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Motivation and the Learning Environment:

A Study of Japanese Learners of English

YOSHIYUKI NAKATA

Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics

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As a motivation researcher, I also wish to express my gratitude to Robert Gardner and Zoltán Dörnyei. I started to study motivation in 1991, strongly influenced by Gardner. That initial motivation was sustained, indeed became much stronger thanks to my frequent communications with Zoltán Dörnyei about his own research interests.

Finally, I dedicate this thesis to my wife without whose constant support and patience over a long period this would not have been possible.

SUMMARY

The thesis explores motivation, and the ways in which it is subject to change, among university-level Japanese learners of English as they react to different learning experiences.

The thesis is based on two empirical studies. Study 1 investigates the motivational characteristics of 288 Japanese learners of English on entering university. Study 2 describes i) a teaching project I carried out with a class (a sub-sample of the 288 learners) to whom I (as their teacher) introduced a new, learner-centred learning experience; ii) motivational changes among five of this group during the course of a year. The thesis explores: first, the extent to which university-level Japanese learners' lack of intrinsic motivation in relating to learning and using the target language, English, is linked to their previous learning experiences; second, whether they become more motivated when they are given more responsibility for the management of their classroom learning. I am also interested to see whether, as a result of positive classroom learning experiences, these learners find it more meaningful to learn English in the society in which they live.

Part One explores the basic construct motivation. Chapter 1 examines it from the perspective of human behaviour, and Chapter 2 takes a broader perspective, ending with my working definition of language learning motivation.

Part Two (Chapters 3 to 6) provides a literature review. Chapter 3 concerns studies that take a social psychological and educational perspective. Chapter 4 deals with theories in educational and cognitive psychology that are relevant here, especially

in relation to intrinsic motivation and learner autonomy. Chapter 5 discusses motivation and the learning environment. Here I argue for a social constructivist view of language learning motivation and suggest *two levels of intrinsic motivation*. Chapter 6 investigates the influence of social contextual issues on Japanese learners, especially Confucian thought and the Japanese educational system, including language education.

Part Three (Chapters 7, 8, 9, 10 and 11) describes and analyses the two empirical studies. Chapter 7 discusses various methodological tools in motivation research, including my two empirical studies. Chapter 8 reports on the results of the factor analytic study of the questionnaire administered of the 288 learners in Study 1. Chapter 9 describes the teaching project I carried out and presents the subjects and methodology of Study 2. Chapter 10 describes the findings of Study 2 and presents a model of each of the 5 learners' motivational changes — changes which cover the period in which they were students in my "teaching project" class and beyond.

The Conclusion summarises my argument that motivation is indeed affected by the learning environment and outlines some proposals for helping learners to motivate themselves further. I finish by suggesting avenues for further possible research.

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INTRODUCTION

> If you put a rooted avocado pit in a pot of earth it will probably grow into a tree, because it is in the nature of avocados to do that. It happens naturally. But not every pits become trees; some shrivel and decompose. They fail to thrive because the climate is inadequate, or the necessary nutrients are lacking. They need sun; they need water; and they need the right temperature. Those elements do not make trees grow, but they are the nutriments that the developing avocados need, that are necessary in order for the avocados to do what they do naturally. (Deci & Flaste, 1995, p. 98)

Let us imagine that avocados are like learners. A learner's motivation will grow in an appropriate environment — just like avocados do — but not necessarily in an *in*appropriate environment. Let us imagine that the avocados and the earth are like the teacher/learner relationship: learners' motivation is best fostered in certain conditions (the teacher's responsibility is therefore crucial).

My interest in this thesis is, as a teacher and a researcher, to explore how to create a desirable educational/learning environment where learners can motivate themselves. The research questions which form the basis of this thesis are the result of my own personal learning experiences and observation of EFL learners in Japan. It is my assumption that a focus on teacher-centredness, combined with factors like difficult entrance examinations for high schools and universities, long teaching hours and large class sizes, has lowered student motivational levels to the point where successful learning outcomes are extremely difficult and disaffection becomes cumulative.

Motivation plays a particularly crucial role in an EFL situation where learners are separated logistically and psychologically from the target culture. Their situation is thus

different from second language learners, whose English is a necessary and important communication tool for their daily lives. It is significant that motivation is being accorded an ever greater role in the learning process by language researchers in the Japanese context where learner motivation seems to be lagging.

Traditionally, most motivation research in the Unites States or Canada has been conducted in a quantitative manner (see Chapter 3 which discusses the social psychological approach of Gardner and associates, for example; and 4.4 for motivation studies in educational psychology). Psychologists have attempted to explain learning behaviour in the classroom in terms of two major concepts, namely intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation (e.g., Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1991). Hirayama (1997) argues that such a clear-cut distinction of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is not necessarily useful for Japanese practitioners who try to motivate students by drawing on the human relationship between teachers and students. I agree with this to a certain degree.

When we discuss motivation, we often think in terms of positive or negative attitudes in the classroom. This is a superficial and narrow view. Personal motivation in fact includes factors that extend beyond the classroom: it is a lifelong learning experience in a particular social context. In other words, we should not regard motivation as belonging to one community in the classroom; there are broad connections between the classroom and the school, the school and the government and the country at large. I shall therefore argue that a study of motivation among Japanese learners of English must carefully take contextual issues into consideration, including the learners' previous learning experiences that they have accumulated under the

educational system. A study of motivation among subjects like these should take account of factors not only within the classroom but also within society. And I shall suggest that its interpretation should be done within a social constructivist framework. My view of social constructivism is rooted in Dewey (1916): his view point is that it is a community or social group which sustains itself through continuous self-renewal, and that this renewal takes place by means of the educational growth of the immature members of the group.

Taking a social constructivist perspective is therefore particularly apt for investigating learners' motivational changes in a specific context. The general purpose of this thesis is to explore two aspects of foreign language learning in Japan: first, the extent to which university-level Japanese learners' lack of motivation in relation to learning and using the target language, English, is linked to their previous learning experiences; secondly, to explore ways in which they become intrinsically motivated generally, and more motivated in relation to using the target language, when they are given more responsibility for their learning in class.

The research goals of the thesis are based on my expectation that when the classroom changes from a teacher-dominated one to a more learner-centred one that emphasises learner collaboration, learners' motivation grows; through such an experience, their conceptions of, and attitudes towards English and the process of learning English will change as they realise the usefulness of using English; moreover their confidence will increase when they actually use English as a genuine means of communication and self-expression. (I should add though that this is done gradually,

through writing and then through speaking, given that Japanese learners are typically anxious about speaking the target language in front of others in class.) And as a result of such a learning experience, they may find meaning in their learning in the society they live in, and exhibit their motivated and self-regulated learning behaviour habitually, when away from the language classroom.

This thesis specifically follows two lines of approach to investigate these research goals: first, following a pilot study, a large-scale questionnaire was developed and administered to 288 1st year university students with non-English various majors across institutions, in order to have a broad picture of their motivational patterns. This constitutes Study 1. The findings of Study 1 then are used as a framework for a teaching project I carried out with samples of students and for the following qualitative investigation (see Chapters 9 and 10).

My second line of investigation is a longitudinal/qualitative study (Study 2) of motivational changes among 5 of these students when they are encouraged to be more autonomous in their learning, to work in groups and to communicate to each other (first through writing and then through speaking) in the target language. This study attempts to explore their motivational changes during the course and after the course of the project in which I am the teacher.

The first part (Chapters 1 and 2) discusses the theoretical issues that are fundamental to the study of language learning motivation. The thesis starts, in Chapter 1, by examining definitions of human motivation, in particular how humans behave for what purpose and how they differ from other animals. Then, in Chapter 2, the

multi-dimensional nature of motivation is stressed by presenting several aspects of motivation such as cognition and affect, time, and context in relation to learning. At the end of this chapter, a working definition of language learning motivation is discussed.

The second part of the thesis begins in Chapter 3 that takes a historical perspective on the research literature of language learning motivation in the domain of educational psychology as well as social psychology. Gardner's social psychological approach is discussed and the accumulated research results in this area are examined. The second half of this chapter argues about the limitations of the social psychological approach to motivation and points to new directions. The final part of this chapter concerns several new paradigms which are more education focused.

In Chapter 4, more individual learner-focused theories in the domain of motivation are reviewed. The first half is concerned with learner beliefs in relation to self-efficacy, attribution, and anxiety. The second half discusses autonomy in learning goal theory and self-determination theory. The spotlight is on learners' mind and attitudes.

Chapter 5 focuses on the process of motivational development through social interaction. This process is explained within a social constructivist framework. Then, the effective tools for social interaction, cooperative work, multimedia and language use are introduced. They form the basis of the teaching project. Finally, two models are proposed. *An early-stage model of motivational development* explains the process of learner motivational development from the perspective of developing learner autonomy. *Two levels of intrinsic motivation* discusses the development of the qualitative change

of intrinsic motivation. Thus in each model I view motivational development from different perspectives.

Chapter 6 starts with the background information on the English learning context and on language learning motivation studies in Japan. The Japanese educational context is discussed based on a social constructivist point of view. Confucian thought, the educational system, language education, and motivation studies in Japan are discussed, in order to make the interpretation of the findings (especially of Study 2) more fruitful.

The final part of this thesis comprises Chapters 7, 8, 9, 10 and 11. Chapter 7 discusses methodological issues in language learning motivation research and describes the summary of the quantitative study (Study 1) and the longitudinal/qualitative study (Study 2).

Chapter 8 reports on the cross-sectional/quantitative research (Study 1) in which the multiple-choice questionnaire data are factor-analysed in order to determine motivational constructs among Japanese learners of English. As a result of the factor analysis, five factors appear, namely *autonomy/intrinsic motivation*, *instrumental motivation*, *language learning belief*, *language use anxiety*, and *international orientation.* These factors are used as a point of reference for the teaching project and Study 2.

Chapter 9 describes the details of the subjects and methodology employed in Study 2. The details of the teaching project, including the teaching method, the materials and group work, are also discussed. The teaching project took place between April, 2000 and January, 2001.

Chapter 10 predominantly explores findings from the longitudinal/qualitative study (Study 2) (questionnaires and interview retrospective reports) with the 5 students who were also part of Study 1. The focus of this research is to explore each learner's motivational changes in himself/herself, and as he/she worked collaboratively on project work, over a period of several months, as part of the teaching project – during which time they engaged in a theme-based/multimedia-oriented group project. I also explored any changes they felt in their own motivation after the project (when I was no longer their teacher). I investigate data elicited from an interview I conducted with them on the subject of their performance in the oral presentation (that marked the end of the project) and on the subject of their responses in the questionnaire data they had filled in (April 2000, November 2000, January 2001, and January 2001). The research results indicated that their learning experience in the project did tap into the intrinsic motivation of all the learners. These learners did exhibit autonomous characteristics to some extent.

In Chapter 11, the conclusion, the pedagogical implications which arise from the findings described in the Chapters (8, 9, 10) are examined from the perspective of my findings in the two studies that shed light on links between motivation and the learning environment. The thesis concludes with the proposal of possible further research.

PART ONE

CONCEPTUALISING MOTIVATION

CHAPTER 1

ROOTS OF LANGUAGE LEARNING MOTIVATION

1.0 INTRODUCTION

> The ever present, ever–primary feature of motivation is the tendency to deal with the environment. (White, 1959, p. 317)

For over a decade, I have been working on motivation research, mainly following Gardner's social psychological perspective (e.g., Nakata, 1995a, 1995b). Most research results in this area have failed to answer the question such as: what is motivation? How do humans get motivated? What specifies motivation in language learning? Many of the researchers at least in the field of language learning motivation (including myself) seem to have been working in this complex field without knowing exactly what it is, since it is indeed a complex issue. I am strongly of the opinion that it is crucial to discuss such issues in advance of the literature review and the study, in order to make the study itself more fruitful. I shall argue that the nature of motivation lies in the relationship between cognition, feelings and emotions, and the environment, and that the inclusion of such elements will shed new light on language learning motivation research.

This chapter begins with a brief summary of motivation theories in psychology (1.1). It then continues with an exploration of the biological and psychological aspects of motivation that may explain why human motivation occurs (1.2). The chain consisting of biological, cognitive, and behavioural aspects of motivation is also discussed. In this way,

the chapter provides the framework for Chapters 2 and 3 which discuss language learning motivation, specifically motivational development.

1.1 THE COMPLEX NATURE OF MOTIVATION

Most of us would not disagree with the statement that motivation is largely responsible for determining human behaviour, and thus those who are really motivated to learn a foreign language will be able to become proficient to a certain degree regardless of their intelligence or language aptitude. Yet, we do not really know what motivation is or even if it actually exists. Interestingly, Boekaerts (1995, p. 2) considers motivation not as a unitary construct but as a blanket term that refers to a variety of cognitions and affects, such as expectancy, value, self-efficacy, goal orientation and interest, to name just a few. A leading researcher in language learning motivation, Dörnyei (2001b, p. 1) makes a similar claim that "motivation" is an abstract, hypothetical concept that we use to explain why people think and behave as they do. What these authors probably mean is that it is not possible to arrive at a perfect definition of motivation, though they strongly suggest it is one of the most important elements in education.

Nevertheless, we, as researchers, are responsible for defining motivation. Pintrich and Schunk (1996, p. 4) point out that the term *motivation* is derived from the Latin verb *movere* (to move), and thus consider motivation as something that gets us going, keeps us moving, and helps us get jobs done. Dictionaries define *motive* as "a reason for action," while *motivation* is defined as "the state of being motivated." Thus, "motive" seems to be a factor while "motivation" is more a psychological state. For example, a motive may lead

to some kind of motivation. However, in reality, these terms have been used with more or less similar meaning, which is one of the basic causes of the confusion found in the field of motivation research.

The term "motivation" is used in a very broad sense. Pintrich and Schunk (1996, p. 201) argue that most motivational theories propose that constructs such as instinct, drive, habit, needs, or goals, provide the "engine" to move organisms to act and also point to the direction in which to act, that is, to approach or to avoid certain objects in the environment. Motivation cannot be explained by a single definition. Because of the complexity in defining the term, there has been a paradigm shift in our understanding of motivation over the last 50 years (see Chapter 2). Eccles, Wigfield and Schiefele (1998) explain this shift as follows:

> The view of motivation has changed dramatically over the last half of the 20th century, going from a biologically based drive perspective to a behavioural-mechanistic perspective, and then a cognitive-mediational/constructivist perspective. The conception of the individual as a purposeful, goal-directed actor who must coordinate multiple goals and desires across multiple contexts within both short- and long-range time frames currently is prominent. As we approach the 21st century, the role of affect and less conscious processes is reemerging as a central theme. Complementing this more complex view of the psychology of motivation, researchers interested in the contextual influences on motivation are also adopting more complex and multicontextual frameworks. (p. 1074)

Recently, there is a growing belief among motivation researchers that motivation is essentially cognitive, in that they examine the underlying mental processes involved in motivation and how these are affected by personal and environmental factors. That is to

say, cognitive approaches place the focus on the individual's thought and beliefs that are transformed into action; and motivation is seen as the process whereby goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). This theory is relevant to my study in this thesis to a certain degree, in that my subjects engage in goal-directed activity in the teaching project (see Chapter 9); learners start to engage in learning when an appropriate learning environment is given.

The various approaches to motivation outlined above, spotlighting it from different angles, suggesting that motivation is indeed a multifaceted construct with a dynamic nature. At the same time, they enable us to explore different aspects of motivation. In this sense, all of the perspectives are important, (or at least some part of each perspective is), and therefore I shall explain the multifaceted nature of motivation in the thesis. As Weiner (1984, p. 18) points out, we need to examine many concepts and their interrelationship in order to develop a theory of student motivation, because any theory based on a single concept – such as reinforcement, self-worth, optimal motivation, or indeed something else –, may not be sufficient to deal with the complexity of classroom activities. Weiner (1992) contends this by saying:

> The concept of motivation appears in many fields of psychology. We read, for example, about the need to be motivated in order to *learn*, the innate motivation of the child to master the environment in order to *develop*, the motivated selectivity in the processing of environmental stimuli in order to *perceive*, the motivation to improve in order to benefit from *clinical intervention*, and so on. Hence motivation lies at the heart, the very center, of psychology. (p. 1)

My own starting point is to investigate process-oriented perspectives of personal

motivation interacting with social motivation in relation to both cognition and affect. The philosophy of this thesis is based on the concept of social constructivism (see 5.1), specifically of Dewey (1916). I first draw on general approaches to understanding motivation in order to establish a theoretical framework for my empirical experiment, which investigates motivation among L2 learners in a particular context. I would like to start to develop my theoretical framework by discussing human motivation.

1.2 UNDERSTANDING MOTIVATION AS PART OF HUMAN BEHAVIOUR

1.2.1 *Biological Roots of Motivation*

There seems to be common ground among researchers in the field that motivation belongs to the field of psychology. Motivation studies, especially in language learning, have not gone beyond psychological theory. Humans are thought to carry out motivated behaviour through some sort of psychological process. But why and how do humans come to have such motivation? Many motivation studies, especially in the field of language learning, have not really addressed these questions enough. Arriving at research results without discussing such a core issue may be fruitful at the surface level, but may not actually be so at a deeper level. This becomes even more important when we perceive motivation as a "process," since this involves a motivational chain of interaction between the environment, a person's cognition, and his behaviour. White (1959) argues this by saying:

> We need a different kind of motivational idea to account fully for the fact that man and the higher mammals develop a competence in dealing with the environment... Such an idea, I believe, is essential for any biologically sound view of human nature. (p. 297)

It is therefore important to discuss biological aspects in addition to psychological aspects, especially within the framework of the mechanism of human learning. Hence, in this section, I attempt to answer the question: what are the roots of human behaviour and motivation?

It is generally agreed that motivation cannot be directly observed from behaviour only. For this reason, most motivation researchers have attempted to explore psychological processes in order to tap into it. However, we need to consider questions like: where do such psychological processes come from? Why do living animals have motivation? What kinds of motivation do they have? How does the brain relate to motivation? Is human motivation different from that of animals? Although these questions are difficult to answer, it is worth briefly exploring the biological roots of motivation before we discuss the *time* aspect of motivation (because this relates to the notion of change in human behaviour including motivation).

The roots of motivation theories can be traced back to Darwin's theory of evolution that man, derived from some animal form, is considered as the specific or sub-specific unity of the several races selected by nature (see his discussion of natural selection; or the survival of the fittest in his book "On the Origin of Species"). That is, life on earth is simply the result of billions of years of adaptation to changing environments. Being interested in the environment implies having some kind of satisfaction with it (White, 1959, p. 315). That satisfaction may have an effect upon the environment, both in dealing with it, and changing it in various ways. Humans, like every other organism, are the result of evolution, and thus have a capacity to change themselves under different environments.

In other words, humans have developed through social interaction.

In adopting this position, several scholars were influenced by Darwin's notion of evolution, to a lesser extent or greater extent. One of America's foremost philosophers, John Dewey, spotlighted this from the perspective of learning. He was one of the first to argue that learning processes are embedded in the learning context. He (1916) explains his argument as follows:

> The most notable distinction between living and inanimate things is that the former maintain themselves by renewal .... As long as a living thing endures, it struggles to use surrounding energies in its own behalf. It uses light, air, moisture, and the material of soil .... Life is a self-renewing process through action upon the environment .... Continuity of life means continual readaptation of the environment to the needs of living organs. (pp. 1-2)

Unlike Dewey, Maturana and Varela (1987, p. 75) take a more biological perspective, asserting that the roots of evolution lie in "structural coupling": the result of a history of recurrent interactions leading to the structural congruence between two (or more) systems. Put simply, all animals have the capacity of changing themselves under different environments. For example, animals change their physical appearance through social interactions. White (1959, p. 297) argues that though humans possess highly plastic nervous systems, their fitness to interact with the environment is slowly attained through prolonged feats of learning.

According to Dewey's view (1916, p. 2), such principle of continuity through renewal can be applied to the word "experience" of a human being. He suggests that in the case of human beings, this includes not only the renewal of physical existence but also the

recreation of beliefs, ideals, hopes, happiness, misery, and practices. According to Dewey (1916, p. 11), the environment consists of those conditions that promote or hinder, stimulate or inhibit, the *characteristic* activities of a living being. The environments they exist in therefore may lead them to strengthen or weaken their beliefs.

We can thus suppose that human motivation may also have a changing nature under different environments. Put another way, human motivation can be enhanced or reduced through experiences under optimal or undesirable environments. We also may be able to say that motivation does not necessarily grow in an environment where there is rare social interaction or communication. This perspective on motivation may well explain the relationship between biological roots and motivation. Humans' capacity to change themselves may provide a framework for exploring why living animals behave as they do. Moreover, the concept of social interaction may well be applied to language learning. If humans have been developed through social interaction, it can be assumed that humans have the capacity to deal with the environment, and thus human motivation (or even language learning motivation) can also be changed through social interaction.

1.2.2 *The Roots of Human Motivation*

In order to explore the mechanisms of human behaviour, it is necessary to discuss exactly what behaviour is. Behaviour is not an invention of the nervous system, but what the nervous system does is *expand* the realm of possible behaviours by endowing the organism with a tremendously versatile and plastic structure (Maturana & Varela, 1987, p. 138). Maturana and Varela (1987) define behaviour thus: "By *behaviour* we mean the changes of a living being's position or attitude, which an observer describes as movements

or actions in relation to a certain environment" (p. 136). In this sense, any kinds of behaviours that we observe are phenomena that partly arise from the interaction between organisms and the environment.

There are two types of behaviour that are common to humans and animals and which are relevant to motivation: innate behaviour and learned behaviour (Maturana & Varela, 1997, p. 171). Innate behaviour is instinctive and thus genetically determined. For example, an infant shortly after being born suckles its mother's breast. Learned behaviour is developed through social interaction. Much of what we do, we have learned by interacting with others and imitating others.

Schumann (1998) also spotlights the biological aspect of motivation, but from the perspective of second language acquisition. Schumann's (1998) discussion of the biological foundations of motivation is based on the premise: "Through evolution, all humans inherit two systems of motivation: homeostatic and sociostatic regulation" (p. 1). On the one hand, humans are motivated by systems called *homeostates* – systems that allow the organism to breath, feed, stay warm or cool, and maintain an appropriate heart rate. On the other hand, people are also motivated by *sociostates* – the innate drives for attachment and social affiliation, which are initially directed toward the infant's mother or caregiver and which are gradually extended to others in the individual's network of social relations. According to Schumann (1998, p. 1), throughout all of human life, the above two innate motivational tendencies foster the organism's motor activity in the environment. He considers that due to this tendency, humans can develop preferences such as likes and dislikes towards others and their value system. Such values systems will influence the

cognition (perception, attention, memory, and action) that is devoted to learning. Since value systems are based on past experiences, they will vary in each individual. This implies that human motivation can be influenced by past experiences.

What makes humans unique? It may be their experiences of increasingly complex social interaction in their evolution. By interacting with the environment, we humans may have developed an ability to use cognition and language, and to self-regulate (see 1.2.4). Schumann (1998, p. 244) explains differences in the cognition of monkeys and humans. Monkeys seem to be only interested in those aspects of their environment for survival, while humans are interested in much about their environment that relates not only to their survival but also to others. Since monkeys' cognition seems to be domain specific, they do not seem to generalise knowledge across domains. In contrast, humans are equipped with the ability to generalise knowledge across domains. We are able to use language and to manipulate symbols that facilitate the transfer of social knowledge to the domain of abstract logical thinking.

It must be added that language is crucially important for us, because through language, we can describe ourselves. Maturana and Varela (1987, p. 233) go so far as to claim that human beings are human only in language, because the appearance of language in humans (and of the whole social context in which it appears) generates this new phenomenon of mind and self-consciousness as mankind's most intimate experience. Humans could not have entered into the human domain without an appropriate history of interactions, and indeed exist in a network of structural couplings, as they argue. If this is true, certainly motivation for human beings is related to language to a great degree.

Thanks to this linguistic ability, some human behaviours can be differentiated from animal ones (Matsurana & Varela, 1987, pp. 211-212). We are able to behave as we think using linguistic knowledge (even when we do not verbalise it). In short, human motivation is different from that of animals because humans are able to use language.

1.2.3 *The Self in Relation to the Environment*

Weiner (1992, p. 361) contends that the self lies at the very core of human experience and thus must be part of any theoretical formation in the field of human motivation.

We humans are also said to possess a capacity of autonomy (for a discussion of autonomy in the educational context, see 4.4). Allport (1937), a well-known motivation theorist, notes that people are best viewed as unique systems constantly evolving and striving toward goals, and proposes the following *functional autonomy of motives*:

> The dynamic psychology...regards adult motives as infinitely varied, and as self-sustaining, *contemporary* systems, growing out of antecedent systems, but functionally independent of them. Just as a child gradually repudiates his dependence on his parents, develops a will of his own, becomes self-active and self-determining, and outlives his parents, so it is with motives. Each motive has a definite point of origin which may lie in the hypothetical instincts, or more likely, in the organic tensions and diffuse irritability. (p. 194)

Hence, humans do have the capacity to become autonomous by interacting with others in the environment. According to White (1959), all humans possess autonomous features:

> Of all living creatures, it is man who takes the longest strides toward autonomy. This is not because of any unusual tendency toward bodily expansion at the expense of the environment. It is rather that man, with his mobile hands and abundantly developed brain,

> attains an extremely high level of competence in his transactions with his surroundings. (p. 324)

Similarly, Bråten (as cited in Trevarthen, 1992) argues that humans possess a self-maintaining and self-developing system and that the "self-other" motivation keeps the "self" organised and seeks to change through engagement with "others":

> The mind of a newborn baby may be conceived as a network of interacting nerve elements that constitute a self-maintaining and self-developing (autopoeitic) system, which...requires human communication. The motivating states determine what stimuli will be attended to, how they will be organized into percepts and thoughts, and what actions will be made in relation to what is perceived. They pattern the assimilation of information to guide and confirm, or disconfirm and weaken, the actions of response as these make contact with the environment. ... they show a selective interest in responding to the expressions of another person. (p. 109)

We have seen the strong argument about "self" interacting with others. Other researchers focus on the development of "self" including motivation and its development from within. Trevarthen (1992, p. 103) argues that human beings' collective understanding has its intrinsic source in the sympathetic impulse of human brains interacting, initiating, and completing one another's experience and the capacity to act.

Deci and Flaste (1995) assert the humanistic position that human beings are organisms rather than a mechanism:

> People develop through the process of organismic integration as they proactively engage their world .... people are inherently proactive and inclined to operate on their environment to bring about effects, and in the process to learn and grow ... Human development is a process in which organisms continuously elaborate and refine their inner sense of themselves and their world in the service of greater coherence. (p. 80)

This reference to people's "sense of themselves" should be understood in the context of their research emphasising the importance of intrinsic motivation. The concept of *intrinsic motivation* is not a drive-based motivation, since it suggests that the energy is intrinsic to the nature of organism (Deci & Ryan, 1985, p. 5). Deci and Flaste (1995, p. 83) view human behaviour and experience in relation to "the dialectic between the person and the environment." They argue that the interaction between the active organism striving for unity and autonomy and the social context can be either nurturing of or antagonistic toward the person's organismic tendencies. Therefore, human motivation can be enhanced if social contexts support and affirm people's autonomy, while it can be reduced if social contexts diminish people's autonomy (Deci & Flaste, 1995, p. 81). Thus we humans have the potential innate capacity of autonomy, no matter whether it is visible or invisible in human behaviour.

The concept of intrinsic motivation is a key issue in this thesis (see 4.4.2 and Figure 6 with modified models Figures 8-12 for each learner, and see 5.1.6 and Figures 7 and 13 for its developmental concept: *social constructivist view of intrinsic motivation*).

1.2.4 *Self-regulation in Learning*

In an explanation of the relationship between human cognition and the environment, the concept of self-regulation should not be ignored. It helps to explain how and why a person regulates (either implicitly or explicitly, see 4.4.3 for the discussion) one type of performance but not another. Zimmerman (2000) notes the significance of self-regulation for humans as below:

> Perhaps our most important quality as humans is our capability to self-regulate. It has

> provided us with an adaptive edge that enabled our ancestors to survive and even flourish when changing conditions led other species to extinction. (p. 13)

From a social cognitive perspective, Zimmerman (2000) defines self-regulation as "self-generated thoughts, feelings, and actions that are planned and cyclically adapted to the attainment of personal goals" (p. 12). This definition also places emphasis on actions and covert processes, whose presence and quality depend on one's beliefs and motives. Such a contextually related self-process explains variations in personal motivation to self-regulate one's performance (Bandura, 1997). Self-regulation is considered as cyclical because any feedback from prior performance is used to make adjustments during current efforts and because personal, behavioural, and environmental factors are constantly changing during the course of learning and performance (Zimmerman, 2000, p. 14).

