in the future.

Linguistic Self-Confidence (8 items; Cronbach Alpha: .80)

- I feel I am making progress in English this semester.
- I believe I will receive good grades in English this semester.
- I often experience a feeling of success in my English lessons this semester.
- I am sure that one day I will be able to speak English.
- In English lessons this semester, I usually understand what to do and how to do it.
- This semester, I think I am good at learning English.
- I am worried about my ability to do well in English this semester. (REVERSED)
- I often volunteer to do speaking presentations in English lessons.

L2 Classroom-Use Anxiety (3 items; Cronbach Alpha: .63)

- I get very worried if I make mistakes during English lessons this semester.
- I am afraid that my classmates will laugh at me when I have to speak in English lessons.
- I feel more nervous in English class this semester than in my other classes.

The questionnaire that was administered (see Appendix G for the English version followed by the Korean one) was comprised of 28 items, grouped in 7 scales. These were: Milieu-related goal orientation (4 items), Personal mastery goal orientation (5 items), Personal performance-approach goal orientation (4 items), Personal performance-avoidance goal orientation (3 items), Work avoidance (4 items), Classroom performance goal structure (4 items), and Classroom mastery goal structure (4 items). Because of time limitations, the

questionnaire was not piloted. A post-hoc item reliability analysis led to the exclusion of some items and of two of the subscales (see results Chapter 8). The 5 new multi-item subscales, which form the final version of the questionnaire, are labeled "Work Avoidance Orientation," "Milieu-Related Goal Orientation," "Performance Approach Goal Orientation," "Classroom Mastery Goal Structure," and "Classroom Performance Goal Structure." The scales, their items, and their Cronbach Alpha are presented in Chapter 8 (Table 8.1).

6.6.5 The "Caring Teacher" sentence completion item

In Phase 1, the teachers' caring quality was one among other general personal and professional motivational qualities that had been assessed solely by me, using a semantic differential scale. In Phase 2, I sought to investigate students' own appraisals of their teacher's caring qualities for purposes of data triangulation, and because students' perceptions that the L2 teacher is caring might reflect actual classroom practices (Wentzel, 1997). Since I was essentially asking students to evaluate their L2 teacher while being inside their classroom, an honest answer could pose some real threat to the students (Dörnyei, 2003b). Moreover, although the teachers were not supposed to be present when I administered the questionnaire, I had to take into consideration that they might walk into the room at any time or ask their students about the survey. Consequently, I needed to be particularly careful about (a) convincing the students that their answers would be confidential (which was a procedural matter) and (b) choosing an instrument, the wording of which would not offend the teachers. After consulting the Korean questionnaire translator, I decided to use a sentence completion item in the students' L1 (see Appendix H), which translates into English as follows, "I feel that my English teacher cares about me because…." This item implies that I assumed the teacher cared about her students, but at the same time it left the students free to write whatever they wanted.

6.6.6 The Metacognitive Awareness Probes (MAPs)

To assess individual learners' "metacognitive awareness" (i.e., "how they felt," Turner & Meyer, 2000, p. 76), an Experience Sampling Method (ESM)-type questionnaire was used at several points during each L2 lesson in Phase 2. The current use of ESM in the literature refers to any research method that assesses experiences (a) in a natural setting, (b) in real-time (i.e., during or close to the experience being reported), and (c) on repeated occasions (Conner, 2005). Whereas standard survey questionnaires can only focus on the filtered, reconstructed

memory representations of students' averaged engagement in one or more past L2 lessons, ESM questionnaires can take the dynamic nature of L2 motivation fully into account by focusing on learners' actual engagement in specific L2 classroom activities.

ESM has been used repeatedly by motivation researchers in educational psychology to study classroom contexts (e.g., Boekaerts, 1988; Krapp, 1999; McCaslin & Murdoch, 1991; Vermeer, Boekaerts, & Seegers, 2000; Volet, 1997) but I am only aware of two attempts to date at using ESM in L2 motivation research (Julkunen, 1989; Schmidt & Savage, 1992). Because ESM allows students to record their thoughts and feelings within their natural classroom environment when they are participating in learning tasks as they unfold at several points during a lesson, ESM has good ecological validity and can account for the contextual and temporal variability of motivation. Another advantage is that ESM allows for simultaneous idiographic (i.e., within-person) and nomothetic (i.e., across-person) analyses. For instance, if students are asked to rate the extent to which they felt anxious before a task (T1), during a task (T2), and after a task (T3), researchers can analyze how anxious the learner group felt as a whole at T1, T2, then T3 (nomothetic analysis). Alternatively, they can build an "anxiety" profile of each learner in the learner group, showing each student's level of anxiety at T1, T2, and T3, or perhaps average the three ratings to produce an index of "anxiety" for the task for each student (idiographic analysis).

The disadvantages of ESM are that (a) they are costly in their traditional form because of the use of electronic devices, and/or (b) they tend to require students to answer moderately lengthy questionnaires made up of items to be rated on a scale. For instance, the currently most mature ESM motivation questionnaire in education, Boekaert's On-line Motivation Questionnaire (OMQ) comprises 23 items to be rated on a 4-point scale prior to a task, and another 19 items to be rated after completion of a task (Boekaerts, 2002). This makes questionnaires in that form impossible to use in L2 classrooms in South Korea because of the typically short duration of L2 activities (e.g., 2 or 3 minutes) and the rapid switches between them during the 45 minute-lessons that are standard in middle schools. Moreover, the disadvantages of traditional questionnaires consisting of items written by researchers to be rated on Likert-type scales by students (see Section 6.1.1) also apply to ESM-type questionnaires. That is, survey questionnaires consisting of closed–ended items written from researchers' perspectives run the risk of molding individuals' responses in ways that do not necessarily represent these individuals, particularly when researchers and study participants come from different cultures.

As there was no suitable existing ESM-type questionnaire for this study, I carried out a subsidiary qualitative study (see details in Chapter 8, section 8.3.1) in order to construct a new instrument, which I call the Metacognitive Awareness Probes (MAPs). The MAPs aim to

sample broad categories of feelings (derived from qualitative data) with emotional undertones that students may experience within the context of their L2 lessons. These categories include interest (including readiness, eagerness to learn), contentment, stress (including discouragement, helplessness), boredom, irritation/anger, anxiety/worry, relief, and sadness.

The MAPs instrument consists of two sheets specifically designed for this study: a metacognitive awareness sampler, and an answer sheet (see Appendix I for the English and Korean versions of the MAPs instruments). The MAPs sampler sheet consists of eight sets of one or two pictures (usually one featuring a girl, the other a boy) taken from comic books popular with 12-15 year-old Korean students, so that students might identify quickly with these characters and the feelings they depicted. The characters are depicted in school settings and display physical expressions of each of the given categories of feelings. Each set of pictures is accompanied by captions in Korean (examples of what the characters might be saying or thinking, taken from the qualitative data yielded from the preliminary study). The captions are primarily designed to assist in the interpretation of the set of pictures. Students are asked to select a single category from the sampler sheet that best represents what they feel at times indicated by the teacher. If they wish, they can also select one or several of the available additional comments, or compose their own.

The multiple-choice format of the MAPs instrument described above—a form of forced choice—represents a departure from traditional ESM questionnaires, in which participants would normally be asked to rate the intensity of their feelings corresponding to the 8 categories on a scale anchored at, say, 0= not at all, and 6= very much. In this case, a multiple-choice format was preferred to a rating scale because, unlike rating scales, multiple-choice tasks are very familiar to South Korean students. This would therefore reduce the interruption time during the lesson. Moreover, freezing a real lesson five or six times, for students to rate themselves on eight items each time, would have been disrupting for a teacher who has a set of aims to achieve, and for children who are less able than adults to resume concentration after interruptions (particularly when they require the performance of an unfamiliar task such as rating).

In any case, forced choice in this situation does not necessarily pose a serious threat to validity since I am comparing learner groups that have different classroom cultures (high- vs. low-motivation). The reason is that individuals, when they rate themselves on scales as opposed to when they are presented with a forced-choice response format, are likely to draw implicit comparisons between themselves and others who belong to their social group. In contrast, "in forced choice, there is no need to evoke any reference group to make a judgment" (Kitayama, 2002, p. 91). There is some evidence to support this recommendation: In a cross-cultural study comparing forced choice, rating and ranking responses, Peng, Nisbett,

& Wang (1997, cited in Kitayama, 2002) found that only the forced choice responses were valid. Furthermore, a mostly visual multiple-choice format such as the one that was used in this study reduces the need for conscious retrospective inspections of emotion states—a phenomenon that neuroscientists such as Ledoux (1998) reported as weakening appraisal research in psychology (see section 4.6.2).

6.7 PROCEDURES

6.7.1 Piloting

Piloting was undertaken to check whether the MOLT classroom observation scheme and the student motivation questionnaire were appropriate to the context, and to detect and resolve any difficulties that might arise during their use. Eight pilot classroom observations took place four to six weeks into the first semester of the 2003 academic year (April). The sample involved 4 teachers (2 males and 2 females), each teaching two different learner groups who did not take part in the main study. In total, 294 students (males, 18.4%; females, 81.6%; 12-13 year-olds, 63.3%; 13-14 year-olds, 36.7%) took part in the pilot phase. The number of students in each learner group varied from 26 to 41. Each of the eight observations was followed by an interview with the teacher concerned in order to verify the coding of the instructional events. This enabled me to develop consistency and accuracy. Furthermore, all teachers agreed with my coding and also added insights into classroom events, which prompted a few modifications of the MOLT in order to create more exhaustive, discrete, and unambiguous categories, thus improving the validity of the instrument (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000).

A 20-item original version of the Student Motivational State Questionnaire was also piloted. Students were invited to ask questions in case some items were unclear, and the teachers were asked for feedback regarding the procedures and the phrasing of the items. As a result, minor adjustments were made to the level of language used in 3 items in the Korean version in order to make it closer to the kind of language used by children. Following satisfactory item analysis results, all 20 items from the pilot phase were retained for the main study, with only one item, "In English lessons this semester, I usually understand what to do and how to do it," being added to the Linguistic Self-Confidence scale to try to improve its reliability.

In conclusion, this was a thorough pilot study in which not only the instruments but also all the procedures to be used in Phase 1 were tested, and some important changes were made.

6.7.2 Administration of questionnaires

In both phases, the questionnaires were administered on the day of the classroom observation, usually during the homeroom period before lessons started in the morning. On the rare occasions when observations were scheduled in the first period of the afternoon, the questionnaire was administered toward the end of the lunch period. In Phase 1, after checking whether everyone had agreed to take part in the survey, I asked the students to write their roll-call number on their questionnaire (but not their name) in case I needed to ask them to take part in a further study later in the academic year. In Phase 2, I made a similar request so that I would be able to pool the information they had given me on my first visit. In both phases, the students were instructed in the use of anchored scales, urged to ask questions about any items they found unclear, and assured that their answers would be kept confidential. The latter was reinforced by showing them the university-headed envelope in which I would place their completed questionnaires, and by telling them that I would collect the questionnaires myself, that they would see me tape the envelope and put my seal on it before placing it in my handbag rather than in my briefcase. Finally, after the question was raised by some students, they were also told that the results would not be posted on any website in a form that could identify them or their schools. All items of the Phase 1 Student Motivation Questionnaire and Phase 2 Motivational Goals Questionnaire were read aloud.

Phase 1 Student Motivational State Questionnaire
Besides the procedure outlined above, I introduced myself to the students, and their regular English teacher, who acted as my interpreter, explained the purpose of the study in Korean. The students appeared to show more interest when they were reminded in the instructions that I was researching "how we could make learning English more interesting for Korean 1st and 2nd grade middle school students" (see questionnaire instructions in Appendix F). Students filled in the questionnaire at their seats while the English teacher read the items aloud in Korean, standing at some distance from the children so they would not feel intimidated, and while I circulated in the classroom to see if anyone needed help. The procedure took from 15 up to 25 minutes, depending on how long the students took to settle down and on whether or not they asked questions. No reward was offered to the students or teacher participants but I tried to teach one lesson in as many participating schools as possible to express my gratitude for their cooperation.

Phase 2 Motivational Goals Questionnaire and Caring Teacher item, and training for the use of the Metacognitive Awareness Probes

In Phase 2, each school granted me permission to spend 45 minutes for research purposes with the students before my observation of their English lesson. In contrast with Phase 1, the English teachers were neither involved nor present during that time. The students appeared more comfortable than in Phase 1, probably because they recognized me and because I was accompanied by an 18-year old Korean bilingual student who acted as my assistant. The students related easily to her because she was close to them in age and addressed them in a language that was familiar to them. Her presence had several advantages. First, the school and the teachers felt less burdened since they did not have to help me in any way. Second, the teacher's absence helped to obtain better data about the quality of teacher care.

The first 15 to 20 minutes of the session were spent introducing the Metacognitive Awareness Probes (MAPs) sampler to the students, using a PowerPoint presentation. Once my assistant and I were sure that students understood what to do, each was given a copy of the survey questionnaire and of the MAP sampler, as well as a sample MAP answer chart to use while engaged in the task of filling out the survey questionnaire. They were informed that, this time, as my assistant was reading the questionnaire and giving them time to answer, she would sometimes stop and ask them to record how they were feeling. This way, we used the survey time to familiarize the students with the entire probe procedure before they experienced it "for real" in their English lesson.

Students completed the Phase 2 questionnaire and "Caring Teacher" sentence completion sheet at their seats while my assistant read the questions aloud in Korean, and I circulated in the classroom to see if anyone needed help. In total, the students were asked to fill out the MAPs answer chart five times. The whole procedure took 20 to 25 minutes. I collected the Phase 2 questionnaire and "Caring Teacher" form and applied the same confidentiality measures as in Phase 1. During that time, my assistant walked around the classroom to check that students had completed the probe trial chart properly and answered students' questions. Students were told to keep the MAPs sampler and were given a copy of the accompanying answer sheet, ready for immediate use at the start of their English lesson.

Before the English lesson took place, we briefed the teachers about the MAPs , and told them what signal to give the students. The aim was to collect six probes if possible. Teachers would choose when to give them, but if we realized they were forgetting to give them, I would wave as a reminder. The times at which the probes took place were recorded on the observation schedule. The probes frequently took up less than half a minute for students to complete. After each lesson, the laminated samplers were gathered for use at another site, and the answer sheets were collected, following the confidentiality-protection procedures

explained above. In the evening following the observation, I wrote a brief account of what was happening every time the MAPs had been administered, based on the information contained in the MOLT and on my recollection of the lesson (see Appendix M).

6.7.3 Lesson observations in Phases 1 and 2

The 40 observations of the main study (Phase 1) took place in the last two months of the first semester in 2003 (June-July). All 27 teacher-participants were briefed about the aims of the study. They were informed that I would: (a) observe them when they were teaching one or two learner groups during normal classes (as opposed to demonstration classes), using the regular textbook; (b) survey their students about their motivation to learn English (as a foreign language) in that particular class. I also revealed that I would record the levels of the learner group's attention and participation, and the teaching techniques they employed. Teachers were asked to work as usual and follow their regular syllabus or textbooks. In most cases, the teachers were able to finalize the date of my visit only one or two days before it occurred, so it is very unlikely that they prepared special lessons for the observations. Indeed, all the lessons appeared as natural as can be in the presence of an observer, and all were based on the contents of the regular textbook. Depending on the teachers' schedules and the time I had available, some were observed with one learner group, others with two. All teachers had been given the option of being audio-recorded but all of them refused.

Before the first observation took place, the teachers were briefly shown the classroom observation scheme I would be using, but they did not receive a copy. Prior to entering the classroom for each observation, I reviewed the aspects of instructional events to be recorded on the observation schedule and a taxonomy of numbered teaching activities, which I had prepared based on Brown (2001) (see Appendix J) so I would be able to locate activity codes quickly during the actual observation. The purpose of the taxonomy was to reduce the length of handwritten field notes needed to describe the nature of the activities taking place in the classroom. I also enquired about the number of students who would be present in order to work out how many students would constitute 1/3, 1/2, and 2/3 of the class; this helped to assess the proportion of student engagement more accurately.

During each observation, I selected unobtrusive positions within the classroom that allowed clear visual access to the students and the teacher (standing at the back or sometimes silently to the side) carried the observation schedule, the taxonomy of activities and a timer on a clipboard. Time was counted down starting at 45 minutes (the standard lesson length in middle schools) from the time the teacher had signalled the start of the lesson. I usually stood

so I could have a better view of students' faces or actions, but always remained uninvolved. The lesson was deemed to be finished when the school bell rang.

Several teachers asked to see and discuss the observation schedule after the lesson was over. This provided me with an opportunity to check on the reliability of my coding, particularly of the episodes that had taken place in Korean. All these teachers had approved of my coding and sometimes offered interesting insights, for instance explaining that, in a group activity, engagement had suddenly dropped for a few minutes because girls had sulked after having their ideas rejected by others in the group.

Finally, I carried out the post-lesson evaluation rating of the teacher as soon as possible after the lesson, but never in the presence of any students or school staff.

6.8 DATA ANALYSIS

6.8.1 Processing of the Student Motivation Questionnaire data

After reversing the scores of negatively worded items, multi-item scale scores (using the mean) were calculated, and the reliability of the scales was assessed. The items in the student questionnaire formed 3 multi-scale variables, which were submitted to factor analysis. A one-factor solution emerged, which was subsequently used as a single index for the purpose of further analysis.

6.8.2 Processing of the motivation-related observational data (MOLT)

For each variable on the MOLT observation sheets, the tally marks indicating the number of minutes during which a specific behavior or activity had taken place were summed and entered into an SPSS data file (range: 0-45). Because occasional late starts produced a slight variation in the actual length of the classes observed, the variable scores were divided by the actual lesson length in minutes and multiplied by 100 to obtain proportionate rates that could be compared (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991). Next, composite scores were computed to obtain measures of the teachers' motivational practice and the students' motivated behavior. This process, along with the computation of other composite measures, will be explained in section 7.1 of Chapter 7.

6.8.3 Processing of the Post-Lesson Evaluation of the Teacher data

The post-lesson teacher evaluation scale items were all related to one underlying construct, the teacher's personal qualities as a language teacher, and were therefore summed up into one composite variable by computing the mean of the 9 item scores.

6.8.4 Data analysis for Phase 1

Since both the observational and teacher evaluation data were organized at the class level, I aggregated the students' one-factor score representing their motivational state according to the learner groups, thereby obtaining group-level means. This enabled me to merge the student motivation questionnaire data with the observational and the teacher evaluation data. Because the composite scores were measured on different scales, they were all standardized to establish a common metric. These standardized composite scores were then submitted to correlation analysis and multiple correlations were computed.

 Finally, to create a purposive subsample of two distinct sets of learner groups (high- vs. low-motivation) for further investigation in Phase 2, the scores on the class-level student motivational state and motivated behavior indexes were summed. Then, , using specific percentiles as cut-off points (see Section 7.2 in Chapter 7), the distribution of the sums was divided into three sets of learner groups as follows: high-motivation, moderate-motivation and low-motivation, with the aim of examining only the two extreme sets in Phase 2.

6.8.5 Processing of the Motivational Goals Questionnaire data

The data from the Phase 2 Motivational Goals Questionnaire were submitted to a reliability analysis (exploratory factor analysis, followed by a post-hoc item analysis) in order to form summated scales, which yielded scale scores for use in subsequent analyses. A descriptive analysis of the summated scales scores was followed by independent samples t-tests to examine whether the ratings of motivational goal orientations and perceptions of the goals emphasized in the classrooms were different for students in high- and low-motivation.

6.8.6 Analysis of the "Caring teacher" qualitative data

The analysis of the "caring teacher" qualitative data takes two directions. The first aim is to identify the various pedagogical caring factors that are salient in all the learner groups in this study by distilling them from the students' own words. An inductive process was followed to arrive at analytic categories that represented caring attributes of teachers. These eventually formed a template of codes that was applied to the data (for more details, see Dörnyei, in press). Once coded in this way, the frequencies of occurrence of the caring attributes were calculated for each teacher.

The second direction, which constitutes the main aspect of this investigation, is aimed at documenting similarities and differences between high and low-motivation learner groups in terms of the way the L2 teachers show they care for their students. To this end, I paint profiles of the six teachers involved, viewed from two perspectives: that of the students (based on the "caring teacher data"), and mine (based on the observations I carried out in Phases 1 and 2). The procedures that were followed are explained in detail in Chapter 8 (section 8.2.1).

6.8.7 Analysis of the MAPs data

The analysis of the MAPs data is carried out at the process level by adopting an idiographic approach and focusing on the internal logic of the on-going process of motivation in action. First, the students' metacognitive awareness choices were coded for their emotional tone (positive, or negative) and the codes for each interruption point were entered into an SPSS worksheet. In understanding on-going behavior, time information is useful because it helps to highlight patterns in the dynamics of motivation-as-engagement. A time-preserving analysis of students' affect was used here in the form of individual analyses of each student's profile. More specifically, each profile was scrutinized—and coded accordingly, first, for its flatness (positive or negative), and second, for the number of transitions between positive/negative affect or vice-versa.The resulting variables were submitted to frequency analysis, and the results were compared across the high- and low-motivation groups.

6.9 SUMMARY

In this chapter, I presented the manner in which the current research was carried out. The following aspects were discussed:

- The research questions.

- Some key methodological issues and considerations that informed the research design of this investigation (e.g., pros and cons of qualitative vs. quantitative, and cross-sectional vs. longitudinal research).
- The research design.
- Selection and description of the participants and the research sites.
- Ethical considerations.
- Instruments that were used (all of them specially designed for the purpose of this study).
- Data collection procedures.
- Approaches used to analyze the data.

Chapter 7

Teachers' motivational practices and students' motivation

This chapter reports the results of Phase 1 of my investigation, which were obtained from classroom observation data collected during 40 lessons involving 27 teachers, and from student self-report data gathered from over 1300 students. The main findings have already been written up for a research paper co-authored with my supervisor (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, in press). The paper offers a detailed summary of the link between teachers' motivational practices and students' motivated learning, and the material reported there and in this chapter overlap to some extent. The research aims of Phase 1 were:

a) To find out how L2 teachers' motivational teaching practices affect students' motivated learning behavior in the classroom.

b) To examine the relationship between students' self-reported motivation (assessed by questionnaire) on the one hand, and their actual classroom behavior and the teacher's classroom practice on the other.

c) To generate a purposive subsample for Phase 2 of two contrasting sets of learner groups (high motivation and low motivation) based on the students' self-reported motivation and motivated learning behavior scores.

7.1 COMPUTATION OF COMPOSITE VARIABLES

The overarching research question of Phase 1 in this study was whether L2 teachers' motivational instructional practices were related to student motivation. Based on the lists of various variables presented in Chapter 6 (see Tables 6.3, 6.4, and 6.5) and on the 3 subscales of the Student Motivation State Questionnaire(see Table 6.6), three composite variables were computed to capture the impact of the teacher's motivating behavior on student motivation: (a) Teacher's Motivational Practice, (b) Learners' Motivated Behavior, and (c) Students' Self-Reported Motivation.

7.1.1 Teacher's Motivational Practice index

The evaluation of the motivational aspect of the teachers' instructional behaviors was carried out in two complementary ways: (a) by taking a minute-by-minute, micro-perspective of how the teachers conducted their classes, and (b) by providing a post-lesson, overall appraisal of various aspects of the teachers' professional qualities that could influence motivation but that the observation scheme could not capture. Consequently, the Teacher's Motivational Practice index is the sum of two measures: one based on the observational data, and the other based on the retrospective evaluation of the teachers following each lesson.

With regard to the first measure, instead of focusing on the impact of specific strategies used by specific teachers, which would have required a more intensive and preferably longitudinal investigation, I focused on examining the quality of a teacher's overall motivational teaching practice by generating a composite index of the rich observational data. In other words, there was no intention to claim that all the particular motivational techniques documented in any observed class were typical of that particular teacher's general practice. Instead, the assumption was that the motivational techniques and qualities a teacher was observed to display in his or her class would offer a representative index of the overall motivational awareness and skills he or she tended to use when teaching that particular group.

Having created this composite index, I followed a correlational design whereby I computed correlations between the measures related to the teacher and those related to the students in order to establish links between the teachers' motivational practices and their students' motivation (operationalized as motivated learning behavior and motivational state).

Calculating the measure based on the observational data
The measure of the teacher's motivational practice based on the observational data was produced by computing the mean of the variables presented and illustrated (based on observation field notes) in Table 7.1. These variables represent individual motivational strategies that teachers used (for descriptive statistics, i.e., means, standard deviations, and range, see Appendix D3). Because the 25 constituents of this composite score were behavioral items, I did not expect too high an internal consistency among them, so it was reassuring that the Cronbach Alpha internal consistency reliability coefficient (α)[16] of this measure was as high as 0.70.

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[16] Internal consistency reliability is measured by the *Cronbach Alpha coefficient* (named after its introducer, L. J. Cronbach). This is a figure ranging between 0 and +1(although in extreme cases—e.g., with very small samples and with items that measure different things—it can also be negative), and if it proves to be very low, either the particular scale is too short or the items have very little in common. Internal consistency estimates for well-developed scales containing as few as 10 items

Calculating the measure based on the post-lesson evaluation of the teacher

The second measure was obtained from the nine semantic differential scale items of the Post-Lesson Teacher Evaluation Scale. As expected, since the items were all related to the qualities of a "good" L2 teacher, a Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient of 0.90 indicated that all nine items measured the same construct. One composite variable was thus formed from the nine items scores by computing their mean.

Correlation between the measure based on observational data and the measure based on the post-lesson evaluation of the teacher

Since the measure based on observational data and that based on the post-lesson evaluation of the teacher addressed the same target, namely, the teacher's behavior, I expected a significant positive correlation between them. This was indeed the case ($r = .46$; $p < .01$). Moreover, the significant positive correlation served as some confirmation of the validity of the measurement because, although I produced both the observational data and the post-lesson teacher evaluation, their completion required a different sort of attendance on my part. The completion of the observation scheme was a complex micro-analytical exercise requiring the consideration of many categories every minute, whereas that of the post-lesson teacher evaluation was retrospective and holistic. Thus, while the obtained correlation is partly a function of the common observer factor, the corroboration of the two types of data provides some confirmation that the two methods of tapping into the same classroom reality were psychometrically sound.

Computation of the combined variable "Teacher's Motivational Teaching Practice"

In a first step, I standardized the scores[17] obtained for the measure based on observational data and the measure based on the post-lesson evaluation of the teacher. Second, I summed these two standardized scores. The resulting combined variable was labeled Teacher's Motivational Practice.

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ought to approach 0.80. In view of the complexity of the second language acquisition process, L2 researchers typically want to measure many different areas in one questionnaire, and therefore cannot use very long scales, or the completion of the questionnaire would take several hours. This means that somewhat lower Cronbach Alpha coefficients are to be expected, but even with short scales of 3-4 items we should aim at reliability coefficients in excess of 0.70; a scale with a Cronbach Alpha that does not reach 0.60 should sound warning bells (Dörnyei, in press).

[17] Dörnyei (2001c) explains that when there are heterogeneous sources of data (as is the case in this study where data come from different classes and different schools), the use of raw scores for correlation may depress the coefficients (also see Gardner, 1985b). Using standardized scores helps to correct for this. The standardization of raw scores involves the conversion of the distribution within a sample in a way that the mean will be 0 and the standard deviation 1. The resulting z-scores express how much each raw value is different from the subgroup mean, and by equalizing the means, scores obtained from different subsamples (e.g.., different classes, schools, etc.) are readily comparable.

TABLE 7.1

Illustrative Examples of the 25 Motivational Strategies Used by Teachers in the Study

Variable	Description
• *Signposting*	• A teacher briefly told the students what they would be learning in the lesson, and then listed the types of activities they would be doing. As the lesson unfolded, before every activity, she explained what they would learn from it, and at the end of it, summed up what they had achieved.
• *Social chat*	• A lot of noise could be heard outside at the beginning of the lesson. The boys told the teacher that it was the neighboring girls' school sports day, and how they wished they could be there. The teacher chatted with the students about this for a short time.
• *Stating the communicative purpose/utility of the activity*	• A teacher explained to her students that they would be learning how to give directions, so that in future, if they ever met someone who looked lost and who did not speak Korean, they would be able to help him or her. • A teacher explained to the students how she was first going to show them flashcards to have them practice using verbs in the simple past so they would then be able to tell the class in English what they had done during the weekend.
• *Establishing relevance*	• Most teachers, when teaching grammar, made up example sentences containing references to pop stars and other current teen crazes.
• *Promoting integrative values*	• A teacher told her students that she had very special memories of her one-year stay in the USA, and that she hoped many of them would also have the opportunity to visit an English-speaking country one day.

- *Promoting instrumental values*
  - A teacher reminded students that they would need to know English if they wanted to be able to get good jobs later in life.

- *Arousing curiosity or attention*
  - To review types of music, a teacher showed the class an audio CD in a black case, told them it contained her favorite type of music, and invited them to guess what type of music it was.
  - A teacher asked students to predict answers to multiple-choice comprehension questions before they heard an audio-recording. They were asked to base their choices on the visuals and context available in the textbook, their background knowledge, life experience, and intuition.
  - A teacher aroused a great deal of interest in learning clothes-related language by bringing in clothes that she never wears at school.

- *Scaffolding*
  - One teacher gave clues and referred students to a list of irregular past participles to help them work out the answers to a grammar worksheet.
  - Another teacher first modelled the two parts of a role-play activity, then modelled it with one student, and finally had two students model it in front of the class before starting the activity in pairs.

- *Promoting cooperation*
  - After listening to an audio-recording and completing an individual comprehension task, a teacher encouraged her students to compare their answers to those of others sitting nearby by telling them what expressions in the text had guided their choice of answers. Next, they were encouraged to revise their answers before listening to the audio-recording a second time and finalizing them.

- *Promoting autonomy*
  - At the end of a unit, a teacher had groups of students present their own TV/radio commercial in English for a product of their choice.

- *Promoting*
  autonomy (cont,)

  - At the beginning of a lesson that took place in a computer lab with Internet access, the words "muggy" and "humid" were used by one teacher during the social chat about the weather; the students did not know these words so she immediately asked them to look them up in a Web dictionary.

- *Referential*
  questions

  - After reading a folk tale, a teacher asked her students, "Who is your favorite character?", and "If you were him/her, what would you do?"
  - When teaching the structure, "What kind of … do you like?" a teacher asked the students "What kind of boys/girls do you like?"

- *Group work*

  - Students were seated in groups of 5. For a vocabulary review activity in a low-ability-track, after the class had reviewed the meaning, pronunciation, and spelling of words learned the previous lesson and the teacher had written these on the board in English, the students each received a Post-It. They were asked to write the Korean translation of 5 words learned for homework on the Post-It. Next, students stood up, mingled, and stuck their note on the back of a classmate. They then chose a partner and read aloud one of the questions from the sticker on his or her back; the partner could look on the board to find the answer. Then, they switched roles. The one with the question on his or her back had to ask the Korean word or expression, and the other provided the English translation, this time without looking at the board. Both students returned to their seats as soon as both could answer the 5 items on their backs. The teacher stopped the mingling activity as soon as one whole group was seated.

  - One teacher had students get into pairs arranged in two concentric rectangles around the room (and between rows of desks) in order to practice a dialogue. After giving a signal, she told the students from the inner rectangle to move a certain number of places toward the left (or the right), and the new pairs practiced the dialogue changing roles. This continued a few times, giving students the opportunity to practice with a number of partners.

- *Pair work*
  - Students were asked to memorize a dialogue in pairs (with the person sitting next to them) at their desks so they would be ready to perform in front of the class a few minutes later.

- *+ tangible reward*
  - For a period of 3 minutes (review session), a teacher promised she would give stickers to pairs if they presented a dialogue they had been asked to memorize for homework.

- *+ personalization*
  - To practice the use of "may," a teacher had students try to guess what a classmate (chosen by the teacher) may like, and what his blood type and favorite color may be.
  - In a top ability-track, a teacher had students write a short paragraph to express their personal reaction to a text; some students read out their reactions.

- *+ element of interest, creativity, fantasy*
  - A teacher turned an individual closed-ended writing assignment on a school outing into a motivating group writing task by leading the students through the process of writing a class diary page on their ideal school outing.

- *+ intellectual challenge*
  - In a vocabulary review activity, one team went to the front of the class. One student faced away from the screen. On the screen, the teacher displayed one of the lexical items that the students had to learn for homework. Using verbal clues in English (non-verbal signals were not allowed), the playing team had a maximum of one minute to make the student who was facing away from the screen guess as many lexical items as possible in the order in which they were displayed.

- *+ tangible task product*
  - A teacher had students use information and language they had learned through reading a text about Pompei to make a souvenir bookmark for themselves in class.