The self-regulatory process is considered as both cognitive and motivational (Pintrich, 2000; Kuhl, 2000; Boekaerts, 1997). Self-regulated people are considered as being meta-cognitively, motivationally, and behaviourally active in their own learning processes and in achieving their own goals (Zimmermann, 1989). Interestingly, Ushioda (1996a) also argues that when we refer to learners becoming autonomous, the process involves self-regulation not only in the cognitive sense but also in a motivational sense.

However, such a distinction between motivational self-regulation and cognitive self-regulation, is in my view, far too clear-cut, when we consider closely the self-regulatory process. In addition, when we put a spotlight more closely on the motivational process, my view is that motivation includes both aspects of affect and cognition, in other words, affective self-regulation and cognitive self-regulation (see 2.1.3

for the discussion). As already noted, in this thesis I am looking at motivational development which includes both affective self-regulation (e.g., emotion and desire) and cognitive self-regulation (e.g., goal-setting, goal-directed reflection, meta-cognition) (see chapter 10).

Boekaerts (1997) also addresses the role of the teacher in fostering self-regulation and argues that for self-regulated learning to develop, "teachers must create a powerful learning environment, in which students are allowed and inspired to design their own learning experiments" (p. 162). In other words, "students should be motivated to actively participate (experiment and reflect) in the teaching-learning processes organized by the teacher and construct their own knowledge base on the basis of direct and indirect learning experiences" (Boekaerts, 1997, p. 163). In order for this to happen, teachers must be very sensitive to contextual issues. Although we know that self-regulation is a human capacity, its development varies from one learner to another. Naturally, teaching approaches should ideally be based on learners' needs, and the process of providing an optimal learning environment must be flexible. Boekaerts (1995) proposes that teachers should only provide cognitive and emotional scaffolding (a kind of support from others; see too the discussion of Bruner in 5.1.3) when necessary, taking care of the following two things:

> In the first place, students who perceive their learning environment as highly pre-programmed may feel there is little room for self-regulation. This feeling may not only create a sense of low autonomy and low decision latitude, but...prevent students from learning to behave according to self-related commitments. In the second place, teachers should realize that students who demonstrate high achievement under optimal external conditions may not perform up to standard under less optimal conditions (e.g., when stressed). In other words, they are not autonomous yet. ... when it is our aim to

> prepare students for participating in "learning organizations" and to make use of knowledge networks. We should make them independent of their teachers, parents and other supervisors for creating optimal internal learning conditions. (p. 10)

In other words: where teachers provide optimal external conditions but learners are not yet capable of an optimal internal environment, this external regulation becomes only a temporary solution (Boekaerts, 1995, p. 20). In this case, there is a danger that teachers may encode the wishes and expectations of others as obligations because it may induce emotions and affects that are counter-productive for self-regulation including motivation. This may be the case with Japanese EFL learners, as we shall see in Chapter 6. It follows that teachers must provide learners with an optimal environment for them to learn to regulate their own behaviour.

Taking her argument further, Boekaerts (1995, p. 18) proposes a model: "*Three Stages of the Behavioral Change Process*" (see Figure 1 below). As a prerequisite element of this process, teachers must be acquainted with learners' previous learning experiences and their competence. In the motivation stage, teachers should ideally start creating a good atmosphere to motivate change. I personally believe such an atmosphere can be achieved mainly through the creation of a trusting relationship of teacher and students. Teachers also should know if learners are ready for self-regulated learning and are willing to invest sufficient effort (behavioural intention) to integrate the new information into memory. I also believe teachers should not introduce a new learning environment until they have made sure learners are ready for it (see Chapter 9).

The transition from the first to the second stage is marked by the students'

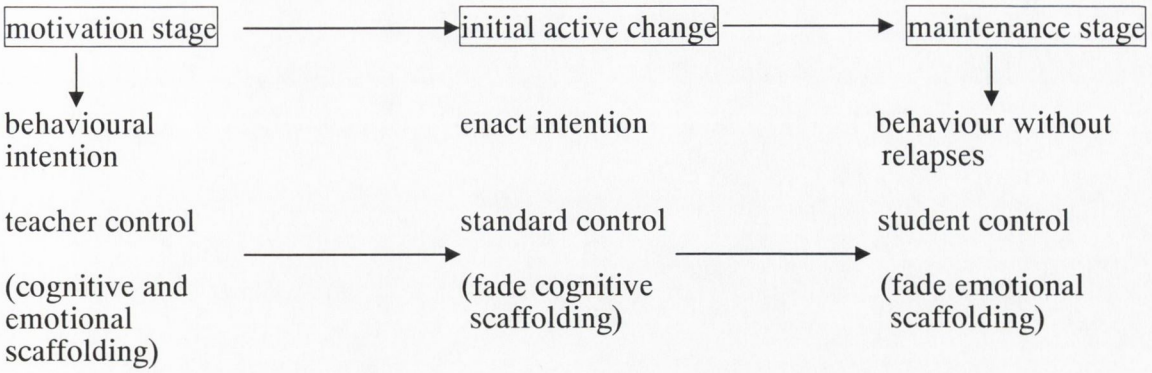


Figure 1. Boekaert's Three Stages of the Behavioural Change Process

awareness (fuelled by meta-cognitive knowledge and by effort) that externally generated regulation (cognitive and emotional scaffolding) must gradually be replaced by internal regulation (Boekaerts, 1995, p. 19). Here, teachers gradually start to make learners independent by teaching them how to study, find and use materials, use technology, and how to use social support networking such as peers. Learners have a chance to improve their skills by learning individually, cooperatively, and using technology. Teachers start to phase out cognitive scaffolding by sharing control with peers. In other words, the teacher's role is not to teach directly or judge but to coach learners how to study by themselves. According to Boekaerts (1995), learners may move on to the third level only after they become able to assess their progress by themselves and recognise relapses or problems in their behaviour. During the third stage, teachers start to phase out emotional scaffolding. In order to fade teacher support completely, students should be provided with opportunities to work in different contexts and, as a result, enjoy complete freedom and autonomy. Feedback should be flexible enough so that learners can use creative energy

and exert multiple forms of self-regulation.

The longitudinal/qualitative study in this thesis (Study 2) focuses on the transitional process between Boekaerts' notion of a motivation stage and an initial active change, and learners' slight movement toward the maintenance stage (Chapter 10). The teaching project in this thesis (Chapter 9), which is more or less based on these concepts, explores motivational self-regulatory process of learners, with the development of learners' self-regulatory skills as an educational goal. In other words, the goal of the teaching project is to help learners towards greater autonomy by providing them with an optimal learning environment, and spotlighting their learning process where they are not coming across as autonomous. In the teaching project, I also carefully introduce a new learning environment, paying attention to the contextual issues (see Chapter 6). Here I must restate that what I mean by self-regulation and what I am going to explore, is motivational rather than cognitive self-regulation, although I assume they are two sides of the same coin.

1.2.5 *Cognition and Motivation in the Classroom*

Let us recall the questions discussed earlier in this section: *why do humans behave as they do? What is the root of human behaviour and that of motivation?* Having explored the nature of motivation from a biological perspective and then from the perspective of its link with social interaction, how can we redefine the process of motivational development in the classroom? Or, *why and how do learners behave as they do in a particular context?* I first would like to describe the relationship between motivation and the environment, and then discuss the relationship between environment, cognition, and behaviour.

The relationship between motivation and environment is very well explained in the

theory of *effectance motivation* (White, 1959, p. 329). It involves satisfaction — a feeling of efficacy — in transactions in which behaviour has an exploratory, varying, experimental character and produces changes in the stimulus field. This theory considers that there is a continuous chain of events that includes stimulation, cognition, action, effect on the environment and new stimulation. This chain carries on with considerable emphasis on those parts of the environment that provide changing and interesting feedback in connection with effort expended.

Humans' interaction with the environment can also influence the formation of habit. From a social constructivist point of view, Dewey (1916) regards habit as something formed under various conditions:

> A habit means an ability to use natural conditions as means to ends. It is an active control of the environment through control of the organs of action .... Education is...defined as consisting in the acquisition of those habits that effect an adjustment of an individual and his environment .... We are never interested in changing the *whole* environment; there is much that we take for granted and accept just as it already is. Upon this background our activities focus at certain points in an endeavor to introduce needed changes. Habitation is thus our adjustment to an environment...which supplies a leverage to our active habits. (pp. 46-47)

According to my interpretation of this citation, this indicates that learners may perform better when provided with an appropriate learning environment. This suggests that we need to offer a learning environment where learners can continuously think and perform in a coordinated way so that their study becomes a habitual one, rather than just providing them with practice of isolated skills. Dewey's concept has greatly influenced my view of motivation in this thesis (see 5.1). The concept of habit influences *two levels of intrinsic*

motivation (see 5.5.1).

Now I would like to discuss the interrelationship between context, cognition, and motivated behaviour in the classroom and explain how humans develop their motivation when dealing with learning environment. Pintrich (1994, pp. 25-26) proposes a model of the general process of student academic motivation, called "*an integrative model for conceptualizing student motivation in the college classroom.*" This model consists of three major elements: contextual factors, internal factors, and motivated behaviour (see Figure 2 below).

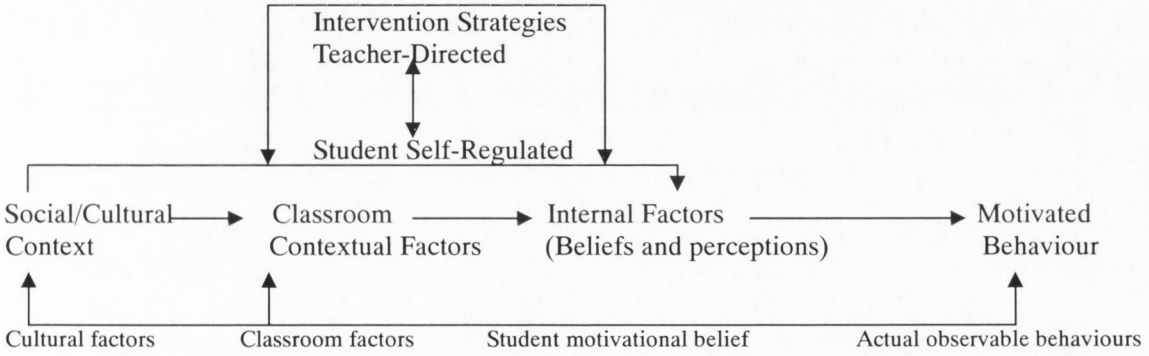


Figure 2. Part of Pintrich's Integrated Model of Student Motivation in the Classroom

As Pintrich (1994, p. 25) explains, contextual factors referred to in the model include various features of the classroom environment: nature of tasks (content, product), reward and goal structures (individualistic, cooperative, competitive), instructional method, and instructor behaviour. Such contextual factors are assumed to influence the second major component (internal factors): students' motivational beliefs. These consist of an expectancy component (control beliefs, attributions, learned helplessness,

self-efficacy: see Chapter 4), a value component (intrinsic goals, extrinsic goals, task value, personal interest), and affective components (test anxiety, self-worth, pride or shame). Such motivational beliefs are the internal thoughts and emotions that students have about themselves in relation to the context and their perceptions of that context. It is assumed that individuals are active processors of information and that they are able to construct their own meaning and perceptions of the context. Such cognitive process can possibly lead to motivated behaviour. Students' observable behaviour, which is the third major component, is the one that is assumed to be a function of students' motivational beliefs and also of the classroom contextual factors. This motivated behaviour is actually observable and one that can be used as an indicator of motivation. It implies features such as choice of behaviour, level of activity and involvement, and persistence behaviour/regulation of effort.

As Pintrich (1994) also suggests, the model attempts to describe "a dynamic and interacting system of the three major components of classroom context, motivational beliefs and behaviour" (p. 26). It stresses that the three major components are linked in reciprocal ways, based on the premise that students' actual behaviour provides feedback that influences their motivational beliefs, while students' behaviour also influences instructors' behaviour. Pintrich (1994, p. 26) describes an additional feature: learners' a priori motivational beliefs about themselves and the course that can influence their perceptions of the classroom context and their subsequent beliefs and behaviour. Every learner will have had years of experience of learning from peers, siblings, and parents. Whether classroom learning experiences are compatible with their prior learning

experience or not is a crucial issue, since it might affect the motivational process. Overall, the model meets the question: *why and how do learners behave as they do?* The model shares a similar component with *two levels of intrinsic motivation* (see 5.5.1), in attempting to explore the dynamic and interacting systems of three major elements: contextual factors, internal factors, and motivated behaviour. Pintrich's model also offers valuable practical implications for designing the teaching project in the thesis (see 9.1.3).

The process of motivational development for human beings is of course extremely difficult to observe; for one thing, the biological aspect of motivation has to be borne in mind. Taking this into consideration, in this thesis, I will attempt to answer the question: *How do learners motivate themselves, interacting with others in the learning environment?*

1. 3 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, early theories of motivation, the biological perspectives of motivation, and various types of motivation were discussed. First, I briefly summarised some historical perspectives of motivation theories. Then, we saw how humans and other animals are the result of evolution and thus they partly share similar type of motivation. Third, I argued that humans like other animals have the capacity to change themselves with various types of social interactions and in different environments. Fourth, it was noted that all living beings have a capacity to be autonomous, and autonomy can develop through social interaction. Fifth, unlike other lower animals, human beings are unique because of the capacity of linguistic systems which influence their psychological

processes and thus human motivation is different from that of other animals. Finally, humans are unique with their facility of the cognitive system that generalises knowledge across domains.

In addition, several studies enabled me in this chapter to find connections between the biological aspect of motivation and the pedagogical aspect. Dewey's view of social constructivism (1916) was seen to be particularly valuable in this regard. Boekaerts's model (1995) offers a valuable insight on self-regulation and motivational development in learning. Pintrich's model (1994) does much to explain the motivational development in the classroom. Building on the literature already discussed, in the next chapter, I will establish my views of motivation further by identifying several crucial issues on motivation that are important for understanding language learning motivation.

CHAPTER 2

CONCEPTUALISING LANGUAGE LEARNING MOTIVATION

2.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, I discussed the roots of human motivation, and I argued that motivation is a complex issue. Given such broadness and complexity, specifying my view of motivation as a researcher is crucial. In this chapter, I present my views of motivation by discussing several crucial issues, and I propose a working definition of language learning motivation.

The chapter first discusses the core concept of motivation (2.1). Then, I substantiate my view of language learning motivation and introduce a working definition (2.2) that is the basis for the empirical part of Study 2 because it involves pedagogy. Key aspects of motivation (consciousness/unconsciousness, cognition/affect, process/product, individual/social) are identified and different approaches to defining language learning motivation are discussed. I attempt to locate my position in terms of motivation theories, and to identify which particular aspect of motivation I am going to focus on. I consider motivation as conscious as well as unconscious, as cognition as well as affect, individual as well as social, but process rather than product. It is the basis of these considerations that I propose my working definition of language learning motivation (2.2).

2.1 TOWARDS A DEFINITION OF L2 LEARNING MOTIVATION

2.1.1 *A Core Definition of L2 Learning Motivation*

I have shown in the previous chapter that motivation has been reworded from several different perspectives. Language learning motivation is especially difficult to define. Probably the most encompassing definition of motivation is the following one given by Dörnyei (2001a):

> Perhaps the only thing about motivation most researchers would agree on is that it, by definition, concerns the *direction* and *magnitude* of human behaviour, that is: the *choice* of a particular action, the *persistence* with it, the *effort* expended on it. In other words, motivation is responsible for *why* people decide to do something, *how long* they are willing to sustain the activity, *how hard* they are going to pursue it. (p. 8)

If we accept that this is a fundamental definition of motivation, the question arises as to how we might define the sub-components of motivation. We will see in Chapter 3 that Gardner has been endeavoring to define the sub-components of motivation in his long career in quantitative research. However, at this moment, there is no precise agreement on actual mediating factors and processes by means of which motivation effects its impact on human behaviour, and the field of motivational psychology is characterised by a great number of competing or partially overlapping theories (Dörnyei, 2000, p. 520). Indeed, research dealing with such a complex issue should be conducted with caution. In his book *Teaching and Researching Motivation* (Dörnyei, 2001a), he outlines key issues that motivation researchers have been confronted with (consciousness vs unconsciousness, cognition vs affect, reduction vs comprehensiveness, context, and time). As Dörnyei (1998) warns us, "L2 motivation is necessarily a multifaceted construct, and describing its nature and its core features requires particular care" (p. 118).

What he implies here, I believe, is that researchers should not carry out research without specifying the aspect of motivation they are investigating and the clear research goal. Therefore, on the basis of these discussions (Dörnyei, 2001a) he raised, I am going to specifically focus on four main issues: consciousness/unconsciousness, cognition/affect, time, and context.

My aim in this thesis is to capture motivation as a changing process over time. The issues I am going to discuss next are crucial in conducting motivation research since they affect my view of motivation, the aspects of motivation I will investigate, the research goal, the research methodology I employ and, naturally, the interpretation of the research results.

2.1.2 *Conscious and Unconscious Elements of Motivation in Learning*

The question whether learners are conscious or not in their motivational changes is a controversial issue. When learners learn something, possibly with their motivation increased, are they aware of being motivated? It is extremely difficult to investigate whether or not human motivation is conscious. Weiner (1986), for example, stresses the superiority of consciousness in motivation research by saying:

> many significant thoughts and feelings are conscious and known by the actor... We may not be aware of psychological process, or the "how's" of psychology, but we often are aware of psychological content, or the "what's" of psychology...for the typical and prevalent aspects of being – that is, considering how life is spent and what is reflected upon – direct access to the determinants of motivation and emotion is quite possible. (p. 285)

In contrast, Eccles and her colleagues (Eccles, Wigfield, & Schiefele, 1998) argue that

motivated behavioural choices are less rational and more non-conscious processes. Bargh and Barndollar (1996) also explain the role of unconsciousness in the psychological processes that occur from perception to evaluation, and within motivation and behaviour:

> behavioral as well as cognitive goals can be activated directly by the environment without conscious choice or awareness of the activation; that the goals, once activated, direct information processing and social behaviour .... The activated goals operate autonomously, bypassing the need for any conscious selection or choice of them, and even producing outcomes different from what the individual would choose if the goal were not primed. (p. 475)

Sorrentino (1996) stresses the different roles of consciousness and unconsciousness in motivational development as follows:

> We have an incomplete picture of what determines information processing and performance if we do not look at both conscious and nonconscious forces as they interact with each other. Conscious thoughts help to define the situation, but then motivation takes over .... Evidence...leaves little room for those who believe that all behaviour must be preceded by conscious thought... Clearly, much behaviour can occur without knowledge of the reasons for that behaviour. (p.635)

In other words, conscious thought as well as non-conscious behaviour can strengthen, weaken, or change the very nature of the behaviour. Conscious thought does not occur in a vacuum but is often the product of non-conscious forces that occur in association with environmental cues. Hence, in L2 development, it can be said that learners' motivational development may be both conscious and unconscious.

Clearly, the terms actions, behaviour and developmental processes are interrelated.

We can however make a distinction between motivated behaviour that is goal-driven and largely conscious, and motivational processes that are both conscious and non-conscious. Motivated behaviour that comes with metacognition is goal-directed. The extent to which learners are constantly aware of motivational processes may vary as learners move from the early stage of learning to a later stage. We may suppose that, as the motivational process moves to the next stage, the higher proportion of unconsciousness that existed in the early stage may decrease and consciousness may increase. It should be noted that I am not taking the standpoint that unconsciousness is more important than consciousness, but rather stressing that motivational processes are both conscious and unconscious. Consciousness versus unconsciousness is a matter of degree, not "either... or." I do however assume that in the early motivational development the learners' motivational development may be more predominantly unconscious than conscious.

2.1.3 *Cognition and Affect in Motivation*

Another facet of motivation in learning is whether it relates more to cognition or affect. Traditionally, motivational psychology has emphasised cognitive aspects rather than affective ones. Recently, however, cognition and affect are accounted for in unified frameworks as we see in Weiner's proposal (1992, p. 361) that a theory of motivation must include the full range of cognitive processes as well as the full range of emotions. Schumann (1998, p. xv) goes so far as to argue that success in second language acquisition is emotionally driven, since emotion underlies most, if not all cognition. He asserts that affect and cognition work together to generate mental and motor behaviour:

> I would like to make some speculations about the role of affect in cognition in general,

> to again attempt to bring together areas that have frequently been treated separately at the psychological level .... With the recognition that the brain executes both affect and cognition and has evolved over time, it may be helpful to distinguish among different kinds of motivation, some of which may be more closely related to affect than others. (p. 238)

Schwartz and Bohner (1996) focus on motivational consequences of affective states and provide an insightful look at how affective and motivational systems are intertwined and influence each other. Cognitive processes can meet the situational requirements signaled by different affective states.

Hilgard (1963, p. 267) recognises the need for an integrative approach: "purely cognitive theories of learning will be rejected unless a role is assigned to affectivity," while Dörnyei (2001a) stresses the importance of investigating both affective and cognitive aspects in motivation research. He (2001a, p. 11) asserts that although current cognitive researchers emphasise individuals' thoughts, beliefs and interpretational processes that are transformed into action, they would not question that emotional experience such as anger, pride, gratitude, shame or anxiety, play a very important role in shaping human behaviour, and most comprehensive overviews of motivation recognise this influence.

In exploring the motivational process of language learning, I shall consider both cognition and affect, as I investigate learners' beliefs about, and interpretations of their language learning experiences, as well as their feelings about them. Taking Schumann's assertion that second language acquisition is primarily emotionally driven, and that there is affectively driven cognition involved in sustained deep learning, my teaching project

(see 9.1) aims to tap learners' affective domain — primarily since I assume this will link with their cognitive domain. And *an early stage model of motivational development* (see Figure 6) is developed partially based on this assumption.

2.1.4 *The Time Aspect of Motivation*

We have no doubt that beliefs and feelings are subject to change over time. Traditional motivation theories have viewed motivation as a relatively stable emotional or mental *state*. It has been explored as a measurable state through tapping into it at one particular point in time, and cross-sectional questionnaires have been conducted to investigate this state. Many motivation researchers have worked on this state aspect of motivation, while those concerned with the practical aspect of motivation have awaited research results from investigations of the *time* aspect of motivation, because they have pedagogical implications. Dörnyei (2001a) points out the problematical aspect of traditional views of motivation:

> Motivation to do something usually evolves gradually, through a complex mental process that involves initial planning and goal setting, intention information, task generation, action implementation, action control and outcome evaluation .... When we talk about sustained, long-term activities, such as the mastering a L2, motivation does not remain constant during the course of months or years. Rather, it is characterized by regular (re)appraisal and balancing of the various internal and external influences to which the individual is exposed. (p. 16)

Taking an essentially cognitive perspective, Pintrich and Schunk (1996, pp. 4-5) emphasise the *time* dimension of motivation. They view motivation as a *process* rather than a *product*, based on their premise that much of the motivational process comes from

studying how people respond to the difficulties, problems, failures, and setbacks they encounter as they pursue goals over time. Indeed, the motivational process is not directly observable. According to them, all we can do is infer it from learners' behaviour in areas such as choice of tasks, effort, persistence, and verbalisations (e.g., "I really want to work on this"). As they put it, it is thus quite important to investigate "how such motivational process as expectations, attributions, and affects help people surmount difficulties and sustain motivation" (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996, p. 5)。

It is rather surprising that researchers have only fairly recently started to emphasise the time aspect using various qualitative research tools (see Chapters 8 and 9). As I noted above, the position I take on this issue also places more emphasis on process than on the subcomponents that make up the *construct*. Therefore, my study (Study 2) is an investigation of the time aspect of motivation.

2.1.5 *The Contextual Aspect of Motivation*

We now come to the other crucial issue: *context*. As Dörnyei (2001a, p. 15) explains, whether we shall take an *individualistic perspective* or a *societal perspective* is controversial. According to him, an *individualistic perspective* views the social world through the individual's eyes. In other words, the complexity of the social environment is only important inasmuch as it is reflected in the individual's mental processes and the resulting attitudes, beliefs and values. As Dörnyei (2001a, p. 15) also suggests, in contrast, a *societal perspective* concerns broad processes and macro-contextual factors, such as sociocultural norms, intergroup relations, acculturation/assimilation processes and interethnic conflicts; from this perspective, the individual is usually seen as a

reactive "pawn" whose behaviour is determined by the more powerful at large.

Traditional motivation theories have viewed motivation from rather individualistic perspectives, trying to explain why certain people behave as they do. However, it is worth noting that in Darwin's theory of evolution, human beings are considered to have an innate disposition to develop in interaction with their environment. In exploring the mechanism of human behaviour, the social perspective should therefore not be underestimated. Furthermore, motivation in second language learning, as Dörnyei (1998) points out, "contains featured personality and social dimensions as well as the environmental and cognitive factors in relation to learning in current educational psychology" (p. 118). In research on language learning motivation, each of these aspects is vital, since they interact in the language learning process, especially in the classroom. Indeed, in the field of motivational psychology, there has been a recent shift from an *individual perspective* to a *societal perspective*; Dörnyei (2001a) explains this as follows:

> Human action is always embedded in a number of physical and psychological settings of varying breadth and abstraction, and central to the current social shift in motivation research has been the growing recognition that all these environmental dimensions have a certain amount of influence on one's cognition, behaviour and achievement. (p. 30)

As noted several times already in this chapter, there is too an interpersonal nature to motivation. Weiner (1994) calls it *social motivation*, since motives are directly linked to the individual's social environment. Graham (1998) also stresses the importance of social motivation:

> The study of motivation and control typically focuses on personal motivation and self-conceptions of control. For example, how individuals react to and cope with their own achievement failure is an example of personal motivation. However, it also is useful to consider this topic in an interpersonal, rather than intrapersonal context, and to examine how perceptions of control in others influence social motivational outcomes, both prosocial (e.g., helping, friendship) and antisocial (e.g., aggression). (p. 137)

Although this distinction is important to conceptualise motivation, it is a subtle one to make since all human motivation is, more or less, individualistic, while at the same time it is also greatly influenced by social interaction in its development. In this sense, motivation can be developed through interaction between *social motivation* and *personal motivation*. My standpoint in this thesis is that motivation is both personal and social.

2.2 A WORKING DEFINITION OF LANGUAGE LEARNING MOTIVATION

Having classified several important issues relating to motivation, I will now define motivation in language learning in terms of the following four key statements that are the basis of the argument in the thesis:

1) I view L2 motivation as more process-oriented than product-oriented.
2) I consider motivational development to be both conscious and unconscious.
3) I also consider that such motivational development includes both cognition and affect.
4) I take account of L2 motivation as a social construct as well as an individual one.

Combining these standpoints in a framework, I can establish the following working definition of L2 language learning motivation that seeks to explain the process aspect of motivation rather than the state aspect of motivation:

> Motivation in language learning is a multidimensional construct that is dynamically changing by nature, under different environments, and over time. Learner motivation changes both affectively and cognitively through social interaction, influenced by internal and external variables which may be in a reciprocal relationship. The teacher's role is thus to provide learners with an appropriate environment in which to learn language effectively, wherein there is a trusting relationship between the teacher and learners, so that learners perceive and use language as a means of self-expression and communication. This trust involves a commitment to the learning process by both the teacher and learners.

2.3 CONCLUSION

This chapter has dealt with the complexity of defining motivation. Because the term *motivation* is so broad, many theories have emerged from different perspectives. Hence, it is crucial to narrow my focus and classify my perspective of motivation, because I have specific research goals in this thesis. I have done this on the basis of key issues raised by Dörnyei (2001a, see Chapter 1 in his book) and by differentiating my standpoint from others. In shaping my view of motivation, I have examined several controversial issues, including consciousness versus unconsciousness, cognition versus affect, and various types of motivation as personal and social. On the basis of such these considerations, I have established a working definition of language learning motivation with four key elements: (i) the conscious/unconscious, (ii) affect/cognition, iii) time, and (iv) social/individual.

The next chapter is an overview of the research literature relating to language learning motivation, primarily from a historical perspective.

PART TWO

THEORETICAL ISSUES

CHAPTER 3

MOTIVATION IN LANGUAGE LEARNING: A RESEARCH REVIEW

3.0 INTRODUCTION

Most language teachers know that motivation plays a central role in language learning, and some may know that Gardner and his colleagues were pioneers in studying motivation. Although the work of Gardner has been the subject of some criticism, any study of motivation needs to examine the rationale behind his work in order to understand recent trends in motivation research.

In this chapter, I first discuss the nature of language learning motivation (3.1). I then discuss historical overviews of language learning motivation research, referring to Gardner's studies, and to criticism towards his studies (3.2). The last section (3.3) describes recent trends in language learning motivation research that focus on motivation in language pedagogy (including motivation over time). This discussion provides a useful context in which to set my own research goals.

3.1 WHAT SPECIFIES LANGUAGE LEARNING MOTIVATION WITHIN HUMAN MOTIVATION?

As we shall see, motivation in language learning may be more complex than human motivation in general. Williams (1994) stresses the uniqueness of foreign language in the following manner:

> There is no question that learning a foreign language is different to learning other

> subjects. This is mainly because of the social nature of such a venture. Language, after all, belongs to a person's social being... The learning of a foreign language involves far more than simply learning skills, or a system of rules, or a grammar; it involves an alteration in self-image, the adoption of new social and cultural behaviours and ways of being, and therefore has a significant impact on the social nature of the learner. (p. 77)

Likewise, Dörnyei (1998, p. 118) argues that the motivational basis of language attainment is different from that of the mastery of other subject matters, since an L2 involves the development of some sort of *L2 identity* and the incorporation of elements from the L2 culture. L2 motivation contains personality and social dimensions as well as environmental and cognitive factors in relation to learning, which feature in current educational psychology. It is my assumption that, unlike in other subjects, motivation in language learning can be developed by interacting with others using the target language and be further dramatically developed through interactions with native speakers of the target language.

3.2 EARLY MOTIVATION STUDIES IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

3.2.1 *Social Psychological Approaches to Language Learning Motivation*

In the early 20th century, the learner's ability was considered central to language learning success. For example, according to Hemmon (as cited in Gardner, 1985), in the United States, the concept of intelligence was thought to be the key to predicting who would, and who would not, successfully learn a second language. Thus intelligence tests were used for that purpose. Then, in the 1950's, researchers' interests shifted to aptitude, which reflects the degree of language learning ability separately from general

intelligence (Caroll, 1962). A learner's ability of aptitude measured by the MLAT (Modern Language Aptitude Test) (Carroll & Sapon, 1959), was considered to be fixed, and, therefore, would be a good measure for predicting future success or failure in language learning. These studies were largely based on the assumption that abilities such as intelligence or aptitude were fixed and could not be changed. Carroll's study to some extent influenced Gardner's subsequent work (see the socio-educational model in Gardner, 1979, 1985; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993).

Gardner is considered a pioneer in the field of language learning motivation because of the social psychological approach. Indeed the so-called social psychological approach remained dominant in language learning motivation studies until the 1990s. But, what is social psychology exactly? Myers (1993) defines it as "the scientific study of how people think about, influence, and relate to one another" (p. 3). In his sense, social psychology overlaps important concepts within sociology and personality psychology. Taken as a whole, however, he also thinks that it is slightly different from both areas. Most social psychologists are interested in groups, but they often study more about how groups affect individual people or how an individual affects a group, while sociologists study groups in general (Myers, 1993, p. 4). Also, social psychologists focus on common humanity — on how people in general view and affect one another, while personality psychologists focus on private internal functioning and on differences among individuals (Myers, 1993, p. 5). That is, social psychology views human behaviour from a scientific perspective rather than a subjective perspective.

The question then arises how we can apply social psychological theories to

language learning. Dörnyei (2001a) notes a key tenet in social psychology thus: "*attitude* exerts a *directive influence* on behaviour, since someone's attitude towards a target influences the overall pattern of the person's responses to the target" (p. 29). Social psychologists (e.g., Gardner, Clément, and their associates) who are interested in language learning perceive second language acquisition as a social problem more than as an individual problem. Social psychological theory applied to language learning places central emphasis on the social dimension and on the implications of learning a second language. Many motivation studies attempted to explore motivation in the social dimension by using scientific methods such as factor analysis or correlational analysis. Gardner (1985), for example, discusses the ultimate goal of his work in the introduction to his most distinguished publication *Social psychology and second language learning: the role of attitudes and motivation* as follows:

> Why is it that students of a second language differ in their level of attainment, some ultimately becoming bilingual, others remaining virtual monoglots? Does studying a second language make students more tolerant of others and more appreciative of the language group concerned? Does travel to another language community promote warmth and understanding? Are sociable individuals better at learning second languages than those who are introverted and shy? Does learning a second language have the same meaning and significance for a member of a minority ethnic group as it does for an individual from a major group? (p. 1)

Obviously, his research goal was to explore social aspects of motivation, especially in bilingual settings. To answer these questions, Gardner and his colleagues conducted a large number of investigations in various regions.

Gardner and Lambert (1959), using subjects who were English–speaking students

in the predominantly French–speaking city of Montreal, Canada, found that second language achievement is related not only to language aptitude but also to motivation. The study confirmed two basic factors: one consisting of aptitude and intelligence and the other consisting of motivation, orientation toward language learning, and social attitudes towards French Canadians. The study showed the importance of motivation for language learning success. More specifically, it implied that integratively-oriented students were more successful in second-language achievement.

Later, to support this idea, Lambert, Gardner, Barik, and Trunstall (1963) performed a study about attitudes which were experienced by participants in a six-week intensive programme, and found that achievement in French was linked to the extent of subjects' identification with the French culture. Results supported the theory that learning a second language efficiently depends on an appropriate pattern of attitudes toward the other cultural group and a particular orientation toward language learning. Based on the results of these studies, Gardner and Lambert defined a set of characteristics that successful second-language learners in the Montreal setting possessed. The more they were integrated with the second language community, the more successful they were.

To test the applicability of the above findings to other social contexts in the Unites States, Gardner and Lambert tried to extend their studies to other linguistic and cultural settings outside the bilingual and bicultural environment of Montreal. They started a series of extremely comprehensive studies of high school students of French speakers in Louisiana, Maine, and Connecticut (see Gardner & Lambert, 1972).

However, the research results in these less-bilingual settings did not provide a similar result to the one in the clearly bilingual setting of Montreal which had shown a strong relationship between attitude and achievement. The same procedures used in the series of American studies were then applied in the Philippines, where learning foreign languages plays a vital role in people's lives, in Gardner and Santos's study (as cited in Gardner, 1985). English is the major language of instruction and in commerce, but it is not normally used as a language of the home. The results of this study showed that both integrative and instrumental elements were associated with achievement in the second language. These findings implied that the contextual differences did influence the research results in each of the studies.

When we compare and evaluate the research results outlined above, some interesting points appear. We see, for example, that the Montreal study supplied evidence that motivational or attitudes towards the target culture play an important role in language learning, at least in that particular setting. However studies in the less-bilingual contexts of Maine, Louisiana, Connecticut, and the Philippines did not consistently support these findings; there appeared to be a less-clear linkage between attitude and achievement. In essence, the results seemed to be very much related to the social context in the location of each study.

Gardner and Lambert (1972) noted that language learning motivation can be divided into two types: *integrative motivation* — the desire to integrate oneself with the target culture, and *instrumental motivation* — the desire to learn a language in order to meet a specific language requirement such as for employment. More precisely,

integrative orientation concerns a positive disposition toward the target language group and the desire to communicate with, and even become members of the target language community, while instrumental orientation pertains to the potential pragmatic gains of target language proficiency, such as obtaining a better job. Since then, the importance of motivation in language learning has been debated by researchers in social psychology from cultural, social, and psychological perspectives. In particular, the importance of integrative motivation in language learning began to receive worldwide attention and became the primary focus of subsequent research (Giles & Byrne, 1982; Schumann, 1986; Clément, 1980).

Gardner's theory was clearly stated in his socio-educational model (1985). However, this model tends to be the target of criticism of other researchers. The model claims that cultural beliefs are still a primary factor affecting individual differences — mainly integrative motive and language aptitude. The model proposes that integrative motive consists of three constructs: integrativeness, attitude toward the learning situation, and motivation. These are considered to be the causes of linguistic outcomes. In the integrative motive process, motivation to learn a second language is influenced by integrativeness and attitudes toward the learning situation respectively. In short, Gardner considers integrative motive to be the crucial factor for language learning success.

However, we should remember one point. A larger socio-cultural milieu influences the way researchers view the problem. That is, researchers' interests and approaches often reflect the social context in which they live, as Gardner (1981)

himself argues. In fact, Gardner, living in Canada, did his studies in bilingual settings — mostly in Montreal. This is not surprising at all since the purpose of this approach is to explore the social context. It still should be noted, however, that those theories were based on the social psychological approach started in a bilingual context of Montreal, Canada.

3.2.2 *Criticism towards Gardner's Social Psychological Approach*

Going back to the definition of social psychology, motivation is considered to be a function of the social context and of interpersonal/intergroup relational patterns, as measured in terms of the individual's social attitudes. The social psychological approach by Gardner and his colleagues did reveal one aspect of motivation in social contexts (at least in an ESL context), namely *social motivation*. And Gardner's theory did provide SLA researchers (at least) with a useful framework for considering factors that make students want to learn a second language, want to make efforts to integrate with the L2 culture, and, as a result, make them achieve a certain level of proficiency.

However, since his research is based on one single approach — that of social psychological theory, several problems appear when it comes to applying this approach to other contexts, to exploring different aspects of motivation, or when it comes to generalising its results. Gardner and Lambert (1972) hypothesized that the integrative motive facilitates second language acquisition because it reflects active involvement in language study. That is, the more students are integratively–motivated in language learning, the more they actively engage in language learning.

Unfortunately, however, the results of some empirical studies did not appear to

support the hypotheses embodied in the socio-educational model, and it was criticised by several researchers (Oller, 1981; Au, 1988; Crooks & Schmidt, 1991). The integrative hypothesis was a particular target of criticism on the grounds that this is not necessarily applicable to non-bilingual contexts. This became the very main issue between researchers who supported the hypothesis and those who opposed to it.

In the 1990s, a dispute over Gardner's social psychological approach occurred. There are basically three major criticisms toward Gardner's social psychological approach. The first was the ambiguous distinction between orientation, attitudes, and motivation. He (Gardner, 1985) explains this in a more complex manner as follows:

> The concept of the integrative motive includes not only the orientation but also the motivation (i.e. attitudes toward learning the language plus desire plus motivational intensity) and a number of other attitude variables involving the other language community, out-groups in general and the language learning context. (p. 54)

This is barely understandable for novice researchers and is rather confusing even for experts on motivation. Crooks and Schmidt (1991) point out the conceptual problem of the definition in this approach, saying:

> Despite the traditional tripartite distinction between cognition, motivation, and affect, all of these lines of SL research have tended to group affect, especially attitudes, and motivation together .... Consequently, the term motivation has been used as a general cover term — a dustbin — to include a number of possibly distinct concepts. (p. 471)

And indeed Gardner himself (1985) later redefined motivation by saying "The concept of motivation emphasized here is a multi–faceted construct in that it involves effort (motivational intensity), cognition (desire) and affect (attitudes)" (p.169).

How, then, did Gardner actually define attitudes, orientation and motivation? From an operational point of view, he (Gardner, 1985) defined an individual's attitude as an evaluative reaction to some reference or attitude object, inferred on the basis of the individual's beliefs or opinions about the reference. However, so far, the accumulated evidence in the area of SLA shows that attitudes are related to behaviour, though not necessarily directly. Gardner and MacIntyre (1991) distinguish orientation and motivation in the following way: "Orientation refers to reasons for learning a second language, while motivation refers to the directed, reinforcing effort to learn the language" (p. 58). However, Ushioda (1995) describes the problem of this definition in the following way:

> It is not really made explicit whether orientation is perceived as an integral component of motivation (the goal-directed aspect), or as a separate construct. Likewise, the relationship between motivation and attitudes is unclear, since the affective component of motivation (Desire to Learn French) seems to incorporate an attitudinal dimension. (p. 20)

And interestingly enough, different attitudes might be found in monolingual and bilingual contexts (see Oller, Hudson, & Lue, 1977; Chihara & Oller, 1978). This implies the difficulty of generalising attitudes in relation to different contexts. In other words, the relationship between attitude, orientation, and motivation that Gardner suggests is not necessarily effective in certain settings. Although Gardner's studies did contribute to language learning motivation studies, and actually were a driving force for subsequent motivation research, they might have caused further misinterpretations of the relationships between these components for novice researchers.

Another issue which had confused the field of language learning motivation, is the concept of integrative/instrumental motivation. The distinction between integrative motivation and instrumental motivation is too vague. Gardner and his colleagues were criticised for "creating a false split" between integrative and instrumental motivation (Oxford, 1996, p. 3). These two types of motivation may be on a continuum rather than two separate components; as Dörnyei (1990, p.66) has argued, there are some overlapping areas (e.g., foreign colleagues often become friends) between integrative motivation and instrumental motivation.

In addition, the concept of instrumental motivation itself is also very complex in nature. In empirical research conducted within the U.S., Ely (1986) found three motivational factors: integrative, instrumental, and one clearly centered on the need to fulfil a foreign language requirement (which might in fact also to be considered an instrumental reason to learn the language). This implied the existence of a conceptual problem regarding instrumental motivation. This problem becomes more obvious in the case of foreign language learning.

Clément and Kruidenier (1983) point out that there are many possible orientations depending on the linguistic/cultural context, and even the definition of integrative and instrumental orientations differs in different settings. Indeed, some research evidence supports this notion. In the study I coauthored, we (Kimura, Nakata, & Okumura, 2001) found that the largest component of language learning motivation among over 1000 EFL students in Japan was extremely complex in its structure. It was named the *Intrinsic–Instrumental–Integrative Motive* since it included some intrinsic,

integrative and instrumental subscales. This complex component also appeared in other studies whose subjects were junior high school students in Japan (Koizumi & Matsuo, 1993; Matsukawa & Tachibana, 1996). This implies that the instrumental motivation in the EFL context of Japan may consist of many multifaceted aspects, different from the rather simple ones in an ESL context. This result may be consistent with the following notion of two distinct kinds of instrumental motivation suggested by Gardner and MacIntyre (1991):

> To the extent that an instrumental motive is tied to a specific goal, however, its influence would tend to be maintained only until that goal is achieved .... On the other hand, if the goal is continuous, it seems possible that an instrumental motivation would also continue to be effective. (p. 70)

These studies show the conceptual problem with this distinction. However, more precisely, the causes of this problem may lie in the fact that Gardner and Lambert (1972) tried to divide motivation in language learning into two types, based on the assumption that these two kinds of motivation cover all aspects of motivation. Obviously, thinking of all possible types of orientations associated with studying a language, these are just part of motivation. This is the reason why different types of integrative or instrumental kinds of motivation appeared in several studies in different settings.

A further problematical issue of the social psychological approach is the concept of *integrative motivation*. Gardner (1985) defines "integrative motive" as a composite construct made up of three main components: i) "integrative orientation, interest in

foreign languages, and attitudes toward the L2 community", ii) "attitudes toward the learning situation" (comprising attitudes toward the teacher and the course), and iii) "motivation" (i.e., effort, desire, and attitudes toward learning). Based on this definition, in the socio-educational model, integrative motivation is considered to play a more important role than instrumental motivation in language learning. Au (1988) considers this as the integrative hypothesis. The concept of integrative motivation is, as I have indicated, a major problem that has confused subsequent motivation studies.

Crooks and Schmidt (1991) point out that integrative motivation in Gardner's models is neither equivalent to attitudes toward the target language community, nor equivalent to a score on the integrative orientation subscale of the AMTB (Attitude/ Motivation Test Battery). Rather, it is a label applied to a factor analytic reduction of the data obtained for a particular sample. They argue that the integrative motivation Gardner refers to does exist, but does not necessarily play a central role in language learning. Oxford and Shearin (1994) also criticise his term "motivation" saying: "Motivation itself takes on the same terminology (integrative and instrumental) as that used for motivational orientations — a situation that causes confusion for some customers of research findings" (p.14). Furthermore, instead of integrative motivation, I found *International Orientation* in my study of Japanese EFL learners (Nakata, 1995a, 1995b). What I meant by international orientation is the cosmopolitan outlook among Japanese learners of English.

To sum up so far, the empirical research evidence does not necessarily support the superiority of integrative motivation, since the research results have varied in

different contexts (Crooks & Schmidt, 1991). The findings could not explain the relationship between various measures of integrative motivation and measures of proficiency since they showed different results such as positive, nil, negative, and uninterpretable or ambiguous (Au, 1988). Oller (1981) suggests that such results indicate the relationship between affective factors and motivation, on the one hand, and language learning, on the other, may be "an unstable nonlinear function that varies greatly across individuals, contexts, and learning tasks" (p. 15).

By arguing with other researchers opposed to his theory, Gardner started to change his position little by little from the late 1980's to the early 1990's. Gardner (1988, p. 106) renewed his view that integrative motivation is superior to instrumental or any other type of motivation, and that those who are integratively motivated will probably be more successful in language learning than those who are not so motivated. Indeed, there are many possible orientations depending on the linguistic/cultural context, and thus even the definition of integrative and instrumental orientation differs in different settings (Clément & Kruidenier, 1983). Thus, Gardner and MacIntyre (1991) admitted that even if one finds that one orientation correlates higher than another in a context, theoretically, it does not necessarily mean that the result is applicable to other contexts. Finally, in response to Au (1988), Gardner (1988) rephrased his term integrative motive as follows: "The integrative motive does not exist; it is simply a useful way to refer to a series of attitudinal and motivational characteristics that appear to be implicated in second language learning" (p. 104).

Schumann (1986), who used to stress the importance of levels of integrative

motivation in his acculturation theory, also appears to have forsaken his earlier claim that acculturation is the major causal variable in SLA. Schumann (1986) explained two possible reasons why he failed to test the acculturation model in his research. One reason is that it may be impossible to gain the solid definition and relative importance of the numerous variables subsumed under "acculturation" to test the model. Another reason is that the effects of affective variables may be difficult to test since they are indirect and variable.

Therefore, it may not be appropriate to generalise this theory and transfer it to other contexts. In the foreign language learning classroom, where learners rarely have contact with members of the L2 group, attitudes toward the L2 community would not be the primary determiner of an individual's L2-related affectively-oriented motivation (Dörnyei, 1990). It may be concluded that the integrative hypothesis Au pointed out in Gardner's socio-educational model is effective in certain settings but not necessarily in others.

3.2.3 *Studies of Motivation in Foreign Language Learning*

In my view, it is relevant to distinguish between second and foreign language learning. Foreign language learning is the one that is learned in a place where that language is not typically used in people's daily lives. Foreign language learners are separated logistically and psychologically from the target culture, and their situation is totally different from second language learners, whose English is a must and a crucial communication tool for their daily lives. Foreign language learners do not have enough contact with the target language speakers and community to assimilate into their

community.

It should be noted that such research on language learning motivation has taken place in Canada, in settings where people are learning the target language (French or English) as a second language. Until recently, many researchers (Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994; Kramer, 1993; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993) considered their results mostly in ESL settings like Canada to be universal. It may be fair to say that, except for Gardner himself, many researchers around the world (for example in Japan: Konishi, 1990; Matsukawa & Tachibana, 1996; Sawaki, 1997; Takanashi, 1990, 1991) accepted Gardner's theory and method, conducted their research based on it, and interpreted results as they applied to their own contexts. The responsibility for confusing subsequent motivation research may not be Gardner's but that of the researchers themselves.

It seems that there is a difference of motivation among second or foreign language learners (Au, 1988; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1990; Oller, 1981; Nakata, 1995a, 1995b). Opposed to the integrative motivation tradition exemplified by Gardner and his associates, others have stressed the importance of instrumental motivation in an EFL context, in contrast to ESL context researchers (Oller, Hudson & Lui, 1977; Oller, 1981; Au 1988; Dörnyei, 1990; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Clément et al., 1994). Dörnyei (1990, p. 67) asserts their position that in foreign language learning situations, instrumental goals contribute more significantly to motivation than integrative goals do. He suggests that instrumental motivation plays a greater role for foreign language students up to an intermediate proficiency level in EFL contexts

where learners have not had sufficient experience of the target language community. Similarly, Oxford (1996) considers that EFL environments differ from the ESL situation and recommends that instrumental motivation should be a main focus for research in EFL contexts. It is not easy for EFL learners to integrate into the target group, and as a result to achieve native-like proficiency. And indeed, research has shown that instrumental motivation was more important in various foreign language learning contexts (Dörnyei, 1990; Clément et al., 1994). This factor is also found in Study 1 of this thesis (Chapter 8) whose subjects are EFL Japanese university students. As we shall see, instrumental motivation is connected with the Japanese exam system.

3.3 GRADUAL MOVE TO RESEARCH IN THE CLASSROOM

3.3.1 *Classroom Research in Language Learning Motivation*

As previously indicated, Gardner's social psychological approach dominated motivation research in language learning. It is reasonable for the reader to ask why so much space has been devoted to the discussion of the social psychological aspect of motivation and why equal space has not been allotted for the discussion of, for example, more practical aspects of motivation in educational psychology that I address in Chapter 4. The answer for both questions is in part because there were no researchers in the field of language learning motivation who could argue with Gardner until 1990 (when Dörnyei, Schmidt, Ushioda, and others appeared) and probably in part because there was no urgent need for such studies. (Teachers believed that low achievement was linked to low ability rather than low motivation.)

In the 1990s, influenced by the criticisms concerning the application of Gardner's social psychological approaches and his single theory to the classroom in the EFL context, researchers (Clément et al., 1994; Crooks & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1994a; Oxford & Sheerin, 1994, 1996; Julkunen, 1989; Williams, 1994; Schmidt, Boraie, & Kassabgy, 1996) attempted to explore language learning motivation from various perspectives.

Clément et al. (1994) examined language learning motivation in a context where the social dimension was featured less. Their research subjects were Hungarian EFL learners who studied English in a school context without any substantial contact with members of the L2 community. Their factor analytic study revealed a tripartite motivation construct amongst these learners consisting of *integrativeness, linguistic self-confidence,* and *appraisal of the classroom environment*. They also found that in an EFL context, ethnocultural attitudes toward the L2 community would not be the primary determiner of an individual's L2-related affectively-based motivation. Dörnyei (1990) also conducted a factor analytic study of 134 learners of English in Hungary, a typical European FLL environment, with the aim of defining the relevance and characteristics of integrativeness and instrumentality in FLL (foreign language learning) as well as to locate other motivational components. He found instrumental motivation to be more relevant in the EFL (English as a foreign language) context (at least in this context) and the existence of overlapping areas between instrumental and integrative motivation.

Schmidt et al. (1996) conducted a factor analytic and multidimensional scaling

study among 1464 EFL students in Cairo, Egypt, to identify the components of EFL motivation and found three basic dimensions of motivation for learning foreign languages – *Affect, Goal Orientation*, and *Expectancy*. The questionnaire items used in these studies were based on the theories in educational psychology. This means that the percentage of questionnaire items from the AMTB was rather small in these studies, and, items from educational psychology dominated. Gardner and his colleagues also conducted several studies of the Structural Equation Modelling adopting several theories from motivational psychology (Gardner, 1999; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995; Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; MacIntyre, MacMaster, & Baker, 2001). Some exceptional directions of language learning motivation studies are an experimental study of task motivation (Julkunen, 1989, 1993; Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000; Dörnyei, 2002), and of group motivation (Dörnyei, 1997; Ehrman & Dörnyei, 1998; Dörnyei & Malderez, 1999). Dörnyei and Csizér (2002) further conducted a longtitudinal nationwide survey to examine how the significant sociocultural changes (that took place in Hungary in 1990s) affected school children's language-related attitudes and language learning motivation concerning five target languages (English, German, French, Italian, and Russian). They found a significant decline of the learners' general language learning commitment during the examined period, with only English maintaining its position. All of these studies revealed that motivation is a multifaceted construct and that this is especially true in EFL contexts.

The above-mentioned studies are similar to those of Gardner's in the sense that the purpose of the study is to explore the motivational construct. Many practitioners,

however, are still waiting for an answer to the question: how to motivate language learners, or probably more precisely, how we can create conditions where they can motivate themselves (I believe). Dörnyei (2001b) used the term *motivational strategies* for this, and defined them as "techniques that promote the individual's goal-related behaviour", or more precisely, "motivational influences that are consciously exerted to achieve some systematic and enduring positive effect" (p. 28). Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) conducted a survey of 200 Hungarian teachers of English to rate the importance of a set of 51 motivational strategies and found "*Ten commandments for motivating language learners*." These commandments are: *1) Set a personal example with your own behaviour*; *2) Create a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere in the classroom*, *3) Present the tasks properly*; *4) Develop a good relationship with the learners*; *5) Increase the learners' linguistic self-confidence*; *6) Make the language classes interesting*; *7) Promote learners' autonomy*; *8) Personalise the learning process*; *9) Increase the learners' goal-orientedness*; *10) Familiarise learners with the target language culture*. Dörnyei (2001b) further developed his theory of motivational strategies by putting motivational strategies into four phases: *creating the basic motivational conditions, generating initial motivation, maintaining and protecting motivation,* and *encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation*. They enable us to perceive such strategies from a sequential perspective, and the results of such studies can be meaningful in that motivation researchers and practitioners can share the results and application to the classroom.

Similarly, Williams and Burden (1997), from a social constructivist point of view,

provided their highly detailed framework of L2 motivation. They (1997, p. 141) give the following practical suggestions for language teachers in motivating language learners within a social constructivist framework: *1) Recognise the complexity of motivation*; *2) Be aware of both initiating and sustaining motivation*; *3) Discuss with learners why they are carrying out activities*; *4) Involve learners in making decisions related to learning the language*; *5) Involve learners in setting language learning goals*; *6) Recognise people as individuals*; *7) Build up individuals' beliefs in themselves*; *8) Develop internal beliefs*; *9) Help to move towards a mastery oriented style*; *10)Enhance intrinsic motivation*; *11) Build up a supportive learning environment*; *12) Give feedback that is informational*. They perceive motivation as a process that occurs not only in the classroom but also out of the classroom over time.

It should be noted, however, that such general guidelines for classroom teaching do not necessarily suit all teaching situations. Dörnyei (2001a, p. 137) calls his strategies motivational *macro-strategies*; that is, they are clearly general suggestions to motivate language learners since they are not necessarily applicable to the learning of each individual learner. Without doubt, human behaviour is complex and cannot be generalised. Also, the priorities of these commandments in the motivational processes of language learning may vary for one individual to another. In this sense, the ideal motivational strategies do not exist. It is possible though for teachers to make use of the commandments by modifying them to suit each individual learner. Also, since these guidelines are based on a survey of many language teachers (e.g., Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998), not of language learners, true practical implications cannot necessarily be drawn

from this study.

Motivation can be formulated by interactions between learner and external factors, including teachers, over time (discussed later) in a complex way by each learner operating in a time–sequential framework. Schumann (2000) proposes a different view on the issue of "how to motivate learners" by saying:

> Motivation researchers are frequently asked how teachers can motivate students to learn a second language. It's a difficult question for which there may be no answer. Motivation implies interest, so the question might be reformulated, "how can teachers get students interested in acquiring a second language?" (p. 4)

Similarly, Ushioda (1996a) concedes this by saying, "the appropriate question no longer seems to be *how we motivate our learners* but *how we help learners to motivate themselves?"* (p. 2). Ushioda (2002) adds another element to this issue by saying:

> *motivation* is a question not of finding strategies and incentives to get learners to do what they want, but of providing the right kinds of interpersonal support and stimulation so that learners will discover things they want to do for themselves. (p. 8)

These statements are based on the premise that it is the learners who can control their motivation, though teachers can create the optimal conditions where learners can promote their motivation by themselves. Such a notion may be consistent with Dewey's view (1916) that says, "We never educate directly, but indirectly by means of the environment" (p. 19). In my teaching project, therefore, I carefully create the educative environment so that my students' motivation will be promoted (see Chapter 9).