- *+ individual competition*
  - In a quiz with the whole class, individual students were awarded points for correct answers, or were out and stood at the back of the class if they gave a wrong answer. They could get back into the game if they could correct someone's mistake.

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- *+ team competition*
  - A teacher organized a True/False reading comprehension quiz to check that students had completed their homework cooperatively. Teams of 4 students (picked at random from original groups comprising 7 students) went to the front of the class and were given one large True/False card each. To stay in and get a point, all four students had to hold the correct card on the count of 3. The winning team was the one that had scored the most points.

- *Neutral feedback session*
  - The teacher describes the kind of response that was acceptable or commendable, or indicates whether a student's answer was correct or incorrect. The teacher indicates this verbally (e.g., "Yes, Hmm-mm, No, Correct, That's wrong") or non-verbally (e.g., by nodding his/her head, or shaking it horizontally) without communicating any form of personal reaction (e.g., expression of irritation, or personal criticism of the student) to the class.

- *Process feedback session*
  - The teacher encourages students to justify their answers, helps them to realize how and where they made a mistake, gives them hints so they arrive at the correct answer, retraces steps so they can see whether a suitable strategy had been applied, or discusses possible alternative strategies with the class.

- *Elicitation of self/peer correction session*
  - After students had written the answers to an exercise on the board, a teacher announced that there was one mistake and encouraged the class to find it, explain why it was wrong, and correct it through a whole class discussion.

- *Effective praise*
  - After two shy students acted out a role-play in front of the class, a teacher said, "Well done, (X) and (Y)! I could hear everything you said today. You are becoming more confident. Let's give them a big hand!"

- *Class applause*
  - An entertaining rendering of a dialogue is followed by spontaneous class applause.

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7.1.2 Learners' Motivated Behavior index

The observational data were also used to create another composite measure describing the extent of the students' classroom motivation in terms of their attention levels, the extent of their participation in tasks, and the extent to which they volunteered in teacher-fronted activities. This index was formed by computing the means of the three variables described in Table 7.2, and was labeled Learners' Motivated Behavior.

TABLE 7.2

Observational Variables Measuring Learners' Motivated Behavior

Variables	Description
• *High Attention*	• At least 2/3 of the students appear to be paying attention, e.g., by looking at the teacher and following his/her movements, by looking at visual stimuli, by turning to watch another student who is contributing to the task, by following the text being read, by making appropriate nonverbal responses, and/or by not displaying any inattentive of disruptive behavior.
• *High Participation*	• At least 2/3 of the students actively take part in classroom interaction, or work on assigned activity.
• *Eager volunteering for teacher-fronted activity*	• At least 1/3 of the students volunteer without the teacher having to coax them in any way.

The three factors making up this variable complement each other because they describe the learners' reactions to different types of activities within the class. A high score indicates that at least 2/3 of the learners paid attention or participated in classroom activities and at least 1/3 were eager to volunteer to speak in front of the whole class for a significant proportion of the lesson. For instance, in the classes that were observed, students who displayed motivated behavior were alert and, depending on the type of instructional event taking place, appeared to be either on-task or attentive. That is, they focused on the teacher

while he or she was talking, they responded appropriately, participated in choral repetition, worked on assigned tasks, or were engaged in non-cognitive, goal-directed behaviors such as collecting equipment. Observed off-task behaviors included chatting, daydreaming instead of completing assigned tasks, sleeping, studying another subject, playing cards, or reading comic books. Students' eagerness to volunteer during teacher-fronted oral activities manifested itself in raising their hands and/or shouting "Me!" or "Seon-saeng-nim!" (i.e., Mr./Ms [teacher's name]!), or in standing up and walking up to the front of the class.

7.1.3 Students' Self-Reported Motivation index

The final composite variable was derived from the Phase 1 student questionnaire data. The items in the student questionnaire originally formed three multi-item scale variables: Attitudes toward the L2 course (9 items, α = .85), Linguistic self-confidence (8 items, α = .80) and Anxiety (3 items, α = .64). These were submitted to factor analysis (principal components). The purpose of this was to assess the unidimensionality[18] of the three subscales, that is, to assess whether they were strongly associated with one another and represented a single concept—in this case, the students' motivational state in relation to their L2 course.

The Principal Component analysis yielded a single factor solution (with the first factor having an eigenvalue of 1.8 and the second only 0.9), which explained 59.95% of the total variance, and on which all items loaded highly (see Appendix D4). This suggested that the factor score (i.e., a composite measure of the factor computed for each student) could be saved as an index of the students' motivational state and used in subsequent analyses. The factor score was labeled Students' Self-Reported Motivation. Finally, the scores were aggregated according to the learner groups, thereby obtaining learner group means of their self-reported motivational state in relation to their current L2 course. This allowed the Students' Self-Reported Motivation scores to be merged with the observational and teacher evaluation data, which were reported at the learner group level.

7.2 SELECTION OF THE SUBSAMPLE FOR PHASE 2

In a first step, the class-level scores on the Students' Self-Reported Motivation and Learners' Motivated Behavior indexes were summed to create two distinct sets of learner groups ("high

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[18] A proposed scale is said to be unidimensional if it consists of items loading highly on a single factor (Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black, 1998).

motivation" and "low motivation") for further investigation in Phase 2. Second, the summed scores were ranked, and the distribution of the learner group scores was divided into three sets: (1) "high motivation," (2) "moderate motivation," and (3) "low motivation" (see Appendix D5). The sets were created by specifying the 80th percentile as the cut-off point for "high motivation" (i.e., learner groups with scores > 0.50), and the 40th percentile for "low motivation" (i.e., learner groups with scores < .90).

These percentiles were selected because I wanted to create groups that were substantially different from each other in their degree of motivation while still being able to maintain a large enough pool of potential participating teachers, particularly in the low-motivation group where I suspected I would get several refusals to take part a second time. In addition, I wanted to reduce the burden put upon the teachers who had taught two different learner groups in Phase 1 by allowing them to select only one of those two groups for Phase 2. Consequently, teachers 1A, 9A, 17A, and 19A were not approached for taking part in Phase 2 as they could have chosen either a moderately motivated group or a low-motivated one, and neither were teachers 2A, 14A or 16A because they taught both highly and moderately motivated learner groups. Two other teachers (2A and 15A) were not considered as suitable participants in Phase 2 because both had taught one high and one low motivation learner group. Finally, as Teacher 3A was unavailable for personal reasons, only three teachers who taught high-motivation learner groups were able to participate in Phase 2.

Among the teachers who taught low-motivation learner groups, one outlier was identified: Teacher 20B, who had recently qualified, had displayed atypical behavior during the observation. In her class of 13-14 year old boys in a rural area, she had relied solely on lecturing in Korean about the English contents of the lesson in the textbook, keeping her eyes firmly on the book from the beginning to the end of the class without looking at her students. Consequently, that class was eliminated from taking part in Phase 2. I approached the remaining most "extreme" teachers in the Low Motivation set without telling them why I had chosen them to take part in the second phase, starting from the bottom of the table in Appendix D5 , until I obtained three volunteers. To have an equal number of high motivation learner groups, I approached the three teachers who had the three most motivated learner groups, also without telling them why they had been selected. All three agreed to take part[19].

Finally, an independent t-test confirmed that participants in the high motivation condition reported higher scores than those in the low motivation condition on the variable formed by

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[19] A seventh teacher (11A) volunteered to take part in Phase 2. Data were collected but were eliminated from the analyses in Phase 2 for two reasons. First, the learner group was not included in the "high motivation" set of groups. Second, I was invited to collect data on the last day of school before the beginning of the long winter vacation, after the final examinations of that academic year; as a result, the lesson and students' behavior were not typical.

the summed scores of Learners' Motivated Behavior and Students' Self-Reported Motivation [t(23)=11.36, p < .001: M = .67, SD =.17 and M = −.12, SD = .16, respectively]. The magnitude of the differences in the means was very large (eta squared = .849).

7.3 RESULTS

7.3.1 Correlations between the Learners' Motivated Behavior, the Teacher's Motivational Practice, and the Students' Self-Reported Motivation

The results of the correlations (Pearson) among the three composite variables are presented in Table 7.3. As expected, the Learners' Motivated Behavior correlates significantly and positively with both the Students' Self-Reported Motivation and the Teacher's Motivational Practice. The relationship with the Teacher's Motivational Practice is particularly strong, with a coefficient exceeding 0.6, thereby explaining 37% of the variance in the students' motivated learning behavior measure.

TABLE 7.3

Correlations Among the Three Composite Motivational Measures

	Learners' Motivated Behavior	Students' Self-Reported Motivation
Teacher's Motivational Practice	.61***	.31*
Students' Self-Reported Motivation	.35*	—

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

Also according to expectations, a more moderate, positive correlation was found between the Teacher's Motivational Practice and the Students' Self-Reported Motivation, even though these represent two apparently different contextual levels (i.e., the immediate lesson level and the L2 course level). The existence of this statistically significant relationship serves as further evidence of the validity of Dörnyei's "task motivation" construct as being fuelled by both situation-specific, lesson level, and more general, L2-domain related motives.

7.3.2 Learners' motivated behavior, their self-reported motivation, and teachers' motivational practices

Given that multiple factors were found to influence the students' motivated behavior in the classroom, it made sense to compute a multiple correlation in order to investigate the strength of the relationship between the posited antecedents of task motivation (Teacher's Motivational Practice and Students' Self-Reported Motivation) and the motivational outcome (Learners' Motivated Behavior). Multiple correlations refer to a statistical procedure whereby a correlation is calculated between one dependent variable and a group of independent variables, taking into account the interrelationship of the independent variables.

For the purpose of the multiple correlation statistical analysis, the Teacher's Motivational Practice and Students' Self-Reported Motivation were considered to be the independent variables, and Learners' Motivated Behavior the dependent variable. The analysis produced a multiple correlation coefficient of 0.63 ($p < .001$). This means that, taken together, the Teacher's Motivational Practice and Students' Self-Reported Motivation explain almost 40% of the variance in the students' motivated behavior measure. This is remarkably high in view of the many other elements that can affect students' behavioral engagement in class (e.g., physical and social environments, individual psychological factors).

Next, the individual contributions of the Teacher's Motivational Practice and Students' Self-Reported Motivation in explaining the variance in students' classroom engagement were assessed by means of standard multiple regression[20] procedures—more specifically, by focusing on the values of the part correlations obtained as a result of the multiple regression analysis (Gardner, 2001b)[21]. Table 7.4 presents the regression coefficients. There is a moderately high, significant part correlation value between the Learners' Motivated Behavior and the Teacher's Motivational Practice once any variability in common with the effect of the Students' Self-Reported Motivation has been partialed out of the Teacher's Motivational Practice. In contrast, the part correlation value between the Students' Self-Reported Motivation and the Learners' Motivated Behavior is not significant after any variability in

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[20] Like multiple correlation, multiple regression is concerned with the relationship of one variable (often referred to as the dependent or criterion variable) on the one hand, with several variables (often referred to as the independent or predictor variables) on the other (Gardner, 2001b). As there were two predictors in this study, the sample of 40 cases exceeded the minimum requirement for multiple regression set by Stevens (1996, p. 72), who stipulated that 15 cases per predictor were sufficient to obtain a reliable equation in social science research.

[21] For a discussion of the reasons why it is preferable to use part correlations rather than standardized or unstandardized regression coefficients when assessing the importance of independent variables, see Gardner (2001b, p. 212).

common with the effect of the Teacher's Motivational Practice has been partialed out of the Students' Self-Reported Motivation.

TABLE 7.4

Regression Coefficients (Dependent Variable: Learners' Motivated Behavior)

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Part Correlation
	B	Std. Error	Beta	*t*	Sig.	
(Constant)	.00	.17		.00	1.00	
Students' Self-Reported Motivation	.18	.13	.18	1.32	.20	.17
Teacher's motivational practice	.55	.13	.55	4.12	.001	.53*

* *p* < .001

7.4 DISCUSSION

7.4.1 How do the teachers' motivational teaching practices affect the students' motivated learning behavior in the classroom?

Classroom motivation research is ultimately about one key issue, the analysis of the determinants of the learners' motivated behavior, which then leads to learning outcomes. In this study, I addressed two factors that were theoretically expected to have a bearing on the student's motivated classroom behavior: (a) their course-related motivation, which was measured by the self-report questionnaire, and (b) the teacher's motivational influence, which was measured by the composite teacher behavior factor. In analyzing student motivation in specific language tasks, Dörnyei (2002) argued that both situation-specific and more general motives contribute to task motivation, but that the more situated the measure of the antecedents of motivation is, the more directly it will be linked to a particular motivated behavior. Therefore, within my research paradigm, I expected that both the teacher's motivational practice and the students' L2 course-related motivation (assessed by

questionnaires) would be linked to students' motivated behavior, but that the teacher's motivational practice would have the stronger association.

The correlation coefficients obtained in this study certainly confirmed the latter prediction. At .63, the magnitude of the coefficient found between the teacher's motivational practice (which most likely fuel situation-specific motives) and the learners' motivated behavior attests to a particularly strong link since, in L2 motivation studies, the typical meaningful correlations that are usually detected are within the 0.3-0.5 range (Dörnyei, 2001b). This finding indicates that the teachers' motivational teaching practice is directly related to how the students approach learning in the classroom. It is especially significant since it constitutes the first empirical evidence of the impact that motivational strategies used by language teachers can have on students' motivated learning behavior within the concrete, specific environment of the L2 classroom.

7.4.2 What is the relationship between the students' self-reported motivation on the one hand, and their motivated behavior and the teacher's motivational practice on the other?

With regard to the hypothesized contribution of more general motives to task motivation, as expected, there is a moderate but still significant, positive correlation between the students' self-reported motivation and their motivated classroom behavior. This suggests that the students' appraisals of the language course, which form a domain- and course-specific motivational knowledge base, may have a bearing on how they approach L2 learning situations, regardless of whether or not they value or enjoy the actual tasks. For instance, students who self-reported high course-related motivation may strongly dislike group work but still engage in it because they know it will help them develop skills they will need later. This result confirms previous findings (Dörnyei, 2002; Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000).

However, it is also noteworthy that, when the contribution to the variance in the students' motivated learning behavior of both the students' self-reported motivation and the teachers' motivational teaching is examined, multiple regression analysis reveals that students' self-reported motivation did not contribute uniquely to this variance over and above the strong contribution of the teacher's motivational practice. Why didn't the learners' self-reported motivation at learner group level—once its interrelationship with the teacher's motivational practice was partialed out—make a significant unique contribution to their motivated behavior in the classroom in this study? I can envisage three possible reasons.

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First, Dörnyei (2002), and Dörnyei and Kormos (2000)'s found that the students' appraisals of the language course in general may influence how they approach learning tasks in lessons, regardless of their attitudes toward the actual task, when their appraisals of the language course in general are positive. However, the sample in this study included a wide range of self-reported motivation levels at learner group levels (Minimum = −.46, Maximum = .62, Mean = .02, SD = .29, N = 40), so it may be that when learners' appraisals of an L2 course are negative, these have less of a bearing than would positive appraisals on the way they approach learning situations.

Second, findings reported by Kang (2000b) suggest that one reason that the learners' self-reported motivation did not make a significant unique contribution to their motivated learning behavior may be that the L2 teacher has a greater motivational impact on South Korean middle school students than the course itself.

Third, a possible explanation for the absence of a significant unique contribution from students' self-reported motivation to their motivated learning behavior is that the link between the students' L2 course-related motivation and their engagement in L2 classroom activities is mediated by another variable. For instance, in an investigation by Boekaerts and colleagues (Boekaerts, 2001) of 6th, 7th and 9th grade students' appraisal of math tasks (perceived relevance, task attraction, and subjective competence), there was no direct effect of domain-specific motivational beliefs on learning intention (i.e., willingness to invest effort). Rather, all the variance was mediated by the students' appraisals of math tasks during lessons, implying that these appraisals affect how much effort students are prepared to invest in the tasks. Boekaerts (2001) contends that, while course-specific motivational beliefs help students infer or assign meaning to learning situations, students are sensitive to contextual information; such contextual information may or may not be related to learning, and may modulate the students' course-specific motivational beliefs, resulting in context-sensitive behavior. Thus, I reason that in this study, students' context-sensitivity made them particularly alert to the presence (or absence) of motivational cues in the teachers' practice, which rendered the activities more (or less) attractive. The resulting positive or negative task appraisals may have prompted students to alter their immediate goals (e.g., to work rather than sleep as usual because the task is unusually interesting, or chat to a classmate instead of work), thus possibly explaining the much greater influence of the teacher's motivational practice on their learning behavior, compared with their self-reported motivation.

In any case, the results from this study show that the teacher's motivational practice and the students' self-reported motivation taken together explain close to 40% of the variation in the students' motivated learning behavior. This value is remarkably high in view of the many other elements that can affect students' behavioral engagement in class, such as the physical

and social environments of the classroom and individual psychological factors, with their innumerable possibilities for distraction.

7.4.3 Considering the cause-effect relationship between the teacher and the student variables

It is a well-known statistical principle that correlations do not indicate causal relationships, therefore it simply cannot be claimed that the teacher's motivational practice increased students' motivation. An alternative explanation would be to suggest that the results reflect some sort of school effect. For example, the general lethargy of a demotivated student body in a school in a deprived area can demotivate a teacher, causing him or her to teach in an uninspired and uninspiring way. Similarly, a high concentration of very motivated students in a school with an excellent academic reputation is likely to enhance a teacher's performance, and thus account for high correlations found between the students' motivated behavior and their teacher's motivational practice. However, such scenarios are unlikely to apply in this study for two reasons: First, I described in Chapter 2 the measures that the South Korean government applies to minimize the differences between schools, which include the random distribution of students into schools and classes, and the regular rotation of staff, as well as principals and vice-principals. These measures are also accompanied by a strict control over the curriculum, resulting in relatively small variation among schools, especially outside Seoul.

Second, the minimal degree of school effect can also be confirmed in this study by examining the cases presented in Table 7.5 when pairs of teachers are observed in the same school. It can be seen that learner groups within the same school often show considerable differences in terms of their motivational indexes, particularly in their self-reported motivation. Nevertheless, out of the 14 pairs of student measures reported here, only three (Learners' Motivated Behavior in Schools 11 and 12, and Students' Self-reported Motivation in School 1) present differences that are not in the direction expected based on the corresponding teacher measures. For instance, since the Teacher's Motivational Practice was higher for teachers 11A and 12A than for the other teachers in their respective pairs, the Learners' Motivated Behavior was also expected to be higher than in teachers' 11B and 12B's classes but it was in fact lower.

In sum, the examples presented above suggest that the school did not exert a unifying effect. Thus, the more probable explanation of the positive relationships observed in this study between teacher practice and student involvement in class activities is that the variation

in the students' motivated behavior is a function of the quality of the teacher's motivational practice. Accordingly, the significant positive link that emerged in this investigation indicates that language teachers can make a real difference in their students' motivational disposition by applying various motivational strategies.

TABLE 7.5

Comparisons of Motivational Indexes between Pairs of Teachers

Teaching in the Same School

School ID	Teacher (Learner Group)	Learners' Motivated Behavior	Students' Self-Reported Motivation	Teacher's Motivational Practice
3	A (2-6)	0.34	0.22	3.66
	B (1-2)	0.16	0.18	-0.78
5	A (1-8)	0.36	0.51	1.97
	B (2-2)	0.02	-0.36	-0.76
13	A (2-4)	0.07	-0.15	-1.79
	B (2-2)	0.16	-0.05	-0.49
20	A (3-3)	0.00	-0.38	-4.22
	B (1-1)	0.18	-0.26	-0.51
1	A (2-1)	0.20	0.07 [a]	0.02
	B (1-7)	0.08	0.10 [a]	-3.41
11	A (1-7)	0.17 [a]	0.31	2.44
	B (2-2)	0.21 [a]	0.11	0.23
12	A (2-9)	0.11 [a]	-0.16	0.49
	B (2-2)	0.15 [a]	-0.27	-1.96

Notes. [a] When Teachers A and B are compared, this value is not in the expected direction based on the scores that the corresponding teachers obtained on the Teacher's Motivational Practice measure.

7.5 SUMMARY

This chapter reported and discussed the main results that came out of Phase 1 of the research project:

- Three composite variables were computed: (a) Teacher's Motivational Practice, (b) Learners' Motivated Behavior, and (c) Students' Self-Reported Motivation. Based on the sum of the scores obtained by the learner groups on the Learners' Motivated

Behavior and Students' Self-Reported Motivation measures, three high- and three low-motivation groups were selected for participation in Phase 2.

- Based on the examination of the relationships between the three composite variables listed above, for the first time in L2 motivation research, a direct link was established between the teachers' motivational practices and their students' motivated learning behavior (through observations) and motivation to learn the L2 in their current L2 classroom (through a self-report questionnaire).

- A moderate but still significant positive relationship was also found between the students' self-reported motivation and their motivated classroom behavior. However, the students' self-reported motivation at the learner group level did not contribute uniquely to the variance in the students' motivated behavior in the classroom over and above the strong contribution of the teacher's motivational practice.

Chapter 8

High- vs. low-motivation groups: Motivational qualities

In this chapter, I present and discuss the findings related to Phase 2 of the study. The aim is to compare the three high-motivation learner groups to the three low-motivation learner groups selected at the end of Phase 1 in terms of the motivational quality of their learning experiences in L2 lessons. The premise is that an understanding of their differences should shed some light on how students' motivation might be enhanced by modifying certain parameters of L2 instructional contexts. Assuming that motivating teaching represents an organic combination of teachers' practices designed to provide motivating learning experiences in L2 lessons with students' positive perceptions of such experiences, the results reported in this chapter concern the following research questions:

a) When students in high- and low-motivation learner groups report about their own motivational goals and those they perceive as being emphasized in their L2 classrooms, do their reports match? If not, how do they differ?

b) When students in high- and low-motivation learner groups write about their experience of the care they receive from their English teachers, do their accounts converge? If not, how do they differ? And how do these accounts match my own (observer) perspective?

c) When students in high- and low-motivation learner groups report about their feelings as lessons are in progress, do they experience uniform patterns of feelings across the duration of the lessons? If not, what individual differences are found in this respect?

8.1 Students' Motivational Goals Questionnaire

It is possible that differences in students' sources of academic motivation (goal orientations) account for some of the variation in students' L2 motivation and motivated behavior. Consequently, this section presents the results of the survey administered in Phase 2. The aim was to examine whether there was any difference in the nature of the motivational goals of

high- and low-motivation learner groups, as well as in the level of the achievement goals emphasized in their L2 classrooms.

8.1.1 Reliability analysis

An exploratory factor analysis (Maximum Likelihood, with Direct Oblimin rotation) of the 28 items of the Motivational Goals questionnaire administered in Phase 2 reproduced five of the seven originally designed multi-item scales. The two scales that failed to emerge as clear factors were Mastery Goal Orientation (5 items) and Performance-Avoidance Goal Orientation (4 items). After some consideration, all items related to these scales were eliminated from subsequent analyses. Three factors replicated three of the original scales: Milieu-Related Goal Orientation, Performance Approach Orientation, and Classroom Performance Goal Structure. However, in the latter, the item "In our English class, only a few students do really well" was eliminated after the reliability analysis showed that it depressed the internal reliability coefficient of the scale. The emerging Classroom Mastery Goal Structure and Work Avoidance scales included, respectively, one and two Mastery Goal Orientation items with lower positive and negative loadings. Those items were also discarded since they did not belong conceptually to the scales.

The five scales that were retained comprised 18 items in total and had acceptable reliability in view of their brevity (see Table 8.1 for scale composition, and for descriptive and reliability statistics). Each of the five scales yielded a composite value, which was calculated by taking the mean of the variables that made up the scale, and was used in subsequent analyses. The means and standard deviations of the scores on the summated scales for the high and low-motivation groups are presented in Table 8.2.

It is worthwhile noting that students in both the high- and low-motivation groups report similarly high levels of perceptions of a mastery goal structure in their classrooms. This seems paradoxical, particularly in view of the fact that my observational data indicate that instructional activities in low-motivation groups frequently present exceedingly low or high challenge, and teachers often have low expectations for students demonstrated by low standards and a lack of pressure. However, Turner (2001) has reported similar results, which she interpreted as being suggestive that students may have considered the questionnaire items as indicators of the social environment of the classroom rather than as indicators of the type of achievement goal that is emphasized in their classroom. As for performance approach goals, they appear less salient than classroom mastery goals, and are perceived as being emphasized by teachers in low-motivation groups slightly more than in high-motivation classrooms, although the difference does not reach statistical significance.

TABLE 8.1

Students' Motivational Goals Questionnaire: Reliability and Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	SD
Milieu-Related Goal Orientation (3 items, Cronbach Alpha: .71)		
• An important reason I do my work in English lessons is that I don't want to disappoint my family and friends.	3.82	1.34
• An important reason I do my work in English lessons is that people who are important to me hope that I'll do my best.	3.75	1.30
• An important reason I do my English work in lessons is that I have the support and recognition of the people who are important to me.	3.29	1.27
Classroom Performance Goal Structure (4 items, Cronbach Alpha= .66)		
• Our English teacher points out those students who get good grades as an example to all the others.	3.77	1.48
• Our English teacher calls on smart students more than on other students.	3.49	1.70
• Our English teacher lets certain students know indirectly that they're not doing well in English	3.26	1.59
• Our English teacher lets us know if we are doing better or worse than other students.	3.45	1.22
Work Avoidance Orientation (4 items, Cronbach Alpha= .70)		
• In English lessons, I usually wait for the teacher to give the answers instead of trying to do the work.	3.16	1.35
• In English lessons, I often copy answers from classmates or self-study books.	3.31	1.47
• When working in groups in English lessons, I prefer to let others do most of the work.	3.23	1.31
• In English lessons, I hope that the teacher will not check whether I have done my work.	3.46	1.47
Classroom Mastery Goal Structure (4 items, Cronbach Alpha= .73)		
• Our English teacher really wants us to become interested in developing our English skills, not just be interested in getting good test scores.	4.54	1.22
• Our English teacher thinks it's very important that students try hard.	4.81	1.18
• Our English teacher believes all students can learn some English.	4.59	1.07
• Our English teacher thinks it's OK if we make mistakes when we're learning.	4.38	1.38
Performance-Approach Goal Orientation (3 items, Cronbach Alpha: .67)		
• I'd like to show my English teacher that I'm smarter than my classmates.	3.44	1.45
• I feel really good if I'm the only one who can answer the teacher's question in English class.	4.60	1.46
• I feel successful in English if I do better than most of the other students.	4.02	1.37

Notes. Responses ranged from 1 ("not at all true") to 6 ("very true"). *N* = 213

TABLE 8.2

Independent-Samples T-tests of the Motivational Sources Reported by Students in High-and Low-Motivation Learner Groups[a] in the Phase 2 Questionnaire

Motivational Goals Scales	Learner Group Type	MEAN	SD	D	T	Effect Size[b]
Milieu-Related Goal Orientation				211	-1.29	.008
	High-Motivation	3.52	1.11			
	Low-Motivation	3.71	.98			
Classroom Mastery Goal Structure				211	-.21	.000
	High-Motivation	4.56	1.09			
	Low-Motivation	4.59	.77			
Classroom Performance Goal Structure				211	-.69	.002
	High-Motivation	3.44	1.06			
	Low-Motivation	3.54	1.07			
Performance Approach Goal Orientation				211	-.84	.003
	High-Motivation	3.95	1.17			
	Low-Motivation	4.08	1.06			
Work Avoidance Orientation				211	-2.18*	.022
	High-Motivation	3.13	1.08			
	Low-Motivation	3.43	.94			

Note. *$p < .05$. [a]$N = 213$; number of student-participants in high-motivation classes ($n_1 = 97$); number of student-participants in low-motivation classes ($n_2 = 116$). [b]Eta squared.

Both groups scored moderately on the milieu-related goal orientation scale. There was a small difference between the two groups but it was not statistically significant. Students in the low-motivation groups reported slightly higher levels of milieu-related goal orientation than students in the high-motivation groups. This suggests that goals can emanate from the social context as well as from individuals, and/or that relationships with significant others act as an emotional resource on which to draw during goal striving (see Chapter 3, section 3.3.9).

The absence of a clear personal mastery goal orientation in both learner group types was rather unexpected in view of previous research carried out in South Korea (Bong 2004; Hwang, 2002a; Lee & Lee, 2001; Nam-Jung, 1996), even among a similar population (Bong, 2001). This may be due to the different questionnaires that were used. However, the erratic response patterns found in the current study regarding the personal mastery goal orientation items referring to preference for challenging work, interest in the subject, and not minding making mistakes suggest that these facets of the construct were not appropriate for my sample, and by extension (since the sample was distilled from a large population), that it may not always transfer easily across all cultures.

8.1.2 Did the learner groups differ in their own motivational goals and their perceptions of the goals stressed in their L2 classrooms?

An independent samples t-test was carried out to compare the motivational goals for high- and low-motivation learner groups, as well as their perceptions of the achievement goals emphasized in their L2 classrooms. The results are presented in Table 8.2. The two groups differed significantly in one area only: Work Avoidance Orientation. Students in the high-motivation groups reported avoiding work to a lesser extent than those in the low-motivation groups. Both high- and low-motivation groups perceived similar levels of emphasis on performance goals in their classrooms. This result appears to corroborate Turner, Midgley, Meyer, Gheen, Anderman, Kang, and Patrick's (2002) findings that perceptions of a performance goal structure in the classroom were not significant predictors of avoidance behaviors.

Although the magnitude of the difference in the Work Avoidance means was small (effect size: .022), with high or low-motivation group membership explaining only 2.2% of the variance, it is worthwhile noting on two accounts. First, there is a link between work-avoidant goals and achievement in English: For example, work-avoidant goals were found to be significant negative predictors of achievement in English in South Korea (Nam-Jung, 1996). Consequently, tackling work-avoidance may offer a useful "way-in" to improve L2 motivation and achievement. Second, since students' adoption of work avoidance goals may constitute an attempt to avoid failure or cope with demanding learning situations (see section 3.3.7), I believe teachers can have a positive influence on students' work-avoidant goals by designing L2 instructional contexts that address those issues. The rest of the data gathered in Phase 2 may help to clarify if and how the instructional contexts in the high-motivation

groups, compared with those in the low-motivation groups are designed in ways that make it more students feel they are better able to cope with learning English..

8.2 THE "CARING TEACHER" SENTENCE COMPLETION ITEM

While quantitative data such as the results concerning the teachers' use of motivational strategies constitute a necessary component of the evaluation of teachers' motivational behaviors, they provide an incomplete picture on their own. Qualitative data from sources such as my own observation field notesand stimulated recall of lesson events[22] (an etic perspective) and learners' subjective interpretations of teachers' behavior in their L2 classrooms (an emic perspective) are needed in order to develop a fuller understanding of the quantitative results. Wentzel (1997) pointed out that students' perceptions of teachers as being caring "might reflect actual classroom practices" (p. 412). This part of the study therefore adopts a qualitative methodology to examine students' accounts of how their L2 teachers show they care about them, with the expectation that they will shed some light on classroom practices. The instrument I used was simple and straightforward: The students were provided with the following sentence stem in their native language (Korean): "I feel my English teacher cares about me because…" and were asked to continue the sentence, also in their native language.

8.2.1 Data analysis

The qualitative data analysis methods in this study follow procedures suggested by Dörnyei (in press). The analysis aimed to identify differences in classroom behaviors between teachers in the high and low-motivation groups. The data analysis process consisted of the following:
- typing and translating the "caring" item data,
- reviewing the "caring" data to derive preliminary categories of caring L2 teacher attributes,
- verifying the preliminary categories against the data,
- refining the categories and grouping them under dimensions representing facets of pedagogical caring,
- coding by applying the template of categories to the data (see Table 8.3).

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[22] See Appendix M. The MOLT observation record sheets also contained some handwritten notes.

TABLE 8.3

Template of Attributes Identified in the "Caring English (L2) Teacher" Data Set

Attributes of the caring L2 teacher
Demonstrates qualities of a "good" pedagogue ("Good" teacher)
Gives interesting, fun lessons / Uses humor
Makes learning the L2 easier; lessons are easy to follow
Varies activities
Provides extra oral or written input besides standard materials
Tries to motivate students who find English difficult
Helps students to prepare for tests and exams
Egalitarian
Respectful, trustworthy
"Immediacy" behaviors
Responds to individual academic needs
Tolerant
Enforces rules
Praises and/or encourages
Gives uncritical feedback

Not caring

Other

After practice coding a sample of transcripts using the final 17-category template that is presented in Table 8.3, I established the descriptions of the student response categories, accompanied them by some illustrative quotes (see Table 8.4), and discussed these with a Korean expert. We then coded separately the original Korean data and the translated version. We took the meaning unit as the analytic unit, that is, any number of words (from a single word to several sentences) embedded in the data that express a coherent and clearly distinct idea (Ratner, 2002). Coding reliability was calculated with the "gamma" formula proposed by Turner, Meyer, Cox, Logan, DiCintio, and Thomas (1998)[23]. Here, gamma is the ratio of

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[23] Turner et al (1998) explain how gamma can be calculated by giving the example of two researchers who coded transcripts of several teachers' lessons: "Gamma is calculated separately for each teacher by creating a table of 'hits' (agreements) and 'misses' (disagreements) between two coders across all transcripts for a particular teacher. Gamma is a ratio of average agreements to the sum of the average agreements and average disagreements. A gamma of 0 indicates no agreement between coders and a

agreements between the other coder and me across all the transcripts to the sum of our agreements and disagreements. My goal was to achieve a gamma of .80, but the index of agreement, at .94 (347 agreements, 22 disagreements) exceeded this expectation. We reconciled the codings in disagreement to 100% agreement[24] .