Although I basically agree with the opinions of Schumann (2000) and Ushioda (1996a, 2002), I shall not disregard the concept of motivational strategies. There is a

time that learners need motivational strategies (*how teachers motivate learners*) in the early stages of learners' motivational development, while later *how to help them to motivate themselves* may become a major task for teachers. Motivation includes both internal and external aspects. Then the teacher's task is to decide when and how we address these two questions: *how to motivate learners* and *how to help learners to motivate themselves*. It is my belief that teachers must create the educative conditions where learners can motivate themselves to learn.

3.3.2 *Perceiving Motivation as Time*

As already discussed in Chapter 2, in the late 1990s the *time* aspect of motivation was spotlighted. Dörnyei (2000, p. 529) argues that using *time* as an organising principle offers a "natural" way of ordering the relevant motivational influences into various distinct stages of the motivational sequence along a temporal axis. Dörnyei (2000) explains this as follows:

> Motivation to do something usually evolves gradually, through a complex mental process that involves initial planning and goal setting, intention formation and task generation, and finally action implementation and control. In sustained, long-term activities, such as the mastering of a school subject, motivation does not remain constant but is characterised by regular reappraisal and balancing of the various internal and external influences that the individual is exposed to, resulting in a somewhat fluctuating pattern of effort and commitment. (p. 524)

Thus, Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) attempt to describe motivational process over time. They try to introduce a process–oriented perspective of motivation, and synthesize a number of different lines of research in a unified framework, constructing a

non-reductionist, comprehensive model, the so-called *process model of motivation* (see 5.3.1 for more detail). This model organises the motivational influences of L2 learning along a sequence of discrete actional events within the chain of initiating and enacting motivational behaviour (Dörnyei, 2001a, p. 85). In the model, there are two dimensions. The first one addresses the behavioural process whereby initial wishes, hopes, and desires are first transformed into *goals,* then into *intentions*, leading eventually to action and, hopefully, to the *accomplishment of the goals*, after which the process is submitted to final *evaluation*. This is called the *action sequence* which can be divided into *preactional, actional,* and *post actional phases*. Before the *actional phase*, there is the "*Rubicon*" of action, a threshold through which a learner needs to pass to actually embark on the language learning tasks. The second dimension is motivational influences, including *energy sources* and *motivational forces*, that underlie and fuel the behavioural process. This model is valuable in the sense of providing a comprehensive framework of the motivational process. Theoretically, this model and its process-oriented concepts provide a fruitful way to interpret and integrate the manifold motivational factors that affect the student's learning behaviour in classroom settings.

Dörnyei himself (2000, p. 530), however, points out two major weaknesses of this model. One is that it implies that the actional process in question is well-definable and occurs in relative isolation, without any interference from other ongoing activities the learner is engaged in. The second weakness of the model is the complexities of the multiple engagements in a number of different activities at the same time. I believe, since motivational dynamics and development may vary from each individual to

another, this model should be considered as a useful *general* guideline for motivational development.

My view of the process aspect of motivation is based on the assumption that learners can develop their motivation in an optimal learning environment (see Chapter 5 on social interaction) in a variety of ways at different paces, as I quoted in the Introduction to this thesis on the development of the *avocado*.

Ushioda (1994, 1996a, 1996b) captured the *time* aspect of motivation from a cognitive point of view. She conducted a longitudinal qualitative interview investigation of 20 Irish learners of French for the purpose of exploring various (motivational) dynamics in their development. On the basis of this study, she offers a theoretical framework of motivation from two perspectives: motivation deriving from experience and that directed towards future goals. For example, Learner A is motivated by positive experiences with goal-directed patterns playing only a minor role, while Learner B's motivational thought structure is predominalty goal–directed. Ushioda (1998) concludes "the notion of a temporal frame of reference shaping motivational thinking integrates the phenomenon of evolution over time, which seems central to the learner's experience of and thus conception of language learning motivation" (pp. 82-83).

Nikolov (2001) also employed a qualitative study to explore how levels of foreign language proficiency have been influenced by attitudes, motivation, an early start, classroom experiences, teachers, materials among unsuccessful Hungarian learners of various foreign languages. The study found that negative classroom

experiences must have strongly influenced interviewees' motivation and self-perceptions and have not supported their foreign language development. Williams and Burden (1999) also conducted interview studies to investigate learners' attribution of success and failure and found that teachers' and students' perceptions of reasons for success and failure in learning English differed in nature (also see Williams, Burden, & Al-Baharna, 2001).

Finally, an interesting and unique approach to motivation is Schumann's neurobiological aspect of motivation using theories from neurobiology and a qualitative method. On the bases of accumulative studies employing neurobiological approaches to motivation (Schumann, 1994, 1998, 1999), Schumann developed a model of sustained deep learning (i.e., long-term learning experiences such as mastering an L2). Using a qualitative approach — *diary* and *autobiography,* Schumann (1998) attempts to find connections between this neurobiological approach and other motivational constructs, and demonstrates that L2 motivation consists of various permutations and patterns of these stimulus appraisal dimensions. This perspective of motivation is related to the biological aspect of motivation as discussed in Chapter 1. (Although this is barely testable, it cannot be ignored, since the brain is the site of language acquisition.)

3.4 CONCLUSION

I have shown in this chapter that in almost 50 years of history of language learning motivation studies, a quantitative/social psychological approach to investigate *state* motivation using questionnaires has been dominant until recently. Thus, the first

half of this chapter dealt mainly with Gardner's social psychological studies. Earlier in this chapter, I have introduced Gardner's ultimate goal of his motivation study (see 3.2.1 for extracts of Gardner, 1985). Although Gardner tried to explain practical aspect of motivation to some extent, he seems not to have accomplished his goal yet (at least so far) since his research findings contain little practical implication. This may suggest the use of other approaches for those goals which are qualitative and longitudinal investigations with more educational focus.

However, despite various criticisms towards and limitations in the social psychological approach, we cannot or should not simply ignore Gardner's great contributions to motivation studies in language education. Without them, we could not have expanded motivation theories as far as we have. Gardner and Lambert have added a social dimension to the study of motivation in learning a second language, and found that the learner's attitudes toward the linguistic–cultural community of the target language plays an important role in determining success in second language learning. Although the degree of the individual learner's role may vary in different contexts, there is no question that attitudes play some part in any setting where second language learning occurs. If Gardner has revealed one aspect of the multifaceted construct of motivation, as Dörnyei (1994b) asserts, then how does that part fit into the whole construct of motivation? Further studies should be directed toward answering this question.

Bearing in mind the current increasing variety of studies in language learning motivation, the last half of this chapter introduced those that attempted to uncover the

complex nature of motivation. A number of different approaches to language learning motivation appeared in the 1990s and significantly contributed to language learning motivation studies in that they uncovered the practical, *time* aspect of motivation. Such studies offer food for thought to those who used to rely solely on Gardners' approach, in order to explore practical implications of motivation in the EFL context. Such studies revealed that motivation is a multifaceted rather than a uniform factor, and thus no single theory can explain all its aspects. Put another way, various theories including social motivation, personal motivation, attribution, and others; and various research methods including qualitative as well as quantitative ones, are necessary to uncover the complex nature of motivation.

This thesis targets the interaction and interrelationship between motivation and other internal/external factors. As many motivation researchers have done in the past, I am going to investigate the *state* aspect of motivation (Study 1) by using a quantitative tool. Additionally, I will investigate the *time* aspect of motivation (Study 2), and analyse the early stages of motivational development from these two different perspectives. The next chapter will discuss theories with a more educational focus which is a necessary part of the background analysis for Study 2.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH IN MOTIVATION WITH A FOCUS ON THE LEARNER'S MENTAL PROCESSES

4.0 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the learner's mental processes associated with motivation. This is necessary for our understanding and interpretation of my subjects' introspective data (Chapter 10). The focus here on motivation in a cognitive framework is thus different from my discussion in Chapter 3, which explored motivation within the social psychological framework.

The notion of cognitive constructivism is derived from constructivism (later distinguished from social constructivism, see discussion in 5.1). The most distinguished theory of cognitive development is that developed by Piaget (e.g., Piaget, 1954, 1971). This theory proposes that humans cannot immediately understand and use knowledge transmitted from their teachers; instead they must construct their own knowledge through concrete, contextually meaningful experience. The constructivist theory propounded by Bruner (1966), who is influenced by Piaget, considers that learning is an active process in which learners construct new ideas or concepts using their current or past knowledge. Bruner argues that it is the learner who selects and transforms information, constructs hypotheses, and makes decisions. As a consequence, the teacher's task is to try and encourage students to discover principles by themselves, and to translate information to be learned into a format appropriate to the learner's current

state of understanding. Bruner (1973) considers that this approach can lead learners to go beyond the information given.

This chapter first discusses the concept of constructivism (4.1), and then goes on to consider some crucial elements in investigating complex learning processes associated with motivation: self-efficacy and attribution (4.2). In the next section (4.3), the focus moves on to some factors related to learner beliefs; intelligence and aptitude, anxiety, learning experiences, and demotivation. These issues are important in that teachers need to know why and how learners develop their motivation. The last section (4.4) discusses learner autonomy and its relationship with motivation, and is based on my assumption that autonomous learning (with self-reflection and self-regulation) can be the goal of the motivational process.

4.1 A COGNITIVE PERSPECTIVE

4.1.1 *Learning and Education*

In discussing motivation, confusion arises as to whether one is referring to motivation in learning or in education, and what the difference is between these two concepts. It is therefore necessary to deal with this in advance of a discussion on motivation itself. Simply speaking, education is a view from the teachers' perspective, while learning is a view from the learners' perspective. Rogers (1996) clearly distinguishes them in the following manner:

> "lifelong learning" is simply that, learning which goes on more or less all the time without any help from adult educators, that "opportunities for lifelong learning" exist around us every day and everything we do. ...there is a distinction drawn between

> learning and education. All education must involve learning; but not all learning is education. We do therefore need to stress very clearly learning is quite independent of the classroom. People are learning all the time, whatever they are doing. (p.80)

Foreign language learning is indeed a matter of lifelong learning. In particular, for those in EFL situations who have rare contact with native speakers of English to succeed, learning must be carried out through activities outside the classroom (e.g., reading English books, listening English music, or watching English movies), in what, for many, is a lifelong endeavour. Rogers (1996) describes the nature of learning as follows:

> Learning comes from experience. It is closely related to the way in which individuals develop in relation to their social and physical environment. And such experience is continuous, so too learning is continuous .... learning is individual .... Learning is affected and may even to some extent be controlled by society or other collectivities, but the learning itself – introducing learning changes – is personal .... Learning, then, is natural, as breathing. It is the continual process of adapting to the various changes which we all face, changes in our social and cultural contexts, changes in our own social roles, the daily tasks we perform, our own personal growth and development. (pp. 80-81)

I suggest that it is very natural to regard foreign language learning as an individual, continuous, and lifelong task that will be affected by experiences in the learner's social and physical environment. This standpoint leads me to consider education within the framework of lifelong learning.

As researchers and practitioners, we need to think about how to make education meaningful to learners. Williams and Burden (1997) explain this in the following manner: "The successful educator must be one who understands the complexities of the

teaching-learning process and can draw upon this knowledge to act in ways which empower learners both within and beyond the classroom situation" (p. 5). Educators also need to think about how to carry their education over "outside of the classroom," even after the course is over. Of course, it is the learners who need to be able to set the schedule of their learning and find the most appropriate ways to learn outside of the classroom by themselves without any teacher support.

Dewey (1916) defines education as "reconstruction of experience which adds to the meaning of experience, and which increases ability to direct the course of subsequent experience" (p. 76). According to him, the aim of education is thus to enable individuals to continue their education. In other words, the object and reward of learning is continued capacity for growth (Dewey, 1916, p. 100). As a teacher, when thinking about the carry-over effect of education, I take the view that the primary focus should be directed to the classroom level. Education in the classroom must however be designed to permit the learners to replicate their experience without their teacher's support even after the course is over, and thereby further develop their own learning. Our task, then, is to set up an educational environment that will enable learners to continue to learn outside the classroom. A teacher's responsibility is especially high in this regard especially in the stage when they introduce learners to a new concept of learning. Education should always be connected with learning, and it can be so as long as education is meaningful to learners. Learning and education together are two indispensable elements in motivation.

4.1.2 *A Cognitive View of Motivation*

In the 1960s, cognitive psychologists criticised behaviorism, which ignored meaning in learning. Unlike the behaviourist emphasis on manipulating rewards and punishments, cognitive theorists were interested in learners' mental processes in constructing knowledge, and in finding out ways to promote natural tendencies to learn and understand. Cognitive psychology is indeed centrally concerned with mental processes — how the human mind thinks and learns. Greeno, Collins, and Resnick (1996) describe the cognitive view of learning that takes account of motivation:

> The cognitive perspective on motivation focuses on differences among students in their interests and engagement in the concepts and methods of subject matter domains, in the understandings that they bring to school activities, and in their learning strategies and epistemological beliefs, and supports development of practices in which these multiple interests, understandings, and approaches are resources that enrich the educational experiences of all students. (p. 40)

This argument is fruitful in the sense that learning should be meaningful to each individual in his/her own way.

A cognitive approach has been taken within motivation research since the mid-1970s. In the field of cognitive theories of educational psychology, motivation is viewed as a function of a person's thought process. This approach enables us to explore unobservable motivation in humans' mental processes. Greeno, Collins, and Resnick (1996) explain the cognitive view of motivation as follows:

> The cognitive view...treats engagement in learning as an intrinsic property of the relation between individuals and the organization of information. Children are seen as naturally motivated to learn when they experience regularities in information that are

not yet represented by their schemata. (p.25)

Theories of cognitive psychology are useful in investigating the complex nature of motivation, which is closely related to human mental processes. Ushioda (1996a) makes the following comments on motivation from a cognitive perspective:

> the cognitive tradition of motivational theory draws attention to important patterns of thinking relating to motivational goals and performance outcomes: specifically, how individuals subjectively value and define short-term goals, and how their beliefs about the causes of past performance outcomes determine their expectations of future outcomes and hence shape their motivation to achieve particular goals. (p.18)

Turning to a cognitive approach in language learning, the learner is seen as an active participant in the learning process, using various mental strategies in order to sort out the system of the language to be learned (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 13). In this approach, the main issue of motivation theory for teachers is not *how to motivate all learners* in the same way only in the classroom context, but *how to help each individual to motivate him or herself* by providing them with such an environment that will allow them to sustain their own motivation to learn. It follows that a great concern of researchers is to reveal complex motivational mental processes. This area, which is essential to motivation research, will be explored next.

4.2 INDIVIDUAL BELIFS

4.2.1 *Learner Beliefs*

Beliefs associated with learning are some of the most important issues relating to motivation. This is in part because learners develop their various beliefs based on their

learning experiences in the learning environment. Beliefs are a matter of how they internalise these experiences.

A cognitive view of learner beliefs in language learning assumes that learning attitudes and behaviours are conditioned by a higher order of mental representation concerning the nature of language and language learning. Learner beliefs may influence their attitudes and behaviours. Benson and Lor (1999) concur:

> If learners believe that the best way to learn a foreign language is to memorise its component parts, it seems likely that they will hold positive attitudes towards vocabulary and grammar learning and that they will be predisposed to adopt a range of strategies involving analysis, memorisation and practice. If learners believe that the best way to learn a foreign language is to absorb it in natural contexts of use, it is likely that they will hold positive attitudes towards communication with speakers of the language and that they will be predisposed to adopt a range of social and communication strategies. (p. 459)

Indeed, in language learning research, a comprehensive amount of evidence (e.g., Cohen, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Wenden, 1987) relating to individual differences between successful and unsuccessful learners suggests that beliefs play a central role in learning experiences and achievements. A study by Mori (1999), for example, showed that language learners' beliefs are modestly but statistically significantly related to achievement.

We should perhaps bear in mind differences between beliefs in language learning in general and beliefs in specific tasks or specific skills. Mori (1999) explains her idea of epistemological beliefs as follows: "Students' beliefs about learning in general and their abilities to learn have differential effects on their learning; thus positive beliefs

could compensate for one's limited ability" (p. 381). Learners who believe that intelligence can be enhanced may eventually perform better than those who are initially equal or even superior in ability but believe in fixed intelligence (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Dweck, 1999). Likewise, those who believe in their own ability to control important aspects of learning are apt to be more persistent in challenging learning situations than those who do not (Bandura, 1993; Chapman & Turnmer, 1995; Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, & Ryan, 1991; Pajares, 1996; Ryan & Pintrich, 1997). Mori (1999) found the existence of domain-specific (i.e., language learning-related, or speaking-related) belief dimensions, and a relationship between general beliefs about learning and performance.

There are enough grounds to assume that teachers can have a great impact on the development of learner beliefs. In a small-scale, qualitative investigation of the ways in which students learning a foreign language at school conceived of themselves as language learners, Williams and Burden (1999) found that teachers play a significant role in the development of students' attributions. The statistically significant correlations between a language learner's beliefs and achievements found by Mori (1999) also suggest that teachers should consider learners' epistemological beliefs and specific language-learning beliefs, and become more deliberate about shaping students' beliefs, listen to what students say in class, and reflect on their teaching and assessment practices.

It is reasonable to suppose that beliefs are unlikely to be easily or quickly modified because they are formed over a long period through numerous experiences.

However, Mori's findings (1999) suggest that learner beliefs might be modifiable through significant learning experiences. Therefore, my teaching project for this thesis aims to change students' beliefs about learning (see 9.1) and Study 2 is, in part, an investigation of this change.

4.2.2 *Self-efficacy*

Self-efficacy is also a type of belief. People will not attempt to make things happen without believing they have the power to produce results. When faced with a difficult task, a learner is triggering an efficacy belief if he/she asks him/herself questions such as, "Am I able to do it?" or "Do I have the requisite skills to master this task?" (Graham & Weiner, 1996, p. 74). People's level of motivation, affective states, and actions are based more on what they believe than on what is objectively the case: efficacy beliefs influence how people think, feel, motivate, and act (Bandura, 1995, p. 2). Thus, there is a growing view in psychology that a self-efficacy belief can be a major basis of action. Efficacy is also a type of belief that is concerned not only with the exercise of control over action but also with cognitive and motivational self-regulatory processes. This efficacy can be developed through a self-regulating process (see 1.2.4 for discussion of this process) that is influenced by various internal and external factors.

Perceived self-efficacy refers to beliefs in one's capabilities to organise and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations (Bandura, 1995). Bandura (1997, p. 11) differentiates perceived self-efficacy (which is concerned with judgments of personal capability) from self-esteem which is concerned with judgments of self-worth. Schunk (1994) considers that students acquire efficacy information by

socially comparing their performance with that of others. Bandura (1997) argues that efficacy beliefs operate motivationally in the social domain: "Effective managers continue to try to persuade others of value of their proposal solutions when they meet with resistance, whereas those of low efficacy are quick to conclude that additional efforts would be futile" (p. 137). In the field of language learning research too, in the case of Japanese learners of English, high self-efficacy students were found to achieve significantly higher grades than low self-efficacy students in an L2 classroom (Templin, 1999).

I would like to make the point, however, that the concept of self-efficacy, especially in language learning, must be discussed within a broader educational context formed by a range of factors, including learning experiences, teachers, institutions, and society. Williams and Burden (1997, p. 129) claim that aptitudes and prior experiences will affect learners' initial beliefs about their capabilities for learning. In other words, motivational behaviour can be greatly influenced by the perceived level of ability to attain a goal. Oxford and Sheerin (1994) stress that teachers should develop each learner's sense of self-efficacy by providing meaningful, achievable, and success-engendering language tasks, since many students come to class without initial beliefs in their self-efficacy, which may cause them to feel lost in the language class. It is therefore reasonable that the research focus should be directed to investigating the more complex issues longitudinally: how individuals construe their learning experiences in ways that contribute to their feelings of self-efficacy about any particular set of tasks or activities. Study 2, the longitudinal/qualitative study reported in Chapters 9 and 10 of

this thesis will investigate this.

4.2.3 *Attribution Theory*

Within the framework of attribution theory, motivation is often perceived as a temporal process, started with an event and finishing with some behaviour or behavioural intention. Pintrich and Schunk (1996, p. 149) claim that attributional processes are some of the most important influences for the formation of students' expectations and beliefs. That is, individuals' perceptions of the causes of their successes or failures (attributions) will have important consequences for the formation of their expectancy beliefs and their behaviour. Although causal attributions generally have a weak or no independent effect on performance motivation (Bandura, 1997, p. 124), they can certainly affect students' expectations and beliefs in learning, and thus may affect motivation indirectly.

Bernard Weiner (1974, 1980a, 1986, 1992) developed an attribution theory based on his concept that people attribute their perceived successes and failures in academic and other achievement situations to certain causes. He believed that these types of retrospective judgments of the causes of one's performances have motivational effects. That is, people who credit their successes to personal capabilities and their failures to insufficient efforts will undertake difficult tasks and persist in the face of failure. In contrast, those who ascribe their failures to deficiencies in ability and their successes to situational factors will give up readily when they encounter difficulties (Bandura, 1997, p. 123).

Originally, Weiner claimed that people generally tend to attribute their perceived

successes and failures to four main causes: (a) ability, (b) effort, (c) luck, and (d) the perceived difficulty of the task with which they are faced. Weiner, Rusell, and Lerman (1979) proposed *stability* and *locus of causality* in their Original Model of Attribution Dimensions and Elements. Locus of causality refers to the perceived location of a cause as internal or external to the learner, while stability represents the potential change of a cause over time. Obviously, ability and effort are forms of internal attribution, that is, they are factors that arise from within us, while luck and task difficulty are external factors.

Later, however, several researchers (e.g., Roberts & Pascuzzi, 1979) argued, based on their research results, that there are more than four possible perceived causes for success and failure. It should also be noted that individuals will vary in the way in which they personally view these attributions. Accepting their criticism, Weiner (1986) later reformulated his original model by adding a third dimension, that of *controllability*, which made it possible to distinguish between elements that people felt were or were not within their control. Weiner named the reformulated theory: *cause of success* and *failure*. This theory is based on the assumption that individuals' approaches to an achievement or learning task can be understood in terms of three issues. The first is whether they see the main causes of their successes and failures as stemming from themselves or from others. The second is whether this is a fixed attribute or open to changes. The final issue is whether possible change lies within individuals' own control or in that of others. In my view, this reformulated theory by Weiner did offer a better insight for explaining individual differences in terms of the way people personally view

attributions.

There are of course still several limitations to Weiner's attribution theory. First, as already stated, it is still difficult to explain the ways that people personally and variously attribute their successes and failures. Indeed, people vary in their conceptions of ability and alter their views about the relation between effort and ability with increasing experience (Dweck & Legett, 1988). Weiner (1992) concedes this:

> attributional approaches to motivation involve a number of concepts and processes so that initially presenting the entire story is not feasible. This may be especially true because of my personal involvement with this approach, which makes it more difficult for me to take a step back and see the entire forest rather than the individual trees. (p. 232)

Second, effort is not necessarily controllable. The notion "the harder you work, the more capable you become" may not necessarily be appropriate for all learners. It may not be so easy for people who labour hard without success to believe that they can overcome difficulties with their higher efforts. Saeki (1995, p. 99) warns that there are some learners who do not make all possible efforts because they worry about undesirable outcomes. If they failed badly in spite of their best possible efforts, they might be considered very negative students by friends and teachers. Thus, the impact of effort attributions on efficacy beliefs varies under different conceptions of ability and differing views of the controllability of effort (Bandura, 1997).

A third limitation is that these theories can be easily affected by contextual factors. Success and failure can be interpreted in many different ways by different cultures, groups, and individuals. This means, for example, that the common attributions for

success and failure and the attributions for success and failure in learning a new language in a specific context will not necessarily be the same in another context. As Ichikawa (1999) points out: "In a society like Japan where making effort is already overwhelmingly emphasised, encouraging them to make further effort may not be appropriate since it can be rather discouraging for learners who already made a great amount of effort" (p. 33).

Fourth, attribution seems to have a weaker impact on motivation and performance than self-efficacy does. Research findings show that causal attributions can influence striving for achievement, but the effect is mediated almost entirely through changes in perceived self-efficacy (Schunk & Gunn, 1986; Bandura, 1997).

Fifth, we do not always distinguish clearly between different causal dimensions and our understanding of how each dimension changes over time (Eccles, Wigfield, & Schiefele, 1998, p. 1023).

A sixth and final limitation is that Weiner's model did not pay much attention to how learners' attributions are formed and in which situations. Williams and Burden (1999) found further evidence that individual attributions for success and failure are formed by a complex interplay of internal feelings and developmental stages, external influences, and social contexts. Interestingly enough, Weiner himself (1992) admits this: "in interpersonal relations, and in the area of motivation, preconceived causality is more complex, requiring an analysis of many determinants that may be changing over time" (p. 233).

Considering these limitations of attribution theories, I (Nakata, 1999, p. 62) have

proposed several ways of attribution in *Nakata's model of attribution*, which perceives attribution as one of the factors in the process of motivational development. I suggest that learners' attributional processes may be much more complex. When learners evaluate their outcome (success or failure), they first look back to see if they really made enough effort or they already had the requisite ability. On the basis of this retrospection, they attribute their outcome to an internal/stable factor (ability), an internal/unstable factor (effort), an external/stable factor (task-difficulty), or an external/unstable factor (luck). Such attributional choice can cause several widely different feelings such as confidence, pride, by accident, shame, despair, comfort, or lack of effort (e.g., they continue effort, assume the next result, realise the importance of effort, make no further effort, make further effort, recover their pride, challenge the task again).

Given these cautions, however, one can still draw a conclusion from an investigation of attribution (see Williams & Burden, 1999; Williams, Burden, & Al-Baharna, 2001). In this thesis, I refer to the attribution element in Study 2 as part of the motivational component I set for the closed questionnaire. In the next section, I discuss several other factors that may influence the formation of learner beliefs.

4.3 FACTORS RELATING TO INDIVIDUAL BELIEFS

4.3.1 *Problematical Concepts of Intelligence and Aptitude*

It is generally believed that intelligence is a kind of inborn, general ability and that learners who possess it can learn better and faster than others. This concept of

intelligence is based on the premise that a person's ability to learn is an innate and singular skill that is unlikely to be changed. While such an argument may partly be the product of social expectations, it has unfortunately been quite influential in education. Indeed, many teachers and researchers believed that there is a strong relationship between language learning success and ability in learning. This we cannot simply ignore in motivation research, but the problems pertaining to such a concept need to be pointed out.

There are several arguments that can be made. First, these tests seemed to have been developed because society itself accepted the concept of inborn intelligence and brought it into education, where it has influenced schooling and society in an undesirable way. While it is wrong to say tests such as intelligence or aptitude tests are not valuable at all (they have a certain predictive value), it may be more appropriate to realise that problems may exist in the interpretation of test results — and how this test data is perceived in educational contexts within a society. If teachers assume that aptitude or intelligence are fixed, then we are placing limitations on the way in which we view learners and consequently the way we treat them. Therefore, both learners and teachers need to understand that learning ability is not a single, fixed thing. We need to discuss intelligence in a much broader, societal context.

Second, such a conventional view of intelligence as a fixed single thing is incomplete and inadequate, particularly since the term *intelligence* is a hypothetical one that psychologists used for their convenience to account for something that does not actually exist (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 19). It may be more useful to treat

intelligence as a descriptive term.

Third, intelligence is not a single thing: Sternberg and Grigorenko (1999) propose their triarchic view of intelligence: *analytical, creative,* and *practical* in their theory of *Successful Intelligence*. *Analytical intelligence* is evoked when we analyse, compare and contrast, evaluate, explain, judge, and critique. *Creative intelligence* is evoked when we create, design, invent, imagine, and suppose. *Practical intelligence* is evoked when we use, apply, implement, employ, and contextualize. The traditional/conventional view may emphasise memorisation, which is related to analytical intelligence. This view rewards students skilled in memorising and in analytical intelligence, while it may bypass or punish students who are higher in creative and/or practical intelligence. In real life, however, creative and practical ability will be required.

From an educational point of view, language teachers must bear in mind that they can help students to become better learners who potentially possess changeable ability in language learning. Real education includes appropriate teaching, teachers' enthusiasm, interesting textbooks, and purposeful learning. Therefore, teachers have a great role to play in helping individual learners be successful in language learning in individual ways.

4.3.2 *Anxiety in Language Learning*

One belief about oneself, anxiety, can be a crucial factor that affects learner motivation. Anxiety can be high in output activities such as speaking or writing in EFL contexts where learners have infrequent native-speaker contact. Anxiety is usually thought to impair the language learning process. Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) claim

that the strongest negative correlate of language achievement is anxiety. Anxiety can be very influential since language learning itself directly threatens an individual's self-concept and worldview (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986). Indeed, there is a growing literature (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989, 1991a, 1991b, 1994; Young, 1990, 1991, 1999) demonstrating that second language anxiety prevails among second language learners in many educational contexts. Aida (1994) and Horwitz (1986) point to the negative correlation of anxiety with grades in language courses. In many of the worst cases, learners with anxiety may show signs of physical and psychological language anxiety such as missing classes, postponing homework, and/or losing intrinsic motivation (see Oxford, 1999, p. 66) for more detailed signs of language anxiety).

Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope (1986) explain the nature of anxiety as follows:

> Many people claim to have a mental block against learning a foreign language, although these same people may be good learners in other situations, strongly motivated, and have a sincere liking for speakers of the target language .... In many cases, they may have an anxiety reaction which impedes their ability to perform successfully in a foreign language class .... many people find foreign language learning especially in classroom situations, particularly stressful. (p. 125)

If anxiety in language learning is meant to be a learner variable in the classroom concerned with performance evaluation, what kind of anxiety is it? Horwitz et al. (1986) classify it into three components: *communication apprehension, fear of negative social evaluation,* and *test anxiety*. Among these, *communication apprehension* may be the most commonly experienced one. According to Horwitz et al, such anxiety can be

driven by difficulty in speaking in dyads or groups (oral communication anxiety) or in public (stage fright), or in listening to or learning a spoken message (receiver anxiety).

Willingness to take a language course may be influenced by attitudes toward the second language group, persistence at study may be influenced by motivation, and the efficiency of learning may be influenced by anxiety (MacIntyre, 1995, p. 96). For many of the students, language courses are more anxiety-provoking than courses in any other subjects (Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989, 1991b).

Tobias (1986) argues that output anxiety may interfere with the retrieval of previously learned information, while input anxiety may cause attention deficits and poor initial processing of information. And this second language anxiety is related to the speaking element, considered to be situation-specific, but separate from language-skill-specific second language writing, since they are relatively two independent constructs (Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999; Horwitz et al., 1986). People who typically have trouble speaking in groups are likely to experience even greater difficulty speaking in foreign language classes where they have few communicative situations and their performance is constantly monitored (Horwitz et al., 1986). Young (1991) claims that speaking is the most anxiety-provoking aspect in a second language learning situation. Difficulty in oral communication seems to be the major anxiety cause, since learners feel fairly comfortable responding to drills or in delivering prepared speeches in the foreign language class but tend to "freeze" in a role–play situation (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 126). In a role-play situation, they are anxious as to whether they can pronounce correctly, speak fluently, and produce

language grammatically correctly in public. Such anxiety may interfere with the student's ability to demonstrate the amount that she or he does know (MacIntyre, 1995). This may be too much of a burden for inexperienced learners.

Fear of a negative evaluation can be defined as "apprehension about others' evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectation that others would evaluate them negatively" (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 128). *Test anxiety* is a type of performance anxiety stemming from a fear of failure, since test-anxious students often put unrealistic demands on themselves and feel that anything less than a perfect test performance is inadequate (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 127). Several studies have found a relationship between anxiety and proficiency tests (e.g., Young 1990), and between anxiety and course grades (e.g., Aida, 1994; Horwitz, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991b). And they seem to suggest that an oral test can be the most anxiety provoking test of this kind, since it activates both test anxiety and anxiety about oral communication.

Anxiety in language learning has been often discussed in relation to self-confidence. The relationship between low self-confidence and anxiety has been supported by several studies either quantitatively (e.g., MacIntyre, Noels, & Clement, 1997) or qualitatively (e.g., Tsui, 1996). In the *Social Context Model*, self-confidence is related to a lack of anxiety in speaking an L2 and high self-rating of proficiency (Clement, Gardner, & Smythe, 1980). Thus, self-confidence in language learning can be defined as "perceptions of communicative competence and concomitant low levels of anxiety in using the second language" (Noels, Pon, & Clément, 1996, p. 248). Clément,

Dörnyei, and Noels (1994) found that self-confidence was a significant motivational subsystem in foreign language learning situations where there was no frequent contact with native speakers of English. Learners with low self-confidence who underestimate their ability and are anxious tend to deal with their anxiety less effectively, and easily disengage from anxiety-producing tasks (Aida, 1994). Such learners may not progress well and accordingly their self-confidence will be lowered even further.

I suggest, however, that the studies cited above may have missed several crucial elements related to anxiety in language learning. First, the cultural aspect needs to be taken into consideration when discussing anxiety, especially in speaking. Tsui's (1996) qualitative data analysis of reticence in the class vividly illustrates how language learning anxiety among Chinese students hinders active classroom interactions. The study indicates that "students will not take the initiative and answer a question until they are asked by the teacher to do so not because they do not know the answer, but because they do not want to give their peers the impression that they are showing off" (p. 158). Similarly, for Japanese who have grown up in an educational context where "making mistakes" is not socially acceptable, language production in public is truly a frustrating experience.

Second, difficulty in understanding others and making oneself understood may be related to the required language level and the type of task. Indeed, students are expected to communicate in the second language before fluency is attained, and even excellent language students make mistakes or forget words and need to guess more than occasionally (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 127).

Third, anxiety occurs when there is a mismatch between *wanting* and *doing* (Ushioda, 2000). Learners usually get frustrated when they cannot communicate in English against their long-term will to do so.

Fourth, foreign language anxiety is not just the combination of three components, but a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviours related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process (Horwitz et al., 1986). In such processes, learners are anxious about the task and others' reactions to their performance, and thus such anxious students are considered to learn less efficiently than relaxed students do. Frustrating experiences or difficulty in self-expression may instill in learners further apprehension about future attempts to communicate. This is seen in MacIntyre's (1995) model of *Recursive Relations among Anxiety, Cognition, and Behavior*. This model is rooted in a distinction between a state of anxiety that is an immediate, transitory emotional experience with immediate cognitive effects, and trait anxiety, which represents the tendency to react in an anxious manner. MacIntyre (1995) explains the process as follows:

> a demand to answer a question in a second language class may cause a student to become anxious; anxiety leads to worry and rumination. Cognitive performance is diminished because of the divided attention and therefore performance suffers, leading to negative self-evaluations and more self-deprecating cognition which further impairs performance. (p. 92)

The relations among anxiety, cognition, and behaviour may well be seen as recursive with each factor influencing the other.

I now turn from discussing theories to practical implications arising from these

studies. Aida (1994) stresses the important role of teachers in lessening classroom tension by creating a friendly, supportive atmosphere that can help reduce students' fear of embarrassment if they make errors in front of their peers. It is important for quality teaching that teachers give learners some sort of sign that they do recognise their anxiety and have reflected upon their needs. In such an environment, anxious students may learn languages comfortably. In this regard, Horwitz et al. (1986) propose a practical suggestion for language teachers:

> Foreign language anxiety can probably be alleviated...by a supportive teacher who will acknowledge students' feelings of isolation and helplessness and offer concrete suggestions for attaining foreign language confidence. ...we must recognize, cope with, and eventually overcome, debilitating foreign language anxiety as a factor shaping students' experiences in foreign language learning. (p.132)

Reducing learners' anxiety depends on if language teachers can think their students and give priority to them first in their teaching (Young, 1999). Above all, it is crucial for language teachers to create a comfortable classroom milieu and to establish good mutual relationships with students. I do, however, believe that in seeking to establish such an atmosphere in the classroom, we should not underestimate the issue of learning context.

It can therefore be reasoned that, in the case of Japanese students, sudden exposure to speaking for learners who are not ready can be counterproductive; a gradual shift from writing to speaking may be appropriate for such learners (see discussion in Chapter 9). I do believe this is a necessary step to eventually becoming proficient in English, since debilitating anxiety may become facilitative anxiety through learning

experiences. The more learners gain experience and increase their proficiency, the more likely their anxiety will decline (see examples of learners in Chapter 10). It should be noted that the anxiety discussed here is known as "debilitating anxiety," as distinguished from the positive type of anxiety known as "facilitating anxiety" (Scarcella and Oxford, 1992).

Above all, anxiety (whether debilitating or facilitating) should be investigated within the framework of the language learning process (as I do longitudinally in Chapter 10). It is true that students respond directly to anxiety provoking experiences. Some may remain competitive, while others may avoid speaking, even absent themselves from class. Thus, anxiety should be investigated in the broader context of the whole learning experience, over time.

4.3.3 *Learning Experiences*

In the development of their beliefs, learners' experiences play a very influential role. In theory, at least, all learners are motivated to learn when they first start the process. However, for a variety of reasons, some learners seem to lose or lower their motivation to learn. A famous psychotherapist, Carl Rogers (1969), describes the influence of learning experience on motivation in the following manner:

> I become very irritated with the notion that students must be "motivated." The young human being is intrinsically motivated to a high degree. Many elements of his environment constitute challenges of him. He is curious, eager to discover, eager to know, eager to solve problems. A sad part of most education is that by the time the child has spent a number of years in school this intrinsic motivation is pretty well dampened. Yet it is there and it is our task as facilitators of learning to tap that motivation, to discover what challenges are real for the young person, and to provide

the opportunity for him to meet those challenges. (p. 131)

This statement implies that learning experiences in the educational context controlled by the educational system have a strong impact on learner motivation, and sometimes may lower the innate nature of the human desire to learn — "intrinsic motivation" (see 4.4.2 for more details of this concept). Also the motivational process may vary from one time to another. It is generally believed that children begin school with full of a desire to learn, but, as they accumulate their learning experiences at school, gradually or sometimes even rapidly, lose that desire to learn. Jacobs and Newstead (2000) found that students maintain their interest in skills and experiences over the first year of their studies but then lose motivation in the second year. A longitudinal/quantitative study of 296 7^{th} grade Japanese school children learning English (Koizumi & Matsuo, 1993), which investigated attitudinal and motivational changes over one year, confirmed that the participants' motivation dropped after the initial stage of the learning process. This study showed that levels of students' interest and emotion, study habits, perceived utility of English and familiarity with English-speaking people, as well as the degree of parental encouragement, and self-rated attainment, all decreased from the beginning of the school year. A similar finding was made by Little, Ridley, and Ushioda (2002). Similarly, in an interview study with young Hungarian adult learners subjected to grammar drills and rote learning of text, Nikolov (2001) found that the participants' motivation gradually decreased over the years as they accumulated learning experiences. And my own qualitative studies (Nakata, 1999, 2003) showed that most Japanese learners of English start their learning

in the 1st grade of junior high school full of hopes but their motivation for learning English drops by their 3rd year.

Several studies specifically show that learner motivation in language learning can be lowered by negative experience. Tse (2000) carried out a qualitative study of analysis of foreign language autobiographies that revealed three categories of data: classroom interactions, perceived level of success, and attributions of success and failure. In Oxford's study (as cited in Dörnyei, 2001a), she conducted a content analysis of essays written by 250 American students about their learning experiences for the previous 5 years. The results revealed four broad themes: the teacher's personal relationship with the students, the teacher's attitude toward the course, style conflicts between teachers and students, and the nature of the classroom activities. My qualitative investigations of Japanese EFL learners (Nakata, 1999; 2003, referred to above) seem to suggest that learners lose their motivation through such experiences as social pressure, college entrance exams, teachers' personalities, compulsory memorisation of grammatical rules, meaningless purposes, and so on. The study seems to suggest that positive beliefs in language learning can be formed based on previous learning experiences related to teachers' personalities, quality of teaching, intercultural contact, and grades. And many of those who had positive experiences in learning English in the past tend to sustain motivation over the long term.

As language teachers, we need to know how to deal with learners with different experiences. The most problematical learners are those who blame themselves for negative learning experiences and are intrinsically demotivated. Ushioda (1996a, p. 61)

argues that blaming external circumstances for one's negative affective experiences is one good method of limiting the damage and protecting one's own underlying language learning motivation, since one's intrinsic motivation will be protected. Many teachers, therefore, may believe that students should blame external factors for their negative experiences. However, I argue that this type of learner can also be quite problematical. If they accumulate too many negative experiences, learners may not be able to protect themselves any longer. Indeed, experiences of this type are quite demotivating for such learners. Once they have had too many negative experiences, negative beliefs based on such experiences cannot be so easily modified. Or, if learners always attribute their negative learning experience to external factors, they do not realise their own problems and therefore fail to learn much. Thus, we naturally attempt to find ways of limiting negative experiences while increasing positive ones in their learning as much as possible. For those who have had positive experiences, teachers should think about how to sustain their motivation without demotivating them. We need to help them to internalise their learning experience in their own appropriate way.

However, a word of caution must be noted here. Without doubt, the teaching method that learners have previously been exposed to is an important issue in the learning experience. For example, if learners have been exposed to a teacher-centred approach for a long time, the sudden introduction of a learner-centred approach may not necessarily be advisable. Instead, the learners need a transitional period to get accustomed to the new method based on the intimate relationship between teacher and students. When learners are ready for a new type of teaching, the teacher and learners

can make the most of the approach together. The teaching project in this thesis will address this issue (Chapter 9).

4.3.4 *State of Discouragement*

Humans have a tendency not to challenge even accomplishable tasks once they come face to face with what they see as unsolvable problems (Kamahara, 1985). In discussing such a complex issue, it is useful to divide unmotivated feelings into several stages: an early stage, a second stage and a third stage. In the early stage, the condition of learner is not so serious. It is like a passing illness that can be cured. This condition is *demotivation*. It is a temporarily reduced or diminished motivational basis of a behavioural intention or an ongoing action due to some specific external causes. Dörnyei (2001a, p. 143) stresses that *demotivation* is not the annulment of all the positive influences that originally made up the motivational basis of a behaviour, but only the resultant force that has been dampened by a strong negative component, and some other positive motives may still remain operational. There are many learners who are temporarily unmotivated due to a teacher's personality, traditional teaching methods, or bad grades, although they basically love language learning.

The second stage of this kind is what Deci and Ryan (1985) describe as *amotivation*, which means a lack of motivation caused by the realisation of general outcome expectations that are unrealistic for some reason. This is not a passing illness like *demotivation*, but it still offers the possibility of redress. This is not the relative absence of motivation caused just by a lack of initial interest, but rather is caused by the individual's accumulated experiences of incompetent feelings (the state of lacking the

intention to act: they go through the motions with no sense of intending to do what they are doing) (see Deci & Ryan, 1985, p. 150; Ryan & Deci, 2002, p. 17). Dörnyei (2001a) describes this as follows, "Some demotives can lead to general amotivation regarding the particular activity (e.g. a series of bad classroom experiences can reduce the learner's self-efficacy) but with some other demotives as soon as the detrimental external influence ceases to exist, other positive, and thus far oppressed, motives may again get the upper hand" (pp. 143-144).

The third stage, called *learned helplessness*, is the most serious situation. It describes learners who feel that they are so lacking in control over what happens to them that they lose all motivation to try to succeed (Seligman, 1975). Graham and Weiner (1996) argue that helpless beliefs symbolise shared agreement about the meaning of "I cannot":

> a state of helplessness exists when failures are perceived as insurmountable or more technically, when noncontingent reinforcement results in a perception that events are uncontrollable. This belief often is accompanied by passivity, loss of motivation, depressed affect, and performance deterioration. Helplessness becomes a *learned* phenomenon when individuals inappropriately generalize from an experience with noncontingency in one situation to subsequent situations where control is in fact possible. (p. 75)

Learned helplessness is a construct that cannot be easily reversed once established. Seligman (1975) argues, "Once a man or an animal had experience with uncontrollability, he has difficulty *learning* that his response has succeeded, even when it is actually successful" (p. 37). Furthermore, this type of learner may not want to be

evaluated or judged on performance or ability by others. In a situation where they may be unable to avoid having others evaluate their performance, such learners do not perform well due to excessive anxiety. And in the worst case scenario of this type, there are learners who pretend to understand, although they do not understand at all. It may be quite difficult for teachers to perceive what such learners are thinking.

Thus, we need to bear in mind that the individual learner perceives his or her learning experience differently and behaves differently from other learners. For example, there are some learners with a significant motivation level who have had many negative experiences. Ichikawa (1999, p.28) argues that how learners perceive their success or failure, and whether these results are related to their motivation and behaviour affects the cognitive learning process. And how they perceive their performance may be more or less due to social expectations.

Several studies have shown the importance of the teacher's influence in fostering unmotivated learners. Christophel and Gorham (1995) investigated *demotivation* both qualitatively and quantitatively, and found that approximately two thirds of the reported sources of motivation were the teachers' responsibility. Learners with lack of motivation tend to attribute their problem to the teacher. In Dörnyei's study (as cited in Dörnyei, 2001a), he interviewed 50 secondary school learners in various schools in Budapest and found that the biggest demotivating factor was the teacher (personality, commitment, competence, teaching method). Thus, teachers have a considerable responsibility both for each stage of the unmotivated situation and for the varied learning process of each individual.

So far in this chapter I have discussed the unsuccessful learner's mind in the sense of how and why negative beliefs are formed. In contrast, the rest of this chapter will be devoted to discussing some important issues that influence learners' motivated development.

4.4 AUTONOMY IN LEARNING

4.4.1 *Goal Theory*

When we discuss autonomy in learning (which I associate with intentional learning), we inevitably need to address the concept of a goal. Interestingly enough, we can find a similar concept in the following statement made by Dewey very early in the 20th century:

> acting with an aim is all one with acting intelligently. To foresee a terminus of an act is to have a basis upon which to observe, to select, and to order objects and our own capacities. To do these things means to have a mind-for mind is precisely intentional purposeful activity controlled by perception of facts and their relationships to one another. (Dewey, 1916, p. 103)

Motivation researchers who view motivation from a cognitive perspective, seem to have implicitly accepted Dewey's notion of *aim* as one similar to *goal*.

Goals are the current cognitive representations of a general "energy" construct that activates learners' behaviour towards the desired direction. Goals play a very important role, since motivation is considered to be the process of instigating and sustaining goal-directed behaviour. There are two major goal theories: goal-setting theory (Locke & Latham, 1994) and goal orientation theory (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996;

Ames, 1992).

All human beings have an ability to set their own goal, make plans for it, and actually make effort towards it. Learners can motivate themselves in the process of pursuing goals. Setting appropriate goals can play an important role in the early stages of the motivational process since the decisions learners have made can sustain their motivation and effort in learning. Goal-setting theory proposes that human action is purposeful, in that it is directed by conscious goals (Locke & Latham, 1994, p. 14). Goals represent the very specific situation that an individual is pursuing or trying to attain. The theory assumes that some people perform better than others do, because they have goals and are therefore motivated. The strength of commitment to the goal has a positive influence on subsequent achievement.

In the traditional classroom, unfortunately, all learners are required by the teachers to set the same goal. This makes for a distinction between success and failure, or winners and losers, in terms of achieving the set goal and ignores the fact that individuals have different ways of motivation or processing learning. As I mentioned earlier, setting goals is important for each individual. Goals do not necessarily need to be the same ones set by teachers, but should be goals learners can accept whether set by themselves or by a teacher.

Goal-orientation theory was developed specifically to explain achievement behaviour (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). Learners who choose or have appropriate goals can be motivated in learning behaviour. Dweck (1986) suggests that the goals people choose reflect both their beliefs in intelligence and ability, and their typical behaviour

patterns in achievement situations. Thus, goal selection can be very important in learning. Goal-orientation theory is the most distinctive area in student motivation research since it directly applies to classroom behaviour. This theory has been tested in many experimental and classroom field studies with both children and adults (see below).

There are two general goal orientations that students can adopt toward their academic work: *performance goal* and *mastery goal*. Performance goal orientation puts the focus on demonstrating ability, getting good grades or rewards, or beating other students. A performance goal is focused on a learner's ability and sense of self-worth (Covington, 1984; Dweck, 1986), and ability is evidenced by doing better than others, by surpassing normative-based standards, or by achieving success with little effort (Ames, 1984; Covington, 1984). Dweck (1986) suggests that learners who are apt to choose performance goals seem to view intelligence as something fixed and unchangeable. Learners with low confidence in their ability are unmotivated to learn since they believe there is nothing they can do. With this goal orientation, the level of learner motivation is fixed from the beginning.

Mastery goal orientation on the other hand puts the focus on learning and the mastery of content. With a mastery goal, individuals are oriented toward developing new skills, trying to understand their work, improving their level of competence, or achieving a sense of mastery based on self-referenced standards (Ames, 1992; Brophy, 1983). Mastery goals increase the amount of time students spend on learning tasks (Butler, 1988) and their persistence in the face of difficulty (Elliott & Dweck, 1988); but

more importantly the quality of their engagement in learning (Ames, 1992). According to Schunk (1996), process (mastery) goals are effective particularly in the initial stage of learning since they can help focus students' effort on the task and provide the motivation to engage in self-regulation. Schunk and Ertmer (1999) found that providing college students with process goals (mastery goals) is an effective way of enhancing achievement outcomes and that under certain conditions opportunities for self-evaluation are beneficial. Providing learners with such goals may increase their sense of self-efficacy for learning while lessening their anxiety or worry over the outcome result, shift their attention in the learning process, and get them motivated in learning.

In many EFL classrooms in Japan, not many learners are encouraged to set their own goals. Most learners with low confidence, low self-efficacy, and low proficiency may indeed not be able to set the most appropriate goal by themselves. For any learner, goals should be achievable but a little difficult. Such goals are likely to enhance learner motivation and ultimately lead to their better performance in the learner's own way. Therefore, teachers are responsible for frequent communication with learners, understanding each person's needs, and suggesting the most appropriate goal for each individual.

4.4.2 *Self-Determination Theory — Intrinsic Motivation and Extrinsic Motivation*

Self-determination theory was developed on the premise that humans have a need to be autonomous and engaged in activities because they want to in a goal driven way. Deci and his colleagues (Deci, 1980; Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1991) attempt to distinguish

will – the capacity of the human organism to choose how to satisfy its needs, from *self-determination* – the process of utilizing one's will (see Deci, 1980, p. 26). The concept of self-determination can be explained in relation to intrinsic motivation, which is the human need to be competent and self-determining in relation to one's environment (Deci, 1980, p. 27). Deci and Ryan (1985) describe the nature of intrinsic motivation as follows:

> The intrinsic needs for competence and self-determination motivate an ongoing process for seeking and attempting to conquer optimal challenges. When people are free from the intrusion of drives and emotions, they seek situations that interest them and require the use of their creativity and resourcefulness .... In short, the needs for competence and self-determination keep people involved in ongoing cycles of seeking and conquering optimal challenges. (pp. 32-33)

According to self-determination theory, intrinsic motivation is separate from extrinsic motivation which is behaviour in the absence of self-determination. These two types of motivation used to be considered as antagonistic. Intrinsic motivation has traditionally been considered to be positive and longlasting, while extrinsic motivation has been seen as negative and a factor that may diminish the learner's intrinsic interest. Some studies (Deci, 1971, 1972; Lepper, Greene, & Nisbett, 1973) provided evidence that offering people extrinsic rewards for performing an intrinsically motivated activity decreased their intrinsic motivation for the activity. Evidence has shown the value of being intrinsically motivated in many applied settings, such as education, sport, and work environments (Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999), since it supports autonomy and competence for motivated persistence, performance, and well-being.

However, the distinction between intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation outlined above gives rise to some conceptual problems, mainly due to the simplicity of the distinction between these two concepts. First, extrinsic motivation should not be regarded simply as an antagonistic counterpart of intrinsic motivation. Indeed, it can be divided into several types along a continuum between self-determined and controlled forms of motivation (Deci, Vallerland, Pelletier & Ryan, 1991). Second, extrinsic motivation, depending on its level, is not necessarily a negative factor that diminishes intrinsic motivation. There are conditions under which tangible rewards do not necessarily undermine intrinsic motivation, although in other conditions extrinsic rewards may situate intrinsic motivation in a risk of diminishing intrinsic interest rather than promoting it (Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999). Although some studies (e.g., Lepper & Greene, 1978) support the notion that extrinsic motivation undermines intrinsic motivation (this does indeed have some educational implications), they are not necessarily a trade-off relationship but a more complex one. Third, the original theory lacks social relatedness, emphasising individuals too much. Obviously, motivational development cannot be explained without a social dimension. Indeed, Ryan and his colleagues emphasise the fundamental importance of warm, trusting, and supportive interpersonal relationships for well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2001; Reis, Sheldon, Gable, Roscoe, & Ryan, 2000). Fourth, I believe, as van Lier (1996) argues, that motivation should be perceived as "an interplay between intrinsic (innate) and extrinsic (environmental) factors, and both factors coexist as motivation" (p. 6). For example, it is unclear whether those learners who would like to study TOEFL for entering an

American university, to make international friends, to find a job in international business field, or to be wealthy, possess intrinsic motivation or extrinsic motivation.

In terms of the relationship between intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation, Deci and Ryan (1985) propose five distinct (but a continuum) categories of regulation within extrinsic motivation (a controlled and self-determined form of motivation) based on the assumption that a learner's level of motivation, either extrinsic or intrinsic, depends on how much he/she internalises it.

Deci and Ryan (1985) also propose four types of extrinsic motivation. The earliest stage is *external regulation*, where students learn a disliked subject for tangible benefits against their will (e.g., course requirement). The next stage is *introjected regulation* where students study from pressure but not by personal choice. The third stage is *identified regulation*, where students engage in the activity because it is personally relevant to them, or learn the L2 because they consider it useful in order to achieve another important goal. The final stage is *integrated regulation*, where students choose the activity or choose to learn the L2 because of its importance to their sense of self. Although this level is still extrinsic, integrated regulation does represent a form of self-determination and autonomy. In such a way, extrinsic motivators affected by structures, control and rewards may produce good behaviour on the part of learners in the process of internalisation and the self-regulation process. And *pure intrinsic* regulation, which is a form of intrinsic motivation, is clearly different from these four types of extrinsic motivation. The most recent model of the self-determination continuum mentioned above (Deci & Ryan, 2002, p. 16), shown in Figure 3, is based on

the *organismic integration* theory that people are naturally inclined to integrate their ongoing experiences because they have the necessary nutriments to do so. This model includes another type of motivation — amotivation (see 4.3.4). The model proposes a taxonomy of types of regulation that differ in the degree to which they represent autonomy, arranged from left to right in terms of the extent to which the motivation for a behaviour from the self (i.e., autonomous) exists.

Type of Motivation	**Amotivation**	**Extrinsic Motivation**				**Intrinsic Motivation**
Types of Regulation	Non-Regulation	External Regulation	Introjected Regulation	Identified Regulation	Integrated Regulation	
Quality Behaviour	Nonself-determined					Self-determined

Figure 3. Deci & Ryan's Self-Determination Continuum, with Types of Motivation and Types of Regulation

Such a theory suggests that extrinsic motivation, depending on the level (e.g., integrated regulation) can also contribute to cognitive engagement in learning. Harter (1981) claims, "Although I initially contrasted intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, one can also imagine situations in which intrinsic interest and extrinsic rewards might correlate, as it were, to motivate learning" (pp. 310-311). It is thus natural to consider that both intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation are related, and interact with and influence each other.

Recently, self-determination theory, rather than exclusively focusing on "self," is attempting to relate autonomy and intrinsic motivation to the "social" dimension (Ryan, 1991; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2001; Reis, Sheldon, Gable, Roscoe, & Ryan,

2000). This concept has much in common with a social constructivist view of intrinsic motivation discussed in 5.1 (also see the result of the quantitative study in Chapter 8).

4.4.3 *The Concept of Learner Autonomy*

It may not be easy to pinpoint the nature of the relationship between motivation and autonomy. Until recently, motivation researchers and autonomy researchers appear not to have discussed this relationship due to the differences in the research paradigms. It seems that motivation researchers in general have been working in a positivist paradigm, while autonomy researchers have been working in an interpretative paradigm. For my present proposes, however, it is very important to discuss the relationship between motivation and autonomy. Much more motivation research should be conducted in an interpretative way (which is my approach here, see Chapters 9 and 10). With such research evidence, we may be able to explore which parts of motivation and autonomy are more strongly or less strongly related, and the nature of the relationship.