8.2.2 Motivational dimensions of behaviors affecting relations of care between teacher and student

After coding the students' comments along the 17 categories described in the previous section, it became apparent that the students had generated responses that corresponded to the five dimensions of effective caregiving suggested by Noddings (1992, cited in Wentzel, 1997) and the family socialization literature. Four of these dimensions—modeling (i.e., indications that the teacher cares about teaching—for example, by making a special effort, or by making lessons interesting), democratic interactions (i.e., two-way communication between teacher and students, equitable treatment and respect of students), expectations based on individuality (i.e., concern with the students' non-academic and academic functioning), and nurturance (i.e., teachers' formal and informal assessment of students' work)—were also found by Wentzel (1997). The fifth dimension, rule setting (i.e., setting and consistent enforcement of rules) was missing in Wentzel's (1997) sample of American middle school students, but appeared in this sample in the form of comments about rule enforcement.

As can be seen in Table 8.4, the behaviors or properties/attributes of L2 teachers capable of affecting relations of care between them and their students are not equal in terms of the frequency of their occurrence across the sample. Some behaviors or attributes were mentioned by every learner group, whether the group belonged to the high or to the low-motivation set, while other behaviors or attributes were not, suggesting that some were more salient than others in the experiences of the student-participants. In the following discussion, I will focus on those teacher behaviors that show the greatest contrast; that is, those that show similarly high or low frequencies across the three learner groups belonging to either the high- or low-motivation set, when this pattern is not also present in the other set. A more comprehensive discussion will follow in the report of the qualitative analysis of the data.

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gamma of 1 indicates perfect agreement" (p. 736). For instance, here, I divided 347 (the number of our agreements) by the sum of our agreements and disagreements (i.e., 347+ 22= 369), and obtained a gamma (ratio) of .94.

[24] See Appendix L for a transcription of the original coded Korean data and their translation, also indicating the final, agreed-upon codes in square brackets; original disagreements prior to alteration are highlighted.

TABLE 8.4

Pedagogical Caring Categories Identified in the Data, with Descriptions, Frequency Rates* Broken Down by the 6 Teachers, and Illustrative Quotes

*(raw frequencies divided by the number of students in the group and multiplied by 100)

	High-Motivation			Low-Motivation			
	Frequency Rate			Frequency Rate			
Category	Ahn $n=36$	Bae $n=27$	Choi $n=34$	Kim $n=36$	Lee $n=41$	Moon $n=40$	Description, Examples, and Illustrative Quotes
Modeling							*The focusis on indications that the teacher cares about teaching*
• Demonstrates qualities of a "good" pedagogue	16.7	3.7	23.5	13.9	19.5	22.5	• fulfils the obligations that go with the teacher's role (e.g., shows commitment, or sets an example in terms of effort expenditure): • enthusiastic • committed to students' progress (e.g., *She wants us to do better in English*; 61303) • encourages intrinsic orientation (e.g., *She thinks that remaining interested in English is more important than grades*; 72238) • transmits accurate and useful knowledge (e.g., *She gives us grammar, correct pronunciation, and useful knowledge. She often gives us moral lessons so that we become more* considerate; 122208) • possesses specific (non L2-related) instructional skills that students appreciate (e.g., *She is good at picking out what we have trouble with*; 72214).
• Gives interesting, fun lessons / Uses humor	33.3	33.3	35.3	5.6	4.9	20.0	• Aspects of lessons are described as "interesting" or "fun" by students (e.g**.,** *From time to time, she gives us an interesting talk so that we are not bored*; 122210) • Tells funny anecdotes or jokes.

Category	High-Motivation Frequency Rate			Low-Motivation Frequency Rate			Description, Examples, and Illustrative Quotes
	Ahn $n=36$	Bae $n=27$	Choi $n=34$	Kim $n=36$	Lee $n=41$	Moon $n=40$	

Modeling (cont.)

Category	Ahn	Bae	Choi	Kim	Lee	Moon	Description, Examples, and Illustrative Quotes
• Makes learning the L2 easier; lessons are easy to follow	8.3	18.5	17.9	2.8	2.4	42.5	• Uses simple English • Gives clear, thorough, or detailed explanations • Scaffolds, or provides support or learning strategies (e.g., *Before we read a text, she always teaches us the difficult vocabulary and puts slashes to segment long sentences so that we can understand the text easily*; 182911)
• Varies activities	8.3	25.9	11.8	2.8	4.9	5.0	Uses activities other than traditional grammar-translation style lecturing and exercises, or teacher-directed audiolingual-type drills and I-R-E interaction patterns: e.g., • uses games or game-like activities (e.g., *During the lessons, she uses various kinds of interesting activities, like working in groups*; 81116) • stimulates students to take participate actively during lessons • uses group work • gets students to use multimedia resources.
• Provides extra oral or written input besides standard materials	13.9	7.4	23.5	–	14.6	25.0	• Tells anecdotes about personal experiences (particularly while traveling abroad) • Moralizes • Tells children's stories in English • Gives worksheets / handouts • Shows educational videos and introduces students to cultural artefacts (e.g., *She gives us ways to learn English easily through watching television. She also gives us the opportunity to make Halloween pumpkins*; 122205)

Category	High-Motivation Frequency Rate			Low-Motivation Frequency Rate			Description, Examples, and Illustrative Quotes
	Ahn *n*=36	Bae *n*=27	Choi *n*=34	Kim *n*=36	Lee *n*=41	Moon *n*=40	

Modeling (cont.)

• Tries to motivate students who find English difficult	–	40.7	–	5.6	9.8	–	• Allows students to avoid what they cannot do (e.g., *When I don't know the answer to her question, she doesn't force me to speak*; 61313) • Prioritizes the development of self-confidence over that of English skills (e.g., *When we have speaking tests, she emphasizes confidence [talking loudly] rather than pronunciation or the contents of the sentences;* 72235) • Acknowledges the drudgery of learning English for most students by allowing them to have a break during lessons (e.g., *During the forty-five minute period, she gives us a break, whether we're in the middle of a lesson or we're watching a video or playing some kind of game*; 72206) • Builds students' self-confidence by giving them class work they can do, an amount of homework they can cope with, and/or examinations that contain some questions they feel they can do (e.g., *Whatever she gives us to do is easy*; 81108).
• Helps students to prepare for tests and exams	–	25.9	20.6	2.8	–	12.5	• Provides pointers regarding what to review for the examinations • Supplies examination practice materials • Provides pointers regarding the contents of the examinations (e.g., *She gives us a few of the exam questions before the exams. She also tells us what will be in our performance[speaking] test so we won't feel it's difficult*; 81111).

Category	High-Motivation Frequency Rate			Low-Motivation Frequency Rate			Description, Examples, and Illustrative Quotes
	Ahn $n=36$	Bae $n=27$	Choi $n=34$	Kim $n=36$	Lee $n=41$	Moon $n=40$	
Democratic Interactions							*The focus is on maintaining two-way communication in the classroom, and on treating students respectfully, fairly, and honestly.*
• Egalitarian	2.8	7.4	2.9	–	–	2.5	• Is concerned about every single student, • Treats all students equally, without discriminating against anyone (e.g., *She treats us as if we are all equal*; 51802)
• Respectful, trustworthy	–	7.4	–	8.3	17.1	2.5	• Uses respectful terms/language when talking to the students • Is mindful of students' "face" (e.g., *She doesn't reveal each person's grade in public;* 72210) • Listens to students' opinions • Keeps promises.
Expectations Based on Individuality							*The focus is on the concern with the students as individual persons (i.e., with their nonacademic functioning), and as individual learners (i.e., recognizing their unique academic problems, but also the skills and contributions they can make to the class)*
• "Immediacy" behaviors	5.6	18.5	14.7	19.4	24.4	7.5	• Tries to reduce the psychological distance between the students and herself by being kind, warm, generous • Responds to non-academic needs and personal feelings (e.g., *While other teachers don't care about how their students feel, our English teacher carefully adjusts what she says so it matches our mood, and this makes us feel better*; 182901)

Category	High-Motivation Frequency Rate			Low-Motivation Frequency Rate			Description, Examples, and Illustrative Quotes
	Ahn $n=36$	Bae $n=27$	Choi $n=34$	Kim $n=36$	Lee $n=41$	Moon $n=40$	
Expectations Based on Individuality (cont.)							
• Responds to individual academic needs	2.8	22.2	11.8	8.3	4.9	32.5	• Gives special help to individuals or small groups of individuals when needed • Teaches lower-ability students well • Tries not to let any learner fall behind, • Focused on learners' needs (e.g., *When we tell her that what she is teaching us is difficult to understand, she teaches it again*; 81122). • Attempts to cater to students' levels
Rule Setting							*Focus is on the setting of rules, and on their consistent enforcement*
• Tolerant	5.6	–	2.9	–	2.4	–	E.g., *She occasionally pretends not to see bad behavior happening in the classroom but when she decides to pay attention to it, she doesn't hit us.* (51814)
• Enforces rules	5.6	11.1	2.9	5.6	4.9	7.5	• Controls noise in class • Enforces the rule of "no sleeping" in class • Reprimands • Punishes / rewards for transgressing / following the rules (e.g., *She uses her stick when we misbehave. Anyway, she's good*; 51837)
Nurturance							*Focus is on the teacher's formal and informal evaluation of students' work*
• Praises and/or encourages	–	7.4	–	–	14.6	–	• Gives any form of praise or encouragement, whether it is appropriate or not (e.g., *Even if I make a mistake, she praises me by saying, "You did well"*; 72239).

Category	High-Motivation Frequency Rate			Low-Motivation Frequency Rate			Description, Examples, and Illustrative Quotes
	Ahn $n=36$	Bae $n=27$	Choi $n=34$	Kim $n=36$	Lee $n=41$	Moon $n=40$	
Nurturance (cont.)							
• Gives uncritical feedback	–	–	2.9	2.8	7.3	2.5	• Is not critical of poor performance in class or in examinations (e.g., *When we make a mistake, she corrects it at once and doesn't tell us off*; 72212) • Gives progress feedback through frequent testing (e.g., *She lets us know where we stand by giving us tests on everything we learn*; 182936) • Gives process (e.g., "how to") feedback.
Uncaring							
• Not caring	36.1	3.7	17.6	38.9	2.4	2.5	In response to the sentence stem, "I feel my English teacher cares about me because …," students • are unable to describe their teacher as caring and write, "N/A." • say frankly that they do not feel their teachers care about them • produce carefully-worded responses, indicating that they do not feel their teacher care about them (e.g., *I can't think of anything. Actually, I've never thought about that*; 51827)
Other							
• Other	2.8	3.7	5.9	2.8	2.4	–	• Vague comments (e.g., She teaches us English; 61322) • All references to students' personal attributes • Responses that do not fit into the other categories

Only two teacher behaviors fit the criteria set out above. First, the "Modeling" dimension reveals the greatest difference between the high and low-motivation learner groups. By far the highest frequency of teacher behavior and properties/attributes perceived by the students across the sample as evidence of a caring teacher was "interesting, fun lessons, humorous" (total frequency rate = 132.4: high-motivation = 101.9; low-motivation = 30.5). This attests to the importance students attach to the content of lessons and the quality of the learning experience, more specifically, to how much they appreciate teachers who try to increase their intrinsic enjoyment of participating in L2 lessons. Second, still within the "Modeling" dimension, the frequency rates in the three low-motivation groups were uniformly low for "varies activities," in contrast to the erratic pattern—albeit of higher frequency values— found in the three high-motivation groups (total frequency rate = 58.7: high-motivation = 46.0; low-motivation = 12.7). Taken together, these findings support Schumann's (1999) theory that "pleasantness" and "novelty" are two of five dimensions along which learners make stimulus appraisals that may ultimately foster their approach or avoidance of L2 learning situations and consequently affect their engagement during lessons (see Chapter 4, section 4.6.2).

Finally, although the patterns of frequencies were not consistent in either group, a surprising result was that, overall, slightly more students in the high-motivation learner group could not describe their teachers as caring, or even described them as uncaring, than in the low-motivation group. Since both groups had reported equally high perceptions of classroom mastery goal structures, this result was different from that obtained by Roeser, Midgley, and Urdan (1996), who had found associations between middle school students' perceptions of a classroom mastery-goal orientation and perceptions of their teachers as caring and respectful. By looking at the achievement measures of the high-motivation students who did not describe their teachers as caring, I was able to ascertain that several of these students had high scores, and could thus not be described as demotivated. Consequently, one possible explanation for the results concerning these students is that teacher caring does not matter much because they are better able to self-regulate their motivation.

It is worthwhile noting at this point that the teacher behaviors or attributes listed in Table 8.4 are typical or trait-like, and were analyzed here in isolation. However, in themselves, they do not represent the ability of a teacher to establish relations of care with students. As Dörnyei (2001c) points out, approaches that focused in the past on distilling unique traits that distinguish successful teachers from less successful ones have largely been inconclusive because various combinations of traits can be equally effective. Consequently, in the next six sections (8.2.4 to 8.2.8), in a bid to increase understanding, I present individual teacher

profiles based on the students' responses to the sentence completion item: "I feel my English teacher cares about me because…" and on my observational data and field notes. I begin with the profiles of the three teachers of the high-motivation groups (Ms. Ahn, Ms. Bae, and Ms. Choi), and follow with those of the three teachers of the low-motivation groups (Ms. Kim, Ms. Lee, and Ms. Moon). The teachers' names have been changed.

Each profile is split into two segments: The first ("Students' viewpoint") presents the students' perspective on the quality of their teacher's care, while the second ("Observer's viewpoint")—based on my own observations—aims to counterbalance the students' perspective by matching the themes that emerged from the students' responses. In section 8.2.9, I draw on the profiles to highlight some major differences between the teachers in the high- and low-motivation groups.

8.2.3 Ms. Ahn (high-motivation group)

Students' viewpoint

What is striking about Ms Ahn is that over one third of the students in her high-motivation group were unable to describe her as a caring teacher. Indeed, her students were the most verbally explicit out of all the groups regarding what they felt as her *lack of care*. Some felt her care was inconsistent ("Sometimes she cares about us because she is our homeroom teacher, but at other times she doesn't." 51813), while others thought that it did not go beyond what they regarded as the minimum professional requirement expected from a teacher ("She does her job. That's all." 51820). Yet others strongly resented the use of corporal punishment, as is indicated in this impassioned statement containing a quote of words traditionally used by teachers when beating boys: "She has NEVER cared about us. She does absolutely nothing to take care of us. To think of her taking care of us is a real joke. 'Come here! Bend over! Loosen up! ... Show me your hands!'" (51819). Unlike the other teachers in the high-motivation group who were described as more caring, she was not mentioned as giving the students any guidance to help them prepare for their examinations.

However, the second most remarkable feature of Ms Ahn's practice, which this time is perceived as caring by her students, is her *interesting lessons*. Students identify three ways in which she keeps boredom at bay. One way is preventative and is centered around lesson design, in particular around ensuring that game-like activities are frequently included in lessons ("She tries to make it [the lesson] interesting so we don't get bored." 51804). The other two ways to prevent boredom are remedial and consist in the use of teacher narratives

and humor whenever Ms. Ahn's monitoring for the students' emotional stamina detects boredom ("When we lose interest, she tells us some interesting stories" 51839; "Whenever the lesson could be called a bit boring, she tells a joke" 51817). Games are also used to relieve boredom, or as a relief from study requiring intense concentration ("When the lesson becomes boring or unbearable, she plays a quiz-game with us." 51824)

Ms. Ahn teaches her students well. One in six students in her class gave a spontaneous positive appraisal of her teaching skills as an expression of her care for them, with one student mentioning in particular the fact that she highlights key points for them ("She picks out the important things all the time in the lessons" 51832).

Observer's viewpoint

Ms. Ahn's classes were characterized by her use of *stimulating teacher-controlled activities*. For instance, she presented input using different media, conducted personalized drills with the whole class—eliciting translation for weaker students, gave short written assignments, and added creative game-like features to mundane activities such as listening comprehension. All activities were carried out at a brisk pace, and she was vigilant for any signs of misbehavior. I assessed the progression of activities in her lessons as being *more likely to increase the students' expectancy of success* than that of the other five teachers' classes.

In Ms. Ahn's classroom, there was a mostly businesslike atmosphere, probably due to the emphasis on whole-class, teacher-controlled activities. This must have placed a burden on the teacher who had to ensure students kept paying attention, and on the students who had to do so for long periods. At times, though, *the atmosphere could be light-hearted*, and some students felt free enough to make spontaneous comments or ask questions by shouting aloud without being reprimanded. In common with the students, I noted Ms. Ahn's use of *humor and ability to joke*: "[Ms. Ahn] collected group points (in English) and humorously held an impromptu class discussion (in Korean) about how many points would be required to win. After allowing [the students] to voice their opinions freely (which they did in Korean), she jokingly announced that the winners that day would be the groups who had failed to score" (see Appendix M).

However, it appears that Ms. Ahn may not respect her students as much as she should. Her *seeming lack of respect for the students* was suggested in the quote given above when she dismissed their opinions in favor of a somewhat absurd alternative. It also appeared when she was using fast food vocabulary with the students, was cautioning the class against eating too much of it, and drew everyone's attention to an overweight student in the process.

8.2.4 Ms. Bae (high-motivation group)

Students' viewpoint

Just like Ms. Ahn, and to the same high degree, Ms. Bae's students report that they feel she cares about them because she "*makes her lessons interesting*" (81107). She does so by using "various kinds of interesting activities, like working in groups" (81116), and telling students children's stories in English. There are also fun activities like games, which are played to celebrate the end of a unit, and occasionally when the students are bored.

Ms. Bae is perceived as a generally warm-hearted teacher, who "is concerned about every single student" (81124). What distinguishes Ms. Bae from all the other teachers is that she *makes a special effort to build the self-confidence of students who find English difficult*: She gives them work they feel they can do, examinations that contain parts they can do, and amounts of homework they can cope with. She also helps students prepare for their examinations by giving them general pointers as well highly specific ones (e.g., "a few of the exam questions" 81111) to signpost their self-study and make them feel comfortable. Ms. Bae is unique in the way she attracted several comments about her *democratic style of interaction* with the students, which includes treating students equally regardless of their ability in English, keeping her word and therefore being trustworthy, and respecting her students' opinions: "When she makes exam questions, she listens to our opinions" (81122).

Some students, including those who do not perform well, feel that she is *sensitive to their levels and teaches them accordingly* ("She teaches us according to our levels," writes student 81128, who averaged 31% in the nationally administered listening tests that year). Moreover, she does not give up teaching individuals when they cannot perform an activity ("When I can't answer her question, she teaches me until I can do it" 81110), and she does so "with a smile" (81127). She *encourages risk-taking* by affirming her tolerance of mistakes ("She encourages us to answer questions saying that she doesn't care if our answers are wrong" 81116), and *gives specific praise at appropriate times* ("When she makes us talk in front of the class and we're stuck, she helps us with what we don't know and praises us for the good parts" 81121).

Observer's viewpoint

Ms. Bae teaches in a rural area where students are much less "driven" to learn English than in cities. It is obvious that the *students feel comfortable* physically and psychologically in the classroom, thanks to the rapport that she has established with them. She makes sure that the

temperature in the classroom is pleasant for the students, and enquires about the health of those who were sick the previous lesson.

In the two lessons I observed, the textbook appeared to determine the contents and flow of the lessons to a greater extent than for the other teachers in the high-motivation group—probably because Ms. Bae is less proficient in English than the other two teachers. However, she occasionally adapted the textbook activities, and used pair work and group work to make them more interesting, but usually adopted the following pattern: presentation of new language – comprehension test – listen/read – repeat – translate. She would press students to complete a task for a short while, offering help or strategies if possible, but when they could not do the work (e.g., translating), she took over the task for them. It seemed that she was in tune with her students and knew just how much to push them within their comfort zone.

8.2.5 Ms. Choi (high-motivation group)

Students' viewpoint

Like the other two teachers in the high-motivation group, the most commonly mentioned indicator that Ms. Choi cares about her students was that "*her lessons are fun*" (182921) and "she teaches difficult things like grammar in an interesting way" (182907). She does so by varying activities and encouraging participation using, for instance, a multi-media lab, memory challenges, and competitions. She also models successful learning strategies, which *makes it easy for students to learn and understand English*. While most teachers were reported as giving clear explanations, Ms. Choi differed inasmuch as she was described as giving *clear and interesting explanations*.

Ms. Choi's attitude as a teacher is a good model for her students. A number of them feel her hard work and the attention she pays to the smallest details when she teaches them are expressions of her care for them. Equally appreciated are the facts that she tries to maximize her use of simple English during lessons, and is able to use and teach colloquial English because she has traveled abroad extensively. Students also enjoy hearing about her experiences abroad.

In common with Ms. Bae, Ms. Choi makes sure that her students are well prepared for examinations. However, her approach is different: Instead of giving hints on the contents of the examination, Ms. Choi gives plenty of practice questions. She also administers regular tests so that students get precise feedback through frequent test results.

According to some students, Ms. Choi is friendly, smiles, and also has empathy with them ("While other teachers don't care about how their students feel, our English teacher carefully adjusts what she says so it matches our mood, and this makes us feel better" 182901). She is also perceived as caring because she is ready to help if students do not understand, does not get annoyed when students ask questions, and always replies sincerely. Finally, she is egalitarian: "She treats students equally, whether or not they get good marks" (182937).

Observer's viewpoint

My observations concur with the students' statements. Ms. Choi was the most proficient speaker of English among the six teachers. The lessons I observed took place in a computer lab and were the closest to a communicative, task-based style approach of the 47 lessons I observed. They were delivered enthusiastically, and contained a variety of tasks that she had created, some of them with tangible outcome. For example, there were game-like activities, a structured Internet task, and a vocabulary test run as a TV quiz show that required the students to have studied in cooperative groups. All activities were closely related to the textbook contents. Ms. Choi made full and appropriate use of whole class, individual, pair, and group work throughout the lessons. However, probably because the work was always challenging, a few students seemed to give up, seemingly escaping her notice. This may explain why, despite all her qualities, five lower-achieving students were unable to describe her as caring.

Ms. Choi comes across as a humorous and kind teacher. To control students, Ms. Choi has developed a routine: She says, "Attention..." and the students reply, "Pretty girls!" Unlike in other classrooms, a great deal of comprehensible English is in use. Small successes throughout the school year are regularly rewarded in a way that is highly meaningful to Korean students: Points that are earned through group or individual activities (e.g., in the vocabulary quiz I witnessed) are amassed and count toward the "performance" part of the students' final assessment.

8.2.6 Ms. Kim (low-motivation group)

Students' viewpoint

According to Ms. Kim's students, she is the least caring of the six teachers in this sample: 39% of her students were unable to describe her as caring. Some, however, felt she cared

because she provided them with occasional "treats," such as ice cream for perfect attendance, or movies or soccer games after examinations. 14% gave a general positive appraisal of her teaching skills and felt that she was committed to improve their level of English.

Observer's viewpoint

Of the six teachers in the sample, I found Ms. Kim to be the least proficient in her use of English in the classroom. She also ranked lowest in terms of instructional clarity and increasing students' expectancy of success because of an inadequate selection of vocabulary to be pre-taught and a lack of scaffolding, such as an absence of schema-building activities. Most of the activities observed revolved around *non-communicative learning* (Littlewood, 2004), that is, activities that involve focusing on the structures of language, how they are formed and what they mean, with the meaning of the structures often being presented in isolation These activities usually involve presentation, translation, and practice of grammatical forms or utterances related to their communicative functions.

Ms. Kim tried to encourage students to cooperate by inviting them to "help each other" but since the *classroom discourse* was *dominated by Initiation-Response-Evaluation* (I-R-E) patterns, this invitation led students to copy answers from others during written exercises so they would be able to give correct answers during the whole class oral check

I felt little enthusiasm emanating from Ms. Kim, and the *classroom atmosphere* was *somewhat dull*. Although she had made an effort to provide students with word puzzles in one lesson, the procedure she used was unimaginative and repetitive.

8.2.7 Ms. Lee (low-motivation group)

Students' viewpoint

Ms. Lee is recognized as a caring teacher. Her main concern seems to be to maintain a positive affective climate in her classroom. One of the most obvious signs that she cares about her students is that: "When she thinks we may be tired because of the lesson, she gives us a break for about five minutes" (72231). This is a distinguishing feature of her practice, which was mentioned by 7 out of 40 of her students. Besides giving breaks, students also mention her kindness, and aspects of a democratic interaction style. For example, she is the only teacher who was mentioned as *talking to students respectfully, consulting them about the difficulty of the lesson and the kinds of activities they would like to do, and being mindful of not making them feel ashamed in public*. To protect students from embarrassment, she avoids

asking them to speak in front of the class when she knows they are not good at it. Furthermore, when she does ask them to speak in English, it seems that she *lowers the standards to make students feel more comfortable*: "When we have speaking tests, she emphasizes confidence (talking loudly) rather than pronunciation or the contents of the sentences" (72235). When students make mistakes, she points them out in a non-critical way, and then follows with *non-specific praise*. When failure does occur, students feel she cares when she gives them some vague encouragement, such as telling them they are not inferior to others, or by dismissing the importance of failure—although this student does not seem to be convinced: "She is kind enough to say that it doesn't matter even if we can't do something properly" (72233).

Ms. Lee (like Ms. Ahn in the high-motivation group) was noteworthy inasmuch as she was not mentioned once as providing help in preparation for examinations. As a result, she needs to encourage her students after they receive their grades, especially since the classes are ranked within the school. But students report being given only vague encouragement.

Observer's viewpoint

The positive student feedback regarding Ms. Lee's pedagogical caring skills (focused on making students feel good) appears to be contradictory to the lack of motivated behavior, observed in her classroom. However, this pattern fits Kuhl's (2000b) theory of volitional action. Indeed, an implication of this theory is that a teaching style excessively biased toward positive affect creates a climate likely to breed students who may avoid the difficult task of learning an L2 (see section 5.3.5).

My observations indicate that a number of students were often obviously off-task during lessons but were seemingly ignored by Ms. Lee. The fact that she brings extra materials and is kind to students shows that she is keen to motivate them, but her efforts to get students engaged in learning activities are poorly rewarded. I believe there are two main reasons for this: her basic teaching approach and the priority she gives to making students feel good over making them learn. Ms. Lee appears to regard the textbook materials as drudgery, and her lack of enthusiasm comes through in the uninspiring use she makes of them. In her lessons, she relies heavily on teacher-fronted "listen-repeat-memorize" type of speaking practice, and grammar-translation style teaching for reading passages and dialogue scripts. Because she knows such tasks require great cognitive and/or motivational effort, she monitors students' emotional stamina. If she finds that it is lacking, she then resorts to behaviors that appear to acknowledge tacitly that learning English is a drudgery from which students need to be relieved. For instance, she entertains them with a video taken from Internet learning resources

sites, or bribes them into working by using candy, which I saw her give for participation rather than successful completion of an oral task. Ms. Lee's lessons lack coherence when she brings extra materials because she does not integrate them successfully with the regular course materials. Although she uses them enthusiastically, they remain conspicuous, albeit interesting add-ons, and one is left to wonder if precious class-time has not been squandered. This can be problematic in the South Korean context because the students know they must complete the textbook if they are to have a reasonable chance to do well in examinations.

8.2.8 Ms. Moon (low-motivation group)

Students' viewpoint

The students are extremely appreciative of Ms. Moon's ability to "explain" English to them in a way that is easy to understand. One of them even hypothesized, "Our teacher wants us to like English, so she teaches us in a way that is easier to understand than that of other English teachers" (122202). They identify this behavior by far as the most caring. Ms. Moon was also appreciated for "not discriminating against those who don't do well" (similarly to the teachers in the high-motivation group) and for the fact that she is *helpful when individuals or small groups of individuals require special help*. For instance, when students cannot read English well, she coaches them after class, answers questions kindly during the lessons, and explains several times until everyone understands. She is not only focused on learner needs but also flexible: "She treats us well and teaches us clearly and systematically when we don't know something, even if it's not in the lesson plan" (122231).

To provide relief from boredom or to wake up students, Ms. Moon talks to them about her experiences in the U.S.A and the mistakes she made there so they will not repeat them. The narratives of her personal experiences of learning English and of coming into direct contact with the cultures in English-speaking countries are appreciated by the students. However, such stories encourage English as an L2 to remain viewed as knowledge owned to a lesser or greater extent by certain people (e.g., by "native speakers," or by Korean teachers who have been abroad), rather than as a competence developed within the students.

Ms. Moon makes sure that her students have plenty of extra practice worksheets during term-time as well as practice questions for examination preparation. In fact, the students accounts abound with the verbs "gives, provides, talks, tells, explains" to describe Ms. Moon's behavior.

Finally, Ms. Moon considers it her duty to educate the whole child, not just teach English. As one student says, "She gives us grammar, correct pronunciation, and useful knowledge. She often gives us moral lessons so that we become more considerate" (12208).

Observer's viewpoint

Although Ms. Moon received good feedback from her students regarding her pedagogical caring skills, it appears somewhat paradoxical that her students belong to the low-motivation group. However, this can be understood because, similarly to Ms. Lee, she has found a way to maintain a pleasant and supportive climate that privileges psychological comfort, and therefore, according to PSI theory, this is likely to promote a lack of motivated behavior. The way she creates positive affect in the classroom is different from Ms. Lee, though.

Ms. Moon's lessons are of a very traditional grammar-translation type. The students sit in fixed groups for no apparent reason. Much reading aloud and translation goes on, which is often done either by her or by one student while others listen passively or make notes. I did not hear much laughter during Ms. Moon's lessons while she read in English and spoke Korean, and I did not feel much enthusiasm radiating from Ms. Moon on the days I visited. The translation and language focus work Ms. Moon set in my presence was challenging for most students; consequently, many of them were not able to cope with it and drifted off-task. However, it did not matter much because in the end, the students knew that Ms. Moon would go over the whole text and all the answers thoroughly as a whole-class activity.

My evaluation of Ms. Moon concurred with that of the students where her ability to explain the grammar of English was concerned, but she was less successful when it came to teaching students how to use grammatical knowledge to decode and encode meanings. I also found little evidence of attempts to teach English as a language for communication (a total of 2 minutes of pre-communicative language practice in English over two 45-minute lessons).

In sum, Ms. Moon gives the impression she is setting students challenging work but in fact, she does most of the work herself in exchange for their cooperation. Ms. Moon recognizes that her teaching is cognitively demanding so she monitors her students' alertness and emotional stamina and uses entertaining teacher narratives to regain their attention. A similar kind of trade-off between students and teacher has been reported by Turner (2001).

8.2.9 Discussion

I found two important differences in the students' reports from the high- and low-motivation groups about the reasons they felt their L2 teachers cared about them. First, the teachers in the high-motivation groups were reported as making English lessons interesting and fun. This attests to the importance that students attach to the quality of the learning experience, more specifically, to how much they appreciate teachers who try to increase their intrinsic enjoyment of participating in L2 lessons. Moreover, whereas very few students in the low-motivation groups reported feeling that teachers care about them because they use a variety of activities in class—including game-like activities built into the lessons, students in high-motivation groups did so, although not equally frequently across the learner groups. Taken together, these findings support Schumann's (1999) theory that "pleasantness" and "novelty" are two of five dimensions along which learners make stimulus appraisals that may ultimately foster their approach or avoidance of L2 learning situations and consequently affect their engagement during lessons. In contrast, because their lessons are inherently more boredom-inducing for the majority of their students, the low-motivation teachers have to rely constantly on impromptu games, jokes, teacher narratives, or even giving breaks to regain students' attention or cooperation. Such an approach suggests to the students that studying English is a drudgery from which they need to be relieved.

The second major difference is that the lessons in the high-motivation group reflect the teachers' orientation toward teaching English as a means of communication first, and as a body of knowledge second, whereas in the low-motivation group, the teachers' priorities, as evidenced in their teaching, seem to be reversed. In the latter, the teacher's role as a "lecturer of knowledge" is well defined and allows them to use Korean; this is comforting for both the teacher in the low-motivation group and her students. By giving detailed explanations and corrections to difficult closed-ended exercises that many students cannot do, the teacher feels more efficacious, believes the students are learning, and retains her position as expert even if she is not fluent in the language. The students play a passive role many find comfortable, and may believe they are learning, too. To teach English as a means of communication, the teacher would need pedagogical expertise that is more sophisticated, as well as a higher level of proficiency in the L2 to be able to assist students during communicative tasks.

8.3 THE METACOGNITIVE AWARENESS PROBES (MAPS)

8.3.1 Construction of the MAPs instrument: Subsidiary qualitative study

Participants, instrument, and procedures

Two middle school English teachers, who did not take part in either Phase 1 or Phase 2 of the main study, volunteered for this small-scale exploratory qualitative study. Each teacher asked one of their learner groups (total number of student-respondents = 78) to answer 4 short-answer questions (see Table 8.5 for English version) for a research project on how to make learning English more motivating for middle school students.

The questions were administered and answered in Korean (the L1). The teachers asked their students to give anonymous answers. After collecting the students' answers, the teachers placed them in a university envelope, which they taped and sealed in front of the students.

Data processing

78 learners returned written responses in Korean to each of the four questions (i.e., 312 comments in total). The reduction of the data took place in two stages. The first step began with the typing of every comment in Korean and the (rather literal) translation of the students' output from Korean to English by undergraduate students (see Appendix K).

TABLE 8.5

Qualitative Survey Questions Used for the Construction of the MAPs Instrument

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Questions (English Version)

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1. What feelings pop into your head when "English" as a school subject is mentioned?
2. What's often in your mind just before an English lesson, or just before you begin an activity in English lessons?
3. What often comes into your mind while you are doing an activity in English lessons?
4. What's often in your mind after you finish an activity in English lessons or after the English lesson is over?

Next, with the assistance of a bilingual undergraduate student and a Korean expert (a professor of Korean Education) who provided an emic perspective, identical or similar comments were grouped, regardless of which question they had answered, yielding 42 typical comments. Finally, the frequency of occurrence in the data of comments similar to these was calculated (see Table 8.6). The 42 typical comments, with their frequency tallies, were typed onto individual cards (in Korean on one side, in English on the other).

TABLE 8.6

The 42 Typical Comments Used for the Construction of the MAPs Instrument

Categories and Illustrative Quotes		Frequency tallies
A. Readiness to learn / Interest		86
1. 재미있다	This is fun!	41
2. 아쉬움	I wish this could continue.	17
3. 흥미	Interesting!	9
4. 기대된다	I'm looking forward to this.	9
5. 잘하고 싶다	I want to do better.	4
6. 무엇을 배울지 금하다	I wonder what we're going to learn.	3
7. 이기고 싶다	I want to win / conquer/ master this.	2
8. 꼭 배워야 한다	I must learn this.	1
B. Contentment		23
9. 기분좋다	I feel good.	9
10. 잘해서 기분좋다	I feel good because I did well.	7
11. 배운게 있어서 기분이 좋았다	I feel good because I learned something.	6
12. 최강이다	I'm the best.	1
C. Stress ((including discouragement, helplessness)		73
13. 어렵다	This is difficult.	37
14. 못해서 하기 싫다	I don't want to do this because I can't do it.	17
15. 힘들다	This is tough.	6
16. 못알아 듣겠다	I can't understand any of this.	4
17. 어지럽다	This is making my head spin!	2
18. 헷갈린다	I'm confused.	2
19. 버겁다	This is too much for me.	2
20. 포기한다	I give up.	1
21. 답답하다	I feel frustrated.	1
22. 아는 것이 없다	I know nothing.	1

D. Boredom		42
23. 지겹다	This is boring!	20
24. 잡생각	Thinking about something else…	11
25. 자는시간	Time to go to sleep!	9
26. 시간이 빨리갔으면	I wish time would go faster.	2

E. Irritation / Anger		37
27. 지긋지긋하다	Not that again! I'm fed up!	23
28. 영어 공부하기 짜증난다	I'm sick of studying English.	7
29. 영어를 왜 배울까?	Why do I have to learn English?	4
30. 재수없다	This sucks!	2
31. 화난다	I'm angry.	1

F. Anxiety / Worry		72
32. 못 맞추면(틀리면) 기분이 안 좋다	I feel bad if I make a mistake.	19
33. 떨린다	Trembling.	17
34. 긴장된다	Nervous.	17
35. 미래가 생각된다	I'm worried about my future.	7
36. 못하면 어쩌지?	What will happen if I mess up?	6
37. 잘할수 있을까?	Will I be able to do this well?	3
38. 버겁다	My mind has gone blank.	3

G. Relief		7
39. 드디어 끝났다	It's finally over.	4
40. 별일없이 무사히 넘겨 다행이다	I'm relieved nothing bad happened.	3

H. Sadness		10
41. 허무	I did all this for nothing.	7
42. 실망하다	I'm disappointed.	3

In the second stage, six Korean undergraduates sorted the cards into piles they felt represented categories of metacognitive awareness / feelings and labeled their categories. They recorded their solutions. These solutions were then reviewed and discussed by the translator, the bilingual assistant, and me until we reached an agreement on eight final categories we felt best represented the dimensions present in the data: (1) Readiness to learn/ Interest; (2) Contentment; (3) Stress (including discouragement, helplessness); (4) Boredom;

(5) Irritation / Anger; (6) Anxiety / Worry; (7) Relief; (8) Sadness. We also selected 35 illustrative statements from the list of 42 typical comments for inclusion in the sampler (for the sampler in English and Korean, see Appendix I)

Following Ainley and Hidi (2002), who had used emoticons, I included in my sampler visuals capable of representing the eight categories of metacognitive awareness/feelings. To design appropriate visuals, first, two middle school boys and two middle school girls, not connected to the study in any way, were invited to act out every statement that I planned to include in the sampler. Digital photographs were taken of the children acting out the statements. Then, using the photographs to assist them, four undergraduate students used popular Korean comic books (containing stories in school settings) to select suitable cartoon pictures to use as visuals in the sampler. Both a boy and a girl were featured in each category whenever possible. I thought that the characters selected would have two advantages: (a) they would appeal to students more than written statements alone and would therefore help gain their cooperation for the study; (b) they would enable students to respond quickly to the probes and require less introspection than explicit verbal stimuli (which would seem to be an advantage in awareness research: see section4.6.2).

8.3.2 Data analysis

To assess the emotional tone of the students' metacognitive awareness recorded with the MAPs, I referred to Patrick, Skinner, and Connell's (1993) four categories of children's emotions: one with a positive tone labeled "positive" (e.g., interested, involved, comfortable, relaxed, happy, good), and three with a negative tone labeled "boredom" (e.g., tired, bored, sleepy), "distress" (e.g., scared, nervous, worried, sad, unhappy, bad), and "anger" (e.g., angry, mad). The questionnaire translator and I therefore separately conflated the original categories of the MAPs sampler into these four new categories to label the color of the emotional tone embodied in the choices made by the students. Our solutions matched and yielded a rubric (see Appendix I: Rubric for coding MAPs responses) with which to rate the students' responses to the MAPs.

The students' responses (which occasionally contained extra comments in Korean that we used to interpret the response) were coded independently in front of me. Because the coding system was simple, the inter-coder agreement was 100%. The coded students' answers (positive=1, boredom=2, distress=3, anger=4) for each interruption point (T1 to T6) were entered into an SPSS file.

To examine possible differences in the ability of teachers in the high and low-motivation groups to help students make the necessary affect transitions that are adaptive for L2 learning (see section 5.4.1), I examined every student's profile of answers in terms of their emotional tone (i.e., "positive" or "negative," the latter subsuming the "boredom," "distress'" and "anger" categories) across the MAPs interruptions. I then recorded the number of transitions of affect in each one as a variable in SPSS, disregarding any transition that occurred with the final probe. The probe that occurred near the end of the lesson presented less interest when assessing the profiles because the feelings expressed at that time could represent a reaction to the lesson as a whole or happiness that the lesson was about to end. A frequency analysis revealed that the number of transitions in this data set ranged from 0 to 4. "0 transitions" corresponded to either a flat negative or a flat positive profile, so I coded the former as 0, and the latter as 5. The range of numbers of affect transitions detected in the cases formed the descriptions of the three remaining profile types. The descriptions of the six profile types are presented in Table 8.7.

TABLE 8.7

Coding of the MAPs Student Profiles (Phase 2)

Code	Profile Description
0	Flat negative (e.g., 3-3-3-4-2-4) [or negative, except at the end of the lesson, e.g., 3-2-2-2-3-1]
1	One transition of affect other than at the end of the lesson.
2	Two transitions of affect other than at the end of the lesson.　　2 　　4　　3　　1 1　3　　2　　4　　3　　1
3	Three transitions of affect other than at the end of the lesson.
4	Four transitions of affect other than at the end of the lesson.
5	Flat positive (e.g., 1-1-1-1-1-1) [or positive, except at the end of the lesson, e.g., 1-1-1-1-1-3]

Finally, the frequency of occurrence of each profile type in the high- and low-motivation groups was computed. In order to make the frequencies comparable across the groups, since they were unequal in size, I computed proportionate frequency rates (I divided the raw frequencies by the number of responses in each group and multiplied them by 100).

8.3.3 Results and discussion

Table 8.8 indicates the frequency rates of the affect profile types found across all the probes that were administered by the teachers during lessons in high- and low-motivation groups (6 in all learner groups, except for Ms Lee in the low-motivation group, who only signaled 4). L2 acquisition in a classroom requires deep sustained learning, which, according to PSI, means having the ability to (a) tolerate periods of reduced positive affect or even negative affect to accept difficult learning challenges, and (b) recover positive affect to implement difficult intentions. Therefore, I expected the incidence of flat affect profiles (either positive or negative) to be higher in the low-motivation group than in the high-motivation group. The results to some extent confirm this prediction but the difference is small. There were 25.4% flat profiles in the low-motivation group versus 19.6% in the high-motivation one.

TABLE 8.8

Frequency of Affect Profile Types in High- and Low-Motivation Groups

	Frequency (Proportionate Rate %)
High-Motivation Groups [a]	
Flat negative (−)	5.2
One affect transition	17.5
Two affect transitions	38.1
Three affect transitions	19.6
Four affect transitions	4.1
Flat positive (+)	14.4
Low-Motivation Groups [b]	
Flat negative (−)	22.8
One affect transition [c]	36.0
Two affect transitions [c]	32.0
Three affect transitions [c]	10.7
Four affect transitions [c]	5.3
Flat positive (+)	2.6

Notes. [a]Valid responses = 97. [b]Valid responses = 114. [c]Valid responses = 75 (Ms Lee's group was taken out of this analysis)

As can be seen in Table 8.8, flat positive profiles are almost five times more frequent than negative ones in the high-motivation groups whereas the situation is reversed (even more dramatically) in the low-motivation groups. There, the constantly negative profiles are almost ten times more frequent than the positive ones, with a frequency rate meaning that nearly a quarter of the students I observed in the low-motivation groups most likely continued to have feelings colored by a negative emotional tone throughout their English lesson. Moreover, there were more than four times as many flat negative profiles among students belonging to low-motivation learner groups than among students belonging to high-motivation ones. These findings are in line with the link found by Skinner and Belmont (1993) between negative emotions and low engagement behavior, and positive emotions and high engagement.

Kuhl's PSI theory may go some way toward explaining the lower incidence of negative profiles in high-motivation groups, even though all six groups were heterogeneous groups in terms of ability, and all were studying English as a required course. As we saw in Section 8.2, students in the high-motivation classes were exposed to teaching that included some creative activities and more opportunities to experience success; according to PSI theory, this strengthens a person's ability to downregulate negative affect. Creative activities can restore positive affect by encouraging the contemplation of various possibilities for action, while experiences of success, by being available in memory and becoming part of one's value system can become a source of positive affect for the future.

Still according to PSI theory, I expected low-motivation groups to have more difficulty in moving from one affective state to another, therefore I expected a higher incidence of profiles with low transition numbers (particularly "one transition" and "two transitions," i.e., from negative to positive, and from positive back to negative) than in the high-motivation group. Conversely, I anticipated a higher incidence of profiles with higher transition numbers (particularly "two" and "three transitions", in view of the short time between the probes) in the high-motivation group. Indeed, "one affect transition" profiles occurred more than twice as often in the low-motivation group than in the high-motivation one, whereas "three affect transition" profiles were almost twice as frequent among high-motivation students as they were among low-motivation students. The number of two-transition profiles were similar in both groups. However, it is difficult to draw any conclusion from the transition profiles results. They seem to suggest that high-motivation teachers were more successful at modulating students' affect during lessons, probably because they used a greater variety of activities. Further research of a more controlled design is needed since the MAP measures, as well as the profiling system used here, were very crude.

The MAPs were an attempt to introduce a different way of examining the affective aspect of motivation as a process in the L2 classroom. The instrument and procedure were novel in their approach and not without flaws, most notably in terms of accuracy of measurement. However, the MAP instrument was designed based on a small qualitative study and made use of voices similar to those of the participants. Moreover, the probes were administered in real time, rather than retrospectively, which adds ecological validity to the results.

8.4 CONCLUSION

In this phase of the study, I compared three learner groups with high levels of motivated behavior to three learner groups with low levels of motivated behavior, by carrying out further in-depth analyses of motivation-related factors, with a focus on the students' perceptions of the motivational qualities of their L2 instructional contexts. I examined students' motivational goals and their awareness of the goals stressed in their L2 classrooms, their understanding of how their L2 teachers care for them in the classroom, and their affect profiles over the course of a lesson.

To uncover and take into account participants' interpretations and understandings of their contexts, the research approach adopted here has made use of mixed quantitative and qualitative methods. Such an approach is increasingly being recommended (e.g., see Dörnyei, in press). Qualitative data was used in two ways: to broaden the scope of investigation (with the "teacher caring" item), and to inform the development of an experience sampling-type instrument specially created for this study, the Metacognitive Awareness Probes (MAPs). The inclusion of this type of data is a novel element in L2 motivational studies, where idiographic profiling of affect during a single L2 lesson (inspired by Kuhl's [2000b] PSI theory) has never been utilized.

The mixed methodology produced a number of findings that complement each other. First, the analysis of the motivational goals survey questionnaire data revealed a small difference in Work Avoidance Orientation, with students in the low-motivation groups being slightly higher in Work Avoidance than those in the high-motivation groups.

Second, the MAPs experience-sampling questionnaire data yielded individual student profiles indicating that constantly negative affect profiles across the duration of a 45-minute lesson were more frequent in the low-motivation than in the high-motivation groups. An explanatory link between these two findings can be found in Kuhl's (2000b) PSI theory. That

is, when students step into the L2 classroom with predominantly negative affect resulting from enduring negative attitudes toward the current L2 course, they shun activities they regard as difficult in order to avoid the negative feelings they know would come with the execution of hard tasks. This is because they have not learned to offset the loss of positive affect originally caused by walking into the L2 classroom, facing a task they dread or dislike, or confronting difficulties.

Finally, according to Kuhl, students can learn to offset the loss of positive affect when teachers, among other things, use creative activities in class. Indeed, qualitative data revealed that the most frequently mentioned reason why students in the high-motivation groups felt their L2 teachers cared about them was that they made English lessons interesting and fun, which can include creative activities. Moreover, this was corroborated by my own qualitative observational data, which indicated that the teachers in the high-motivation groups privileged teaching English as a means of communication, leading to the use of some creative activities, whereas the teachers in the low-motivation groups seemed to attach more importance to teaching English as a body of knowledge, and used no creative activities.

Although these findings revolve around explaining the "why" of a very small difference in Work Avoidance Orientation between high- and low-motivation groups, the way the pieces of the puzzle fit together indicate that the kind of methodology, and the admittedly somewhat crude instrumentation used here, seem to constitute a promising avenue for investigating L2 motivation in situ.

8.5 SUMMARY

This chapter reported the results of a series of explorations using innovative techniques aimed at comparing three motivated learner groups to three less motivated learner groups. The use of different approaches revealed differences in various measures between the groups:

- Students in the low-motivation groups were slightly higher in Work Avoidance than those in the high-motivation groups.
- Constantly negative emotional profiles across the duration of a 45-minute lesson were more frequent in the low-motivation than in the high-motivation groups.
- The most frequently mentioned reason why students in the high-motivation groups felt their L2 teachers cared about them was that the teachers made English lessons interesting and fun.

- The teachers in the high-motivation groups tended to teach English as a means of communication, whereas the teachers in the low-motivation groups seemed to attach more importance to teaching English as a body of knowledge.

Chapter 9

Conclusion

This classroom-oriented investigation focused on how the motivational instructional practices of L2 teachers and the immediate learning environments and experiences that they create relate to students' L2 motivation and motivated classroom behavior. Phase 1 consisted of the main study, which examined the link between the teachers' motivational teaching practices and their students' language learning motivation. It was a large-scale project involving over 1,300 students and 27 teachers in 20 different schools. Phase 2, which was conducted on a smaller, consisted of a series of exploratory investigations scale using novel research techniques aimed at elaborating on the findings of Phase 1 by exploring differences between three high- and three low-motivation learner groups. In this concluding chapter, I summarize the results of both phases (which were discussed in Chapters 7 and 8) according to their themes: "Motivation and motivational strategies" (Phase 1), and "Differences between high and low-motivation instructional environments and experiences" (Phase 2). Then, I highlight the theoretical significance of the investigation and its pedagogical implications, discuss its limitations, and conclude by suggesting some directions for future research.

9.1 SUMMARY OF THE RESULTS

Motivation and the use of motivational strategies
The main study reported in this thesis took up Gardner and Tremblay's (1994) call to provide empirical evidence in order to justify the claims that had been made in favor of the use of motivational strategies. Indeed, motivational strategies have featured in the literature for well over a decade. However, while these strategies have considerable intuitive appeal and a usually sound theoretical grounding, the current investigation is the first motivational study that has examined the use of teachers' motivational strategies and their overall motivational

practices in relation to their students' L2 course-related motivation and motivated classroom behavior. My main findings in this respect are as follows:

- The most important result of Phase 1, and of the whole study, is that language teachers' motivational practices were related to indicators of students' motivated learning behavior in the classroom (through observations) and to a measure of their motivation to learn the L2 in their current L2 classroom (through a self-report questionnaire). This shows that a teacher's motivational practice is directly related to how the students approach classroom learning.

- A lower but still significant positive relationship between the students' self-reported motivation and their motivated classroom behavior indicated that their appraisal of the language course in general has a bearing on how they approach learning tasks in the course, regardless of their specific attitudes toward the actual tasks. However, the students' self-reported motivation at the learner group level did not contribute uniquely to the variance in the students' motivated behavior in the classroom over and above the strong contribution of the teacher's motivational practice.

In short, the results of the main study showed that the significant positive link that emerged in the current investigation indicates that language teachers can make a real difference in their students' motivational disposition by applying various motivational techniques and strategies.

Differences between high and low-motivation instructional environments and experiences
A growing body of research in educational psychology has been exploring the use of innovative mixed research methods to investigate instructional contexts, with a view to identifying conditions and instructional practices that garner student motivation and engagement in learning activities. It has focused in particular on the investigation of engagement viewed as student motivated behavior that can be indexed not only by behavioral, but also by cognitive and affective indicators (see section 5.1). The design of Phase 2 was influenced by this kind of research, which had shown convincingly that measuring and understanding motivation in learning contexts could provide information that had significant implications for future research and classroom practice. Several interesting insights have been gained in this respect, the most important of which are the following:

- With respect to the students' motivational goals, an unexpected result in view of past research with similar participants was the absence of a salient mastery goal orientation. The students in this study did not seem to consider developing their competence in the L2 as being a major goal. In particular, erratic response patterns

regarding items concerning preference for challenging work, interest in the subject, and not minding making mistakes in order to make progress, suggest that these facets of the construct were not appropriate for this sample. Since the sample was distilled from a large population, it also implies that the imprecise definition of the concept of mastery goal may hinder its smooth transfer across cultures.

- Students in the low-motivation groups were found to be slightly higher in work-avoidant goals. That is, they were more inclined than students in the high-motivation groups to try to get L2-related work done with a minimum of effort, probably in an attempt to cope with the constraints of the South Korean learning environment. The difference was small but statistically significant.

- In both groups, the patterns of the students' perceptions of their classrooms' goal orientations were similar. Both the high- and low-motivation groups perceived that there was a greater emphasis on mastery goals than on performance goals; they believed that their teachers emphasized effort investment and development of competency in the L2 over test scores. The students' perceptions stood in sharp contrast to observation records, which indicated, for instance, that instructional activities in low-motivation groups frequently presented an inadequate level of challenge. This suggests that students may have considered the questionnaire items as indicators of the social environment of the classroom rather than as indicators of the type of achievement goal that is emphasized in their classroom.

- The high- and low-motivation groups' moderate scores on the milieu-related goal orientation scale suggested that, for both groups, goals can emanate to a similar extent from the social context as well as from individuals, and/or that students' relationships with significant others act as an emotional resource on which they can draw during goal striving.

- A qualitative analysis of students' understandings of how their L2 teachers care for them in the classroom provided a useful window into their perceptions of their L2 learning environments. It also proved to be useful in highlighting a major difference between high- and low-motivation groups, which, surprisingly, had little to do with caring but was related to methodology. The most frequently mentioned reason why students in the high-motivation groups felt that their L2 teachers cared about them was that they made English lessons interesting and fun.

- Another major difference, which emerged from a comparison between the teachers' profiles that I derived from the students' qualitative data and those I derived from my own observational data, is that the lessons in the high-motivation group reflect the

teachers' orientation toward teaching English as a means of communication first, and as a body of knowledge second. In contrast, in the low-motivation group, the teachers' priorities, as evidenced in their teaching, seem to be reversed. My own qualitative observational data indicated that the teachers in the high-motivation groups favored teaching English as a means of communication, leading to the use of some creative activities, whereas the teachers in the low-motivation groups seemed to attach more importance to teaching English as a body of knowledge, and used no creative activities. Moreover, the approach used by teachers in the low-motivation groups suggests to the students that studying the L2 is a drudgery from which they need to be relieved. For instance, because their lessons are inherently more boredom-inducing for the majority of their students, they have to rely constantly on unplanned games, jokes, teacher narratives, or even giving breaks to regain students' attention or cooperation.

- An idiographic analysis of the students' affect profiles over the course of a lesson — affective indicators of their motivation-as-engagement—revealed that students in the low-motivation groups had a higher number of profiles (25.4%) that exhibited the same affective tone throughout the duration of the lesson than students in the high-motivation groups (19.6%). Kuhl's (200b) theory of volitional action stipulates that staying motivated and engaged in activities means being able to (a) tolerate periods of reduced positive affect or negative affect to accept difficult learning challenges, and (b) recover positive affect to implement difficult intentions, with the assistance of the teacher if necessary. Consequently, the fact that more students experienced transitions between positive and negative affect suggests that the teachers in the high-motivation groups may be better at creating opportunities for students to move between affective states. Moreover, teachers in the high-motivation groups may provide assistance in effecting these moves, although it may also be that the students are better at self-regulating their motivational states.

- Constantly negative affect profiles across the duration of a 45-minute lesson were more frequent in the low-motivation than in the high-motivation groups. Nearly a quarter of the students I observed in the low-motivation groups walked into the L2 classroom with negative affect and most likely continued to have feelings colored by a negative emotional tone throughout their English lesson.

- Finally, results from the analysis of the affect profiles suggest that high-motivation teachers were more successful at modulating their students' affect during lessons, probably because they used a greater variety of activities.

In sum, taken together, the results suggest that, in this study, the teachers' motivational practices coexisting with different levels of student motivation were woven into the actual content and processes of L2 instruction and pedagogy in general. In addition, these contents and processes seemed to stem from teachers' and students' beliefs about what counts as learning in the L2 classroom and what is the best way to learn an L2.

9.2 THEORETICAL SIGNIFICANCE

While the L2 motivation literature has indicated the relevance of teachers' use of motivational strategies for promoting motivation in L2 foreign language classrooms, research on L2 motivation and learning has tended to concentrate on intra-individual factors that may influence students' motivation, rather than on factors related to the learning environment. The current study aimed to address this issue by examining how the teachers' motivational teaching practice affected student motivation as manifested in the students' motivated behavior in the classroom, and by exploring some factors that might contribute to creating L2 instructional contexts that are more motivating than others.

The primary research approach involved gathering structured classroom observation data, with an instrument that I designed especially for the purpose of this study, the Motivational Orientation of Language Teaching (MOLT) scheme. This instrument follows the real-time coding principle of Spada and Fröhlich's (1995) COLT scheme while using categories of observable teacher behaviors that are derived from Dörnyei's (2001) motivational strategies framework. The inclusion of structured classroom observation data is a novel element in motivational studies where survey research has been dominant and objective observational data have hardly ever been utilized in past investigations.

The significant positive link that emerged in the main study between the teachers' motivational influence and the students' L2 motivation (their course-related motivation measured by questionnaire, and their motivated classroom behavior) can be seen as particularly strong within the context of L2 motivation research, indicating that the teachers' motivational practices do matter. Even in South Korea, where relatively rigid classroom traditions do not lend themselves readily to the use of motivational strategies, the limited motivational practice that was applied by the participating teachers was associated with a significant difference in student motivation. This is an important finding because this study is the first to provide empirical evidence concerning the concrete classroom-specific impact of motivational strategies used by language teachers.

In the second phase of this research, which was exploratory in nature, the aim was to compare high- and low-motivation learner groups selected from the initial sample in order to uncover the students' interpretations and understandings of the quality of their L2 instructional contexts in relation to their motivation and motivated classroom behavior. A multiple method research approach was adopted, which included gathering quantitative and qualitative data using three new instruments that were specifically designed for this study. Such an approach is increasingly being recommended in the literature (e.g., see Dörnyei, in press). Qualitative data were used in two ways here: to broaden the scope of investigation (with the "teacher caring" item), and to inform the development of an experience sampling-type instrument specially created for this study, the Metacognitive Awareness Probes (MAPs). In addition, the idiographic type analysis that was carried out on the affect profiles built from the real-time probes (inspired by Kuhl's [2000b] PSI theory) constituted an innovative attempt to capture an aspect of L2 motivation as an individual process nested within a group.

Relatively little research has addressed students' L2 motivation-as-engagement processes in relation to their affect, and none has attempted to investigate students' affect as lessons unfold. The new instruments that I designed, and their concomitant methods—observation and experience-sampling, cumulatively record the behavioral and the affective dimensions of action in the natural classroom setting. As a result, I believe that they begin to address the development of adequate methodologies for the study of L2 motivation from a process-oriented viewpoint. Although previous studies have usually examined general reports of motivation in L2 contexts, and have been conducted via surveys or in quasi-experimental settings or special tasks, they have not addressed the complex relationships between instruction and motivation, as this study has attempted to do.

9.3 PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The results have far-reaching practical pedagogical implications since they confirm the belief held by many educational experts that student motivation is related to the teacher's motivational practice.

The obvious implication of this research would be to provide teachers with training to teach in a motivating way; this would involve not merely giving them a "bag of tricks" in the form of a few motivational strategies, but also embedding these in a more generally motivating L2 teaching approach to take into consideration the students' desire for more interesting lessons. Second, since work-avoidant goals are known negative predictors of

achievement, tackling work-avoidance might be a useful starting point to improve students' L2 motivation and achievement, particularly since careful design and management of L2 activities can be effective in making it more difficult for students to complete work with a minimum of effort. Teaching materials can play a supportive role here if students' materials contain genuinely motivating features, and teachers' guides include practical examples of motivating ways to use the said materials.

The real question to answer now is whether teachers would benefit from being specifically trained in the use of motivational strategies as part of pre-service or in-service teacher education programs. The study does not provide any data concerning the teachability of motivational strategies, and it may not be a straightforward issue to transfer knowledge of these strategies into motivating practices. Yet, given that student demotivation is a major problem in educational settings worldwide, finding ways to raise teachers' awareness of their motivating practices and to train them in using skills that can help them to motivate learners should be a prominent methodological concern. By establishing a link between teacher behaviors and student motivation, this study provides a first step toward putting motivational issues on the teacher education agenda. In addition, Dörnyei's (2001a) taxonomy of motivational strategies and the corresponding MOLT scheme that was tested in this study offer relevant course contents, as well as a useable observation instrument for devising and assessing motivational training modules.

The development of a theoretically sound and empirically tested teacher education module that focuses on the teacher's motivational practice would be an important step forward in making language education more effective. The results presented here show that teaching the curriculum in a motivating manner is a realistic possibility: The teachers in this study had received no explicit motivational training, and were by no means "motivational wizards" working in a motivationally conducive environment. Yet, the elements of a motivational teaching practice that they managed to implement in their classes resulted in tangible positive changes in their students' overall motivational disposition and concrete classroom behavior. It does not seem unreasonable to speculate that this positive effect might be further amplified if teachers were to apply motivational strategies systematically and in a context-appropriate manner.

9.4 LIMITATIONS

This study has several limitations. First, it must be noted that the Korean context where this research was conducted displays two specific characteristics. First, the compulsory L2 taught in schools is English, the current world language. Second, the majority of students who are not motivated do not usually actively disrupt lessons and prevent the teachers from teaching the other students who want to work. Consequently, it is not quite clear how generalizable the findings are to other settings where a lack of motivation is manifested in a more aggressive way, and to classrooms where the L2 is not English.

Second, as I was the sole researcher/observer, the reliability of the observations can be questioned. For instance, in the main study, I produced both the classroom observational data and the post-hoc teacher evaluation, which raises the question as to whether the correlation between the two can be seen as a reliability check. It would therefore be preferable to use a minimum of two researchers/observers in similar studies in the future.

Third, I must stress the tentative nature of the new instruments and analytical procedures used in the second phase of this investigation. These were specifically developed for this research and the instruments (i.e., the Motivational Goals questionnaire and the MAPs experience-sampling questionnaire) were not piloted. The second phase of this research therefore needs to be viewed as exploratory. At any rate, even though it was not well integrated with the main study, its results are certainly interesting enough to serve as the basis for further quantitative or qualitative studies involving larger samples from a wider range of contexts.

9.5 DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Further research is clearly needed into the mechanisms by which teachers influence student motivation and into the kinds of instructional practices and interpersonal relationships that support it. In particular, I can identify five research directions for future investigations into the full potential of integrating motivational and instructional practices.

First, it would be useful to confirm that the increase in students' motivated behavior resulting from teachers' motivational practices, in turn, translates into improved learning. There has been ample evidence in the literature that student motivation and learning achievement are correlated (see, e.g. Dörnyei, 2005), but it would be important to specify the optimum conditions for the realization of this link.

Second, hardly any research has been done in the past to examine the extent to which motivational strategies are culture-specific (for a recent exception, see Cheng & Dörnyei, in press). It would be useful to know which aspects of a motivational teaching practice are freely transferable across learning situations.

Third, in line with the considerations outlined in the previous section, future research is needed to assess the "teachability" of motivational strategies in general, and to explore the specific ways by which this can be achieved in particular. One key question here is whether motivational teacher behaviors can be modified through focused intervention, or whether what is needed is a broader awareness-raising program that facilitates teachers' motivational thinking in general. It would also be useful to investigate the relationship between (a) the "teachability" of motivational L2 strategies, (b) motivational L2 teaching in general, and (c) the teachers' own motivation to teach.

Fourth, it would be important to examine the relationship between motivational strategy use and good teaching. It seems obvious that motivational strategies need to be accompanied by quality instruction in order for the overall process to be effective; yet it is not clear which aspects of instructional shortcomings (e.g., lack of clear explanations) have the potential to cancel the positive impact of motivational teaching, and which aspects of motivational teaching can compensate for instructional shortcomings.

Finally, because the results of this study concerning the relationship between the teachers' motivational teaching practices and students' motivation and motivated behavior are so robust, and because this study only examined motivational teaching practice as a whole without focusing on specific individual motivational strategies, further research is warranted in more narrowly defined motivational strategy domains.