In this section, I discuss the role of autonomy in motivational development, not from an autonomy point of view but from a motivational point of view (which is relevant to this thesis). In this thesis, I consider total learner autonomy (which means self-reflection and self-regulation) as a pedagogical goal and learner motivation as an engine to produce autonomous learners with these abilities. What I mean by autonomy here is the ability for self-regulation and self-reflection, putting the spotlight more on *motivational self-regulation* than on *cognitive self-regulation* (see 1.2.4). Learner autonomy has tended to have been studied in relation to cognitive self-regulation (which is linked to reflection and metacognition) rather than in relation to motivational

self-regulation. It may however be beneficial to view learner autonomy not only from a cognitive self-regulatory perspective but also from a motivational self-regulatory one.

Let me discuss the concept of autonomy first. Ryan, an educational psychologist, defines autonomy as a process of "self-determination" or "self-regulation" (1991, p. 210) based on his view that the achievement of a sense of autonomy is one of the most fundamental needs and purposes of human beings. Holec (1981) notes that the concept of autonomy is a fundamental pedagogical goal in foreign language learning. In his view, learner autonomy implies taking responsibility for one's learning in all its aspects (Holec, 1981, p. 3). Another applied linguist, Little (1995) notes: "By definition, the autonomous learner tends to integrate whatever he or she learns in the formal context of the classroom with what he or she has already become as a result of developmental learning" (p. 175). This means that learner autonomy can bring both affective/ motivational and metacognitive dimensions to bear on the learning process. Elaborating this idea, Little (1996) claims that "autonomy is a defining characteristic of all sustained learning that attains long-term success" (p. 204) and suggests that it can be the means by which the learner transcends the limitations of the learning situation and applies what he or she has learned to the day-to-day business of living. It can be these learner characteristics that facilitate target language use in the larger world that lies beyond the immediate learning environment. And learner autonomy implies that the learner will take maximum advantage of the language-learning opportunities that continually arise in language use.

In defining autonomy, and discussing the relationship between motivation and

autonomy, there are some crucial issues that need to be addressed. First, autonomy is not a culture-specific product but an innate part of human nature which is biological and psychological, because human beings have the tendency to strive after autonomy within the limits imposed by their inescapable interdependence (Little & Dam, 1998, p. 15). According to Little and Dam (1998), learners who are not autonomous in learning are not cultural products but products of a personal reaction to the educational system, such as a teacher-centred approach, and their learning experiences. Thus, they also believe, "the development of learner autonomy in Japanese classrooms will require the elaboration of pedagogical approaches that are sensitive to specifically Japanese cultural traditions both inside and outside the classroom" (p. 15). This suggests that the way to develop learner autonomy differs from one environment to another.

Second, autonomy is not an absolute concept since there are degrees of autonomy (Nunan, 1996, p. 13). Little (2001) claims that the autonomous learner's acceptance of responsibility for his or her learning is not a single act, but a gradually developing state of mind (pp. 2-3). The capacity for autonomous learning behaviour is one that grows under the influence of learning experiences. We can say that learners' first step toward autonomy is when they accept responsibility for their own learning (see, e.g., Holec, 1981; Little, 1991; Dam, 1995).

Third, there are stages in the developmental process of learner autonomy. In the initial stage, learners may not show autonomy in their behaviour, although they potentially possess this inborn nature. However, as they learn, they may exhibit autonomy in their learning in a later stage. Little (2000) explains the developmental

process of autonomy through social interaction as follows:

> progress in learning is a matter of achieving autonomy at one level in order to be capable of dependence at the next level, where in turn autonomy must be achieved in order to move on again. Consequently, autonomy is integral to the process of learning, an immediate as well as an ultimate goal; and the teacher must at all times be intent on identifying opportunities of "letting go," or handing over control to her learners, in order that they may progress towards a new phase of dependence. (p. 9)

Fourth, there are different types of learner autonomy referred to in the literature. We see, for example, that Littlewood (1999) proposes two levels of autonomy: *proactive* autonomy and *reactive* autonomy. *Proactive* autonomy is the form of autonomy that learners are able to take charge of their own leaning, determine their objectives, select methods and techniques, and evaluate what has been acquired (e.g., Holec, 1981). In contrast, *reactive* autonomy is a form of autonomy that stimulates learners to learn vocabulary without being pushed, to do past examination papers on their own initiative, or to organise themselves into groups in order to cover the reading for an assignment.

Fifth, as already mentioned, learner autonomy has a social-interactive as well as an individual cognitive dimension. (Little, 1999, 2000) There is no total independence simply because learning can be promoted through social interactions. Little (1999) argues, "A social-interactive view of learning is founded on particular claims about the way humans are, which in turn lead to claims about the relation between individual cognition and social interaction, and the relation between thought and language" (p. 78).

Sixth, learner autonomy does not mean that the teacher has less control of students. In the classroom where autonomy is a goal, the teacher controls the students

but in a way to promote learner autonomy. Teachers have a great responsibility in the process of creating an optimal learning environment for the development of learner autonomy. As Little (1995, p. 179) says, learner autonomy and teacher autonomy are interdependent since the promotion of learner autonomy depends on the promotion of teacher autonomy.

These issues raise the question: how can we promote learner autonomy? I believe some level of autonomy can be promoted in learners by appropriate guidance. Little (1995) suggests the teacher's role in the promotion of learner autonomy is "to bring learners to the point where they accept equal responsibility for this co-production, not only at the affective level but in terms of their readiness to undertake organizational initiatives" (p. 178). Later, Little (2001) proposes three pedagogical principles: *learner empowerment* (for example, learners assume some of the planning and monitoring of classroom activities); *reflection* (they think about what they are doing, and why) and target language use (they use the target language to express their own meanings).

Bearing these points in mind, my view is that teachers have to take account of the educational system from which their learners come (see Chapter 6). Appropriate guidance in learning how to learn is something that has to take note of the learners' background and information. I therefore propose two types of approach that a teacher may take in encouraging learner autonomy. One is an explicit approach: the teacher discusses the question of responsibility with the learners and suggests how they may start to take the initiative in their learning activities (see Dam, 1995, 2000). The other approach is implicit: the teacher ensures that the learning activities in the classroom

provide opportunities for learner autonomy to flourish. Teachers can of course follow both approaches; they can state that their pedagogical goal is to promote learner autonomy, and promote it by using tools such as a *portofolio*. At the same time, they can be more implicit in their approach by simply providing learners with opportunities for social interaction (including use of the target language) and freedom of choice. The latter case will be described in the teaching project (see 9.2).

I believe that, in the case of my Japanese learners, they should be introduced to a more learner-centred classroom gradually; they are used to teacher-directed classrooms and should be encouraged to be more autonomous in their learning one step at a time. In this, I take a more cautious approach than Dam (1995, 2000). However, following Little (2001) above, I take the view that learners should be encouraged to use the target language as much as possible, since their use of English as a means of communication is essential to their developing autonomy. (As I later show in the two empirical studies: Study 1 and Study 2, they want to speak English yet are in some cases anxious about it.) The teaching project I describe in the thesis is based on the premise that I should guide learners very slowly toward greater autonomy.

4.4.4 *Intrinsic Motivation and Autonomy*

Having understood the characteristics of learner autonomy described in 4.4.3, we see that the relationship between autonomy and motivation is still indeed a complex issue. Probably not many motivation and autonomy researchers would disagree that each concept is multifaceted. Nor would they deny the existence of a relationship between autonomy and motivation. However, the answer as to precisely how they are

interrelated has remained elusive.

Self-determination theory can to some extent contribute to explaining this. Learner autonomy can be a key element in increasing learner motivation, while I believe increasing learner motivation can also contribute to the development of learner autonomy. Thus, learner autonomy is an important element in the thesis.

Deci and Ryan (1985) found a strong link between motivation (i.e., intrinsic motivation) and autonomy (see too the results of Study 2 in Chapter 10). Self-determination leads to intrinsic motivation. And intrinsic motivation leads to more effective learning in autonomy-supporting conditions where the learner has a measure of self-determination (taking responsibility) and where the locus of control is clearly with the learner. Indeed, cognitive motivation studies provide some evidence to support this notion. It has been suggested by deCharms (1984) that successful learners are those who perceive themselves to be in control of their learning. Wang and Palincsar (1989) note that motivation to learn and learning effectiveness can be increased in learners who take responsibility for their own learning, who understand and accept that their learning success is a result of effort, and that failure can be overtaken with greater effort and better use of strategies.

A link between intrinsic motivation and autonomy can also be found in the social context. Deci and Flaste (1995, p. 81) indicate that intrinsic motivation is a viable concept — that intrinsically motivated performance is superior in many ways to externally controlled performance. They also argue that social contexts (and I believe the learning environment) can support and affirm people's perceived autonomy and

perceived competence enhance intrinsic motivation, while social contexts can also diminish their perceived autonomy and competence, and undermine intrinsic motivation (see Chapter 6 for the discussion of Japanese learners of English).

In the field of language learning, there is a growing literature (Benson & Voller, 1997; Dickinson, 1995; Ehrman & Dörnyei, 1998; Ushioda, 1996a, 1996b) demonstrating that autonomous learners become more highly motivated. Dickinson (1995) stresses that learners' active and independent involvement in their own learning (autonomy) increases motivation to learn and consequently increases learning effectiveness. The focus of this concept in language teaching is to enable learners to become autonomous users of their target language. Furthermore, there is a recent trend to investigate motivation in relation to autonomy, even among motivation researchers who have been working in a positivist paradigm. Indeed, the process model of motivation (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998; Dörnyei, 2000) discusses the self-regulatory aspect of motivation, while Noels, Pelletier, Clément, and Vallerand (2000) have recently researched motivation in relation to self-determination theory. Unfortunately, however, these studies have not explained the relationship between motivation and autonomy enough, though they have argued there is a relationship between them. This qualitative/longitudinal study of a limited number of subjects using various sources of data may potentially answer this question, since not many motivation researchers exploring this relationship have done so in an interpretative paradigm.

Ushioda (1997), one of the few qualitative researchers in this field, explicitly states: "Autonomous language learners are by definition self-motivated learners" (p. 38).

This view is based on the premise that self-motivation is a capacity that should be developed as an integral dimension of learner autonomy, and that self-motivation implies managing its affective dimension so as to optimise and sustain involvement in learning (see Ushioda, 1997; Ushioda, 2001 for her view). According to Ushioda (personal communication, March 7, 2001), there are two crucial motivation processes that interface with autonomy. One is intrinsic motivation (wanting), which occurs when learners want to learn because it is fun or enjoyable, while the other is self-motivation (regulating), which develops when learners know how to regulate this motivation to cope with problems, setbacks, or challenges. Thus, she considers motivation as a part of autonomy because a learner will not learn how to regulate his motivation unless he wants to and until he sees himself as the agent of his learning and of his motivation — i.e., he must be given autonomy. She thus believes autonomy is the more fundamental concept, though its development depends on motivation, and considers that both theories of autonomy and theories of motivation are directly concerned with the whole process of L2 learning, whatever the learner's proficiency level, length of learning experience, degree of autonomy, and level of motivation. As Ushioda (personal communication, September 24, 2001) observes, autonomy theory crops up in theories of L2 motivation in relation to basic issues in early L2 learning (such as the importance of learner choice, goal setting, etc.). According to her view, it also arises, and perhaps more extensively, in theories of L2 motivation in relation to the later stages of L2 learning — particularly under the guise of "self-regulatory skills."

I agree with most of Ushioda's basic views on the relationship between

motivation and autonomy and with her opinion that motivation and autonomy are concerned with the whole process of L2 learning. I also, for the most part, concur that autonomy can contribute to motivation more in the later stages of motivational development (which, I believe, includes both affective and cognitive self-regulatory process) than in early stage of the self-regulatory process. However, my stance on the relation between motivation and autonomy is slightly different from that of Ushoida stated above. Here, it will be helpful to cite some examples to illustrate my own perspective. Consider, for example, some learners (e.g., Japanese learners of English) who try to study hard and thus perform well simply because they just love the personality of their teachers. As Ushioda noted, this type of learner obviously has intrinsic motivation, but may not necessarily exhibit self-motivation clearly (although as a capacity he/she may potentially have it). (I do consider this as part of intrinsic motivation but it is at the surface level, see 5.5.1 for a more detailed discussion.) Conversely, there are some learners who can control their learning for college entrance exams, coping with their problems, setbacks or challenges without real intrinsic motivation (what we might call pure intrinsic regulation, also see 5.5.1 for a more detailed discussion). They study hard and perform well without any evidence of intrinsic motivation to study English merely for the purpose of passing the entrance exams. Above all, I do not consider intrinsic motivation just as "wanting" (which in my understanding is the surface level of intrinsic motivation, see Figure 7, p. 171) but believe that the motivational process (at least at the core level of intrinsic motivation) includes both affect and cognition. When we see intrinsic motivation as a developmental

process, it includes both an affective domain and cognitive domain (in other words, affective self-regulation and cognitive self-regulation).

In this regard especially, my position is different from that of Ushioda. Put simply, I suggest that the relationship between autonomy and motivation should be perceived at each level (see the discussion in 5.3). Coincidentally, Spratt, Humphreys and Chan (2002, p. 262), on the basis of their recent study with EFL learners in Hong Kong, argue that the relationship between motivation and autonomy works in both directions, changing in direction with different stages in a learner's progress and in learners' lives in general in a dynamic way.

It is perhaps a controversial issue whether the development of learner autonomy contributes to the enhancement of intrinsic motivation or vice versa. It seems that Dickinson (1995) and Ushioda (1997, 2001) seem to support the former. While I do not disagree with their assertion that there are some learners who can be intrinsically motivated by taking responsibility for their own learning, I do believe that there are others who can develop their autonomous characteristics by having enhanced their intrinsic motivation. There may be some cases, especially in the early stage of motivational development, that learners can enhance their intrinsic motivation without taking responsibility for their learning (e.g., learners come to like English because they love the teacher's personality or because they liked lessons using English songs which were controlled by a teacher).

My assertion, then, is that while both of these cases are possible, I firmly believe that being cautious about autonomy in the early stages is more appropriate for Japanese

learners of English who have been exposed to a teacher-centred approach for many years. Interestingly, Littlewood (1996, p. 428), who bases his teaching and research in Hong Kong, argues that motivation is a necessary precursor of autonomy, since a willingness to take responsibility for learning depends on motivation. The findings of EFL learners in Hong Kong (Spratt, Humphreys, & Chan, 2002, p. 245) also indicate that motivation may lead to autonomy or a precondition for it, since we cannot assume that the relationship between autonomy and motivation is always one in which autonomy leads to motivation (Spratt et al., 2002, p. 262). Therefore, as Deci and Flaste stated above (1995, p. 81), it is crucially important that the study of motivation in specific contexts includes the element of the social context (in the case of this thesis, the Japanese context).

Ushioda (1996a) also argues that in this age of learner-centredness, the teacher's own agenda needs to change from a traditional one (*how can we motivate our learners*) to a new one (*how can we help learners to motivate themselves*). In considering the whole learning processes as discussed above and the teacher's role, I cannot totally agree with this notion, although the new agenda is a central concept for motivation. My view is that teachers need to think how to combine the traditional agenda and the new agenda. Some learners may need the traditional one in the early stage of the motivation (i.e., low levels of motivation) but need the new one in the later stages. This is especially true for EFL learners such as many Japanese learners of English, who have been exposed to teacher-centredness for a long time. Such learners need a transitional period (readiness) for the next step (learner-centredness under the new agenda). The

teacher's role then is not to provide the learners (who are not ready for learner-centredness) with the new concept, but to understand each learner's psychology and reflect that in their teaching. Above all, when we introduce a new concept of autonomy or learner-centredness to learners with no such experience, a trusting relationship between the teacher and students is a "must," because such learners tend to observe the teacher's values or views on teaching and decide if they accept them or not in the light of this relationship.

It seems that the reason why motivation researchers and autonomy research still have not found the answer as to how they are interrelated is due to a lack of motivation research in an interpretative paradigm. Thus, in this thesis, based on the above-mentioned assumptions, the experiment will target the early stage of the motivational process (i.e., learners who are not yet highly motivated in learning English) and will be conducted in an interpretative way (see Chapters 9 and 10).

4.5 DISCUSSION

This chapter has stressed the more education-focused aspect of language learning motivation. Individual, cognitive, and psychological processes both in general learning and in language learning have specifically been discussed. When it comes to uncovering motivation in the language learning process, theories discussed in this chapter play very important roles. In this regard, this chapter has attempted to examine a range of concepts in educational psychology that provide language learning motivation studies with fruitful and meaningful insights by investigating learners' psychology. At the same

time, by focusing on the notion of self-belief, this chapter has partially explained theories concerned with the language learning process, that is, how individual motivation can be formed and what kind of external/internal factors are involved. We saw expectancy and attribution theories do not necessarily explain what energises behaviour. Instead, theories of goals and self-determination did to some extent explain learners' mental process: why and how learners behave as they do.

We should bear in mind however that motivation in learning cannot be explained solely from learners' psychology. It is more appropriate to understand that their psychology is the product of the interaction with peers, teachers, schools, texts, and society. Such individual motivation can be developed through social interaction. The next chapter, then, will provide a clearer picture of motivation in the language learning process by discussing social interactive aspects.

CHAPTER 5

MOTIVATION IN THE CLASSROOM: A SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIVIST PERSPECTIVE

5.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, I discussed several important theories in cognitive psychology, in particular, self-belief and its various influential factors. These theories are crucial for explaining the individual's mental learning process and the motivational process of learners with low achievement and low self-esteem. The previous chapter dealt particularly with a constructivist view of cognitive theories relating to motivation, and stressed individual differences in motivational development. I also mentioned that recent theories of self-determination/intrinsic motivation, including the issue of *relatedness* (feeling close to and connected to other individuals) (Ryan, 1991; Ryan & Deci, 1992, 2000; Ryan and Deci, 2001; Ryan, Deci, & Grolnick, 1995) and of learner autonomy are leaning towards the addition of a social dimension to the earlier theories (Little, 1999, 2000; Ushioda, 2002).

My standpoint in this thesis is more on social interaction than on theories to do with constructivism. I do not consider motivation simply as a learner's drive to succeed, or a need to achieve, but rather in terms of how likely it is that individuals believe in their chances of success and put value on their learning while taking account of external factors. In other words, I am interested in a reciprocal relationship between motivation and other factors in motivational development, taking the view that motivation is after

all a psychological matter (see my working definition of motivation in 2.2). But most importantly, my interest in this thesis is the development of intrinsic motivation within the social constructivist framework (see 5.1.6 and 5.5.1). I contend that intrinsic motivation can be developed through interaction between external factors (e.g., teachers, texts, teaching method, peers) and internal factors (e.g., the various self-beliefs discussed in the previous chapter). Intrinsic motivation that is fostered in the social context is likely, in my view, to make learners' habitual learning behaviour happen (see discussion in 5.1.4). A study based on this view may shed new light on motivation research. Indeed, most recent motivation studies try to explain motivational processes at the individual level but not within the social interactive domain (Bandura, 1993; Heckhausen & Kuhl, 1985; Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998; Ushioda, 1996b).

In this chapter, I first discuss the social constructivist view of learning and *intrinsic motivation* (5.1), and then propose means by which to promote social interaction (5.2). After this, I discuss motivational change (5.3), and go on to describe the role of context in motivational development (5.4). Finally, I propose *two levels of intrinsic motivation* that has educational implications (5.5).

5.1 A SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIVIST VIEW OF LEARNING

5.1.1 *Why is the Social Constructivist View of Motivation so Important?*

Let us look back on the issues I highlighted in the previous chapter. I discussed some influential factors for motivation: attribution, intelligence, anxiety, goal, intrinsic/extrinsic motivation, and autonomy. Social interaction can play a very important role in the learning process, since learning can be developed not only

individually but also with peers, teachers, school, parents, society and self. Interaction is part of a process of "learning the rules for acceptable social participation within the classroom in order to display that language in particular ways" (Brooks, 1993, p. 234).

We cannot deny the significant impact of the need for belonging and relatedness to others on students' intrinsic motivation. Often, learners can feel a sense of success with approval from others; and even learners who attain success may not perceive their achievement as success without approval from others. Raffini (1996) argues further:

> In many classrooms, a student's "lack of motivation" can be traced to a real or imagined fear of being isolated or rejected by peers and being labeled a "brain," "nerd," or "related," or derided for "acting white" .... Human behaviour is embedded in a social context, and the need to develop a sense of social and psychological belonging is a major challenge of childhood. (p. 7)

In other words, the social context can have a negative impact. Learners with poor performance tend to attribute it to external factors (e.g., poor performance is due to the teacher). Also, they are worried about a poor outcome when they seriously made an effort. They try to protect their pride in their society. For example, some learners who wish to enter a prestigious university may study hard to obtain a certain future social position. Extrinsic motivation rather than intrinsic motivation is paramount for such learners. The reality is, however, that even learners who win in such social competition do not necessarily sustain their learning and do not necessarily study long-term, since they may not be intrinsically motivated.

Students will feel better about themselves and will be more intrinsically motivated and engaged in their learning when they feel connected with, rather than

isolated or alienated from, their schoolmates, teachers, and parents (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Raffini (1996) argues:

> Many develop a sense of belonging and acceptance conforming to the social and academic expectations of their teacher and peers and by making useful contributions to the group's solidarity. Others become discouraged by their attempts to gain acceptance. Being unsuccessful with what they perceive to be constructive means for obtaining social belongings, they are forced to seek alternative, antisocial methods for gaining status. (p. 8)

In contrast to factors such as attribution, intelligence and trait anxiety, factors discussed early in the previous chapter like goals, intrinsic motivation and autonomy, can be developed in a positive way through the social interactive process. Social interaction does affect motivational development and plays a very powerful role in the learning process. It is true that motivation does not merely reside within the individual but is also socially situated, in the sense that it generally refers to activities including the mediation of others, either directly or indirectly (Rueda & Moll, 1994).

According to Williams and Burden (1997, p. 43), social interactionism focuses on the dynamic nature of the interplay between teachers, learners and tasks, and provides a view of learning as arising from interactions with others and the importance of the learning environment or context within which the learning takes place. In other words, learners internalise the meaning of the task that teachers select, while teachers' belief/values and learners' individual characteristics/feelings interface with each other in the emotional environment such as trust and ownership, the physical environment, the whole school ethos, the wider social environment, the political environment, and the

cultural setting. van Lier (1996, p. 193) argues that language education is enhanced by such things as engagement, intrinsic motivation, and self-determination, and that these conditions are promoted by certain kinds of social interaction. Social interaction is thus a crucial issue for motivational development. In this section, I will discuss some important theories for the social interactive learning process.

5.1.2 *Vygotsky and Social Constuctivism*

Lev Vygtotsky, a Russian psychologist, may be the most distinguished scholar who greatly influenced social constructivist epistemology. In contrast to the behaviourists, who view learning development in the light of the individual's passive responses to the environment, Vygotsky views learning development within the framework of the individual's social interactions. In other words, an individual's cognitive system is a result of communication in social groups and cannot be separated from social life (Vygotsky, 1978, 1986).

Among Vygotskian theories, the *zone of proximal development theory* (ZPD) is perhaps the most influential one. Vygotsky (1978) defines this zone as "the distance between a child's actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the higher level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p. 86). He (1978) argues that progress across the ZPD occurs as a result of assistance from a more capable person such as teacher, or a more capable peer. Vygotsky considers the teacher's role as a facilitator or guide and the provider of assistance. Probably this teacher's role is maximised in the "construction zone." Teachers need to know that there

is no fixed zone of proximal development for all learners, but it varies among individuals, and this zone can be changed. In an original sense, Vygotsky's zone of proximal development theory deals with human development through language.

I do not have any reservation about the significance of Vygotskian theories in language education. I do believe, however, that we should be very careful in interpreting what Vygotsky really meant in his theories for several reasons. First, we should be cautious in considering Vygotsky's theory the same as *Activity theory*, which views human development as a goal-directed activity in relation to external objects — several tools including language, computer or text, as Nakamura (1998) warns. Lantolf and Appel (1998) consider Vygotsky's theory the same as activity theory; "Vygotsky saw the transformation of elementary processes into higher order ones as possible through the mediating function of culturally constructed artifacts including tools, symbols, and more elaborate sign systems, such as language" (p. 6). The question is however if Vygotsky really meant to put the same emphasis on other tools (e.g., text) that he did on language. I take the view that he did not. Second, we must examine carefully whether Vygotsky's assertion can really theoretically suit our research paradigm. Overton (1998) clearly points this out:

> When Vygotsky is placed in a social constructivist framework, there is no rapprochement between him and Piaget – between the interpersonal and the intrapsychic. In fact, when Vygotsky is located in this frame, his work becomes more closely aligned with...realist ecological position. In this context, the person's 'intentions' become reduced to instrumental acts that change through a Darwinian-like selection process in accordance with the affordances of the environment for action. Social constructivism, as a split position, tends not even

address phenomenological constructivism. (p. 143)

As they argue, there is no social constructivism without the relation between the interpersonal and the intrapsychic. Third, we also should bear in mind that Vygotsky's theories were not meant to investigate the development of motivation.

As researchers, we should not simply borrow Vygotsky's theory without knowing exactly what he meant in his theories. More precisely as motivation researchers in language learning, we should not make the same mistakes that many motivation researchers made in the past, such as simply transferring Gardner's social psychological approach to their own context. It is not appropriate to separate Piaget's constructivism from Vygotsky's social constructivism, especially when we conduct motivation research, since motivation is, after all, a matter of psychology.

5.1.3 *Theories Associated with the Zone of Proximal Development*

Several cognitive psychologists attempted to develop Vygotsky's theory in order to put it into practice. Guided by Vygotsky's theory, Bruner (1983) tried to apply the ZPD to teaching, that is, how teachers can promote work that falls within the ZPD. Based on his study regarding the language of teaching and learning, mainly through observing young children interacting with their mothers, Bruner (1983) introduced the notion of *scaffolding* as "a process of 'setting up' the situation to make the child's entry easy and successful and then gradually pulling back and handing the role to the child as he becomes skilled enough to manage it" (p. 60). He considered scaffolding as a particular kind and quality of cognitive and linguistic support that the adult can provide. Scaffolding can provide a valuable insight into the way one can become intimately and

productively, involved in someone else's learning (Mercer, 1995, p. 73). Although scaffolding traditionally was illustrated within a one-to-one framework, in other words, teacher — student interactions, its application to group work and even to the large class is also considered. It is claimed by van Lier (1996, p. 213) that through the scaffolding process learners learn to make choices about how to plan and conduct tasks, and then will develop the sense of self-determination that fosters intrinsic motivation. Scaffolding can play a very powerful role in language learning, where social interaction is crucial. Indeed it is an attractive concept since it can offer a neat metaphor for the active and sensitive involvement of a teacher in a student's learning (Mercer, 1995, p. 73).

Recently, Salmon (1993) introduced the concept of *distributed cognitions*, which suggests that cognition is distributed among individuals, that knowledge is socially constructed through collaborative efforts to achieve shared objectives in cultural surroundings, and that information is processed in individuals and the tools and artifacts provided by culture. Lave and Wenger (1991) also stress the importance of context and situated cognition in their theory of *situated learning*, in which all knowledge is fundamentally situated in the environment within which it was acquired. It seems that these theories more or less have some relation to Vygotsky's theory of ZPD.

We should however keep in mind that they do not necessarily follow Vygotsky's original theory. And I believe they are not necessarily useful paradigms for investigating motivational development, since they are not essentially theories of motivation. There is also the danger that motivation is only addressed at a very surface level (such as social

interactions in the classroom using computers) when considering motivation within the framework of Vygotsky's ZPD theory or situated learning theory. Such theories (in their original meaning) may easily cause conflict with the concept of intrinsic motivation within the self-determination theory of Deci and Ryan and also with my view (i.e., social constructivist) of intrinsic motivation (see below). Therefore, I need to classify my view of social constructivism and intrinsic motivation.

5.1.4 *What does Social Constructivism Really Mean? – Dewey's View –*

When we think about the difference between motivation in language learning (especially in EFL contexts) and in other fields such as maths or science, we cannot ignore the fact that language learning is an individual task that requires efforts not only in the classroom but also outside it. Different from other subjects, language learning is long-lasting so that each individual learner needs to continue to study without constraints or continue to relate language learning to his/her life hopefully with enjoyment. Learners therefore need to consider language as a communication tool for expressing and exchanging their thoughts. In this sense, learning language is the construction of each learner's own culture. Social interaction can be crucial in the development of language learning. Having emphasised this point, I would like to move on to a discussion of social constructivism.