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APPENDIX A: Research sites (Phase 1 and Phase 2)

Site	Location	Genders in learner groups	Type of funding	Catchment area indicator[a]	
				General high school	Vocational high school
				%	%
1	city	boys	local government	85	15
2	town (island)	mixed	local government	92	8
3	city (island)	boys or girls	local government	63	37
4	city	boys	local government	79	21
5*	city	boys	local government	81	19
6*	town	boys	local government	79	21
7*	university campus	mixed	central government	77	23
8*	rural	mixed	local government	80	20
9	city (island)	boys or girls	local government	63	37
10	city	girls	local government	71	29
11	city outskirts	girls	private	76	24
12*	city	girls	local government	76	24
13	city	girls	local government	80	20
14	rural	boys	local government	65	35
15	town	boys	local government	84	16
16	city	boys	local government	75	25
17	Busan[b] suburbs	mixed	local government	67	33
18*	Busan[b] centre	girls	local government	60	40
19	rural (island)	mixed	local government	89	11
20	town (island)	boys	local government	86	14

Notes. * Site also used in Phase 2. [a] Percentages represent the proportion of leavers in the district of the school catchment area bound for either general or vocational high school. The higher the proportion of middle school leavers headed for general high schools, the more academically oriented the students and their families are likely to be, and/or the more likely they are to be able to afford after-school crammers and/or private tutors. Figures for each school are not released to the general public. [b] Metropolitan area (the largest after the capital Seoul).

Teacher	Sex	Age	Experience (Years)	Award for good teaching	Self-reported proficiency in English	B.A.: Major Subject	M.A. in English Education
1A	F	28	4	–	High Int[c]	English Education	In progress
1B	M	29	4	–	High Int[c]	English Education	In progress
2A	F	23	2	–	Low Int[b]	English Education	–
3A	F	23	1	–	High Int[c]	English Education	–
3B	M	31	2	–	Advanced	English Language & Literature	Yes (USA)
4A	F	37	13	–	Low Int[b]	English Education	In progress
5A[a]	F	40	15	–	High Int[c]	German Education	–
5B	F	27	6	–	Advanced	English Education	–
6A[a]	F	36	14	–	Low Int[b]	English Language & Literature	In progress
7A[a]	F	37	12	–	Advanced	English Education	Yes
8A[a]	F	26	5	–	High Int[c]	English Education	In progress
9A	F	23	2	2002	High Int[c]	English Education	–
10A	F	32	8	–	Advanced	English Language & Literature	–
11A	F	40	17	–	Low Int[b]	English Education	–
11B	F	39	17	–	Advanced	English Education	–
12A	M	40	14	1992	Advanced	English Education	In progress
12B[a]	F	40	18	2000	High Int[c]	English Education	Yes
13A	F	26	2	–	Low Int[b]	English Education	–
13B	F	25	2	–	Low Int[b]	English Education	–
14A	F	26	2	–	High Int[c]	Education	In progress
15A	F	23	2	2002	Low Int[b]	English Education	–
16A	F	?	?	–	Advanced	?	Yes (USA)
17A	F	40	17	–	High Int[c]	English Education	In progress
18A[a]	F	42	20	–	Advanced	English Education	–
19A	F	23	1	–	Low Int[b]	English Education	–
20A	F	24	1	–	High Int[c]	English Education	–
20B	M	44	19	Once	High Int[c]	English Education	Yes

Notes. [a]Teacher also used in Phase 2. [b]Low Int = Lower Intermediate. [c]High Int = Higher Intermediate. ? = Missing data

APPENDIX C: Extract from the Motivational Orientation of Language Teaching (MOLT) Observation Schedule

School: Teacher: Learner group: Date:

Minutes	Activities	Common Practice					Teacher's Motivational Practice — Generating, Maintaining, and Protecting Situation-Specific Task Motivation (Motivational Teacher Discourse)										Activity Design									Encouraging Positive Retrospective Self-Evaluation					Learners' Motivated Behavior — Attention			Participation				Volunteering	
		Ss must listen passively to one or a few persons	Choral work	Display questions	INDIVIDUAL student speaking	INDIVIDUAL seat work	Social chat	Signposting	Establishing relevance	Promoting integrative values	Promoting instrumental values	Arousing curiosity or attention	Scaffolding	Promoting cooperation	Promoting autonomy	Referential questions	PAIR work/ presentation	GROUP work/ presentation	+ tangible reward	+ personalization	+ creative/ interesting/ fantasy/	+ intellectual challenge	+ tangible task product	+ individual competition	+ team competition	Neutral feedback session	Process feedback session	Elicitation of self/peer correction session	Effective praise	Class applause	1/3 to 1/2	2/3 or more	S/Ss are called on by T	Few	1/3 to 1/2	2/3 or more	S/Ss are called on by T	S/Ss need encouragement to volunteer	S/Ss volunteer readily
1																																							
2																																							
3																																							
4																																							
5																																							

APPENDIX D: RESULTS FROM PHASE 1

D1 Student Motivational State Questionnaire (Phase 1): Reliability, and Descriptive Statistics

Subscales	Mean	SD
Attitudes Toward the Course (9 items, Cronbach Alpha: .85)		
• I wish we had more English lessons at school this semester.	3.09	1.48
• I like English lessons this semester.	3.93	1.33
• English is one of my favorite subjects at school this semester.	3.42	1.62
• When the English lesson ends, I often wish it could continue.	2.93	1.38
• I want to work hard in English lessons to make my teacher happy.	3.93	1.42
• I enjoy my English lessons this semester because what we do is neither too hard nor too easy.	3.60	1.38
• I would rather spend time on subjects other than English. (REVERSED)	3.72	1.34
• Learning English at school is a burden for me this semester. (REVERSED)	4.65	1.29
• In English lessons this semester, we are learning things that will be useful in the future.	3.98	1.30
Linguistic Self-Confidence (8 items; Cronbach Alpha: .80)		
• I feel I am making progress in English this semester.	3.76	1.39
• I believe I will receive good grades in English this semester.	3.64	1.47
• I often experience a feeling of success in my English lessons this semester.	3.48	1.34
• I am sure that one day I will be able to speak English.	4.47	1.34
• In English lessons this semester, I usually understand what to do and how to do it.	3.45	1.18
• This semester, I think I am good at learning English.	3.87	1.27
• I am worried about my ability to do well in English this semester. (REVERSED)	3.06	1.44
• I often volunteer to do speaking presentations in English lessons.	2.52	1.33
L2 Classroom-Use Anxiety (3 items; Cronbach Alpha: .63)		
• I get very worried if I make mistakes during English lessons this semester.	3.56	1.53
• I am afraid that my classmates will laugh at me when I have to speak in English lessons.	3.26	1.62
• I feel more nervous in English class this semester than in my other classes.	3.31	1.42

D2. Post-Lesson Evaluation of the Teacher: Descriptive Statistics

Variable	M	SD
Competent L2 user ←→ Incompetent L2 user	4.65	1.34
Focused/Task-oriented ←→ Unfocused/wastes time	5.35	1.31
Clear ←→ Confusing	4.93	1.47
Increases students' expectancy of success ←→ Increases students' expectancy of failure	4..68	1.25
Kind, caring, creates a pleasant atmosphere ←→ Unkind, uncaring, creates an unpleasant atmosphere	5.15	1.10
Radiates enthusiasm ←→ Unenthusiastic	4.93	1.47
Humorous, light-hearted style ←→ Dry style	4.43	1.52
Encouraging ←→ Not encouraging	4.35	1.19
Creative, takes risks ←→ Uncreative, does not take risks	3.45	1.95

D3. Descriptive Statistics of the Teachers' Use of 25 Motivational Strategies

Motivational strategy	M	SD	Range (% of lesson time)	
			Min.	Max.
Signposting	.53	.93	0	4
Social chat	1.03	1.56	0	6
Stating the communicative purpose/utility of activity	.43	.84	0	3
Establishing relevance	3.78	3.57	0	11
Promoting integrative values	.03	.16	0	1
Promoting instrumental values	.05	.22	0	1
Arousing curiosity or attention	1.40	2.47	0	8
Scaffolding	1.05	1.74	0	8
Promoting cooperation	.40	.74	0	3
Promoting autonomy	.62	1.37	0	7
Referential questions	2.38	1.98	0	7
Group work	2.65	5.22	0	25
Pair work	3.15	4.17	0	14
+ Tangible reward	1.65	2.76	0	10
+ Personalization	2.33	4.07	0	18
+ Element of interest, creativity, fantasy	3.42	5.46	0	19
+ Intellectual challenge	1.67	3.03	0	10
+ Tangible task product	2.10	4.47	0	18
+ Individual competition	1.22	4.07	0	21
+ Team competition	1.37	3.81	0	17
Neutral feedback	6.18	5.87	0	24
Process feedback session	1.68	2.01	0	7
Elicitation of self/peer correction	.42	1.04	0	5
Effective praise	.30	1.02	0	5
Class applause	1.08	2.18	0	10

D4. Principal Component Analysis of the Student Motivational State Questionnaire data

	Factor Loadings
Linguistic self-confidence	.92
Attitudes towards the course	.87
L2 classroom-use anxiety	−.46

D5. Students' Motivation and Motivated Behavior: Ranking of the 40 Learner Groups

Motivation Index	Teacher ID (Learner Group ID)	Learner Group Type	Selection Decision
.97	18A (2-9)	High motivation	Phase 2
.86	5A (1-8)	High motivation	Phase 2
.77	8A (1-1)	High motivation	Phase 2
.62	14A (1-2)	High motivation	
.56	3A (2-6)	High motivation	
.55	16A (1-7)	High motivation	
.52	2A (1-2)	High motivation	
.50	15A (2-5)	High motivation	
.48	11A (1-7)		
.45	16A (1-8)		
.44	19A (1-1)		
.42	1B (1-8)		
.39	4A (1-6)		
.36	17A (3T)		
.34	3B (1-2)		
.32	11B (2-2)		
.27	1A (2-1)		
.25	14A (2-1)		
.21	10A (2-1)		
.18	1B (1-7)		
.16	10A (2-2)		
.13	9A (1-1)		
.11	13B (2-4)		
.09	15A (2-4)	Low motivation	
.09	6A (1-3)	Low motivation	Phase 2
.06	9A (1-3)	Low motivation	
.04	19A (2-1)	Low motivation	
-.02	1A (2-5)	Low motivation	
-.03	2A (1-1)	Low motivation	
-.04	12A (2-9)	Low motivation	
-.08	20B (3-3)	Low motivation	
-.09	13A (2-2)	Low motivation	
-.12	12B (2-2)	Low motivation	Phase 2
-.15	17A (3B)	Low motivation	
-.20	7A (2-6)	Low motivation	
-.21	7A (2-2)	Low motivation	Phase 2
-.25	4A (1-9)	Low motivation	
-.33	5B (2-2)	Low motivation	
-.38	20A (1-1)	Low motivation	
-.39	6A (1-2)	Low motivation	

APPENDIX E

South Korean Middle and High School Students' Motivation in the EFL Subject Domain (Extracted from Bong, 2001)

	Middle school				High school				
	Boys (n = 109)		Girls (n = 120)		Boys (n = 103)		Girls (n = 92)		
Motivation construct	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	α
Self-efficacy									
"I can master even the hardest material in English if I try."									
"I can do almost all the work in English if I don't give up."									
"I'm certain that I can do an excellent job on the problems and tasks assigned for English class."									
"I know that I will be able to learn the material for English class."									
"I'm confident that I will receive a good grade in English this semester."									
	3.37	.89	3.43	.98	3.45	1.04	3.15	.96	.90
Task value									
"I think what I learn in English class is important."									
"I think English is a useful subject."									
"I find English interesting."									
	3.58	.94	3.71	.92	3.52	1.02	3.37	.80	.75
Mastery goal									
"I like problems and tasks that I can learn from during English class, even if I make a lot of mistakes."									
"The main reason why I study English is because I like it."									
"In English, I like problems and materials the best that really make me think."									
	3.20	.99	3.30	1.10	3.03	1.02	2.80	.93	.81
Performance-approach goal									
"I feel good if I'm the only person who can answer the teacher's question in English class."									
"I would like to show my English teacher that I am smarter than the other students."									
"I feel successful in English when I get better grades than others."									
	3.21	.89	3.21	1.09	2.91	1.06	2.81	1.11	.76
Performance-avoidance goal									
"The reason I study English is so the teacher doesn't think that I know less than others in class."									
"One of my main goals in English class is to avoid looking like I'm stupid or I do worse than others in my class."									
"I worry about doing worse than the other students in my English class."									
	2.80	.89	2.53	.99	2.42	.92	2.47	.93	.73

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ENGLISH LESSONS AND ME

PURPOSE

I am researching how we could make learning English more interesting for Korean 1st and 2nd grade middle school students. To do this, I need to find out how you *truly* feel about learning English *at this school*, *this semester* (not about learning English in general). The questionnaire is anonymous (do not write your name on the paper), so, please, *give honest answers*. Your teachers will never see your answers.

INSTRUCTIONS

Please, read the questions carefully (your English teacher will read them aloud to you, too), then check ONE box (the box that *best* describes how you feel).
There are no good or bad answers—I am only interested in your personal feelings.

EXAMPLE

"I like kimchi"

–					+
–	–			+	+
–	–	–	+	+	+
Not at all true	not true	Not really true	somewhat true	true	Very true

Now, listen and read the sentences below. Then, check ONE box that best describes how you feel.

#	Item	− − −	− −	−		+	+ +	+ + +
1	This semester, I think I am good at learning English							
2	I want to work hard in English lessons to make my teacher happy.							
3	I feel good when I have to speak English in class in front of my classmates **[Reverse-Code]**							
4	During English lessons, when I worry about whether I can do well or not, I try to relax, or I try positive thinking or self-encouragement.							
5	I like English lessons this semester							
6	I feel more nervous in English class this semester than in my other classes							
7	When I am bored during an English lesson, I try to find my own way of making it interesting in my head.							
8	I enjoy my English lessons this semester because what we do is neither too hard nor too easy.							
9	I am afraid that my classmates will laugh at me when I have to speak in English lessons							
10	Learning English at school is a burden for me this semester **[Reverse-Code]**							
11	I often volunteer to do speaking presentations in English lessons							
12	I wish we had more English lessons at school this semester							
13	When I realise that I am not concentrating during English lessons, I quickly tell myself to concentrate again if I want to get a good grade in the English tests.							
14	I feel I am making progress in English this semester							
15	I would rather spend time on subjects other than English **[Reverse-Code]**							
16	In English lessons this semester, I usually understand what to do and how to do it							
17	I am worried about my ability to do well in English this semester **[Reverse-Code]**							
18	English is one of my favourite subjects at school this semester							
19	I get very worried if I make mistakes during English lessons this semester							
20	I often experience a feeling of success in my English lessons this semester							
21	In English lessons, I ignore classmates or things that might distract me because I want to pay attention to the teacher or to my work.							
22	When the English lesson ends, I often wish it could continue							
23	I believe I will receive good grades in English this semester							
24	In English lessons this semester, we are learning things that will be useful in the future							
25	I am sure that one day I will be able to speak English							
26	I avoid saying things that can hurt other people's feelings							
27	I admit any wrongdoing of mine openly and I am ready to accept the potential negative consequences							
28	I am willing to help someone when they ask a favour of me							

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이번 학기에 우리 학교에서 영어를 배우는 것을 여러분은 어떻게 느끼십니까

목 적

저는 한국의 중학교 1 학년과 2 학년 학생들에게 영어를 배우는 일을 더욱 재미 있게 만들 수 있는 방법에 대하여 조사를 하고 있습니다. 이를 위해서, **이번 학기에 이 학교에서** 영어를 배우는 데 대하여(다른 데에서 영어를 배우는 일이 아님) 여러분이 **진정으로** 어떻게 느끼는지를 알아내려고 합니다. 다음 질문들은 대답하는 사람의 이름을 쓰지 않으므로, **정직하게 대답해 주시기 바랍니다**. 여러분의 선생님들이 결코 여러분의 답안지를 보는 일도 없을 것입니다.

일러 두기
주의하여 다음 질문들을 읽어 보십시오(여러분의 영어 선생님이 또한 큰 소리로 그 질문들을 여러분에게 읽어 주실 것입니다). 그리고 나서 여러분이 어떻게 느끼는지에 대해 **가장 잘** 드러내고 있는 답변 상자를 **하나** 골라 표시를 해 주십시오.

옳은 답변도 없고 틀린 답변도 없습니다. 조사자는 다만 여러분이 개인적으로 느끼는 바에만 관심이 있습니다.

〈예〉
"나는 김치를 좋아한다"

− − −	− −	−		+	+ +	+ + +
□	□	□		□	□	□
결코 그렇지 않다	아니다	그다지 그런 건 아니다		어느 정도 그렇다	사실이다	절대적으로 그렇다

이제 다음 문장들을 듣고 나서 읽어 보십시오. 그리고 나서 여러분이 어떻게 느끼는지를 가장 잘 드러내고 있는 상자를 하나 골라 표시를 해 주십시오

.

결코 그렇지 않다	아니다	그다지 그런 건 아니다		어느 정도 그렇다	사실이다	절대적으로 그렇다		
─ ─ ─	─ ─	─		+	+ +		+ + +	
						+	+ +	+ + +

		결코 그렇지 않다 ─ ─ ─	아니다 ─ ─	그다지 그런 건 아니다 ─		어느 정도 그렇다 +	사실이다 ++	절대적으로 그렇다 +++
1	이번 학기에 영어를 배우는 데 잘 한다고 생각한다.							
2	우리 영어 선생님을 기쁘게 해 드리기 위해 영어를 열심히 하고 싶다.							
3	학급 전체를 상대로 하여 친구들 앞에서 영어로 말해야 될 경우 기분이 좋다.							
4	영어 수업시간 동안 제대로 잘 해낼 수 있을지 걱정될 경우에, 나는 스스로 편안히 느긋한 마음을 가지려고 하거나, 긍정적으로 생각을 하려고 하거나, 또는 잘 해낼 수 있다고 스스로를 다짐하며 격려한다.							
5	이번 학기에 영어 수업을 좋아한다.							
6	이번 학기에 영어 수업이 다른 수업들보다도 더욱 긴장이 된다.							
7	영어 수업시간 동안에 싫증이 날 경우에, 머리 속으로 영어 수업을 재미있게 해 주는 내 스스로의 방식을 찾아내려고 애쓴다.							
8	이번 학기에 영어 수업이 너무 어렵지도 쉽지도 않기 때문에 즐겁다.							
9	내가 영어 수업에서 말을 해야 될 경우에 내 학급 친구들이 웃을까 봐 두렵다.							
10	이번 학기에 우리 학교에서 영어를 배우는 것이 부담스럽다.							
11	이번 학기에 영어 수업에서 종종 스스로 자원하여 말하기 발표를 한다.							
12	이번 학기에 우리 학교에 영어 수업이 더 많이 있었으면 좋겠다.							
13	영어 수업시간 동안에 내가 집중하지 않고 있음을 깨달을 경우, 곧장 다시 집중하기 위해서 '영어 시험에서 좋은 점수를 받고 싶은지' 스스로에게 다짐하여 묻곤 한다.							
14	이번 학기에 영어가 점점 향상되고 있다고 느낀다.							
15	영어보다는 다른 과목들에다 시간을 쏟고 싶다.							
16	이번 학기에 영어 수업에서 대체로 해야 할 것과 하는 방법들을 잘 알고 있다.							
17	이번 학기에 영어를 잘 해낼 수 있는지 내 능력에 대해 걱정스럽다.							
18	이번 학기에 우리 학교에서 영어는 내가 좋아하는 과목 중 하나이다.							
19	이번 학기에 영어 수업에서 실수를 할까 봐 퍽 걱정스럽다.							
20	이번 학기에 나는 영어 수업에서 종종 뭔가 해내고 있다는 성취감을 느낀다.							
21	영어 수업에서 나는 선생님한테 또는 내 공부에 관심 쏟지 못하게 방해하는 것들이나 급우들을 무시해 버린다.							
22	영어 수업이 끝날 때 종종 더 계속됐으면 좋겠다고 느낀다.							
23	이번 학기에 영어에서 좋은 점수를 받을 것이라고 믿는다.							
24	이번 학기에 장래에 도움이 될 것들을 영어 수업에서 배우고 있다.							
25	언젠가 나는 영어로 말할 수 있게 될 것이라고 확신한다.							
26	나는 남의 감정을 상하게 할 만한 말은 피하여 하지 않는다.							
27	나는 숨김없이 나의 잘못된 행동을 인정하며 있을 수 있는 부정적인 결과를 어떤 것이든지 받아들이려고 한다.							
28	남들이 도와주기를 요청할 때 나는 기꺼이 남을 도와 준다.							

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ENGLISH LESSONS AND ME

PURPOSE

I am researching how we could make learning English more interesting for Korean 1st and 2nd grade middle school students. To do this, I need to find out how you *truly* feel about learning English *at this school*, *this semester* (not about learning English in general). The questionnaire is anonymous (do not write your name on the paper), so, please, *give honest answers*. Your teachers will never see your answers.

INSTRUCTIONS

Please, read the questions carefully (your English teacher will read them aloud to you, too), then check ONE box (the box that *best* describes how you feel).
There are no good or bad answers—I am only interested in your personal feelings.

EXAMPLE

"I sometimes sleep in English lessons"

–					+
–	–			+	+
–	–	–	+	+	+

| not at all true | not true | not really true | somewhat true | true | very true |

Now, listen and read the sentences below. Then, check ONE box that best describes how you feel.

1. An important reason I do my work in English lessons is because people who are important to me hope that I'll do my best.

2. I feel really good if I'm the only one who can answer the teacher's question in English class.

3. An important reason I do my work in English lessons is because I don't want to disappoint my family and friends.

4. In our English class, only a few students do really well.

5. I like English work best when it really makes me think.

6. I'd like to show my English teacher that I'm smarter than my classmates

7. I do my work in English class because it's important for my future

8. I feel successful in English if I do better than most of the other students.

9. In English lessons, I usually wait for the teacher to give the answers instead of trying to do the work.

10. An important reason I do my work in English lessons is because I want to get better at English.

11. I don't need grades to know whether or not I'm doing well in English.

12. Sometimes, I don't participate in English class because I think I may look stupid if I do.

13. An important reason I do my work in English lessons is because it's interesting.

14. Our English teacher lets certain students know indirectly that they're not doing well in English

15. An important reason I do my English work in lessons is because I have the support (and recognition) of the people who are important to me.

16. Our English teacher believes all students can learn some English.

17. In English lessons, I often copy answers from classmates or self-study books.

18. An important reason I do my English work is to avoid getting into trouble.

19. Our English teacher points out those students who get good grades as an example to all the others.

20. Our English teacher calls on smart students more than on other students.

21. In English lessons, I hope that the teacher will not check whether or not I have done my work.

22. Our English teacher thinks it's very important that students try hard.

23. When working in groups in English lessons, I prefer to let others do most of the work.

24. Our English teacher really wants us to become interested in developing our English skills, not just be interested in getting good test scores

25. I do my work in English class because I don't want my classmates to think I'm dumb.

26. Our English teacher lets us know if we are doing better or worse than other students.

27. I don't mind making a lot of mistakes as long as I can improve my English.

28. Our English teacher thinks it's OK if we make mistakes when we're learning

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이번 학기에 우리 학교에서 영어를 배우는 것을 여러분은 어떻게 느끼십니까

목 적

마리 선생님은 한국의 중학교 1 학년과 2 학년 학생들에게 영어를 배우는 일을 더욱
재미 있게 만들 수 있는 방법에 대하여 조사를 하고 있습니다. 이를 위해서, **이번 학기에
이 학교에서** 영어를 배우는 데 대하여(다른 데에서 영어를 배우는 일이 아님) 여러분이
진정으로 어떻게 느끼는지를 알아내려고 합니다. 다음 질문들은 대답하는 사람의
이름을 쓰지 않으므로, **정직하게 대답해 주시기 바랍니다**. 여러분의 선생님들이 결코
여러분의 답안지를 보는 일도 없을 것입니다.

주의하여 다음 질문들을 읽어 보십시오(여러분의 영어 선생님이 또한 큰 소리로 그
질문들을 여러분에게 읽어 주실 것입니다). 그러고 나서 여러분이 어떻게 느끼는지에
대해 **가장 잘** 드러내고 있는 답변 상자를 **하나** 골라 표시를 해 주십시오. 질문이 무슨
뜻인지 잘 알 수 없으면, 선생님께 설명해 주시도록 요구하십시오.

**옳은 답변도 없고 틀린 답변도 없습니다. 마리 선생님은 다만 여러분이 개인적으로
느끼는 바에만 관심이 있습니다.**

<예>
"나는 가끔 영어 시간에 잔다." → 이것이 여러분에게도 사실입니까?

− − −	− −	−		+	+ +	+ + +
☹☹☹	☹☹	☹		☺	☺☺	☺☺☺
결코 그렇지 않다	아니다	그다지 그런 건 아니다		어느 정도 그렇다	사실이다	절대적으로 그렇다

**이제 다음 문장들을 듣고 나서 읽어 보십시오. 그러고 나서 여러분이 어떻게 느끼는지를 가장 잘 드러내고 있는 상자를
하나 골라 표시를 해 주십시오.**

APPENDIX H: PHASE 2 Teacher Caring sentence completion item

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다음을 채워 넣으십시오. Think of your English lessons this semester, then complete the following sentence (write in the box): "I feel that my English teacher cares about me because…"

나는 우리 영어 선생님이 우리들을 배려해(생각해) 주신다고 느끼는데,
왜냐하면

때문이다.

APPENDIX I: The MAPs Instrument
(Sampler, Answer Sheet, and Coding Rubric)

A	
1. This is fun! 2. I wish this could continue! 3. Interesting! 4. I'm looking forward to this. 5. I want to do better. 6. I wonder what we're going to learn. 7. I want to win/ conquer / master this.	

B	
8. I feel good. 9. I feel good because I did well. 10. I feel good because I learned something.	

C	
11. This is difficult. 12. I don't want to do this because I can't do it. 13. This is tough! 14. I can't understand any of this. 15. This is too much for me. 16. I give up!	

D	
17. This is boring! 18. Thinking about something else 19. Time to go to sleep! 20. I wish time would go faster!	
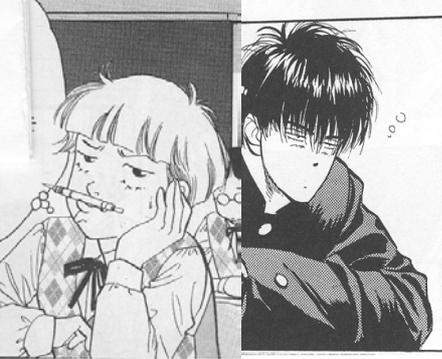
E	
21. Not that again! I'm fed up. 22. I'm sick of studying English. 23. Why do I have to learn English? 24. This sucks! 25. I'm angry.	

F	
26. Trembling. 27. Nervous. 28. I'm worried about my future. 29. What will happen if I mess up? 30. My mind has gone blank. 31. Will I be able to do this well?	

G	
32. It's finally over! 33. I'm relieved nothing bad happened.	

H	
34. I did all this for nothing! 35. I'm disappointed.	

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A		B	
1. 재미있다 *2.* 아쉬움 *3.* 흥미 *4.* 기대된다 *5.* 잘하고 싶다 *6.* 무엇을 배울 지 궁금하다 *7.* 이기고 싶다		*8.* 기분좋다 *9.* 잘해서 기분좋다 *10.* 배운게 있어서 기분이 좋았다	

C		D	
11. 어렵다 *12.* 못해서 하기 싫다 *13.* 힘들다 *14.* 못 알아 듣겠다 *15.* 버겁다 *16.* 포기한다		*17.* 지겹다 *18.* 잡생각 *19.* 자는 시간 *20.* 시간이 빨리 갔으면	

E		F	
21. 지긋지긋하다 *22.* 영어 공부하기 짜증난다 *23.* 영어를 왜 배울까? *24.* 재수없다 *25.* 화난다		*26.* 떨린다 *27.* 긴장된다 *28.* 미래가 생각된다 *29.* 못하면 어쩌지? *30.* 눈앞이 깜깜 *31.* 잘 할 수 있을까?	

G		H	
32. 드디어 끝났다 *33.* 별일 없이 무사히 넘겨 다행이다		*34.* 허무 *35.* 실망하다	
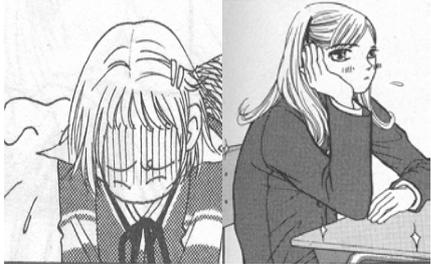
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영어 수업과 과제에 대해 어떻게 생각하세요?

Right now, how are you feeling about what you are doing in your English lesson? Choose the picture that best describes how you feel, and write its letter where the arrow is pointing.

자신의 생각이나 느낌과 가장 비슷한 그림을 선택하고 그 그림의 알파벳을 쓰세요.

(at the end of the lesson): Can you remember why you felt that way? You can pick a sentence from the choices offered, or write your own reason if you want.

1		
2		
3		
4		
5		
6		

Appendix I (cont.): Rubric for coding MAPs responses

MAPs Sampler Code	Label*	New Code
Positive emotional tone		
(A: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7) (B: 8, 9, 10) (G: 32, 33)	Positive feelings ➢ interested ➢ happy ➢ relaxed	1
Negative emotional tone		
(D: 17, 18, 19, 20)	Boredom	2
(C: 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16) (F: 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31) (H: 34, 35)	Distress Worry Sadness	3
(E: 21, 22, 23, 24, 25)	Anger	4

*Based on Patrick, Skinner, and Connell (1993).

APPENDIX J: Taxonomy of activities (and code numbers) used during classroom observations (adapted from Brown, 2001, p. 134)

	Controlled activities		**Semi-controlled activities**
0.	**Equipment preparation,** Giving out/collecting handouts/materials, Stretching/massage, etc	20.	**Preparation** (preparing for later activity): Students study, e.g., they read text silently and make notes, underline words they do not know, use dictionaries, plan or rehearse in pairs or groups. "Let's memorize" (SS mumble to themselves)
1.	**Managerial:** Roll-call, structuring of lesson and class activities (structure and aims of lesson, general procedures for class interaction and performance, disciplinary action, etc.)		
2.	**Review/Wrap-up**: Teacher-led formal summary of previously taught material, which tests student recall	21.	**Brainstorming**: A special form of preparation for the lesson, like "Setting" (#4) but involves free, undirected contributions by the students and teacher on a given topic
3.	**Warm-up/relaxation**: Songs, chants, jokes, mimes, games and puzzles that do not require free production of language (e.g.,' hangman', bingo, wordsearches), dance.		
4.	**Setting**: Teacher directs attention to the topic by verbal or nonverbal evocation of the context relevant to the lesson by questioning (display questions), miming, using graphics, realia, or audio/video recordings	22.	**Story telling (Fiction) BY STUDENTS**: Can be based on visuals or other stimuli (e.g. a short extract of a famous story, a proverb, etc.).
5.	**Presentation** of new linguistic items	23.	**Text reformulation (writing)**: Students are expected to transform a given text or pass on some information (e,g., note-taking while listening, turning a drama into a narrative, expanding a text message written in telegraphese into full sentences, etc.).
6.	**Exposition to dialogue/narrative**: Reading or listening text presented for passive reception only (students may be asked to "understand" or "guess the meaning").		
7.	**Reading aloud/Repeating after tape or teacher**: Reading or repeating directly from a given text.	24.	**Cued /guided speaking or writing**: Student production of dialogue/writing (sentence level) following cues from cue cards, pictures, miming, metalanguage requesting functional acts, narrative into drama, answering personal referential questions, etc
8.	**Translation**: Teacher or student translating a given text into Korean or into English.		
9.	**Recognition (NON-VERBAL response)**: While or after reading/listening to a text, students are required to select, match, rank, sequence, draw symbols, turn text into visual form, etc.	25.	**Information exchange**: involves two-way communication (as in information gap exercises), when 2 or more students *must* share information to achieve some goal.
10.	**Identification (spoken or written VERBAL response)**: Students picking out and producing/labeling/ identifying eg, a specific target form, function, definition, answers to comprehension questions.		**Free activities**
11.	**Checking**: Teacher going over answers to homework or class work as a whole class activity OR teacher circulates or guides the correction of students' work.	26.	**A propos**: Anecdote, conversation, or other socially oriented interaction/speech by teacher, students, or even visitors, on general real-life topics.
12.	**Content explanation**: e.g., lexical (vocabulary), grammatical, phonological, sociolinguistic, pragmatic	27.	**Games**: requiring free production of language by students (includes Scrabble, 20 Questions,
13.	**Copying**: Students writing down text presented visually.	28.	**Project work** (done in class)
14.	**Recitation (from memory)**: Reciting a previously known or prepared text (in unison or individually	29.	**Extensive reading**: Students get to choose reading material according to interests and level.
15.	**Drill** (writing or speaking): students practise a fixed pattern by responding to a prompt and carrying out substitutions or other mechanical alterations. Typically little meaning attached.	30.	**Drama:** Planned dramatic rendition of a scripted play, skit, story, etc.
		31.	**Role-play**: Free acting out of roles and functions specified to the students before the role-play starts
16.	**Meaningful drill**: Drill activity involving responses with meaningful choices. Regulated sequence and general form of responses. Includes practicing writing skills at sentence level	32.	**Simulation**: Students keep their identity and personality but they are placed in an imaginary situation
17.	**Modelling**: Teacher or selected students demonstrate the procedures to be applied in the lesson segment to follow. Includes brief presentation of language or other content to be incorporated.	33.	**Report:** Oral report of student-prepared exposition on personal experiences, books, project work, without immediate stimulus, and elaborated according to student interests.
18.	**Dictation (**and its **variations):.** Includes writing down a text presented orally verbatim or reconstructing a text from notes (dictocomp), filling in a gapped text while listening, and spelling tests.	34.	**Composition**: free production of a written text (at paragraph level minimum) on a given topic.
19.	**Testing**: Formal testing procedures to evaluate student progress. Includes formative, end-of-lesson test	35.	*Interview/Discussion* **on a specified topic.**

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APPENDIX K: Qualitative data gathered for the construction of the MAPs instrument

Q1. What feelings pop into your head when "English" as a school subject is mentioned?