Since the term social constructivism is often used in a vague manner, it requires some clarification. Overton (1998) clearly defines it as follows:

> To understand social constructivism it must again be emphasized that, according to Marxism, the material world of instrumental-communicative social relations, and

> *only* this world, builds the categories of thought. Once thought is built in this fashion, the person projects these socially instilled categories back onto the world and, in this sense, constructs the known world. (p. 143)

The concept is based on the premise that there is a continuous line between the interpersonal dimension and the intrapsychic dimension.

Dewey considers that learners do not learn in isolation from others but by being part of the surrounding community and the world as a whole (see a detailed discussion of Dewey in 1.2.5). Dewey's assertion (1916) can be seen in the following extract:

> The development within the young of the attitudes and dispositions necessary to the continuous and progressive life of a society... takes place through the intermediary of the environment. The environment consists of the sum total of conditions which are concerned in the execution of the activity characteristic of a living being. The social environment consists of all the activities of fellow beings that are bound up in the carrying on of the activities of any one of its members. It is truly educative in its effect in the degree in which an individual shares or participates in some conjoint activity. By doing his share in the associated activity, the individual appropriates the purpose which actuates it, becomes familiar with its methods and subject matters, acquires needed skill, and is saturated with its emotional spirit. (p. 22)

A person should constitute part of society. One cannot become part of society simply by being physically present. To be truly part of a society, one must find a meaningful self within it.

In accordance with Dewey's view, Glassman (2001, p. 13) proposes that the major purpose of education is to develop an individual thinker out of a social being or a viable agent of change for social organisation, since the classroom is an inherently social organization that is representative of the larger community. In this regard, Dewey

(1916) suggested that the teacher's job is to teach children how to maintain the relationships between experiences so that they are constantly both amassing and testing new knowledge (Glassman, 2001, p. 8). Teachers must help students to recognise and achieve aims and then use their aims to develop continued motivation when engaging in an activity.

It is instructive to examine the differences between Dewey and Vygotsky, since both are considered social constructivists. Glassman (2001, p. 3) raises three theoretical differences between them. First, Dewey sees social history as creating an asset of malleable tools that are of use in present circumstances, while Vygotsky believes that tools developed through history have a far more lasting impact on the social community. Second, Dewey sees experience as helping to form thinking, while Vygotsky posits culture as the raw material of thinking. Third, Dewey sees the child as a free agent who achieves goals through his/her own interest in the activity, while Vygotsky suggests there should be control by a mentor who creates activity that will lead the child towards mastery.

Dewey's assertion seems to be more relevant to the study of motivation than Vygotsky's, since it places more emphasis on social organisation and the larger community, which is the agent for change in the individual. This idea of social constructivism offers valuable insights in exploring the social interactive learning process. Learning occurs not only individually but also through social interaction. The social constructivist view of motivation attempts to explain the motivational process within the social interactive domain in addition to motivation at the individual level. As

will be seen in 9.1, Dewey's concept is the theoretical underpinning for the teaching project in the thesis. It is my belief that students can grow as learners in a learning environment where they can naturally communicate with each other and thus find a meaningful self within the society. Hence, Dewey's concept of social constructivism is the major theoretical concept of this thesis.

5.1.5 *A Social Constructivist View of Language Learning Motivation*

From the viewpoint of second language acquisition, McGroarty (1998, p. 592) emphasises the necessity of describing the interrelationships between the individual, the group, and the social contexts surrounding language acquisition. I believe the study of motivation in language learning is no exception.

Williams and Burden (1997) claim that an individual's motivation can be developed in social and contextual influences, while admitting the constructivist view that each individual is motivated differently. They view motivational development as "cognitive and constructivist, socially contextualised, and dynamically interactive" (p. 137). Williams and Burden (1997) set out their approach to motivation in the following explicit manner:

> motivation essentially involves choice about actions or behaviours: decisions as to whether to do something, how much effort to expend on it, the degree of perseverance, and so on. The decisions people make will be based on their own construction of the world. They will also depend on the internal attributes that individuals bring to the situation; their personality, confidence, and other factors. These choices will also be subject to mediating influences; the impact of mediators and significant others in the person's life. Both the learner's internal attributes and mediating influences are affected by the beliefs, the society and the culture of the

world surrounding them. Hence we place decision to act at the centre of our model. (p. 137) (underline mine)

In attempting to explore these motivational processes, they develop three types of model. One is *Williams and Burden's three stage model of motivation* as you see in Figure 4 below (1997, p. 121). The first two stages (*reasons for doing something, deciding to do something*) may be concerned with *initiating motivation*. In contrast, the last stage (*sustaining the effort, or persisting*) is concerned with *sustaining motivation*. This explains the relationship between motivation and behaviour well.

Reasons for doing something → Deciding to do something → Sustaining the effort or persisting

Figure 4. Williams and Burden's Three-stage Model of Motivation

Although the above model explains the motivational processes very explicitly, the motivational processes cannot be explained only in this linear way since they interact with each other. Thus, Williams and Burden (1997, p. 122) re-conceptualise them in a non-linear way within the framework of social context. This is called *an interactive model of motivation*.

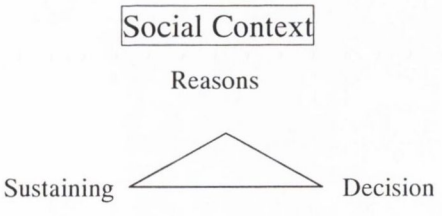


Figure 5. Williams and Burden's Interactive Model of Motivation

Williams and Burden (1997, p. 140) also establish *A cognitive model*. An individual

decides to take action, influenced by *internal factors* such as *intrinsic interest of activity, perceived value of activity, sense of agency, mastery, self-concept, attitudes, and other variables.* Motivation can be affected by the extent such factors interact with each other. Such internal factors can also be affected by *external factors* such as *significant others, the nature of interaction with significant others, the learning environment, and the broader context*, and interact with them in a dynamic way. The external influences also interact with each other by themselves.

These theories are significant in the sense that they try to relate the interpersonal dimension to the intrapsychic dimension. In other words, they try to find continuity between Piaget's theory and Vygotsky's theory. It seems however that they attempt to capture motivation in a chain linking society, the individual, and action. Since I deal with intrinsic motivation, I am going to capture intrinsic motivation in a chain between society, the individual, and habitual behaviour (rather than a single act) in the long term.

5.1.6 *A social Constructivist View of Intrinsic Motivation*

In this section, I explain how I relate social constructivism to intrinsic motivation. My view of social constructivism is not limited to within the classroom but includes the world outside of the classroom. It is based on my belief that learners' intrinsic motivation is a capacity of all humans, which can be sustained for a long time but can be changed under different conditions with different speeds and at a different stage for each individual. McCaslin and Good (1996) state their views on social constructivism as follows:

> We envision students in emergent interaction with their social world, which consists

> of the multiple and sometimes non-compatible contexts of school, home, and work .... We stress socialization processes, affording opportunities, and the dynamics of internalization as features of the informal curriculum that are experienced by students whose need for, perception of, and ability to profit from a given experience differ across the school years. (p. 623)

Such informal learning environments provide participants with opportunities to select their own path through a menu of resources and opportunities (Schauble, Beane, Coates, Martin, & Sterling, 1996). Because learners do not construct their own knowledge only through the formal school curriculum, teachers need to think how what they teach affects their students' learning outside of the classroom to enable them to construct their knowledge in a meaningful way.

Thomas and Oldfather (1997) offer this insight into effective learning conditions that enhance intrinsic motivation:

> for students to experience intrinsic motivation in literacy learning, they need to connect who they are to what they do in school. Students' constructions of themselves as readers and writers are crucial outcomes in developing their intrinsic motivations. (p. 110)

Here we see that the process of becoming literate is not only a matter of language acquisition and acquiring specific skills of literacy, but also a matter of constructing one's identity as reader, writer, and knower within one's particular cultural setting (Thomas & Oldfather, 1997, p. 110). Oldfather and Dahl (1994) re-conceptualise intrinsic motivation from a social constructivist view using the term *continuing impulse to learn* (CIL), which is the dynamic process of intrapersonal, interpersonal, and cultural constructions of meaning is explained as follows:

> an on-going engagement in learning that is propelled and focused by thought and feeling emerging from the learner's processes of *constructing meaning.* CIL is characterized by intense involvement, curiosity, and a search for understanding as learners experience learning as a deeply personal and continuing agenda. This is an inherently intrinsic view of motivation ...This form of motivation originates in and is defined by the cognitive, affective, and social processes that learners experience as they engage in meaning construction. (p. 142)

Their theory focuses not only on the constructions of the individual mind, but on the ways in which meaning is generated collectively through language and social interactions. If teachers can promote their students' continuing impulse to learn in the educational setting, learners may exhibit the attitudes and habits of mind that lead to lifelong learning. With a deep understanding that meaning is socially constructed, teachers can share ownership of knowing with students, honour their voices, and create classroom cultures that embody genuine respect for students' sense-making (Oldfather, 1993, p. 680). Thomas and Oldfather (1997) continue their argument thus:

> Teachers who overcome, to some degree, the barriers of control and hierarchy that are part of the culture of schooling...and who share ownership of knowing provide rich, motivating environments in which students have some say in negotiating what they need to learn and how that learning should take place. Opportunities for student's self-expression...and experiences of voice...both are of importance .... A teacher who shares ownership of knowing with his or her students supports their sense of autonomy as knowers. (p. 112)

I suggest that when we see intrinsic motivation within a framework of social constructivism, intrinsic motivation must be discussed at two different levels (*two levels of intrinsic motivation*): the surface level and the core level (see Figure 7 in this chapter).

The surface level may be a level at which learners have not internalised their motivation as long-term. For instance, they may like learning English because of their teacher's personality, or one communicative lesson, but may soon dislike it under a different environment. Thus they may not make much continuous effort outside of the classroom over time. Although I consider this as part of intrinsic motivation, it may be at the surface level only. In contrast, the more core level of intrinsic motivation I consider is the one that is more strong and long-lasting motivation. Learners may perceive learning English at school or even learning English by listening to music as part of their own learning and study English in many different ways in and outside of the classroom over time with continuous impulse to learn.

Interestingly, Raffini (1996) refers to intrinsic motivation as "choosing to do an activity for no compelling reason, beyond the satisfaction derived from the activity itself – it's what motivates us to do something when we *do not have to* do anything" (p. 3). Again I do not disagree with this notion. I must state, however, that it relates to rather situation-specific or task motivation, which implies a surface level of intrinsic motivation for a particular act in a particular task. Learners may engage in that task simply because they enjoy doing it but they may not engage in other tasks they dislike. Intrinsic motivation for a particular action in a particular situation (which I consider the surface level of intrinsic motivation) should be distinguished from the one for habitual learning behaviour (which I consider as the core level of intrinsic motivation). (I will discuss this more in *two levels of intrinsic motivation* in 5.5.1)

I have discussed the original meaning of Vygotsky's theory and characterised my

view of social constructivism. Of course, I do not undermine the significance of social interactionism in motivation study, but rather attempt to emphasise it. To develop *intrinsic motivation* within my view of social constructivism (see the discussion in 5.5.1), it is a prerequisite that learners experience the social interactive process and find the connection between their learning and the world. This is a social-constructivist approach to the exploitation of intrinsic motivation.

Unlike Lantolf and Appel's (1998) view of Vygotsky's theory (see 5.1.2), I basically consider tools such as *computers* or *texts* as necessary for human development, in addition to *language*. I will now discuss several tools that promote social interaction.

5.2 TOOLS FOR SOCIAL INTERACTIVE LEARNING

5.2.1 *Collaborative Learning, Cooperative Learning, and Group Learning*

Traditionally, the learning environment was rather competitive and individualistic. This was likely to cause several problems such as low self-efficacy, anxiety, low motivation, and helplessness. In this chapter, I have so far discussed the important roles of social interaction in motivational development. There are several effective practical tools for promoting social interaction in language learning: collaborative learning, cooperative learning, group work, multimedia, language use, and theme-based learning.

I begin the presentation of social interactive tools with *collaborative learning, cooperative learning,* and *group work*. It is very difficult to distinguish collaborative learning from cooperative learning. Oxford (1997, p. 443) explicitly distinguishes between them: *collaborative learning* (the most applicable term to the teaching project

in the thesis, see 9.1) has a "social constructivist" philosophical base, which views learning as construction of knowledge within a social context and which therefore encourages acculturation of individuals into a learning community. It is directly tied to ideas such as situated cognition, scaffolding, cognitive apprenticeship, and the zone of proximal development. Collaboration offers benefits in many areas of life, from sports to the workplace to the family (Johnson & Johnson, 1994). Collaboration among students can lead to superior results for a wide range of performance variables, including achievement, thinking skills, interethnic relations, liking for school, and self-esteem (Johnson & Johnson, 1989). In language learning, collaborative learning in itself can create appropriate psychological conditions for intrinsic motivation (Ushioda, 1996b). It helps to minimise the perception of external regulation since it explicitly puts the initiatives and control of the learning process into the hands of learners themselves, as well as harnessing their sense of peer group solidarity and shared responsibility (Ushioda, 1996b, p. 46). Bejarano, Lavine, Olshtain and Steiner (1997) suggest that collaborative skills promote L2 acquisition by enhancing interaction.

Cooperative learning (CL) refers to a particular set of classroom techniques that foster learner interdependence as a route to cognitive and social development (Oxford, 1997, p. 443). It encompasses specific, systematic principles — and practices such as positive interdependence, specific role assignments in a group, and goal-related accountability of individuals and groups. That is, it is like a classroom-oriented group learning activity. Salvin (1983) explains the effect of CL on achievement thus: "students' achievement can be enhanced by use of cooperative learning methods that

use group study and group rewards for individual learning, and possibly by other cooperative learning methods that maintain high individual accountability for students" (p. 443). Research results indicate that cooperative learning has strong and consistent positive effects on achievement (Salvin, 1983; Julkunen, 1989; Dörnyei, 1997). Dörnyei (1997) explains a strong relationship between cooperative goal structures and various aspects of L2 learning motivation as follows:

> Cooperative learning (CL) tends to produce a group structure and a motivational basis that provide excellent conditions for L2 learning. In a CL class, we would see motivated students engaged in varied interactions while working intensively towards completing group tasks – features that are considered crucial for efficient communicative L2 classes. (p. 491)

Group learning is a kind of cooperative learning. Dörnyei and Malderez (1999) argue that the group process is a fundamental factor in most learning contexts and that it can make all the difference in ensuring successful learning experiences and outcomes. Group work with small numbers of students can bring about positive interdependence among members, and promote their interaction. Social interaction arising from group work includes peer teaching, joint problem-solving, brainstorming, and varied interpersonal communication (Dörnyei, 1997, p. 484). In language learning, group cohesiveness is the central issue in group work, since the level of group cohesiveness determines learning success within the group by helping members learn about one another while seeking genuine personal communication (Dörnyei, 1997, p. 485). Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels (1994) found that group cohesiveness contributes significantly to learners' L2 motivation, which in turn enhances learning success.

Several researchers (e.g., Ehrman & Dörnyei, 1998; Dörnyei, 1997; Levine & Moreland, 1990) postulate prerequisite elements for developing a group: positive inter-member relations, the amount of time spent together and shared group history, the rewarding nature of group experience for the individual, group legends, investing in the group, public commitment to the group, and the leader's behaviour.

In contrast to a competitive structure, which promotes an egoistic or social comparison orientation in the learner, cooperative structures promote learners' motivation on the basis of an obligation to the rest of the group to try hard (Williams & Burden, 1997, pp. 193-194). Johnson and Johnson (1989) show that the group outcome of any task or activity has an effect upon individuals' perceptions of their own ability and their feelings of satisfaction and self-esteem. Group success can help to improve an individual's poor self-esteem, but equally, group failure can modify the positive self-perceptions of those who perform well individually (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 193). Through such interactive process — working together towards the group goal and individual process in learning — learners taste the joy of learning, and find self-motivation within themselves.

In any form of such learning, cohesiveness plays a very important role in group performance (Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000). Members of a cohesive group are more likely than others to participate actively in conversations and engage in self-disclosure or collaborative narration, which are student behaviours necessary for effective communicative task involvement (Levine & Moreland, 1990). Furthermore, perceived group cohesiveness substantially contributes to the language learner's motivation and

correlates significantly with various language criterion measures (Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994) (see the criterion measure set in the project in Chapter 9). Above all, in any kind of conjoint activity (collaborative, cooperative, or a group of any kind), one cannot be a copartner unless one works together with the same interest as other partners in accomplishing the joint task (Dewey, 1916, p. 13). Otherwise, one cannot construct a meaningful self in the society in which he/she belongs to.

5.2.2 *Multimedia as an Interactive Tool*

It has been repeatedly claimed that computers have a positive effect on learner motivation. Warschauer (1996a) explored their use in writing and communication in the language classroom and found that in general students had a positive attitude toward using computers and that this attitude was consistent across a number of variables, including, gender, typing skill, and possession or not of a computer at home.

Multimedia can also promote interaction among learners. Warschauer (1995) stresses the importance of multimedia in language learning in the following manner:

> students can share documents, texts, and ideas with their teacher or classmates 24 hours a day, from school, work, or home. They can communicate quickly, conveniently, and inexpensively with an unlimited number of native speakers or other learners of the target language all over the world. They have instantaneous access to a wide range of target language texts, audio, and video resources from data-bases around the globe. (p. xv)

Relevant tasks include electronic communication in a single class (e.g., teacher-student dialogue, e-mail interaction, bulletin boards, supporting student writing) and cross-cultural communication (e.g., keypal, cyber-surveys, class-to-class connections,

global cafés) (see Warschauer, 1995). From a social interactive point of view, multimedia can become an effective tool for encouraging interaction. Peters (1996) explains this as follows:

> Multimedia gathers any combination of heading text, word-processed text, clip art, freehand graphics, animation, movie clips, sounds, and control button into a format that is interactive with the user. This interaction takes place when the user points a mouse-driven, or on-screen arrow at a predefined area of the screen and presses the input button on the mouse. (p. 178)

Multimedia also has the potential to make learners more autonomous. Little (1996) argues that "information systems and information technologies can promote the development of learner autonomy to the extent that they can stimulate, mediate and extend the range and scope of the social and psychological interaction on which all learning depends" (p. 203). Using devices such as computers enables students to learn what they want to learn by themselves at their own pace. That is, they can control their own learning. This is a totally different type of learning from the traditional process.

Another major aspect of multimedia is online learning, which allows communication across distance. Warschauer (1997) raises two points in this regard. First, online learning creates an opportunity for a group of people to construct knowledge together, thus linking reflection and interaction. Second, the social dynamics are different from those of face-to-face discussions in regard to turn-taking, interruption, balance, equality, consensus, and decision making. Online learning can encourage real communication by temporally and geographically expanding the opportunities for interaction (Warschauer, 1997, p. 477). Computer-mediated communication in particular

can be a powerful tool in enhancing literacy development, as its text-based nature supports sustained reflection on classroom exchanges (Sengupta, 2001, p. 103).

Among the several available tools, the web-based bulletin board may be the most effective one for promoting student interaction and collaboration since it enables learners to write about the same topic, look back on what they have written, revise it, edit it, and work autonomously while taking responsibility for their learning. The online environment allows them to do text-based communication across long distance. Computer-mediated communication can build community among learners and reduce their anxiety (Beauvois, 1999). Learners can think individually in a relaxed manner (in a non face-threatening situation), post their opinions when they want to both from within and outside of the classroom, reevaluate them, give feedback to each other, and rewrite them. Warschauer (1998) argues that interaction through computer-mediated communication gives students their time to compose messages essentially for their own regulatory purposes without interrupting other participants. The effect of such an experience can be seen in the greater quantity of language used in interaction (Ortega, 1997). Indeed, some researchers (Sullivan & Platt, 1996; Warschauer, 1996b) provide evidence of increased participation in electronic classroom discussions compared to small group interactions in oral and network-based modes. In view of the positive effects discussed above, I use a web-based electronic bulletin board in the teaching project carried out for this thesis (see Chapter 9).

5.2.3 *Language Use for Real Communication and Real Content*

In traditional language teaching, the classroom is a place where teachers convey

knowledge and students receive it. There is little opportunity for real communication. Interaction is generally limited to questions and answers between the teacher and students, or perhaps repetition practice like drilling and memorising grammar rules. However, such activities do not constitute the use of language as a real means of communication.

Today, in the field of language education, it is generally believed that learners can acquire a language by actually using it. Just as children acquire their first language by listening to real communication data and using the language (see Bruner, 1983), second language learners can best learn by actually using the language rather than simply studying it. Merely obtaining knowledge will not necessarily enable us to become good practitioners. Ushioda (2000) explains this by saying "The principle of skill development through use is similarly reflected in most other domains of human learning such as sport, music, art, and crafts" (p. 1). Ehrman and Dörnyei (1998) argue that in the classroom context, the values and practices of the peer-group culture may exert a powerful influence on individual learner motivation. Ushioda (2000, p. 6) stresses that learners can best construct their own knowledge of the language they need and want to use only through constructing and communicating personal meanings. This is a crucial step in changing the way learners motivationally engage with the language (Ushioda, 1996a). It is also consistent with the concept of learner autonomy: "autonomous learners are more likely to be autonomous users of their target language ...only if the target language is dominant medium of communication in the classroom" (Little, 2001, p. 46). In Little's view, using the target language should be the channel through which teaching

and learning take place — including the reflective processes of planning, monitoring and evaluation. It is crucial that language learners change their learning attitude from a passive one to a positive one.

How then can we provide students with such opportunities in our language teaching? What are appropriate tasks for promoting interaction in learning? Legutke and Thomas (1991, p. 19) offer a model called *Theme–centered interaction*, which gives us a valuable insight. The central issues of this model are the interactive nature of tasks and the dynamic nature of the contributions made by the three major task dimensions — i.e., the interactive process as the individual (*I*), the group (*We*) and the theme (*Theme*). The *I* dimension is what the individual learners and the teacher bring to the learning situation. The *We* dimension is that in which participants debate in group processes — such as group anxieties, taboos, rejections, power, goals and agendas, and rivalries. The third dimension, *theme*, is "a dynamic element taking shape in an interactive process which mediates learners' interests...with the interests and preferences of the teacher" (Legutke & Thomas, 1991, p. 24). Williams and Burden (1997) suggest, "these maintain a 'dynamic balance' in what they term *theme-centered interaction*" (p. 169) which influences a "global dimension" consisting of institutional and societal pressures. It is jointly constructed in relation to such aspects as the learners' world knowledge and culture. Thus, the way in which any lesson unfolds is "a joint construction between all the participants, including learners and the teachers" (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 170).

Stryker and Leaver (1997) raise the same point. They view a *content-based*

approach as one effective tool in foreign language education. Content-based instruction is that which focuses on content rather than language, i.e., it is the learning of language through subject matter. This approach encourages students to learn a new language by actually using the target language as a means of real communication, and empowering students to become independent (autonomous) learners and continue the learning process beyond the classroom. In such a situation, learners must think about the content, choose the appropriate language, and actually produce it, rather than just displaying their knowledge of grammar or vocabulary. They develop mechanisms for coping with unknown language in other contexts. Stryker and Leaver (1997) explain their argument as follows:

> When students successfully negotiate the meaning encountered in authentic written or spoken language, they experience increased self-confidence, which in turn leads to gains in motivation and achievement. They also develop learning strategies for coping with unknown vocabulary and grammar and handling unpredicted situations in the environment in which the foreign language is spoken. (p.9)

To make such an approach fully effective, learners should be provided with freedom of choice. They can thus engage in learning since they do not find much difficulty in discussing a theme that interests them. Ames (1992, p. 266) notes that whether teachers are autonomy-supporting or controlling is evidenced especially by whether they give students options or offer choices. Finally, such an approach may lead to learners' behavioural intention called *willingness to communicate* and communication behaviour called *L2 use* specified in the *Willingness to Communicate* model (MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998). That is, when learners choose interesting themes by

themselves, they are more likely to feel they would like to discuss that theme even in a foreign language (behavioural intention/willingness to communicate) and may actually communicate in that language without paying much attention to minor grammatical mistakes (communication behaviour/L2 use). A study by Ueki, Kiyohara, Iwao, and Ichikawa (2002) provides evidence that, in the case of *theme-oriented study* (in which learners choose their own topics gather and integrate information, and present it to others), learners were able to reflect on their learning and promote self-regulated learning by getting to know how to obtain appropriate social support from others.

In such processes, learners may of course feel anxiety or frustration, especially if they cannot express their opinions adequately in the target language (especially in speaking). This is however a necessary hurdle to be overcome. Every learner must experience this, understand the necessity of such experiences, practise more, overcome the difficulties, and, as a result, become a good language user.

Without doubt, using language in such a way is powerful for promoting interaction in learning language among students, enhancing learner motivation, and improving language proficiency for real communication. The teachers' role is also to provide learners with a suitable environment for engaging in self-regulated learning. When learners are able to enhance their motivation and study skills, they can actively and positively control their learning. In most cases, improving target language communication skills refers to speaking rather than writing. I believe, however, that learners who have been exposed to traditional language learning generally feel better communicating in writing first. Having experienced communication by writing, which

is less anxiety-provoking, learners are likely to become more confident communicating not only in writing but also by speaking (at least to some extent).

5.3 PROMOTING MOTIVATIONAL CHANGES

5.3.1 *The Motivational Process*

In Chapter 2, I highlighted the time aspect of motivation. Here I focus more on explaining how learners with low motivation can enhance their motivation and actually act out their learning behaviour. As already discussed in Chapter 1, traditional theories of motivation have viewed it as a function of stimuli and reinforcement, or a reflection of certain inner forces such as instinct, volition, and will. Such theories seem to view motivation as a fairly static mental or emotional state or a goal.

However, in their *Action control theory*, Heckhausen and Kuhl (1985) argue that there are two stages in motivational development. A temporal perspective begins with the awaking of a person's wishes prior to goal setting. It continues through the evaluative thoughts entertained after goal striving has ended. *The pre-decisional phase* is the decision-making stage, involving complex planning and goal-setting processes with initial wishes and desires. *The post–decisional phase* is the implementational/volitional stage, involving motivational maintainance and control during the enactment of the intention.

In order to elaborate this theory, Kuhl (1987, p. 282-83) points out two important aspects of this process: memory systems as a crucial element for activating motivation, and the constructs of action versus state orientation to explain why people often fail to

do things without any rational explanation. *Motivation memory* is content-independent. Whenever it is activated, it serves as a continuous source of activation. *Action memory* includes behavioral programmes for the performance of a particular act. In the action orientation mode, the individual focuses on a fully-developed and realistic action plan, while in the state orientation mode he/she focuses on the present state (status quo), a past state (failure), or a future state (unrealistic goal). This theory seems to relate to *two levels of intrinsic motivation* (see 5.5.1). Motivation memory seems to relate to a core level of intrinsic motivation, while action memory may relate to its surface level. I believe that when we discuss the motivational process, we must distinguish between the motivational process for a particular action and that for habitual behaviour. However, it should be borne in mind that action control theory attempts to explain the mechanism of motivational process in a mechanical way from the perspective of volition psychology. This is different from Bandura's notion of *human agency* (Bandura, 1997, p. 6), which attempts to explain the motivational process (as part of human development) within the framework of the relationship between person, behaviour, and environment — although both theories deal with the issue of self-regulation. The concept of human agency is closer to my idea of motivational development.

Strongly influenced by Heckhausen and Kuhl (1985), Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) define motivation as "the dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritised, operationalised, and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out" (p. 63). Guided by the

Action Control Theory, Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) develop a *Process Model of L2 Motivation* which organises the motivational influences of L2 learning along a sequence of discrete action events within the chain of initiating and enacting motivated behaviour. Focusing on the temporal dimension of motivation is particularly important for understanding student motivation, and thus a process-oriented approach can also have considerable practical implications (Dörnyei, 2000, p. 522).

The action sequence represents the behavioural process whereby initial wishes, hopes, and desires are first transformed into goals, and then into intentions, leading eventually to action, and hopefully, to the accomplishment of the goals. There are three phases in this dimension of the motivational process: a pre–actional phase, an actional-phase, and a post–actional phase. The pre–actional phase consists of three sub-processes: goal setting (wishes/hopes, desires, opportunities), intention formation (goal, action plan, commitment), and the initiation of intention enactment (intention, start condition, means and resources). After the pre-actional phase and before the actional phase, there is a kind of threshold called "crossing the rubicon of action," which refers to some point after learners form intentions and before they take actions. Dörnyei (2001a) explains this by saying "once an initial wish has obtained sufficient motivational support to pass all the hurdles, the individual is ready to embark on a course of action" (p. 97). (I will discuss this concept in Chapters 10 and 11 in this thesis.)