1. US money (paper money)
2. Tedious (=boring) difficult, punishment, word
3. Irritated, it's difficult
4. Difficult, hate to do it, difficult, boring
5. Interesting
6. Difficult, boring
7. Interesting
8. Interesting, I enjoy it
9. Hate
10. Easy and interesting but I get annoyed when there is a lot to do so I sometimes hate to see anything in English
11. boring, difficult, I hate grammar, I cannot do it
12. (I am wondering whether I should reveal myself…) English, I feel nervous
13. 'English' starcraft, interesting, 'starcraft', hate
14. difficult, interesting
15. I'd like to do it better
16. difficult, albeit interesting
17. foreigners, study abroad, TOEIC, difficult
18. walking like a duck, difficult, boring
19. difficult, 구인희 and 박현선 (teachers' names) are boring
20. interesting, difficult, I can't sleep, exam
21. interesting, more than Math
22. win in a lottery, double win, game, exam
23. exam, interesting
24. burden, difficult, interesting
25. difficult, cannot understand, tedious (=boring).
26. I want to learn, difficult, so-so
27. I'm sick of this.
28. memory game, ohg! >ㅣㅣㅣ< [emoticon for "worried"] , mysterious, complicated
29. up-down (sit down/stand up), difficult
30. nervous (trembling), in order to concentrate

31. English teacher, boring, tough, difficult
32. teacher, boring, difficult, 'headache'
33. good
34. difficult, I hate to study
35. too complicated for me to understand
36. sometimes I like it, some other times I hate it. My heart beats when I am asked to answer a question.
37. very thick, dusty grammar book, long, obstinacy, a lot to do
38. difficult, boring 45 minutes, not interesting
39. difficult, patience, a sleeping time
40. a lynx, a caracal
41. I thought it would be difficult
42. It makes me fall asleep
43. tedious, boring…
44. sleep
45. difficult, interesting but…
46. tedious
47. it reminds me of my homeroom teacher
48. It is so boring. It makes it for me difficult to understand
49. tedious, hard to understand
50. 'Oh~Shit'
51. horrible, hate it, irritating
52. horrible, laborious, a real bother
53. a bit difficult
54. school, exams, foreign country
55. Ohno (An American who won a Gold medal instead of a Korean after an alleged fouling in Salt Lake City in 2002)
56. Not another English lesson!
57. I'd like to eat something. I'm hungry. Good.
58. Good, and I listen with interest as if I'm learning
59. Difficult, I hate listening, I can't understand anything
60. It's a bother and it's difficult
61. I have to learn it
62. A foreign language
63. Why does English exist?
64. Difficult and not very interesting
65. It gives me the creeps
66. interesting, fun, good, very good, the most powerful, happy
67. studying, exams
68. complicated, difficult
69. Good, I don't know, no idea
70. Good
71. Complicated
72. Difficult, complicated, interesting
73. Interesting
74. Interesting, fun, confusing, difficult
75. A major skill which contemporary human beings should not lack
76. I am thinking of my future, how can I communicate with foreigners, can I get a good grade in the CSAT to get into a good university?
77. It's a bother to me
78. It's a bother and it's difficult

Q.2 What's often in your mind just before an English lesson, or just before you begin an activity in English lessons?

1. I'm elevated emotionally before doing a game (I want to win)
2. interesting, trembling (emotionally afraid)
3. at first, tremble (with anxiety)
4. tremble (with anxiety)
5. looking forward to it
6. nervous
7. looking forward to it
8. I have been confident   *quiz [scribbled]*
9. hate
10. happy, excited
11. I hate it, it is good not to do it
12. I hate to do it
13. nervous, get more self-confidence
14. trembling in my heart (with anxiety)
15. trembling, looking forward to it
16. memory game: at first, it seemed difficult
17. I am excited, looking forward to it
18. sincerely I'd like not to do it
19. before the lesson: looking forward to it
20. before the lesson: looking forward to it
21. to see a film
22. it may be interesting, it may be difficult
23. I'd like to do it in a hurry before I do a computer game
24. I really look forward to it because I am confident about my memory
25. At first, it was good for me to do a game
26. e.g., movie, I feel good indeed; e.g., worksheet, so-so… no feeling
27. –
28. before the game, I look forward to it, it may be difficult
29. I'm trembling with anxiety before an exam
30. trembling (=shaking)
31. I felt good while I was playing the game
32. game
33. I thought it was fun before I started the game
34. [game] *[scribbled]* I was interested and looking forward to it
35. listening. I am a bit worried about whether I can understand well…
36. I was faint with dizziness when my teacher said that we would take an English speaking test
37. English word link game, word game with final rhyme: hate it very much, childish, it looked   boring
38. I thought it would be interesting to answer questions rotating group by group
39. trembling (shaking), shameful
40. listen, read and repeat-bothersome to read
41. speed test, strained (tension)
42. game: interesting
43. game: it's hardly fun
44. memorization work → irritation (annoyance)
45. my teacher said we would do a speed test – agitated, flustered
46. English word link (when I was a 1st grader). It may be fun
47. Sentence-link game. Hard to remember

48. To watch a video related to English lesson. It may be interesting to watch a video rather than have a normal lesson
49. word test—hate to do it
50. Before the game – I'm worried about how to treat people who will lose
51. When the teacher asked us to jot down and translate words while watching a video, I thought it was a bit boring
52. not interesting, I'm bored, I'd like to sleep
53. They will make noise again
54. nothing
55. I am very excited
56. It is the beginning of the lesson
57. I should study, I'm sleepy, I'd like to go back home
58. I feel good, joy, interest
59. I'm not thinking of anything
60. I don't think it'll be such fun
61. Although I have to learn it, I'm not interested in it
62. I suppose it'll be fun
63. Oh, I hate to do it so much
64. Nothing special (I am a bit nervous if I have an exam)
65. It is very boring. I don't know why I have to learn English
66. I'd like to learn it
67. I have to learn English very hard
68. I think it is difficult but I am curious about what we're going to learn during the lesson
69. I think about nothing, I am sleepy. I'd like to go back home.
70. It's OK when we do an interesting topic (theme)
71. So-so
72. It should be interesting
73. It was interesting
74. According to emotion of the day, I sometimes look forward to it and some other times I am sleepy.
75. I am wondering which guys are going to make a noise and disrupt the lesson?
76. When I am punished for not doing my homework, I feel "I don't like to be punished" I have to learn very diligently for my future
77. Hate to do it
78. What will I do if it is difficult?

Q.3 What often comes into your mind while you are doing an activity in English lessons?

1. It's interesting
2. It's difficult when I encounter an unknown word
3. It was interesting
4. I hate to do it
5. If I don't know it, it is difficult. If I know it, it is interesting
6. interesting
7. (game) interesting
8. it seemed a bit strange
9. I cannot understand
10. bored…
11. heart beating with anxiety. I'm nervous in case she asks me to perform it.
12. Now I've done it once, I wish she kept calling on me to do it.
13. I'm frightened in case I answer the wrong way

14. difficult—when I take a quiz
15. interesting (game)
16. I had a bad feeling (emotion) because I made a mistake in the middle, but I thought it was interesting
17. I felt blocked, difficulty because I did not know many English words
18. a feeling of being deserted
19. Activity: word quiz—difficult
20. It is interesting to use my ability to apply
21. I was nervous
22. very very interesting, but very difficult, too
23. I enjoy it during the game
24. trembling, excited
25. There was a disconnection in the middle so that I had to start it from the beginning but it got stuck immediately again. I was irritated
26. so-so, interesting, it becomes more interesting bit by bit, so-so, Ah! It's interesting
27. –
28. The game was not that difficult, surprisingly
29. After taking an exam, I think it will be OK if I do better next time
30. I become relaxed (=interested) as I progress
31. it was interesting
32. it was interesting
33. During the activity, it was fun as I expected but sometimes I thought it was so-so (a bit silly) as well as insignifucant
34. It was not that much fun
35. Try in order to understand
36. I made a lot of mistakes because I was too nervous
37. I frowned because I expected it to be boring but it was more fun than I expected
38. I felt good because my friends and I answered a lot
39. speaking test: dizzy; nonsense; interesting
40. When we did not repeat after my teacher when reading, she got angry with us and said something. We started to read aloud, repeating after her. Suddenly, as her voice went funny, all of us imitated her.
41. I became relaxed and had fun during the process
42. I was irritated because my group didn't score
43. interesting. I'd like to win.
44. headache, my mind has gone blank
45. something is missing/lacking, frustrating (nothing is going well as I wish)
46. It was fun
47. It was constructing sentences that gave me a hard time, not the word-rhyme-link game
48. It seems to me that there is nothing new.
49. I tore my hair out because it was difficult to answer
50. during the game-'Oh~shit TT' (emoticon for crying—sad)
51. in a word test, only competent students did well. Low-ability students seemed to be alienated because they could not translate the words
52. interesting, full of interest
53. straightforward (nothing special), what to answer, what will I do at home?
54. thinking of other things
55. I feel I am in a foreign country
56. nothing
57. the work I will do after school, English word, sentence
58. I study one by one, with learning attitude
59. Nothing special, I don't get it. No, nothing.
60. tension (I'm nervous, strained). Sometimes, I sleep during the lesson.
61. Do it hard

62. Nothing special but I do it better… Work hard…
63. I don't know why we do this
64. When will it finish… (nothing special)
65. I hope time will pass very quickly
66. I enjoy it, it is enjoyable
67. How can I study English to improve my scores?
68. It may be difficult, tough
69. It reminds me of a foreign country. Nothing special but it makes me sleepy. Tired.
70. I will work hard during English lessons.
71. It is difficult although I feel I should do it
72. about the question itself
73. How do I interpret/read English?
74. about the question itself
75. Why do I achieve so little? Why should Koreans learn English?
76. I think I need to make notes very hard. I'm nervous in case I make a mistake in my response.
77. I don't know why we do this.
78. I don't get what's going on (what word it is).

Q.4 What's often in your mind after you finish an activity in English lessons or after the English lesson is over?

1. It would probably have been fun if I had won
2. Although I have fun after I learn, I'd like not to do it any more
3. It was interesting
4. I never want to do it again
5. I feel good if I have got something; if not, I am irritated
6. Useless
7. I'd like to do it again next lesson
8. It is good to finish it
9. My learning English is all in vain.
10. I hate to do something again when it is not interesting, but I feel like continuing when it is interesting. I don't want it to finish
11. It would be good for me not to do such a thing again
12. I feel excited (I am proud of myself, brimming with self-confidence)
13.
14. I feel pain in my legs
15. I don't want it to finish. I want to continue
16. It was a good interesting experience
17. After: a bit interesting but so-so because it was difficult. *^_^ I prefer reading to speaking but I think speaking helps me more to learn English
18. It would be much better not to do this sort of thing. I hate the teacher. It reminds me = test
19. disappointed
20. I am very satisfied withj my previous preparation of the lesson
21. I feel useless
22. I don't want it to finish. I am happy because I won
23. I wanted to continue after finishing the game
24. I felt good because I won the game. I want to do a computer game again.
25. the memory game was fun but it was very difficult
26. It was interesting
27. –
28. I don't want it to finish; I want it to continue

29. Useless
30. I want to do it again
31. ashamed, shameful, I felt shame, I enjoyed it
32. useless, I hated it, I was ashamed of my poor achievement or lack of ability
33. after: if it was fun, I want to do it again; but not if it was so-so
34. I didn't have that much of a good feeling
35. I felt dissatisfied, frustrated about the part I missed in the listening activity. Sometimes, I feel satisfied
36. after finishing the speaking test my heart was still pumping a lot
37. I felt good because it was interesting
38. It was interesting
39. a feeling of relief, I wanted to continue
40. reading was interesting. I will do a follow-up reading well
41. Interesting. I want to do it again next lesson.
42. I was angry. I hope we will not do it again
43. I feel good and interested when I win. But it is also interesting even if I lose
44. I feel something is lacking
45. I hope I can do it well next time
46. It helped me to learn more words. It was fun. I wanted to continue.
47. Eventually, I had to stop in the middle of the game
48. Not interesting
49. I felt bad because I failed to answer
50. After the game: nothing wrong, it is fortunate…
51. Hate
52. I'd like to do it again, interesting, I feel good
53. sometimes it's interesting, some other time it's not
54. thinking about next lesson
55. I have a definite feeling of satisfaction, self-confidence
56. Ah! It's finished at last
57. I'd like to continue. It's interesting. Allow me to sleep.
58. nothing special, I suppose I learned something, good
59. Next lesson. It's finished.
60. I feel liberated
61. I feel satisfied but I really hate doing it.
62. "It's killing me"
63. Ah! I don't want to do it ever again
64. Liberation. I feel relieved, unburdened.
65. I went through it without any trouble
66. I want to do it again
67. I should do it harder and harder
68. I think I climbed over a dangerous hill
69. difficult, complicated, I don't know
70. I'm thinking about next lesson
71. I feel dissatisfied
72. difficult
73. difficult
74. a feeling of achievement, proud of myself
75. What will we do next lesson? I will work harder in future. Superiority of Korean script.
76. for my future…
77. Ah! I never want to do it again.
78. difficult

Question 1: '영어'라는 과목을 걸 드렸을 때 떠오르는 느낌

1. 미국 지폐
2. 지겹다, 어렵다, 벌, 단어
3. 짜증난다, 어렵다
4. 힘들다, 하기싫다, 어렵다, 지겹다
5. interesting
6. 어렵다, 지겹다
7. 재밌다,
8. 재미있다, 즐겁다
9. 싫다,
10. 쉽고 재미있다. 그러나 너무 많이 하면 귀차니즘이 발동되어 영어 꼬라지도 보기 싫어질 때도 있다
11. 지겹다, 어렵다, 문법이 싫다, 못한다
12. English 긴장된다,
13. English 스타크래프트, 재미있다, 싫다
14. 어렵다, 재밌다,
15. 잘하고 싶다
16. 재밌지만 어렵다
17. 외국인, 유학, 토익, 어렵다
18. 오리걸음, 힘들다, 짜증난다
19. 생각, 어렵다, 구인희, 박현선 선생님, 지루함
20. 재밌다, 어렵다, 잠안온다, 시험
21. 수학보다 재미있다
22. 당첨, 따블, 게임, 시험
23. 시험, 재밌다,
24. 힘들다, 어렵다, 재미있다
25. 어렵다, 못알아듣겠다, 지겹다
26. 배우고 싶다, 어렵다, 그저그렇다
27. 지긋지긋하다
28. 메모리게임, ohg! >lll<, 신비하다 O_O, 복잡하다
29. English= 앉았다 일어서기, 어렵다
30. 긴장됨(떨림)[집중해야 한다는]
31. 영어선생님, 지겹다, 힘들다, 어렵다
32. 선생님, 지겹다, 어렵다, 머리아프다
33. 좋다
34. 어렵다, 공부하기 짜증난다.
35. 복잡하다(이해하기에)
36. 어쩔 때는 좋다가 어쩔 때는 싫다. 질문을 하면 떨린다.
37. 아주 두껍고 먼지가 쌓인 문법책. 길다, 고루하다 많다, 할게 많다.

38. 어렵다.45분이 지겹다. 재미없다.

39. 어렵다. 인내심. 자는 시간.

40. 시라소니.

41. 어려울꺼 같다.

42. 잠온다.

43. 지루 따분.

44. 잠.

45. 어렵다. 재미는 있다.

46. 지루하다.

47. 담임샘이 생각남.

48. 지겹게 진행한다. 이해하기 힘들게 한다.

49. 지겹고 이해하기 힘들다.

50. 'Oh ~ Shit'

51. 끔찍하다, 싫다, 짜증난다.

52. 끔찍하다. 버겁다. 지겹다.

53. 약간 어렵다는 느낌

54. 학교, 시험, 외국

55. 오노

56. 또 영어하네

57. 먹고 싶다, 배고파, 좋다

58. 좋고, 배우는 기분으로 듣는다, 재미있게

59. 어렵다, 듣기 싫다, 먼 말인지 이해안감

60. 지겹고 힘들다

61. 꼭 배워야 한다!

62. 외국어

63. 영어가 왜 있노?

64. 어렵다, 별로 흥미 없다

65. 소름이 쫙 끼친다

66. 재밌다, 즐겁다, 좋다, 베리 굿이다, 최강이다, 행복함

67. 공부, 시험

68. 복잡하다, 어렵다

69. 좋다, 모르겠다, 아무 생각 안 난다

70. 좋다

71. 복잡하다

72. 어렵다, 복잡하다, 재미있다

73. 재미있다

74. 재밌다, 흥미, 헷갈린다, 어렵다

75. 현대인으로서 갖추지 않으면 안 될 주요능력

76. 미래가 생각된다, 외국인과 어떻게 회화를 할까?, 수능을 잘 칠 수 있을까?

77. 귀찮다

78. 지겹고 힘들다

Question 2: 영어수업 직전에 드 는 생각은?

 1. 게임 하기 전에는 들뜬다(내가 우승하고 싶다),
 2. 재미있다, 떨린다
 3. 맨처음에 떨렸다
 4. 떨린다,
 5. 기대된다,
 6. 긴장된다
 7. 기대
 8. 자신있었다
 9. 싫다
10. 즐겁고 흥분된다
11. 싫고 안했으면 좋겠다
12. 하기 싫었다
13. 긴장된다, 자신감이 생김
14. 가슴이 떨린다
15. 떨린다, 기대된다
16. 메모리 게임, 처음엔 어려운 것 같았다
17. -전에:게임-기대되고 들뜬다
18. 정말 하고 싶지 않다
19. 하기전:기대 함
20. 하기 전에는 기대가 된다
21. 영화 보기
22. 재미있겠다, 어렵겠다
23. 컴퓨터 게임을 하기전에는 빨리 하고 싶다는 생각이 든다
24. 기억력에 자신있는 나는 기대가 되었다
25. 맨 처음은 게임을 하니깐 좋았다
26. ex> 영화, 정말 기분이 좋다, ex>프린터, 그저, …아무느낌 없음
27. –
28. 메모리 게임 하기 전에 기대 된다, 어려울 것 같았다
29. 시험치기 전에 아주 떨린다
30. 떨린다
31. 게임을 할 때 기분이 좋았다
32. 게임-…
33. 게임을 하기전에 재밌겠다는 생각이 듬
34. 재미있게 느껴졌다(기대)
35. 듣기. 잘 들을수 있는지에 약간의 걱정…
36. 선생님께서 영어 말하기 수행평가 친다고 하셨을 때- 눈 앞이 깜깜하였다
37. 영어 끝말잇기- 엄청 싫고 유치하고 재미없어 보였다.
38. 조별로 돌아가며 문제를 맞추는 것 , 재미있겠다고 생각.
39. 떨린다. 부끄럽다.
40. 파라 일기- 읽기가 귀찮았다.
41. 스피드퀴즈.긴장된다.

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42. 게임-재미있겠다.

43. 게임-별 재미 없겠다.

44. 외우기→ 짜증난다.

45. 스피드퀴즈 한다고 하셨다-설렌다.

46. 영어끝말잇기(1학년때) 재미있을 것 같다.

47. 문장잇기. 기억하기가 어렵다.

48. 영어관련비디오보기- 그냥 수업하는 것 보단 쉽고 재미있겠다.

49. 단어시험-하기 싫다.

50. 게임시작전- 진 사람 어떡해 요리할지 걱정된다.

51. 선생님께서 비디오를 보면서 단어를 적고 해석하라고 하셨을 때 좀 지루하게 생각됐다.

52. 재미가 없겠다. 하기 귀찮다 자고 싶다.

53. 애들이 또 떠들겠다는 생각

54. 아무 생각 X...

55. 기분이 너무 들뜬다

56. 수업 시작 하구나

57. 공부해야지, 잠 온다, 집에 가고 싶다

58. 기분 좋다, 기쁨, 재미

59. 아무 생각 없다

60. 그렇게 재미가 있을까?

61. 배워야 하는데 흥미는 없다

62. 재미있겠다, 아...

63. 아 졸라 하기 싫은데

64. 별 생각 없다(시험 칠 땐 조금 긴장)

65. 졸라 지루하다, 내가 꼭 영어를 해야되나

66. 하고 싶다

67. 영어를 열심히 해야겠다는 생각

68. 어렵겠다고는 생각하지만 무엇을 배울지 궁금하다

69. 그냥 아무 생각 들지 않는다, 잠 온다, 집에 가고 싶다

70. 재미있는 거 할 때는 좋다

71. 그냥 그렇다

72. 재미있겠다

73. 재미있었다

74. 그냥 기분에 따라서 기대도 되고 잠도 온다

75. 어떤 아이가 떠들고 수업을 방해할까?

76. 숙제를 안 했을 경우 '맞기 싫은데'하는 생각, 나의 미래를 위해 열심히 들어야지

77. 하기 싫다

78. 어려우면 어쩌나

Question 3:

1. 재미 있다

2. 모르는 단어가 나와서 어렵다

3. 재미있었다

4. 하기싫다

5. 모르면 어렵고 알면 즐겁다

6. 재미있다

7. 재미있었다

8. 이상한 것 같았다

9. 못알아듣는다

10. 지겨워진다...

11. 가슴이 뛰고 날 시킬까 조마조마한다

12. 한번하고 나니, 계속 시켜주었으면 하는 생각이 들었다

13. 틀릴까봐 겁난다

14. 어렵다

15. 재미있다

16. 재밌었지만 중간에 틀려서 기분이 별로 안좋았다

17. -하는중 : 영어단어가 잘아는 것이 없어 어렵고 답답했다

18. 막막했다

19. Activity 단어시험: 어려움

20. 실력을 발휘하니까 재밌다

21. 긴장 되었다

22. 흥미진진하다, 너무 어렵다

23. 하고 있는 동안에는 재미있게 느껴진다

24. 떨렸다, 흥분되었다

25. 중간에 끊겨서 다시 나부터 시작해서 바로 죽었다 그래서 짜증났다

26. 그저 그렇다, 재미있다, 점점 재밌어 진다,

27.

28. 하는중에 그렇게 어렵지 않았다, 놀라웠다, +O+ surprise!

29. 시험치고 나서 중간에 다음에 잘치면 되겠지

30. 점점 무르익고 긴장이 풀린다(재미)

31. 재미있었다

32. 재미있었다

33. 게임을 하는 동안 생각과 같이 재밌다는 생각이 들었을 때도 있고 시시하다는 생각도 들었다,

34. 그렇게 재미 있지 않았다

35. 알아듣기 위해 노력.

36. 너무 떨려서 실수를 했다.

37. 재미없다고 인상 찡그렸는데 생각보다 재미있었다.

38. 친구들과 함께 많이 맞추어 기분이 좋았다.

39. 어지럽다. 황당하다. 재미있다.

40. 읽지 않으니까 선생님께서 뭐라고 화를 내셨다. 큰소리로 따라읽었다. 갑자기 선생님 목소리가 우습게 변하더니.. 아이들 모두가 그 목소리로 읽었다.

41. 하다보니 긴장도 풀리고 재미도 붙었다.

42. 짜증났다.(우리분단이 한 문제도 못맞춰서)

43. 재밌다. 이기고 싶다.

44. 머리 아프다. 멍하다.

45. 아쉽다. 안타깝다.(마음먹은데로 잘 안된다.)

46. 재미있다.

47. 단어 끝말잇기가 아니라서 문장을 만들기가 어려움.

48. 별다른게 없는 것 같다.

49. 어려워서 머리를 쥐어 뜯었다.

50. 게임하는 중-졌다.

51. 단어를 적을때는 영어를 잘하는 사람만 단어적고 못하는 사람은 단어와 해석을 못하니깐 못하는 애들 소외되는 것 같았다.

52. 재밌다. 흥미진진하다.

53. 그냥 어떻게 하면 될까, 집에서 뭐 할까

54. 딴 생각

55. 외국에 온 느낌

56. 아무 생각 없음

57. 학교 마치고 할 일, 영어 단어, 문장

58. 하나 하나 배우는 마음으로 공부한다

59. 그냥 이해 못함, 없다

60. 긴장이 된다, 잠을 잘 때도 있다

61. 열심히 해야한다

62. 그냥 잘 쳐야지.. 심히 해야지...

63. 왜 하는지 모르겠다

64. 언제쯤 끝나려나... (별 생각 없다)

65. 시간이 빨리 가기를 원한다

66. 즐겁다

67. 어떻게 공부를 해야 영어 성적이 오를까

68. 어렵겠다, 힘들겠다

69. 외국이 생각난다, 그냥 잠온다, 피곤하다

70. 영어 수업을 열심히 할거란 생각

71. 해야하긴 해야 하는데 어렵다

72. 그 문제에 관한 것

73. 영어를 어떤 방법으로 해석할까?

74. 문제에 대한 생각...

75. 나는 왜 이 정도 밖에 되지 못할까?, 한국인이 꼭 영어를 해야 하나?

76. 필기를 열심히 해야겠다는 생각, 틀리지는 않았을까 하는 생각

77. 왜 하는지 모르겠다

78. 무슨 말인지 모른다

Question 4:

1. 재미 있었는지 모르겠다(우승했을 때에는 재미 있을 것 같다.)

2. 배우고 나니깐 재미있는데 그래도 이젠 안하고 싶다

3. 재미있었다

4. 다시는 하고 싶지 않다

5. 무언가를 얻었을 때 좋고 그렇지 않은 경우에는 짜증난다

6. 허무하다

7. 다음에 또 하고 싶다

8. 잘 나왔다

9. 허무하다

10. 재미 없는 활동은 다시는 하기 싫어지고 재미있으면 계속 하고 싶은데 끝나서 아쉽다

11. 싫다, 지겹다, 재수없다, 다신 그런 것 안했으면 좋겠다

12. 돌연 느낌이 들었다(내 자신이 뿌듯한)

13. --

14. 다리 아프다

15. 아쉽다

16. 재밌는 좋은 경험이었다

17. -후에 : 약간의 재미는 있었지만 어려워서 별로임, *^_^ 말하기보단 읽기가 좋지만
    말하기가 영어에 더욱더 도움을 주는 것 같다

18. 이런 것 정말 안했으면 좋겠다, 선생님이 싫다, 떠오르는 생각 = 쪽지시험

19. 실망함

20. 예습의 보람을 느꼈다

21. 허무하다

22. 아쉽다, 이겨서 기쁘다

23. 컴퓨터를 하고 난 후에는 더 하고 싶은 욕구가 생긴다

24. 게임에서 이겨서 기분이 좋았다, 다음에도 했으면 좋겠다

25. 기억력 게임을 했는데 재미있긴 했는데 너무 어려웠다

26. 재미 있었는데

27. --

28. 끝나고 허무하고 아쉬웠다

29. 허무

30. 다시 한번 하고 싶다

31. 창피했다, 부끄러웠다, 즐거웠다

32. 허무했다, 싫었다, 창피했다

33. 하고난 후 재미를 느꼈을 때는 또 하고 싶다 라는 생각. 시시를 느꼈을때에는 아무 생각
    안든다

34. 기분이 그렇게 좋지 않았다.

35. 못 듣고 놓친 부분 아쉬움. 허탈함. 때로는 만족.

36. 하고 나서도 심장이 벌렁벌렁 거린다.

37. 재미있어서 기분좋았다.

38. 재미있었다.

39. 안도감, 아쉽다.

40. 읽기가 재미있었다. 잘 따라 읽어야 겠다.

41. 재미있었다. 다음에도 하고 싶다.

42. 화났다, 안 했으면 좋겠다.

43. 이기면 기분좋고 재미있었고 져도 재밌다고 느낌.

44. 아쉽다.

45. 다음 번엔 잘 할 수 있을 것 같은데...

46. 단어공부에 도움이 되었고 재미있었다. 조금 아쉬움이 남는다.

47. 결국 중도 포기.

48. 재미가 없다 - ㅁ-;;

49. 잘 못쳐서 맞아서 기분이 않좋았다.

50. 게임오버~별일없네, 다행이네..

51. 싫다.

52. 또 하고 싶다. 재미있었다. 기분이 좋다.

53. 재미있을 때도 있고 없을 때도 있다

54. 다음 시간 생각

55. 뿌듯하고 보람을 느낀다

56. 아~ 드디어 끝났다

57. 더 하고 싶다, 재미있다, 잠자게 해주세요

58. 그냥 잘 배웠구나 싶고 좋다

59. 다음 시간표, 끝났다

60. 해방된 기분이 든다

61. 보람은 있으나 많이 하긴 싫다

62. 죽인다

63. 아 다시는 하기 싫다

64. 해방이다, 후련하다

65. 무사히 잘 넘겼다

66. 또 하고 싶다

67. 더욱 더 열심히 해야겠다

68. 한 고비 넘겼다는 생각

69. 어렵다, 복잡하다, 모르겠다

70. 다른 수업을 준비할 생각

71. 어설프다

72. 어렵다

73. 어렵다

74. 성취감, 뿌듯

75. 다음 수업이 뭐지? 앞으로 더 열심히 해야지, 우리 한글의 우수성

76. 나의 미래를 위해서...

77. 아 다시는 하기 싫다

78. 어렵다

APPENDIX L: "Caring teacher" (Qualitative data)

This appendix presents the codebook and statements the students wrote in response to the sentence completion item: "I feel that my English teacher cares about me because…" The teachers' names have been changed. The students' responses in Korean were typed verbatim. They are preceded by the student's identification number and by their mean score achieved across four listening comprehension tests administered at regular intervals during the school year[25]. The final, agreed-upon codes (see Coding Template) appear in square brackets in the English translation; original disagreements prior to alteration are highlighted in the text.

CODING TEMPLATE

Code number	Category
1	Demonstrates qualities of a "good" pedagogue
2	Varies activities
3	Provides extra oral or written input besides standard materials
4	Makes learning the L2 easier; lessons are easy to follow
5	Gives interesting, fun lessons / Uses humor
6	Helps students to prepare for tests and exams
7	Egalitarian
8	Respectful, trustworthy
9	"Immediacy" behaviours
10	Responds to individual academic needs
11	Gives uncritical feedback
12	Tries to motivate students who find English difficult
13	Praises and/or encourages
14	Tolerant
15	Enforces rules
16	Not caring
17	Other

---

[25] These tests are not created by the teachers; instead, they are broadcast at a specific time to the schools across the nation. The results are therefore comparable across the different groups. They are given here as a way of indicating whether certain types of response might be linked to students' achievement in English.

1. Ms Ahn's high-motivation group [37 statements]

51801: (55%) 잘 가르쳐 주시고[1] 재미있고 흥미 있다.[5]

She teaches us very well [1], and her lessons are fun and interesting [5].

51802: (83%) 모두 평등해야 하기 때문이다.[7]

She treats us as if we are all equal [7].

51803: (71%) 나도 모른다.[16]

Actually, I don't know that she cares about us. [16]

51804: (76%) 영어가 어려워서 쉽게 하기 위해서인 것 같다[4]. 영어를 지겨워 할까 봐 재미있게 하기 위해서다[5]. 최대한 배려해주신다고 생각하며...[9]

She tries to make learning English easier for us [4]. She tries to make it interesting so we don't get bored [5]. I think she is very concerned about us [9].

51805: (89%) 떠들 때마다 쇠몽둥이로 다스려 바로 잡아주기 때문이다. [15]

She uses her metal stick whenever we become noisy [15].

51806: (93%) 우리 영어선생님께서는 우리들을 위해 이야기, 사진 등을 보여주신다.[3]

Our English teacher shows us pictures and tells us stories [3]

51807: (26%) 없다[16]

N/A [16]

51808: (91%) 수업시간을 재밌게 하기 위해서 여러 가지 이야기를 해주시기 때문이다.[3/5]

She tells us a lot of funny anecdotes [3] in order to make the lessons interesting [5].

51809: (95%) 공부를 가르쳐 주시기 때문이다. [17]

She teaches us [17].

51810: (70%) 장난칠 때 조용히 하라고 한 것.[15] 한번씩 게임도 한다.[2]

When we act up, she makes us be quiet [15]. We play games from time to time [2].

51811: (90%) 우리들과 같이 농담도 주고받으시고[5] 때로는 잡지 등을 가져와서 우리에게 보여주시기도 한다.[3]

She jokes with us [5], and sometimes brings magazines along to show us [3].

51812: (79%) 영어 교과서의 본문을 시간마다 반복하기 때문에 그래서 본문을 거의 외웠을 정도... [4]

Since we read the text repeatedly every lesson, I end up memorizing practically all of it. [4]

51813: (70%) 배려해줄 때도 있고, 없을 때도 있다. 왜냐하면 우리 반 담임이라서이다. [16]

Sometimes she cares about us because she is our homeroom teacher, but at other times she doesn't. [16]

51814: (76%) 나쁜 일이 생기더라도 한번 정도는 눈감아주시고[14] 못하더라도 때리시지 않고 우리들에게 재미있는 이야기를 해주시기 때문이다.[5]

She occasionally pretends not to see bad behavior happening in the classroom but when she decides to pay attention to it, she doesn't hit us [14]. She tells us funny anecdotes [5].

51815: (86%) 전혀 우리를 배려해 주지 않는 것 같다. [16]

I don't think she cares at all about us [16].

51816: (83%) 계속 공부만 하는 우리에게 공부 시간에 퀴즈 같은 게임 하기 때문이다.[2]

Although we are forced to concentrate exclusively on studying, she does allow us to have game-like quizzes during our lessons [2].

51817: (94%) 좀 지루하다 싶으면 농담해주시고 잘해주시기 때문이다.[5]

Whenever the lesson could be called a bit boring, she tells a joke, and also she treats us well [5].

51818: (74%) 없다[16]

N/A [16]

51819: (57%) 그런 적 없다. 배려라고는 코딱지만도 없다. 웃기고 앉아 있는 소리다. "나와, 엎드리세요, 힘빼요, 올리세요."[16]

She has NEVER cared about us. She does absolutely nothing to take care of us. To think of her taking care of us is a real joke. "Come here! Bend over! Loosen up! ... Show me your hands!" [16]

51820: (64%) 선생님이기 때문이다.[16]

She does her job. That's all. [16]

51821: (98%) 시끄러워도 인간답게 대해주신다.[extra 9/14] 우리의 미래를 생각하시며 잘 가르쳐 주신다.[1/9] 우리를 항상 배려 해주신다. [9]

Even though we are very noisy, she treats us like human beings [14 ONLY]. She teaches us well [1] because she worries about our future [9]. She always takes care of us [9].

51822: (75%) "나와~! 엎드려! 엎드려요!" 이렇듯 매를 들어주시기 때문이다.[15]

She disciplines us with her stick saying, "Come here! Bend over!" [16].

51823: (89%) 학생들이 이해할 수 있고,[4] 재미있게 수업을 진행해주신다. [5]

Students can understand her lessons [4], and her lessons are interesting [5].

51824: (86%) 수업이 따분하고 지겨울 때 퀴즈나 [missing 2] 재밌는 이야기를 해 주신다.[3/5]

When the lesson becomes boring or unbearable, she plays a quiz-game with us [2] or tells us interesting [5] stories [3].

51825: (79%) 월급 받기 때문에.... [16]

She gets paid…. [16].

51826: (79%)수업시간에 우리를 즐겁게 해 주시고 수업을 재미있게 하시기 때문이다. [missing 1] [5]

We are pleased with her teaching [1] and her lessons are interesting [5].

51827: (61%) 없다. 생각한 적이 없기 때문이다. [16]

I can't think of anything. Actually, I've never thought about that [16].

51828: (83%) 공부를 잘 가르쳐주시는 것 같아서 [1]

She seems to teach us well [1].

51829: (96%) 안하는 듯... [16]

She doesn't seem to care about us [16].

51830: (81%) 없다[16]

N/A [16].

51831: (86%) 우리가 영어 시간에 지겨워하는데 재미있는 경험담을 섞어 재미있게 진행하여 주시기 때문이다.[3/5]

When we are bored, she makes the lesson interesting [5] by telling us about her own experiences [3].

51832: (56%) 영어시간에 중요한 것은 꼭 짚어주시고 잘 안 되는 것을 많이 도와주시기 때문이다.[1/10]

She picks out the important things all the time in the lessons [1] and helps us when we have difficulties [10].

51833: (80%) 수업이 재미가 없을 때 재미있는 이야기를 해주신다.[5]

When we lose interest, she tells us some interesting stories [5].

51834: 없다[16]

N/A [16]

51835: (69%) 우리가 떠들어도 같이 떠들어 주시고[15] 재미있는 이야기를 자주 해 주신다.[5]

When we are noisy, she is noisy with us [15], and she often tells us interesting stories [5].

51836: (71%) 없다[16]

N/A [16].

51837: (58%) 잘 가르쳐 주신다.[1] 잘못했을 땐 몽둥이로 우리를 다스리신다.[15] 아무튼 참 좋다.[1]

She teaches us well [1]. She uses her stick when we misbehave. Anyway, she's good. [15].

2. Ms Bae's high-motivation group [28 statements]

81101: (51%) 모르는 문제가 있을 때에는 자세히 가르쳐 주시기 [4]

When there are difficult points, she explains them in detail [4].

81102: (53%) 쉬운 문제를 내어 준다.[12] 때릴 때 살살 때린다.[15]

She gives us easy exercises to do [12]. She hits us gently [15].

81103: (43%) 시험 낼 때 힌트를 좀 준다.[6] 어려운 문제를 별로 안 내신다.[12] 질문을 많이 하지 않으신다.[12] 한 달에 한번씩은 게임을 한다.[2]

She gives us a few pointers before the exams [6]. She doesn't put many difficult questions in the exams. [12]. She doesn't ask us a lot of questions individually [12]. We play games [2] at least once a month.

81104: 없다[16]

N/A[16]

81105: (46%) 쉬운 문제를 내어 준다.[12] 시험 문제에 대한 힌트를 준다.[6] 재미있게 해 준다.[5]

She makes easy exam questions [12], and gives us hints on the kinds of questions that will be in the exams [6]. She makes us interested [5].

81106: (49%) 우리가 시험이나 단어 시험을 못 쳐도 원래 한 개 당 10 대씩인데 깎아서 5 대씩으로 해 주셔서,[15] 쉬운 문제를 좀 내주셔서.[12]

At first, we were supposed to be hit ten times for every wrong answer we gave in vocabulary tests and exams, but she reduced it to five times [15]. She gives us easy exams [12].

81107: (53%) 시험 때도 힌트를 많이 주신다.[6] 재미있게 수업을 하시고[5] 많은 놀이도 같이 하신다.[2]

She gives us a lot of pointers before the exams [6]. She makes her lessons interesting [5]. We play a lot of games [2].

81108: (39%) 재미있는 게임을 해서 ,[2/5] 무엇을 내어 줄 때도 쉽게 내 주셔서 [12]

She allows us to play interesting [5] games [2], and whatever she gives us to do is easy [12].

81109: (39%) 담임이기 때문에 시험을 칠 때 힌트를 가르쳐 주시기 때문에[6] 영어를 쉽고 재미있게 가르쳐 주시기 때문[4/5]

Our English teacher always gives us pointers before the exams [6] because she is our homeroom teacher. She teaches English in an interesting way [5] and makes it easy to learn [4].

81110: (43%)나한테 질문을 해서 내가 그 문제에 대하여 답을 모를 때 영어 선생님은 가르쳐 주신다.[12] 그리고 어려운 문제를 내지 않아서 좋았기 때문이다.[10]

When I can't answer her question, she teaches me until I can do it [10]. She doesn't set difficult exam questions, so I like that [12].

81111: (57%)시험 때에 시험 문제를 조금 가르쳐 주시기 때문이다.[6] 또 수행평가 때도 우리가 어려워 할까 봐 수행 평가 때 나올 문제를 몇 개 가르쳐 주셨기 때문이다. [6]

She gives us a few of the exam questions before the exams [6]. She also tells us what will be in our performance test so we won't feel it's difficult [6].

81112: (54%)시험문제 힌트를 조금 가르쳐 주셔서[6] 우리 반 아이들을 생각해준다. [9]

I think she cares about our class because she drops a few hints on the kinds of questions that will be in the exams [6 ONLY].

81113: (48%)추울 때 난로를 켜 주신다.[9] 아픈 데 없냐고 매일 물어 주신다.[9]

When it's cold, she turns on the heater for us [9]. Every day, she asks if we are sick [9].

81114: (52%)선생님은 모르는 부분을 알기 쉽게 가르쳐 주시기 [4]

She teaches us what we don't know in a clear manner [4].

81115: (73%)우리 선생님은 한 단원을 마칠 때마다 게임을[2] 해서 즐겁게 해 주시기 때문이다.[5]

Whenever we finish a unit, we have a good time [5] playing fun games [2].

81116: (64%)문제를 내면 틀려도 된다면 한 번 해 보라면서 격려해 주시기 때문이다.[13] 모둠 활동 등 재미있는 활동을 통해 수업을 이끌어 가신다.[2/5]

She encourages us to answer questions saying that she doesn't care if our answers are wrong [13]. During the lessons, she uses various kinds of interesting [5] activities, like working in groups [2].

81117: (42%)잘하는 아이들과 못하는 아이들의 차이가 없이 대해 주신다.[7] 우리들을 친구처럼 잘 대해 주신다.[9]

She treats us equally regardless of our scores [7] and treats us just like a friend [9].

81118: (54%)정확하게 약속은 지킨다.[8] 한번씩 이야기 시간을 준다.[3]

I trust her because she generally keeps her word [8]. Occasionally, she reads stories to us [3].

81119: (49%)어려운 영어 문제가 있을 때 도와 주신다.[4]

She helps us deal with difficult English exercises [4].

81120: (55%)영어도 잘 가르쳐 주신다.[1] 우리가 모르는 것이 있으면 알려 주신다.[4]

She teaches us English well [1]. If there is something we don't know, she teaches it to us [1].

81121: (46%) 쉬운 문제를 내주신다.[12] 발표를 시키실 때도[extra 2] 모르는 부분은 가르쳐 주시고[10] 잘 하면 칭찬을 해 주시기 때문이다.[13]

She gives us easy exercises to do [12]. When she makes us talk in front of the class and we're stuck, she helps us with what we don't know [10] and praises us for the good parts [13].

81122: (62%) 수업시간에 우리들이 재미없어 하거나 하면 영어로 하는 재미있는 게임을[2] 하게 해 주신다.[5] 배운 것이 어렵다고 하면 다시 가르쳐 주신다.[10] 시험 문제 내실 때는 우리들의 의견을 듣고[8] 수준에 맞게 내 주신다.[10]

When we get bored during the lesson, she lets us play interesting [5] games [2] in English When we tell her that what she is teaching us is difficult to understand, she teaches it again [10]. When she makes exam questions, she listens to our opinions [8] and takes our levels into account [10].

81123: (69%) 영어 단어 모르는 게 있으면 잘 가르쳐 주신다.[4] 시험 때 되도록이면 문제를 쉽게 내주려고 노력한다.[12] 재미있게 수업한다.[5]

If there are words we don't know, she teaches us their meaning [1]. She tries to make the exam questions as easy as possible [12]. She teaches us in an interesting way [5].

81124: (74%)시험 힌트를 주신다.[6] 수업을 즐겁게 할 수 있도록 노력하신다.[5] 학생 한 명 한 명에게 신경을 써준다.[7]

She gives hints on what we need to study for the exams [6] and tries to make the lessons interesting [5]. She is concerned about every single student [7].

81125: (57%)무서운 벌을 안 주신다.[15] 숙제를 많이 안 내주신다.[12] 가끔씩 맛있는 것들 사주신다.[9] 고민상담을 해 주신다.[9]

She doesn't inflict violent corporal punishment [15] and doesn't set a lot of homework [12]. She sometimes buys us tasty treats [9] and gives us advice when we have problems [9].

81126: (58%)한 번 질문한 사람에게는 또 질문을 안 하신다.[7] 우리가 잘 이해 할 수 있게 해 주신다.[4]

She never calls on a student again if she has already answered a question [17]. She always tries to make us understand everything really well [4].

81127: (67%) 영어 선생님은 우리가 단어나 문장을 잘 읽지 못하더라도 항상 웃으시며 가르쳐 주신다.[10] 그리고 숙제도 적당히 내어 주시고,[12] 우리가 지루해 하면 영어 동화나 게임을 많이 해 주신다.[3/2]

She never gives up on us when we can't read words or sentences properly; she just teaches us again until we can do it and keeps smiling[26] [9 → changed to 10]. She doesn't set a lot of homework [12]. If we get bored, she tells us children's stories in English [3] or we play games [2]

81128: (31%) 우리 수준에 알맞게 수업한다.[10] 시험기간에는 걱정을 해 주신다.[9]

She teaches us according to our levels [10]. When it's exam time, she worries about us [9].

3. Ms Choi 's high-motivation group [34 statements]

182901: (61%) 다른 선생님께서는 우리가 기분이 어떻든 수업만 진행하는 경향이 있지만 우리 영어 선생님께서는 우리의 기분에 맞춰 말 한마디 한마디에 신경을 써주시며 그 한마디가 기분이 좋아지기 때문이다.[9]

While other teachers don't care about how their students feel, our English teacher carefully adjusts what she says so it matches our mood, and this makes us feel better [9].

182902: (71%) 우리가 지겹지 않게 즐겁게 가르쳐주시고,[5] 다른 선생님께서는 시험기간에 예상문제 같은 것을 잘 나눠주시지 않으시는데....나눠주심.[6]

She teaches in a way that makes us interested and doesn't make us feel bored [5]. While other teachers don't seem to give us any help to prepare for our exams, our teacher gives us practice exam questions in advance [6].

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[26] Literally translated, the statement reads, "She always teaches us with a smile even when we can't read words or sentences properly." However, the translator notes the conversational implicature in Korean that the teacher teaches again (with a smile, i.e., indicating kindness and patience) *until the students can do it.*

182903: (70%) 항상 우리가 영어를 배우는데 어려운 것이 있으면 이해를 할 수 있도록[4] 지겹게 느끼지 않게 하기 위해 즐겁게 가르쳐주시기 때문이다.[5] 또 잘못했을 경우에는 차별하지 않고 누구나 공평하게 혼내주기 때문입니다.[15]

If there is something difficult, she always teaches us in an interesting way [5] to make us understand it [4] and not to make us feel bored. When we do something wrong, she disciplines us fairly [15].

182904: (88%) 영어를 귀에 익히기 위해 영어로 수업을 진행하시고[3] 또 해석이 힘든 아이들을 위해 다시 한번 한국말로 이야기 해주기 때문에 우리를 배려해주신다고 느낄 수 있다.[10]

I think she is considerate because she uses English throughout the lesson for us to be exposed to English as much as possible [3], but she repeats what she said in Korean for those who don't understand [10].

182905: (84%) 시험치기 전날 예상문제를 내주셔서 우리의 시험에 도움이 되도록 해주시기 때문이다.[6]

She helps us by giving us practice questions before exams [6].

182906: (69%) 단어시험을 치기 전에 다시 한 번 그 단어를 읽을 수 있는 시간을 2 분이나 3 분 정도 주시고[6] 수업을 재미있게 잘 하십니다.[5] 그리고 시험이 있을 때는 시험 예상문제를 한가득 내주십니다. 이 예상문제 덕분에 성적이 많이 오른 것 같습니다.[6]

Before we have vocabulary tests, she gives us two or three minutes to go over the list of words we had to learn [6]. She gives interesting lessons [5]. And whenever we have an exam, she gives us plenty of practice questions [6]. Thanks to these practice questions, I get good grades.

182907: (94%) 수업 시간에 문법과 같이 어려운 것을 쉽고 재미있게 가르쳐 주십니다. [4/5]

She teaches difficult things like grammar in an interesting way [5] that is easy to understand [4].

182908: (98%) 주로 수업시간에 우리를 위해[1] 쉽고 간단한 영어 문장을 쓰셔서 영어로 대화하려고 노력하신다[missing 3]. 그런 면에서 굉장히 좋은 것 같다.[4] 또 교과서에서만 배울 수 있는 그런 딱딱한 영어뿐만이 아니라, 선생님께서 직접 여행을 하거나 하시면서 알고 계시는 그런 생생한 영어를 소개해 주시는 경우가 그러한 것 같다.[3]

During lessons, I like it [1] that she tries to talk with us mostly in English [3] by using simple sentences that are easy for us to understand [4]. She not only introduces the kind of hard English that we can learn from textbooks but also colloquial English that she got directly from her trips abroad [3].

182909: (86%) 공부를 가르쳐 주실 때에 모르는 것이 나오면 차근차근히 설명해 주시고,[10] 잘 이해하라고 재미있는 말도 해주신다.[4] 또 모르는 것을 물어보면 짜증내지 않으시고, 잘 가르쳐주신다. 또 평소 표정이랑 다르면 걱정해주시고....[9]

When we come across difficult stuff, she explains it step-by-step. She says some interesting things to help us understand [4]. When we ask questions about something we don't know, she teaches us well, without ever getting annoyed [10]. She worries about us if we don't look like our normal selves [9].

182910: (70%) 시험치기 전에도 우리가 시험을 잘 칠 수 있도록 예상 문제도 나눠주셔서 이렇게 시험이 나오는구나 알 수 있게 해 준다.[6]

We can tell what the test is likely to be on because our English teacher gives us practice exam questions before the test so we can improve our grades [6].

182911: (69%) 수업을 할 때 본문 내용을 배우기 전 우리가 모르는 단어를 가르쳐 주시고 해석하기 쉽도록 빗금을 그어 해석하기에 쉽도록 해주신다.[4] 그리고 우리가 모르는 것이 있으면 그에 대한 설명과 함께 그 예를 함께 말해 주셔서 이해하기 쉽도록 해주신다.[4]

Before we read a text, she always teaches us the difficult vocabulary and puts slashes to segment long sentences so that we can understand the text easily. [4] When there is something we don't understand, she not only explains it, but also gives us some examples [4]

182912: (63%) 딱 한 반에게만 주어지는 이 수업을 우리 반에게 맡겨 주시기 때문이다. [17]

She often uses our class for special, one-off lessons. [17]

182913: (94%) 다른 타 학교의 학생들이 그저 교과서 내용만을 공부하고 배우고 할 때, 우리 선생님은 선생님이 아시는 것들, 실제 사용하는 영어 표현 등으로 세부적으로 가르쳐 주시기 때문이다.[3]

While the students in other schools just learn from the textbook, our teacher teaches us colloquial English and what she knows in detail and in a systematic way [3].

182914: (91%) 없다 [16]

N/A [16]

182915: (31%) 다른 선생님들에 비해서 이때까지 알지 못했던 새로운 영어단어나 문장들을 머리에 쏙쏙 들어오게 한 점이 배려한 점이라고 생각합니다.[4]

Compared to other teachers, our teacher is very considerate because she makes it very easy for us to learn new English words and sentences [4].

182916: (59%) 없다. [16]

N/A [16]

182917: (54%) 없다. [16]

N/A [16]

182920: (59%) 재미있는 내용으로 항상 지루하게만 느껴졌던 영어수업을 즐겁게 설명해 주시고[5] 시원하고.....[4] 이쁜 웃음으로 우리를 위해 애쓰시고 노력하시기 때문이다.[9]

She makes boring English classes fun [5], straightforward, etc. [4] She always tries to keep a beautiful smile on her face when she teaches us [9].

182921: (66%) 선생님께서는 먼저 우리와 친구처럼 터놓고 얘기를 잘 하시는 것 같고,[9] 수업도 재밌게 해주는 것 같다.[5] 털털하셔서 좋다.[9]

We can talk to her like we talk to friends [9]. Her lessons are fun [5]. She is tolerant [14].

182922: (70%) 수업시간에도 열심히 가르쳐 주신다.[1]

She always does her best during the lessons. [1]

182923: (63%) 자기의 경험을 얘기해 주어[3] 수업이 지루하지 않게 해준다. 가끔 우리를 이해해주려는 모습도 보이기 때문이다.[9]

She makes lessons less boring by telling us her own experiences [3], and sometimes tries to understand us [9].

182924: (59%) 영어선생님이 다른 나라에 가서 무슨 일이 있었다고 말해줄 때 좋구요,[3] 항상 영어를 가르치는 게 수업을 즐겁게 해준다.[5]

I like the moments when our English teacher tells us what happened while she was in another country. [3] She always gives interesting English lessons [5].

182925: (71%) 작은 일부터 꼼꼼히 살펴주십니다.[1]

She pays attention to the smallest details [1]

182926: (57%) 없다. [16]

N/A [16]

182928: (83%) 열심히 우리들을 위해서 공부를 가르쳐 주시고,[1] 예상 문제도 많이 내주신다.[6] 또, 수업시간이 지루하지 않게 가끔씩 재미있는 이야기도 많이 해주신다.[5]

She makes an effort when she teaches us [1]. She gives us lots of practice exam questions [6]. Sometimes she tells us a lot of interesting stories so we don't get bored [5].

182929: (93%) 수업시간에 모든 아이들이 수업에 즐겁게 참여할 수 있도록[2] 재미있는 수업을 진행하는데 열심히 하시기 때문이다.[5/1] 또 질문에 성의껏 대답해 주시기도 한다.[10]

She makes sure everyone happily participates in the lessons [2]. She tries hard to make the lessons interesting [1/5]. She also does her best to reply sincerely to our questions. [10].

182930: (50%) 영어를 못하는 친구들이 갑자기 발표를 했을 때, 모르는 문장이나 단어에 어려움을 겪고 있을 때,[10] 선생님께서 도와주시는 것을 보고 한 번 우리들을 배려해주신다고 느낀다.

I feel that she helps students who are not good at speaking in English when they have to speak in front of the class and there are words or sentences they don't know [10].

182931: (61%) 없다.[16]

N/A [16]

182932: (45%) 없다.[16]

N/A [16]

182933: (88%) 여러 가지 대화법을 익히고 생활에 필요한 언어를 가르쳐주신다.[3] 나는 영어를 좋아하기 때문에 영어시간에 배우는 것들은 다 나에게 도움이 된다고 생각하고, 그것을 가르쳐 주시는 영어선생님이 존경스럽기 때문이다.[1]

She teaches us colloquial English that we need in conversation and everyday life [3]. I think everything I'm doing in class will help me because I like English, and I respect my English teacher because she teaches me [1].

182934: (76%) 선생님께서 단어 등을 꼼꼼히 봐 주시고[1] 시험기간 때 시험 예상 문제를 꼭 내주셔서 시험에 대비할 때 편리하고 쉽게 공부하고 있다.[6]

Our English teacher thoroughly checks our vocabulary and other things [1]. She never fails to give us practice exam questions for us to prepare for the exams; it's convenient and easy for us [6].

182935: (64%) 자료 같은 것을 직접 만들어서 나누어줄 때[3]

She hands out materials she made on her own. [3]

182936: (70%) 세심하게 TEST 등을 해주셔서 우리 스스로의 실력을 알게 해 준다.[11] 또 수업에 지루해 할까 봐 재미있는 말씀을 해주시고 [5] 가끔은 멀티실에서 수업을 해 우리들의 실력을 향상시켜준다.[2] 또 기억력 테스트 등을 하는 등[2] 수업에 흥미를

느낄 수 있도록 배려해 주신다.[5] 또 포인트 등으로 경쟁심을 키워주시려는 배려도 해주신다.[2]

She lets us know where we stand by giving us tests on everything we learn [11]. She tells us interesting things so we don't get bored [5]. Sometimes, she improves our English by taking us to the multimedia lab [2]. She makes us more interested [5] by giving us activities that test our memory [2]. Sometimes she stimulates our sense of competition by giving us points [2].

182937: (45%) 공부를 못하는 아이들도 잘하는 아이들과 같이 평등하게 대해주시고[7] 수업시간을 지루하지 않게 재밌게 하신다.[5] 항상 우리를 위해 열심히 하신다.[1]

She treats students equally, whether or not they get good marks [7], and she tries hard to make the lessons interesting [5]. She always works hard for us [1].

4. Ms Kim's low-motivation group [36 statements]

61301: (68%) 없다. [16]

N/A [16]

61302: (86%) 우리가 해달라고 하는 것도 들어주시고 하시기 때문이다.[8]

She grants our requests [8].

61303: (71%) 우리들이 영어를 잘하게 하려고 [1]

She wants us to do better in English [1].

61304: (93%) 없다.[16]

N/A [16]

61305: (80%) 잘해주시고[9] 다른 선생님보다 친근감을 더 많이 느끼고[9] 인사도 하면 받아주시기 때문이다.[9]

She treats us nicely [9]. I feel closer to her than to any other teacher [9]. Whenever I greet her, she replies nicely [9].

61306: (79%) 없다.[16]

N/A [16]

61307: (85%) 모르는 것을 잘 가르쳐 주시기 때문이다.[1]

She teaches us well what we don't know [1].

61308: (60%) 잘하는 사람들만 자주자주 시켜주시기 때문이다. [12]

She calls very frequently only on students who are good at English [12].

61309: (64%) 영어를 잘 못하는 학생에게 더 잘 가르쳐주시기 때문이다.[10]

She teaches well those who are not good at English [10].

61310: (64%) 없다.[16]

N/A [16].

61311: (45%) 우리반 선생님께서는 우리를 잘 해주시고 잘 가르쳐주시는 것 같다.[1] 나는 선생님이 가르쳐주시는 데까지 머리에 외워두고... 영어단원을 이해하기가 쉽기 때문이고 또 재미있기 때문이다.[4/5]

Our homeroom teacher treats us well and seems to teach us well. I memorize everything she teaches me [1]. She makes English lessons easy to understand [4] and interesting [5].

61312: (83%) 우리들의 의견을 잘 들어주시기 때문에 [8]

She really listens to our opinions [8].

61313: (74%) 영어를 못한다고 혼내지 않기 때문이다.[11]

She doesn't tell me off for doing badly in English [11].

61314: (89%) 애들이 모두 다 이해하기 쉽게 설명하시기 때문이다.[10]

She explains everything so that all the students understand completely and easily [10].

61315: (55%) 우리들이 영어를 좀 더 잘하기 위해서 생각하기 때문이다. [1]

She tries to find a better way to improve our English [1].

61316: (84%) 결석을 안하고 한달 지나면 아이스크림 사주신다.[9/15]

If we have perfect attendance for a month, she buys us ice cream [9/15].

61317: (64%) 없다.[16]

N/A [16]

61318: (81%) 우리들이 스스로 풀어 답해 나갈 수 있게 해주시기 때문이다. [17]

She gives us exercises to do by ourselves [2].

61319: (79%) 영어를 잘 가르쳐 주기 때문이다. [1]

She teaches us well [1].

61321: (78%) 없다.[16]

N/A [16]

61322: (64%) 우리한테 영어를 가르쳐주시기 때문이다. [16]

She teaches us English. [17]

61323: (88%) 우리를 생각해주시기 때문에 [9]

She thinks about us [9].

61324: (57%) 우리를 생각하고 그냥 제자이기 때문이다.[16]

[I feel our English teacher cares about us] merely[27] because we are her students and she thinks about us [16].

61325: (71%) 없다.[16]

N/A [16]

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[27] Since neutral statements have positive implicatures in Korean pragmatics, the fact that the word "merely" was used in the Korean statement here implies a "non-caring" answer that was carefully worded.

61326: (76%) 없다.[16]

N/A [16]

61327: (44%) 없다.[16]

N/A [16]

61328: (56%) 없다.[16]

N/A [16]

61329: (95%) 가끔씩 학습지를 내주셔서 여러 형태의 문제를 점검하게 해주시기
때문이다.[6]

Sometimes she gives us worksheets to check if we can do various types of questions [6].

61330: (80%) 어떨 때 우리에게 축구경기를 하게 해 주시고 가끔은 책 읽기로 마음의
양식을 쌓게 해 주신다.[9] 보통 때에는 자주 우리를 책망하시고 충고를 하시지만
선생님의 그 따뜻한 배려는 마치 불사조의 불꽃같다. [15]

Sometimes, she lets us play soccer, and other times she lets us feed our minds by reading a
good book. Usually, she tells us off and gives us advice [15]. In any case, her consideration
for us is like the flame of a phoenix [9].

61331: (78%) 우리에게 축구를 시켜 줄 때도 있고 시험 끝나고 영화도 보여 줬기
때문이다. [9]

She sometimes allows us to play soccer and some other times treats us to a movie after the
exams are over [9].

61332: (73%) 항상 즐겁게 공부를 가르쳐 주시기 때문이다. [5]

She always makes learning interesting [5].

61333: (59%) 우리가 모르는 게 있으면 가르쳐주고 알게 해 준다.[10]

If there is anything we don't know, our teacher teaches it to us until we know it [10].

61334: (54%) 없다.[16]

N/A [16]

61335: (64%) 참 잘해주는 것 같은데 잘 모르겠다. [16]

Although she seems to treat us fine, I'm not sure that she cares about us [16].

61336: (79%) 없다.[16]

N/A [16]

61337: (86%) 모를 때는 잘 안 시켜주시기 때문이다. [12]

When I don't know the answer to her question, she doesn't force me to speak [12].

5. Ms Lee's low-motivation group [41 statements]

72201: (80%) 영어를 잘 못하는 학생이 있으면 그 학생에게 한번 더 설명해 주신다.[10]

She explains things again to those who are not as good as others [10].

72202: (48%) 교과서에 나오는 내용 말고도 교과서에 관련된 내용을 자세히 가르쳐 주시고 영어 비디오도 보여주신다.[3]

Besides the textbook, she teaches us in detail various topics relating to the textbook and shows us videos [3].

72203: (34%) 우리가 힘들 때 배려해주신다.[9]

She is good to us when we feel tired [9].

72204: (35%) 친절하게 수업을 진행하고[9] 우리에게 기회를 자주 준다.[2]

She teaches us in a kind way [9] and we are lucky to have her [1].

72205: (74%) 수업시간 때 참여하였을 때 답이 맞건 맞지 않는지 보다는 참여했다는 것을 생각해 준다.[1]

During lessons, she thinks participation is more important than correct answers [1].

72206: (45%) 게임을 할 때,[2] 수업을 할 때, 비디오를[3] 볼 때 쉬는 시간을 주기[12]

During the forty-five minute period, she gives us a break, whether we're in the middle of a lesson [12] or we're watching a video [3] or playing some kind of game [2].

72207: (64%) 모르는 것들이 있으면 가르쳐 주실라 하시고[1] 필요한 것들 챙겨 주신다.[15]

She tries to teach us what we don't know [1]. She makes sure we have everything we need [15].

72208: (59%) 영어 수업을 할 때면 우리의 의견을 물어 보시며[8] 지적하며 시켜보실 때 우리가 영어 수업을 상대로 어떠한지 알고[8] 재미있게 흥미를 갖게 하려 노력하시기.[5]

During the lessons, she listens to our opinions [8], and when she calls on a student, she wants to know if the lesson is difficult or easy [8], and she tries to make the lesson interesting [5].

72209: (31%) 배려해서 [9]

She is good to us [9].

72210: (80%) 영어를 잘 읽지 못하는 아이들을 일부러 안 시킨다.[8] 성적을 공개적으로 말하지 않는다. [8]

If students have trouble reading aloud, she doesn't force them to do it [8]. She doesn't reveal each person's grade in public [8].

72211: (30%) ....[16]

72212: (80%) 실수를 하면 바로 고쳐주시고 꾸중을 하시지 않는다 [11]

When we make a mistake, she corrects it at once and doesn't tell us off [11].

72213: (35%) 영어 발표를 잘 시키지 않으신다. 영어를 못하는 것을 알기
때문입니다. [12]

She seldom makes us speak in English in front of the class because she knows we're
not good at it [12].

72214: (66%) 못해도 가르쳐 주시면서[1] 못하는 건 잘 지적해 주신다.[1] 그리고
선생님께서 서로 게임 같은 것을 하기.[2]

Although we're not good at English, she still teaches us [1]. She is good at picking out
what we have trouble with [1]. We do things like play games with her [2].

72215: (57%) 시험 후 성적이 다른 반보다 안 좋았는데 어느 정도의 격려를
해주셨다.[13]

When our class got lower grades than other classes, to some extent, she encouraged us
[13].

72216: (81%) 쉬는 시간을 줄 때 [9]

She gives us a break [9].

72217: (36%) 영어 선생님께서 우리들이 하고 싶은 것을 물어보신다.[8]

She asks us what we want to do [8].

72218: (50%) 우리들을 위해서 많은 학습 자료를 가지고 오시기 [3]

She brings lots of materials for us to do in the lessons [3].

72219: (68%) 우리가 지쳐 있거나 힘들어하면 약간의 쉬는 시간을 주신다.[12]

If she thinks we feel tired because the lesson is tough, she lets us rest a bit [12].

72220: (75%) 우리가 피곤한 것 같을 때 휴식 시간을 준다. [9]

She gives us a break when we look tired [9].

72221: (63%) 우리가 본문 내용을 읽을 때 실수하거나 더듬거릴 때 선생님께서 생각(배려)해주신다고 생각한다.[8] 그뿐만 아니라 모든 것에서도 그런 것 같다.

When we stammer or mispronounce something while reading aloud from the textbook, she is good to us [8]. In addition, she takes care of us in general.

72222: (95%) 행사(연휴나 공휴일)때 유래담을 얘기해 주실 때나 팝송 또는 캐럴송 들려주시려 할 때, 우릴 위해서 찾느라고 노력하신다는 걸 느끼고, 항상 수업시간에 느끼기도 한다.[3]

I feel that she tries to find things like the origin of national holidays and festivals for us and lets us hear pop songs or carols [3]. We always feel that she cares about us in our lessons.

72223: (68%) 공부를 못한다고 나무라지 않는다. 그래서 영어선생님이 그렇게 싫은 건 아니다.[11]

Our English teacher doesn't tell us off when we do badly, so I don't dislike her [11].

72224: (71%) 교과서 내용보다는 팝송이나 English Cafe 와 같은 여러 가지 영어에 흥미를 가질 수 있는 요소를 북돋아 주신다. 지루한 문법을 배우는 것보다 훨씬 재미있고 흥미롭다. [3/5]

She provides us with various sources of English besides the textbook such as pop songs or "English Café" [3]. It's much more interesting than learning tiresome grammar [5].

72225: (45%) 내가 공부를 너무 잘하고 착하고 성실하고 믿음직하고 열심히 하기. [17]

I get good marks, I am doing better, I am nice, hardworking, and trustworthy. [17]

72226: (85%) 영어 성적이 잘 나오지 않아도 격려해 주시고 우리 반은 못하는 반이 아니라고 말씀해 주기.[13]

Even when we get low grades, she says that we are not inferior to other classes and encourages us [13].

72227: (48%) 선생님이 우리가 잘못한 것을 용서해 주시고 떠들었지만 선생님이 너그럽게 용서해주신다.[14] 그리고 문장을 잘못 읽어도 실수로 생각해 주신다.[11]

She sometimes overlooks our mischief and is somewhat tolerant when we are noisy [14]. When I make a mistake while reading aloud, she regards it as just a mistake [11].

72228: (55%) '어쩌다' 한번씩 우리가 공부시간에 힘들어할 때 5 분 정도 쉬게 해줄 때 배려를 해주시는 것 같다.[9]

In rare cases, she is considerate enough to give us a five-minute break in the middle of the lesson when we think it is tough [9].

72229: (41%) 우리들이 공부하기 쉽게 해주시기 때문이다.[4]

She makes it easy for us to learn English [4].

72230: (75%) 영어를 잘 못하는 사람이 알아들을 수 있게 쉽게 설명해 주시기 때문이다.[10]

She explains in detail for those who fall behind [10].

72231: (31%) 공부시간에 우리들이 피곤하다고 생각하시면 5 분 정도 휴식시간을 주신다. [9]

When she thinks we may be tired because of the lesson, she gives us a break for about five minutes [9].

72232: (80%) 시험 끝나면 우리 반이 영어가 제일 잘한다고 말씀해 주시기. [13]
She said our class came top of all the other classes [13].

72233: (66%) 모르는 것이 있을 때 가르쳐 주고[1] 못해도 괜찮다고 해주신다. 친절히 해 주신다. [13]
She teaches us what we don't know [1]. She is kind enough to say that it doesn't matter even if we can't do something properly [13].

72234: (49%) 잘못된 것을 지적해 주시고[1] 실수를 해도 잘했다면 칭찬해 주신다.[13]
She points out our mistakes but praises us when we do well, regardless of any mistakes [13].

72235: (74%) 수행평가 같은 것 중[2] 말하기 테스트를 할 때 발음이나 그 문장 내용보다, 자신감을 나타내는 목소리의 크기 등을 평가하시기[12]
When we have speaking tests, she emphasizes confidence (talking loudly) rather than pronunciation or the contents of the sentences [12].

72236: (69%) 항상 웃어주시며[9] 우리들을 이해해 주려고 노력하신다.[9]
그리고 수업할 때 높임말을 쓰신다.[8]
She always smiles [9] and tries to understand us [9]. During the lessons, she uses respectful language when she talks to us [8].

72238: (99%) 성적보다 우리들의 영어에 대한 흥미를 유발시키는 것을 더 중요하게 생각하시기.[1]
She thinks that remaining interested in English is more important than grades [1].

72239: (45%) 내가 실수하면 잘했다면서 칭찬을 하시기. [13]

Even if I make a mistake, she praises me by saying "You did well" [13].

72240: (46%) 프린트를 많이 내주시기 때문이다.[3]

She provides us with a lot of handouts [3].

72242: (45%)모르는 게 있으면 잘 가르쳐주고[1] 잘 챙겨주신다.[15]

If there is something we don't know, she teaches us well [1]. She checks that we have everything we need [15].

6. Ms Moon's low-motivation group [40 statements]

122201: (84%) 너무 수업만 하지 않고 가끔 재미있는 말도 해주시기 때문에 [5]

Sometimes she talks about interesting things; she doesn't just concentrate on the lesson [5].

122202: (55%) 다른 영어선생님들보다 쉽고, 이해가 잘되게 영어가 좋아질 수 있도록 쉽게 쉽게 가르쳐 주신다.[4]

Our teacher wants us to like English, so she teaches us in a way that is easier to understand than that of other English teachers [4].

122203: (78%) 단어를 읽을 때 어려운 단어는 어떻게 읽는지 발음을 살려 한번 더 읽게 해주시며 문법도 어려워서 이해가 안 되는 부분은 잘 설명해 주신다. [4/4]

When we come across a difficult word, our teacher first demonstrates how to pronounce it then she has us repeat it after her [4], and she clearly explains parts of grammar that we find difficult to understand [4].

122204: (66%) 영어를 읽지 못하는 애들에게 자세히 가르쳐 주시고[10] 무엇보다도 열심히 가르쳐 주신다. [1]

She teaches well those who can't read English; she teaches them systematically and in detail [10]. Above all, she teaches enthusiastically [1].

122205: (78%) 시험문제에 먼저 우리가 관심이 많은데 교과서 배우면서 중요한 것이라고 하시면서 은근히 시험에 나온다는 걸 강조하셔서 시험 공부할 때 많이 도움이 된다.[6] 또 TV를 통해 영어를 쉽게 배울 수 있는 자료를 제공해 주시고[3] 할로윈데이에 호박을 이용해 등도 만들 수 있는 기회를 제공해 주시기 때문이다. [3]

We are concerned about our exams. During the lessons, she emphasizes some parts as being important, implying that they will be included in the exam. This helps me to prepare for the exams [6]. She gives us ways to learn English easily through watching television [3]. She also gives us the opportunity to make Halloween pumpkins [3].

122206: (61%) 가끔 우리가 수업하다 지루하고 잠 오고 할 때쯤 항상 재밌는 말이나 재밌는 경험을 얘기해 주시면서[3], 지루함과 잠 오는 걸 깨워주신다.[5] 그리고 수업 시간에 자게 해주시지 않는 것도[15] 평소 영어에 흥미를 갖게 해 주시는 게 배려해 주신다고 생각한다.

When we get bored or sleepy because of a boring lesson, she wakes us up or gets rid of our boredom by telling us something interesting [5] from her own experience [3]. I think she is considerate in the sense that <u>not </u>letting us sleep during the lesson [15] is her <u>usual</u> way of keeping us interested in English.

122207: (96%) 우리의 의견도 존중해 주시고[8] 우리의 적극적인 참여를 부추기시며 선생님 말씀만 듣는 수업이 아닌 우리가 참여하는 수업을 하시기 때문이다. [2]

She respects our opinions [8], and stimulates us to take part in the lesson actively, not just listen to what she says passively [2].

122208: (100%) 우리에게 문법과 발음의 정확성과 산 지식을 전해 주시며[1] 배려하는 마음을 가질 수 있게 좋게 교훈이 되는 말씀을 해 주시기 때문이다.[1]

She gives us grammar, correct pronunciation, and useful knowledge [1]. She often gives us moral lessons so that we become more considerate [1].

122209: (68%) 시험이 다가올 때 배운 것을 한번 더 복습해 주시고,[6] 스스로 학습하는 것을 돕기 위해서 인터넷에 학습자료를 올려주신다.[6]

When the exams are coming, we review what we've learned with the teacher [6]. She posts study materials on the Internet to help us with our self-study [6].

122210: (85%) 수업 중간 중간에 지루하지 않도록 재미있는 얘기를 해 주실 때,[5] 영어뿐만 아니라 그 나라의 문화까지도 가르쳐 주실 때[3]

From time to time, she gives us an interesting talk so that we are not bored [5]. She tells us about English-speaking countries, and also about their cultures [3].

122211: (76%) 외국에서 지켜야 할 예절과 행동들을 말해 주실 때(우리가 망신을 안 당하게) [3]

She talks to us about how to behave properly and show good manners abroad (so that we don't lose face) [3].

122212: (53%) 다른(학원) 영어 샘들은 영어 본문 읽기를 잘 시키지 않는데 우리 영어 선생님은 본문을 읽으라고 숙제를 내어주시고 못 읽으면 남아서라도 시켜서 [10]

Unlike teachers in private cram schools, our English teacher gives us the text to read for homework. If someone can't read well in class, she coaches them after class [10].

122213: (73%) 차근차근 알기 쉽게 가르쳐 주시기 때문이다[4] (관련된 것에 대해 예를 들어주시고, 또 그것을 한번 더 되짚어 주시기 때문에)[4]

Our English teacher teaches us step-by-step so that we can understand easily [4]. (She also gives us relevant examples and checks again that we actually get it) [4].

122214: (76%) 학교 시험 말고 실용영어 같은 시험에 대해 가르쳐 주시고, 시험 치라고 제안해 줄 때,[1] 그리고 왜 영어를 배워야 하는지 가르쳐 주시기 때문이다.[1]

She informs us about certificates other than school exams that test practical English and recommends we take them [1]. She talks to us about why we should learn English [1].

122215: (75%) 우리가 준비물을 챙겨오지 않았는데 섬세하게 챙겨주실 때,[15] 더울 때 우리의 마음을 아시고 음료수 하나 사주실 때 [9]

When we forget to bring something to the lesson, she provides it for us [9]. She treats us to a cold drink on hot summer days [9].

122216: (91%) 문법을 설명해 주실 때이다. 어떠한 문법은 아는 애들이 대부분인데, 모르는 사람을 위해 차근차근 설명하고 꼼꼼히 가르쳐 주실 때 배려해 준다고 생각한다. [10]

I think she is considerate when she explains grammar carefully to a small number of students who don't understand,, although most of the others do [10].

122217: (96%) 시험칠 때 문제를 인터넷에 올려주신다.[6] 그리고 공책에 단어 쓰기를 시키지 않고 책에 바로 단어 해석을 쓰라고 하신다.[6] 중요한 내용도 가르쳐 주신다. [1]

She posts exam materials on the Internet [6]. She recommends that we write down the meaning of words in our textbook, rather than in a notebook [6], and she teaches some important stuff, too [1].

122218: (71%) 못하는 애, 잘하는 애 구분을 안 하신다.[7] 그리고 영어를 쉽게 잘 가르쳐 주신다.[4] 안 할려고 하는 애들을 하게 하신다.[2]

She doesn't discriminate against those who don't do well [7]. She teaches us in a way that is easy to understand [4]. She makes unwilling students take part in the lessons [2].

122219: (93%) 어려운 과가 나올 때마다 여러 가지 보충자료들을 인용해서 알기 쉽고,[3] 상세하게 설명을 해주시고,[4] 수업 중 질문을 하면 친절하게 대답을 해 주시기 때문이다.[10]

Whenever we come to a difficult unit, she gives us various kinds of materials to back up the unit [3] and gives clear and precise explanations [4]. If we ask her questions during the class, she answers kindly [10].

122220: (30%) 우리 영어 선생님은 우리들을 좀 생각해 준다고 생각한다. 그 이유는 그냥 잘해준다고 생각한다. 엄격할 때도 있다.[16] 그래서 기분이 좀 안 좋다. 아무튼 선생님은 우리들을 많이 생각해 주신다고 생각한다.

I think our English teacher cares about us in a way. I think she treats us well but I don't have any specific reason for saying this. She is sometimes strict, though; then, I feel bad. [16] Anyway, I think she is very good to us.

122221: (98%) 우리가 영어책(교과서)를 배울 때 지시문을 영어로 읽어 주시고 그 문장을 해석해 주시고 모르는 단어를 가르쳐 주실 때[1]

When we read a textbook, she reads the instructions in English and translates them into Korean, and she gives us the meaning of unfamiliar words [12 →changed to 1].

122222: (44%) 모두 다 알 수 있도록 중요한 부분은 반복해서 가르쳐 주신다.[10] 어려운 부분을 자세히 알기 쉽게 설명해 주신다.[4]

She explains the important point several times so that everyone gets them [10]. She explains the difficult parts to us so we understand them easily [4].

122224: (91%) 영어로 된 문장을 읽고 해석하는 발표를 할 때[2] 잘 몰라도 옆에서 가르쳐 주시기 때문이다 .[10]

When we have to read aloud in English and translate what we read into Korean, she helps us with the bits we don't know [10].

122225: (86%) 영어시간이 지루해질까 봐 중간중간 선생님이 미국에서 생활하면서 겪은 일도 얘기해 주시면서[3] 지루한 수업분위기를 바꿔주신다.

From time to time, she talks to us about her experiences in America [3] so we don't get bored.

122226: (45%) 단원마다 신단원에 의한 받아쓰기를 하거나, 아님 뜻을 알아와서 같이 한 번 읽는다는 것과, 또 번호를 불러 다이얼로그를 읽어보라고 해서 못 읽는 단어가 있으면 하나하나 가르쳐 주신다.[10]

Whenever we start a new unit, she gives a vocabulary test. After looking up the meaning of a new word, we read the words aloud all together. Our teacher picks a name and asks that person to read the "Dialogue" part in the textbook. If the student has trouble reading specific words, she teaches her how to say them one by one [10].

122227: (78%)어떤 얘기를 할 때, 우리들이 이해할 수 있도록 얘기해 주신다. [4]

When she talks, what she says is easy to understand [4].

122228: (59%) 수업시간 중에 우리가 많이 지루한 것 같다라고 생각하시면 재밌는 얘기나 기본 지식 같은 걸 말해 주신다.[5]

She tells us something interesting or teaches us some basic knowledge when she feels we are getting bored [5].

122230: (46%)차근차근 또박또박하게 알기 쉽게 가르쳐주실 때 [4]

She explains clearly and step-by-step so that we can understand easily [4].

122231: (54%) 우리에게 잘 대해 주시고 [9] 아주 섬세하게 가르쳐 주시고 [4] 수업 진행 중에 모르는 것이 있으면 수업에 관계 없이 다시 더욱 더 섬세하게 가르쳐 주시는 것 같기 때문이다.[10]

She treats us well [9] and teaches us clearly and systematically [4] when we don't know something, even if it's not in the lesson plan [10].

122232: (50%) 단원 끝마칠 때마다 시험을 칠 때 하나하나 상세하게 가르쳐 주실 때,[11] 우리가 쉽게 이해할 수 있도록 가르쳐 주실 때 [4]

Whenever we finish a unit, she gives us a test followed by feedback on each question [11], and she teaches us in a way that is easy for us to follow [4].

122233: (83%) 선생님께서 미국에 계실 때의 경험담을 말씀해 주시면서 수업할 때,[3] 그리고 잘못 쓰고 있는 단어나 문장을 고쳐 주면서 다음에 크면 그 잘못된 단어를 바르게 사용하라고 하실 때, 배려해 주시고 관심 가져 주신다고 생각됩니다. 그리고 미국에서의 경험담을 얘기해 주시면서 다음에 너희가 가면 이런 실수는 하지 말라며 말하시기 때문이다 [11]

She tells us about her experiences while she was in America, points out examples of Konglish words or sentences [3], and says that we should use good English when we're adults so I think she really cares about us. And as she tells us her experiences in America, she advises us not to make the same mistakes she made [1].

122234: (59%) 하나하나 자세히 가르쳐 주시고,[4] 질문을 했을 때 정성껏 설명해 주실 때[10]

She teaches us in a clear, systematic, and detailed manner [4], and answers our questions sincerely [10].

122235: (53%) 한 명이라도 덜 이해했을 때 아무리 귀찮아도 한 번 더 설명해 주시기. [10]

Even if there is one person who doesn't understand, she explains it to her again, without being annoyed [10].

122236: (50%) 우리들을 잘 챙겨주신다.[15] 그리고 재미있는 말도 많이 해주시고[5] 신경도 많이 가져주신다.

She checks that we bring everything we need [15]. What she says is interesting [5]. She cares about us a lot.

122237: (69%) 단어를 모르는 학생을 위해 일일이 칠판에 적어줘서, 수준을 고려하여 발표를 시킴[10]

She writes the difficult words one by one on the board for the students who don't know them and asks us to make presentations to the class according to our own level [10].

122238: (80%) 수업 중에 한 명의 학생이 영어문법에 대해 이해하지 못하였을 때 모두 다 완벽하게 이해할 수 있도록 도와주신다.[10]

During the lesson, even if there is only one student who doesn't understand something about English grammar, she explains it until everyone understands it fully [10].

122239: (83%) 우리들이 잘 알지 못하는 단어나 문장을 풀어서 해석해 주시고[4] 잠이 와서 수업이 잘 되지 않을 때는 재미있는 얘기를 해 주시면서 우리를 재미있게 해주신다.[5] 우리들이 이해를 하지 못하는 이야기는 선생님이 겪었던 이야기를 해주신다.[3]

When we come across words or sentences we don't really understand, she explains them to us in detail [4]. When we are sleepy, she tells us something interesting for a bit of fun [5]. When we can't understand something, she talks to us about her experiences relating to what we can't understand [4].

122240: (91%) 수업을 할 때 항상 45 분을 모두 다 수업하지 않고 그 중간중간에 농담도 해 주시고[5] 모르는 것을 질문할 때나 어떤 내용을 잘 이해하지 못할 때 잘 설명해 주시기 때문이다.[10]

She doesn't spend forty-five minutes totally on the lesson, but instead she jokes in between and tells us jokes [5]. Whenever we have a question or don't understand something, she explains it well [10].

122241: (84%) 차근차근 가르쳐 주시고, 뜻풀이를 잘해 주시기 때문이다.[4] 그리고, 문법이나 공식 같은 것을 자세하게 가르쳐 주신다.[4] 그리고 가끔씩은 재밌는 얘기(유머)로 해주신다.[5]

She teaches step-by-step, and comments on the meaning[28] [4]. She teaches clearly, systematically, and in detail the most difficult things like grammar or sentence patterns [4], and sometimes shows us she can joke (has a sense of humor) [5].

122242: (76%) 수업도 열심히 해주시고,[1] 친구들이 졸면 체벌하시지 않고 잠을 깰 수 있게 해주시고,[15] 자료도 준비를 많이 해오신다.[3] 그리고 학교 교과서 외에 다른 공부도 많이 할 수 있게 해주시고 외국 문화도 많이 알려주신다. [3]

She teaches us enthusiastically [1]. When we doze off during the lesson, she wakes us up and seldom punishes us [15]. She provides us with lots of materials about the lesson. She gives us extra materials besides the textbook [3], and a lot of information on foreign cultures [3].

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[28] One assumes the "meaning" referred to here is that of the text the students are studying.

APPENDIX M: Researcher's stimulated recall of lesson events (Phase 2)

These notes constitute my recall of what had been happening in the lesson when the students were asked to record their feelings. The recall was stimulated by observational data collected earlier the same day.

1. Ms Ahn (High-motivation group of 12-13 year-old boys)

T1 (5th min.): Ss had taken 2 mins to move their tables in order to get into groups; no linguistic input or output. T had introduced the day's lesson and asked Ss to open their books (1 min.). Ss listened and repeated after audio-recording.

T2 (8th min.): Ss had listened and repeated after audio-recording for 2 more mins.; English input and output.

T3 (15th min.): Ss had done 4 mins. of oral, teacher-directed, personalized structural drill using teacher-made flashcards as stimulus; T had called on individual Ss. English was used during the first 2 mins, then a mixture of English and Korean for the next 2 mins.

T4 (20th min.): The same drill had continued for another 3 mins.—T grabbing the opportunity to caution students against eating too much fast food (in the 17th min), drawing attention to an overweight boy in the class in the process (!). T had continued to call on individual Ss but some had felt free enough to make spontaneous comments or ask questions (mostly in Korean but some in English). After the drill and just before the T4 check, T had provided SS with a recap of what they had been learning. English was used between T3 and T4.

T5 (31st min.): 4 mins. of an elaborate listening comprehension game had been carried out in groups (each group had a mini-whiteboard). The bingo-type game contained a strong element of luck (Ss had filled out a grid with randomly predicted numbers as well as TRUE or FALSE,

before T read out some statements related to the texts that the Ss had studied during the second half of the semester). English input only.

T6 (40th min.—end of period): The game had continued in English for another 3 mins before she gave instructions about calculating the group points (in Korean). A bonus question was asked in English (Who was caught in Iraq last week?). Next, T collected group points (in English) and humourously held an impromptu class discussion (in Korean) about how many points would be required to win. After allowing Ss to voice their opinions freely (which they did in Korean), T jokingly announced that the winners that day would be the groups who had failed to score.

2 Ms. Bae (High motivation co-ed group of 12-13 year-olds)

T1 (2nd min.): After T had set up the equipment (no linguistic in/output).

T2 (7th min.): In the 4th and 5th mins.T had called on individual Ss to read aloud and translate an English text but they were unable to read well. Consequently, she had played the audio-recording to help them, then, in the 6th minute, she had asked the whole class to read in chorus, while listening and repeating after the audio-recording.

T3 (15th min.): Ss had spent 5 mins. selecting pictures while listening to short audio-recorded dialogues on the theme of volunteer community work (English input).

T4 (20th min.): After 2 mins. spent going over the correct answers with the class, T had asked Ss what community work they would volunteer for (in Korean). Ss had made many spontaneous comments during the class discussion, which had lasted 3 mins.

T5 (35th min.): In the 30th min., T had called on individual Ss in order to elicit a translation of the audio-recording the Ss had been working on. As the Ss could not do it very successfully, she had helped them (considerably) to translate the text. Attention was high. Then T had continued a similar routine for 3 mins. with a new dialogue: For 1 min., Ss had selected some pictures while listening (English input), in the next minute they listened to the dialogue in short sections, and T called on individual Ss to repeat after the tape (1 min. of English input and output), helping when necessary. Just before T5, T attempted to elicit a

translation from the Ss but (probably conscious that the lesson was drawing to a close), she had finally given it to the whole class (1 min. of Korean input).

T6 (40th min.—end of period): Ss had completed a 2 min. formative test (Listen to the tape and fill in the blanks). English input and output.

3 Ms. Choi (High-motivation group of 13-14 year-old girls)

This lesson regularly takes place in a computer lab. The teacher used English throughout this lesson, except for the last 2 mins when she displayed some task products and set homework. English and Korean were used for a total of 6 mins., (a) in order to ask Ss to record their feelings (because my assistant had trained them to respond to a request in Korean), and (b) when responding to Ss' spontaneous questions in Korean. There is a token economy in place: Points are earned through group or individual activities (T stamps a special sheet that Ss have stuck inside their textbooks. These points count toward the "performance"part of their final assessment, i.e., as continuous assessment. To control Ss, T has developed a routine: She says "Attention..." and the Ss reply "Pretty girls!"

T1 (1st min.): Just before the lesson got under way.

T2 (4th min.): T had started the lesson by showing some news headlines from the CNN website so as to arouse curiosity about current natural disasters. This had been used to review vocabulary and to make the linguistic contents from the text in the textbook (about Pompeii) more relevant to the Ss. T had explained the purpose of this activity to the Ss. Ss had received points for answering T's questions (these points count towards the 'performance' part of their assessment).

T3 (10th min.): One group (4 Ss) had taken part in a vocabulary quiz game for 1 minute. The game (see rules below) contained the words the Ss had to learn for homework the previous lesson. The rest of the class had watched.

"Speed quiz" game:

All the words or expressions that Ss had to learn are listed in a wordprocessed document, which is displayed to the whole class on a large screen. Ss are allowed to see this list briefly to refresh their memory before the game starts. A time keeper is appointed (1 minute per group). T keeps a record of group points on the board.

- Each group goes up to the front of the class in turns for 1 minute. 3 people face the screen, the 4th person has her back to the screen. The rest of the class are spectators.
- Each word or expression has been written on a different PowerPoint slide, which is displayed on a large screen to the whole class.
- Aim of game: the 3 group members facing the screen have to get the 4th person to guess the word or expression on the slide.
- Rules: no gestures, no Korean, no wild guesses, no help from the audience.
- Time limit per group: 1 minute.
- The 3 group members have to try and get the 4th person to guess as many words as possible in 1 minute by giving definitions in English or any other type of verbal clue in English.

T4 (21st min.): After the 6 groups had taken part, and the winners had been identified, congratulated (including class applause), and awarded points towards their performance assessment.

T5 (28th min.): After T4, T had gone on to another quiz, but competition had been individual this time, with individual points as rewards. The aim was to check whether Ss had understood the text on Pompeii. Ss had been allowed to look at the text. After the quiz, which had lasted 4 mins., T had asked Ss whether they wanted to see the questions she had asked them orally. Ss had elected to see them.

T6 (43rd min—2 mins. before the end): T had announced that she was about to display some finished task products on the large screen. Ss had spent 11 mins. designing a souvenir bookmark about Pompeii and the disaster. They had to compose a short text and incorporate it in the design. T had given out the materials necessary for the task, allowing Ss to choose the colour of the paper they wanted. She had also encouraged Ss to help each other or to seek help from T. and given the opportunity to finish the product for homework.

4 Ms. Kim (Low-motivation group of 12-13 year-old boys)

T1 (3rd min.): During the first 2 mins., T had settled the boys down and announced that they would be doing word puzzles to review the vocabulary learnt during the year (T had downloaded the puzzles from a Korean educational website). T was giving out the first crossword puzzle worksheet when Ss were asked to record their feelings.

T2 (11th min.): Ss had spent 8 mins. completing the puzzle, which consisted of out of context words or expressions in Korean to be translated into English. Ss had been working individually, although T had regularly told them that they could help each other. A few Ss had immediately started completing the work, then engagement had gradually picked up to 2/3 or more after 6 mins. Most Ss seemed to understand that helping each other meant requesting or supplying answers.

T3 (20th min.): Between T2 and T3, Ss had been allowed to work for 4 more mins. on the word puzzle before T had stopped them in order to go over the answers with the whole class (RECITATION) T nominated individual Ss who had to give the answers to the word puzzle, while another nominated S wrote them up on the board. There had been a constant switch between Korean and English. Attention level had oscillated between few Ss and 1/3 to 1/2 of the class paying attention.

T4 (26th min.): End of checking activity. Ss recorded their feelings while word puzzle number 2 was being handed out.

T5 (31st min.): At T5, Ss had been allowed to work for 5 mins. on word puzzle number 2, which was similar in format to word puzzle number 1. T was about to start going over the answers with the whole class (same procedure as before).

T6 (41st min.—preceding formal closure of period): T had spent 9 mins. going over the answers to word puzzle number 2 with the whole class, using the same procedure as before. 2/3 or more Ss paid attention for the first 6 mins. of the checking activity, decreasing to 1/3 to 1/2 of the class in the last 3 mins.

5 Ms. Lee (Low-motivation co-ed group of 13-14 year-olds)

The questionnaire and the training period had been administered at home-room time that morning (at other schools, they were done immediately before the lesson).

T1 (1st min.): At the beginning of the first period after the lunch break, before T checked attendance and formally started the lesson.

T2 (10th min.): T had reviewed numbers before focusing on high numbers (10.000, 100.000, millions, etc., these presenting particular difficulties to Korean speakers). Between T1 and T2, T had used Korean for the first 4 mins. of the lesson, then a mixture of English and Korean for 5 mins. She had given strategies to read high numbers for 2 mins and tied her presentation to the bounty that had been placed on Saddam Hussein's head, and other real-life events that Ss were likely to be familiar with.

T3 (23rd min.): Occurred after T spent 1 min. talking about a cultural difference in Korean. Before that, Ss had spent 3 mins. spelling high numbers written out in figures on a worksheet which they had been given after T2. They were allowed to choose between spelling from memory or simply copying the numbers as these were also available to them. Along with T, they had read these numbers aloud in English in chorus for 5 mins. after T2, then performed a 1 min. noticing task (identifying ordinal numbers as they were reading aloud once more in chorus), followed by a 1 min. session with T going over the answers as a whole-class activity.

T4 (44th min.): Occurred 1min. before the end of the lesson, after T had spent one minute presenting (in Korean) the new grammatical forms embedded in a new text. T and Ss had been working on this text since the 28th min. of the lesson, using a mix of English and Korean. Before the grammar lecture, Ss had spent 5 mins. being called on by T to answer comprehension questions orally, or to tell the others anything that they had understood about the text.

6 Ms. Moon (Low-motivation group of 13-14 year-old girls)

T1 (1st min.): At the beginning of the lesson.

T2 (9th min.): Ss had been passively listening to an audio-recording of a new text in their textbooks for 6 mins., books open. English input, no output was required.

T3 (20th min.): Ss had been taking notes while listening to T translating part 1 of the text, and lecturing in Korean on lexical and grammatical items (4 mins. and 2 mins. respectively). These had been listed as the lesson objectives and displayed on the board, immediately after T had asked Ss comprehension questions (2 mins. in English, 1 min. in Korean) after T2.

T4 (24th min.): PROSE translation. After T3, there had been 1 more minute of lecture on a grammar point (in Korean), then T had asked Ss to translate a few sentences from Korean into English to check whether they were able to apply the newly-presented grammar rules. Ss had been asked to work individually in writing, for 2 mins.

T5 (30th min.): Just under 6 mins. passed between T4 and T5. Immediately after T4, T had called on two Ss to write their translations into English on the board, and had given informative feedback (i.e., using descriptive statements) on their errors. After that, T had translated part 2 of the text, reading it in sections in English before giving the Korean translation. In Korean, T had asked Ss to notice and highlight certain verb forms in their books but few Ss had attempted this activity. T had also asked some comprehension questions but Ss had failed to respond so she had eventually given them the answers.

T6 (40th min.—end of period): 9 minutes separated T5 from T6. After T5, T had translated part 3 of the text (reading it in sections in English before giving the translation in Korean). Then, T had read part 3 again non-stop (English input--no output required from Ss), and had translated it again into Korean. Few Ss had paid attention. In the 34th min., Ss had been given one minute to complete a reading comprehension exercise in their books (English and Korean in/output); few Ss engaged in this activity. Just before T6, T had asked some Ss to write their answers on the board and had commented on these for 4 mins while Ss were supposed to correct their own answers→ checking answers on the board.

Glossary of Acronyms

AMTB: Attitude/Motivation Test Battery.

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching.

COLT: Communication Orientation of Language Teaching (classroom observation scheme).

CSAT: College Scholastic Aptitude Test (South Korean university entrance test).

EFL: English as a Foreign Language.

ELT: English Language Teaching.

EM: Extension Memory, one of the four cognitive macro-systems in PSI (see section 5.3.2).

ESM: Experience Sampling Method (see section 6.6.6)

FTP: Future time perspective.

IBC: Intuitive Behavioral Control, one of the four cognitive macro-systems in PSI (see section 5.3.2).

IELTS: International English Language Testing System.

IM: Intention Memory , one of the four cognitive macro-systems in PSI (see section 5.3.2).

L2: second or foreign language.

MAPs: Metacognitive Awareness Probes, an instrument specially designed to measure the students' feelings during lessons (see section 6.6.6)

MOLT: Motivation Orientation of Language Teaching (classroom observation scheme).

OR: Object Recognition, one of the four cognitive macro-systems in PSI (see section 5.3.2).

PSI: Personality Systems Interaction theory (Kuhl, e.g., 2000a, 2000b)

SDT: Self-Determination Theory.

SLA: Second Language Acquisition.

TETE: a South Korean governmental policy requiring teachers to "Teach English through English."

TOEFL: Test of English as a Foreign Language.

TOEFL: Test of English as a Foreign Language.

TOEIC: Test of English for International Communication.

USAMGIK: U.S. Military Government in Korea.