Another major issue in this model, in addition to the action sequence, is *motivational influences* that contain energy sources and motivational forces that

underlie and fuel the behavioral process. These can be considered as fuel for the actional sequence. Five specific clusters can be identified as motivational influences: influence on goal setting, on intention formation, on the initiation of intention enactment, on executive motivation, and on postactional evaluation. The first three clusters of motivational influences work like a series of interlined filters in the preactional phase. Dörnyei (2001a) explains this as follows:

> Only the wishes that receive sufficient support from the first set of motivational influences quality for becoming *goals*. These goals are then submitted to a second motivational phase, intention formation, where new energy sources are added to the resultant force, and if this exceeds the necessary threshold for stepping further, the goal becomes a fully-fledged *intention*. Finally an *action-launching impulse* will be issued if the sum of the influences that have fuelled the intention so far and the new factors that come into force in the third, action initiation phase reaches of strength. (p. 92) (underline mine)

The underlined sentence in the above extract is an important issue for this thesis, because it is my assumption that learners first need to enjoy interesting and meaningful experience in order to set their own goals.

This model is significant in two ways. First, it offers a potentially fruitful method of interpreting and integrating the manifold motivational factors that affect students' learning behaviour in classroom settings, including the time aspect of motivation (Dörnyei, 2000, p. 529). Second, it offers a useful paradigm for the micro-analysis of the various factors, conditions, constraints, and processes that determine student success in learning tasks. Such a task-based approach also provides an interface for discussing cognitive and affective mechanisms in an integrated manner (Winne & Marx, 1989). On

the other hand, Dörnyei (2000, p. 530) points out the complexity of the model which arises from multiple engagement in a number of different activities at the same time. Hence, if the purpose of the model is to offer practical insights for practitioners in real educational settings, it may be too complex. Though the motivational process is certainly a very complicated one, there is room for the model to be simplified in a more practitioner-friendly way, especially for language teachers and novice researchers. Without a doubt, the complex process should be examined by longitudinal/qualitative studies. Based on the results, the model can then be simplified. Finally each stage of the model can be explained in a simpler and more explicit manner. In this way, the model may be able to offer valuable insights for practitioners and novice researchers. I must state, however, that my concept of motivational development is closer to that of Bandura's concept of human agency (Bandura, 1997) rather than to action control theory (Heckhausen & Kuhl, 1985) or the process model of L2 motivation (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998).

5.3.2 *Crossing the "Autonomy Threshold" in the Motivational Process*

When I consider the motivational process, the question that comes to my mind is how teachers can help or guide learners into the action phase so that they can cross the "*Rubicon*" described in Dörnyei & Ottó's process model of motivation. In other words, how can we encourage learners' desires to learn for their own goals, and to actually adopt behaviour that aims to achieve them? First, I need to clarify what "crossing the Rubicon" really means within my own view of social constructivism. (In the previous chapter, I pointed out that motivation and autonomy must be discussed at each level.)

In addition to the existence of degrees of autonomy, there may be some kind of threshold or barrier between the autonomous and non-autonomous stages. I call this barrier the *autonomy threshold*. I would like to begin my discussion of the concept of threshold (in a general sense) with the following extract from Dewey (1916):

> Any activity with an aim implies a distinction between an earlier incomplete phase and later completing phase... To have an interest is to take things as entering into such a continuously developing situation, instead of taking them in isolation. The time difference between the given incomplete state of affairs and the desired fulfillment extracts effort in transformation; it demands continuity of attention and endurance. This attitude is what is practically meant by will. (p. 137) (underline mine)

The concept of threshold seems to be explained implicitly in the above extract, while the concept of the underlined word *attitude* (which is somewhat different from Gardner's notion of attitude, see Chapter 3) seems, to some extent, to be similar to motivation as a process explained in two models I propose: *an early-stage model of motivational development* (Figure 6) and *two levels of intrinsic motivation* (Figure7).

Different from the notion of "Rubicon," which implies a move towards action, the *autonomy threshold* is largely to do with the learner's attitude towards his learning, in addition to a move towards action. Ridley (2000) defines autonomous foreign language learners as those who are "able to identify their needs, strengths and weaknesses and to set appropriate goals accordingly" (p. 126). Such learners who pass this threshold are able to see the whole learning process clearly while considering learning at school as part of their learning, understand the meaning of learning and why they are learning,

actively take responsibility for their learning and set goals, and thus ready themselves for individual learning in the long-term. Such learners study not only because it is fun but also because they think it is meaningful. Those learners can also be considered as reflective learners. Dewey (1916) explains the process by which learners gain reflective experience as follows:

> In discovery of the detailed connections of our activities and what happens in consequence, the thought implied in cut and try experience is made explicit. Its quantity increases so that its proportionate value is very different. Hence the quality of the experience changes; the changes is so significant that we may call this type of experience reflective. (p. 145)

The autonomous stage includes both cognitive self-regulation in relation to reflection and meta-cognition, and motivational self-regulation in relation to the affective domain. In contrast, up to crossing of the autonomy threshold (i.e., becoming an autonomous learner), the self-regulatory process in learning may be more motivationally rather than cognitively based, though learners must gradually start to reflect on their learning and take responsibility for it in order to cross the autonomy threshold. This threshold is however not one that learners with weak motivation can easily pass over. Only those with intrinsic motivation are able to pass this threshold and become autonomous learners. Motivation can be considered as an engine that enables learners to pass over the threshold and climb to the autonomous stage of cognitive/motivational self-regulation. Group learning, self-expression, discussions, and freedom of theme choice possibly play roles in firing this engine. During the non–autonomous stage, the role of motivation for these learners can be maximised.

Since the engine in the non-autonomous stage is very vulnerable, teachers should power it by filling learners with fuel that is more intrinsic than extrinsic by providing opportunities for group learning, self-expression, discussions, and freedom of choice. As Pintrich (1989) argues:

> A motivated student without the appropriate cognitive skills will not perform well, nor will a skilled student who is not motivated. ...cognitive and motivational components need to be coordinated by the student in an effortful, yet flexible manner, so that the student is cognitively engaged in the task in a self-regulating fashion. (pp. 118-119)

After learners reach the autonomous stage, the next role of motivation is to keep their learning going on this level. In the earlier level, learners' mental processes may be rather implicit and unconscious one (though they may gradually be becoming more conscious and more self-regulating as they move toward the autonomous level), while in the later stage they can be more explicit and conscious. Only after they get to the next stage, they step back from the previous stage, clearly reflect on what they are doing, and realise they are motivated. That is, they are self-regulated both motivationally and cognitively as autonomous learners. This is why I consider motivation as an engine, and, as an autonomous learner, possessing cognitive and motivational self-regulation is crucial in language learning.

Such motivational processes are explained in the model below. Intrinsic motivation which may have been dampened by previous learning experiences in the educational system, can be promoted through the social interactive process. Previous learning experiences can enhance or lower intrinsic motivation, or even change its shape.

If learners have been exposed to grammar-translation, rote-memorisation and/or teacher-centred approach, their intrinsic motivation (at least for communication) may be damaged (although some of their intrinsic motivation toward language learning in general may have been sustained due to their confidence in such study). Although, in many cases, intrinsic motivation for communication is lowered due to past learning experiences, it can be revived through the social interactive process.

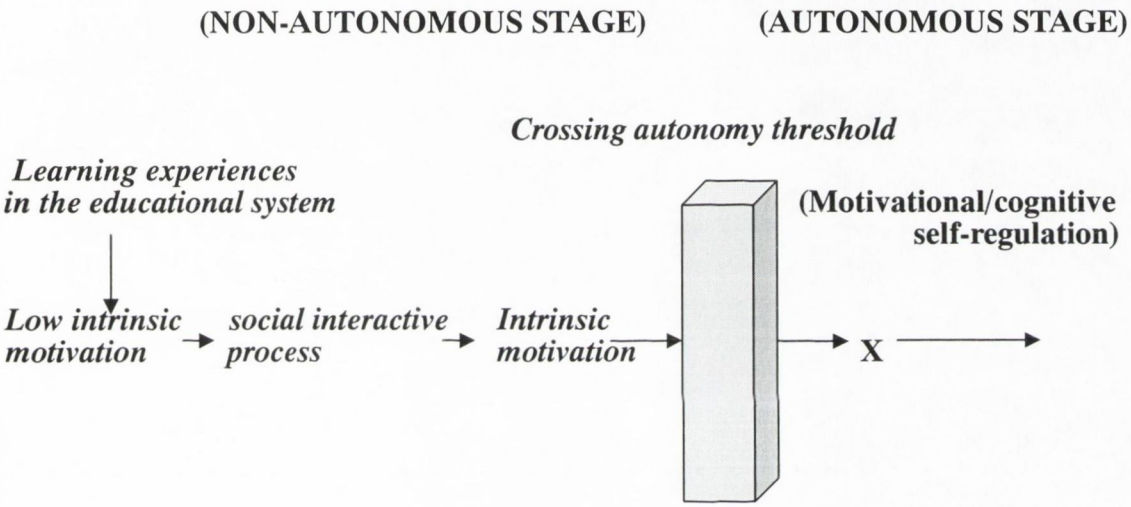


Figure 6. An Early-stage Model of Motivational Development

As I argued in Chapter 1, motivation has the capacity to be enhanced through social interactions. For such learners, effective social interactive tools can be opportunities for group learning, self-expression, discussions, and freedom of choice. Learners whose intrinsic motivation, fuelled by such learning experiences, may be able to cross what I call the autonomy threshold, and then move on to the next level as an autonomous learner. In order to cross the autonomy threshold, learners must be able to find significance in their own learning and perceive language as a communication tool.

The teacher's job here is to provide them with the most appropriate learning environment. But at the same time, previous learning experiences must be taken into consideration. For those who have been exposed to grammar – translation, rote-memorisation, and/or teacher-centred approach for a long time, a sudden introduction of the above-mentioned social interactive opportunities may not be appropriate. We must think of both the timing and the ways of introducing such learning so that learners start engaging in it naturally and without confusion. After crossing the autonomy threshold, learners must find ways to sustain in their own individual learning as autonomous learners.

The motivational process I am going to spotlight is the one from the early stage of motivational development to the stage just after crossing the autonomy threshold. There are some differences between Dörnyei and Ottó's process model of L2 motivation and my model above. First, my model focuses on motivational development in the early stage in relation to the development of learner autonomy. Second, my model is more concerned with social motivation, while Dörnyei and Ottó's process model is basically concerned with personal motivation. Inclusion of a social dimension may shed new light on the motivational process. Learners' previous learning experiences may partly be due to social expectations. And of course, by socially interacting with each other, learners may enhance their intrinsic motivation, cross the autonomy threshold, and become autonomous learners. Third, my model basically deals with the motivational process in terms of habitual learning behaviour rather than that for a particular act as we see in the process model (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998) or a cognitive model (Williams & Burden, 1997).

As already mentioned, I assume that real autonomous learners naturally possess habitual learning behaviour not for a particular instrumental reason but as a part of their life-long learning process.

5.4 THE ROLE OF CONTEXT FOR MOTIVATIONAL CHANGES

5.4.1 *The Relationship between Context and Motivation*

As discussed earlier, motivation in learning is developed through social interactions within society, that is, by interacting with peers, teachers, classrooms, schools, society, and self. Learners never come to school without any influence from society, or without any experience in relation to learning. Even new pupils at kindergarten come to the class with some prior experience and perceptions toward learning, having been influenced by parents, friends, relatives, and TV.

Rueda and Moll (1994) conceptualised motivation as a "situated" phenomenon, located not solely within individuals, but within "systems" of activities involving other persons, environments, resources, and goals:

> Motivation is accomplished, it is created, it is socially and culturally relative, and it is context-specific. It is not a unitary phenomenon, a general, invariant property of the individual mind, or an abstract property of individuals; it is manifested in activities, involving most prominently, the mediation of other human beings .... student motivation is mediated by the extent to which our pedagogy brings learning to life. (p. 132)

Motivation to learn thus cannot be separated from our opportunities to personalise that learning. Sivan (1986, p. 209) also argues that motivation is inseparable from the learning context, since it is a socially negotiated process that results in an observable

manifestation of interest and cognitive affective engagement. Indeed, we cannot motivate students directly although we can provide them with a good environment to help them motivate themselves.

Williams and Burden (1997) argue that the particular culture of a country or region will influence what happens within that country's education system, and this in turn will have an effect on schools, teachers, parents, and others. (I discuss this in Chapter 6.) They (1997) divide the essential roles of context in learning into different levels:

> At the broadest level, it is clear that national and cultural differences have a profound influence upon the development of a language and the way in which it is used .... At another level, a country's educational system will affect the learning environment .... At the school level, the ethos that exists within a school will affect the type of learning that goes on in that school .... At an even more basic level, the immediate physical environment of the classroom and the nature of the personal interactions which occur within it will have a profound influence upon whether, what and how any individual learns a language. (pp. 188-189)

These contextual variables are indeed important, since they will be interpreted differently by each individual learner. Thus, the educational system has a strong impact on motivation.

School clearly contributes to the development of motivation. Pintrich and Schunk (1996) argue that many of the psychological ideas regarding individual motivation (concerned with how an individual's motivational beliefs, perceptions, needs, and goals can influence motivation and behaviour) are relevant to a school-level analysis. *School motivation* is important because school is the place where students, teachers, and texts

interact and influence each other. Kohonen (1999) stresses the important role of the school:

> The school is naturally part of the surrounding society sharing its values and practices. It creates a community of its own that reflects the prevailing culture in society. Inevitably, learners bring society to school with them through their family and peer cultures. The school also provides learners an important experience what it means to live as a member of society through being a member of the school community. It is consequently useful to consider what prospects the current developments in society seem to suggest for education. (p. 1)

Boekaerts (1995) argues that in a scholastic context most of the goals a learner pursues are not self-chosen: "Such commitments may induce an emotion state that is counter productive for self-regulation since functional deficits in self-regulation may arise from false internalisations; i.e., from encoding the wishes and expectations of others as obligations" (p. 15).

Without doubt, Japanese learners' motivation of English has been greatly influenced by the educational context (see the discussion about context in Chapter 6). I believe the manner of learners' interaction and its roles in various environmental elements may differ in each educational context. Taking an example of the Japanese context, the trusting relationship between teachers and students is a crucial element in learner's development of motivation (see, for example, the discussion in Chapter 6). My views on motivation and my working definition of L2 motivation share the concepts with the foregoing theories to a certain degree (see 2.2).

5.4.2 *The Teacher's Impact on Learner Motivation*

It is our general assumption that, among motivational/demotivational factors relating to contextual issues, the teacher probably has the strongest impact on learner motivation. In some cases, teachers may even influence a learner's entire life. Raffini (1996, p. ix) argues that teachers have a powerful influence over the intrinsic motivation of their students by arranging conditions in their classrooms that help students meet their psychoacademic needs for *autonomy, competence, relatedness, self–esteem,* and *enjoyment.* The teacher can be very influential, since he/she is the person with whom students share most of their time. The teacher's influence can be result from the personal characteristics of teachers, teacher immediacy (physical/psychological closeness), active motivational socialising behaviour, and classroom management (Dörnyei, 2001a).

In a study of university students in a lower-level Spanish class in the U.S., Noels (2001) found that the more controlling the teacher was perceived to be, the less the students felt they were autonomous agents in the learning process, and the lower was the students' intrinsic motivation. Teachers do have multiple influences on learner motivation. Williams and Burden (1997, p. 131) claim that learners' interpretations of how their parents, peers, and teachers perceive them exerts a critical influence on their motivational style and thus their motivation to learn a language. In a small-scale qualitative investigation, Williams and Burden (1999) found that the teacher played a significant role in the development of students' attributions. This brings to mind the Japanese EFL learners who get motivated out of a love of the teacher's personal

characteristics, irrespective of whether the teaching quality is good or bad.

Among the many factors related to teacher impact, a teacher belief can be the crucial one. Without doubt, teacher beliefs greatly influence the way learners make sense of their learning – that is, their developing notions of themselves as learners in learning a language. Williams and Burden (1997) stress this as follows:

> Teachers are highly influenced by their beliefs, which in turn are closely linked to their values, to their view of the world and to their conceptions of their place within it .... Beliefs were found to be more influential than knowledge in determining how individuals organise and define tasks and problems, and were better predictors of how teachers behaved in the classroom. (p. 56)

Nespor (1987, p. 317) claims that teacher beliefs are closely related to what they think they know but provide an affective filter that screens, redefines, distorts, or reshapes subsequent thinking and information processing. Once teachers have established their own value at a certain age, in their teaching as reflected their established values will not easily be modified. For example, teachers who grew up in a society where traditional intelligence dominated and developed a sense of conventional intelligence (discussed in 4.3.1), will adopt teaching practices that reflect such concepts.

In essence, teachers can influence learner behaviour through the learners' motivational/ psychological process. Students can be greatly motivated if teachers give them positive influences. A trustworthy relationship between teacher and student may be a prerequisite for this.

5.4.3 *Tasks and Motivation*

In the classroom, *task motivation* certainly plays an important role. Indeed,

various teacher-initiated motivational strategies involve ways of structuring tasks so that they encourage a mastery goal orientation in students. Julkunen (1997) characterises the nature of task motivation as follows:

> In the classroom context motivation can be seen as a continuous interaction process between the learner and the environment .... Motivation does not only affect the selection and conceptualization of a specific goal in the beginning of an activity. Its main role is in controlling and directing activity. In directing and coordinating various operations towards an object (goal) motivation transforms a number of separate reactions into significant action .... When the characteristics are the focus of attention in motivation, the term *task motivation* can be used. (p. 84)

Of course, different tasks affect motivation and learning in different ways. Maehr (1984, p. 157) points out that certain tasks are more interesting, more attractive, and more motivating than others. Learners' viewpoints on tasks are crucial, because they often have to define tasks themselves: they do not perceive tasks in the same way as the teachers and materials designers do (Pintrich, Marx & Boyle, 1993). Seegers and Boekaerts (1993) argue that task motivation depends partly on general motivation and partly on the unique manner in which the student perceives the task.

Csikszentmihaly (1991) introduced another aspect of *task motivation* - a subjective state *Flow* that people report when they are completely involved in something to the point of forgetting time, figure, and everything else but the activity itself. In order to make this *flow* experience of task engagement possible, Csikszentmihaly (1991, p. 49) lists eight important components. First of all, we must have a chance of completing the task. Second, we must have an opportunity to

concentrate on the activity. Third, the task has a clear goal. Fourth, immediate feedback is provided. Fifth, we are deeply but effortlessly involved in the task, and forget the worries and frustrations of everyday life. Sixth, we have a sense of control over our actions. Seventhly, concern for the self disappears when we engaged in the task. Finally, sense of time is altered, we simply forget about time. With these experiences in task engagement, learning can bring us the state of flow. If a task provides such conditions, task motivation will be enhanced. The teacher's job is to create the conditions (or tasks) that learners engage while learning.

In order to enhance task motivation, the task itself should be one that meets the learners' needs. For example, if learners would like to or need to improve their speaking skills, the task should include this aspect. However, at the same time, the task needs to be introduced in a way that challenges the learners without provoking anxiety arising from previous learning experiences. Furthermore, if a task is chosen individually by each learner, his or her task motivation is likely to be enhanced. The teaching project I carried out took this into consideration (see 9.1). More specifically, this thesis attempts to investigate learners' motivational development in relation to speaking and writing skills (first writing and then speaking) through a computer-mediated group work project and an oral presentation. Affective (motivational) and socio-dynamic (group dynamics) factors have a significant impact on a learner's language output (L2 learners' willingness to engage in communicative tasks) (Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000, p. 297).

Although I am not spotlighting task motivation in reference to a particular task, I will investigate the motivational changes of those engaged in the computer-mediated

group project (see Chapters 9 and 10). I am interested in the process of how learners start to use the target language, both in writing and speaking, through their learning experiences on the project. In this sense, it can be said that I may also be looking at task motivation.

5.5 SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIVISM IN EDUCATION

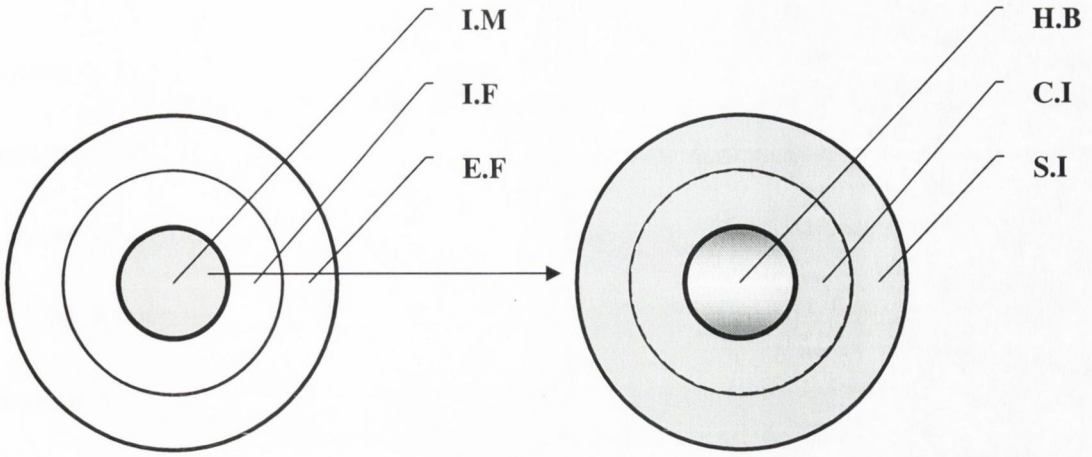
5.5.1 *Two Levels of Intrinsic Motivation*

Based on the arguments, I have made so far, I shall now propose *two levels of intrinsic motivation*. A theoretical framework of the model explains the developmental process of my view of intrinsic motivation. The model views language learning not only as a matter of learning in the classroom but also as a matter of learning outside it. It also views language learning not only as a school subject that teachers are responsible for during a particular course but also as a matter of life-long learning. Such a concept is similar to an informal curriculum (see McCaslin & Good, 1996).

The model includes six components: *society, external factors, internal factors, surface level of intrinsic motivation, core intrinsic motivation*, and *habitual learning behaviour*. It is based on my view of social constructivism and its related intrinsic motivation as discussed in section 1 of this Chapter. I consider that all factors, whether external factors, internal factors, behaviour, or even intrinsic motivation, are affected by the society to which learners belong. Within this society, these factors interplay with each other. In this model, society includes *economy, culture, government, educational policy,* and *school*. External factors can be *teachers, parents, friends*, and *texts*. (I am

going to discuss the model with reference to Japan in the next chapter.) I shall explain, for example, how teachers form their own beliefs within the society. Elements in society, for example, the educational system, produce social expectations, which lead to internal factors associated with levels of motivation to do with the self. *Internal factors* such as *attribution, self-efficacy, perceived ability, perceived anxiety, perceived learning experiences* can be influenced by *external factors.* External and internal factors are in a reciprocal relationship, influencing each other.

Intrinsic motivation is, in my view, influenced both by internal and external factors within the society. We can also talk about *two levels of intrinsic motivation* (as discussed in 5.1.6). A *Surface level of intrinsic motivation* is potentially developed first. At this level, learners study with enjoyment but may quit studying in the future. They can have this level of motivation simply because they love the teacher or the teaching method. Put another way, they may lose this motivation when they face a teacher or a teaching method they dislike. Intrinsic motivation still can be influenced by external factors. The next *core level of intrinsic motivation* however is strong enough to make learners' *habitual learning behaviour* or *continuous impulse to learn* happen. Dewey (1916, pp. 52-53) says that active habits involve thought, invention, and initiative in applying capacities to new aims. With this level of motivation, learners can manage their language learning, and consider learning at school, or even that at home, as part of their life-long language learning. Hence I place "habitual behaviour" (rather than 'decision to act' in Williams and Burden, 1997, p. 140) at the centre of my model.



I.M (Intrinsic motivation)
I.F (Internal factors)
E.F (External factors)
H.B (Habitual behaviour)
C.I (Core level of intrinsic motivation)
S.I (Surface level of intrinsic motivation)

Figure 7. Two Levels of Intrinsic Motivation

Elaborating this concept, I would like to address the practical values of this social constructivist view of intrinsic motivation. Most teachers would like to see some level of improvement or motivational enhancement among learners by doing something effective in the classroom while they are responsible for students. However, I wonder if we can or should we really expect this of a teacher. And we tend to evaluate the success or failure of our teaching by looking back on only one lesson or our teaching during a semester, often referring to the improvement of student's test scores. But if learning a language is considered to be a life-long learning process, any evaluation about motivation should be based on what becomes of students after 10 or 20 years. Dewey (1916, p. 51) argues that the purpose of education is to ensure the continuance of education by organising the powers that ensure growth.

As already explained, I view intrinsic motivation through an explicitly social constructivist lens. This inevitably leads me to focus not only on the individual learner's mind but also how on an individual interacts with different environments. I believe intrinsic motivation can be developed through social interaction, at least to the *surface level of intrinsic motivation* (described in the model). Probably, teachers set up the situation where learners can learn by supporting each other. Teachers and others can serve as the support or the *scaffolding* required by learners. By experiencing this process, many of them can now reach this level. They may be affectively motivated. In other words, their motivation is self-regulated rather affectively. However, it is only after they have found connections between learning and the world that this intrinsic motivation reaches the *core* level in the model. Here, they may be motivated both affectively and cognitively. In other words, their intrinsic motivation is self-regulated both affectively and cognitively. Finally their intrinsic motivation is tapped into. As a result learning can become habitual rather than temporal. As I argued earlier, my view of social constructivism cannot stand without the relation between the interpersonal and the intrapsychic.

From such a view of intrinsic motivation, I will attempt to explore how intrinsic motivation in language learning among 1st year Japanese students changes over time under conditions in which they interact with their peers, and the teacher, using computers.

5.6 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I first introduced the notion of social constructivism and theories of social interaction with some caution. In addition, I discussed why social interaction plays an important role in motivational development and why the accent on process is so important to motivation studies. I attempted to explain some crucial factors for these with reference to the literature and to relate these factors within the framework of social interaction. While admitting the great contribution of cognitive approaches (discussed in Chapter 4) to motivation studies, I argued that an important element was missing. I added another crucial aspect for motivation studies: the influence of social interaction on individual motivational processes. These theories highlight the importance of social interaction for motivation studies. This argument is consistent with the account of the biological nature of motivation, discussed in Chapter 1. We human beings have the capacity to deal with the environment. In other words, when provided with the appropriate environment of social interaction, learners can develop their intrinsic motivation. Furthermore, when they find a connection between their learning and the world, intrinsic motivation can be *fully tapped into*. This implies that even if we provide a socially interactive environment, it is the learner who has to find the connection between his/her learning and the world. Without this, their habitual learning cannot be achieved. My social constructivist view proposes that motivation exists in the relation between the interpersonal and the intrapsychic.

The second part (5.2) of this chapter discussed more practical issues. In order to promote social interaction, I introduced three effective tools for social interactive learning: collaborative/cooperative/group learning, learning with multimedia, and

language learning for communication with a content-based approach. All of these tools are effective, especially for EFL learners like those in Japan (I will discuss the issue of context in the next chapter).

The third part (5.3) dealt with theories that address the process of motivational development. These theories gave me insight into the motivational process: how learner motivation develops individually and socially.

The last part (5.4) discussed the contextual issue that affects motivational development. These theories did indeed enable me to explain motivation in a much broader manner, and in a much more dynamic way that is crucial in explaining motivation, particularly for Japanese learners of English. Social interaction is not only limited to the interaction among learners, and between learners and teachers, but also between learners and various other aspects (school, society, etc). *A social-constructivist approach to the exploitation of intrinsic motivation* is the major theoretical framework in this thesis. The next chapter places the model into a specific context, namely Japan.

CHAPTER 6

LANGUAGE LEARNING MOTIVATION IN THE JAPANESE EDUCATIONAL SETTING

6.0 INTRODUCTION

At the end of the previous chapter, I discussed the importance of social interaction in motivational development. I argued that motivation never occurs without social interaction but can develop through interaction within a particular environment. As I have indicated earlier in this thesis (2.1.5), and as is also seen in Pintrich's (1994) integrated model of student motivation in the classroom (see Figure 2 in 1.2.4), social and cultural contexts play a very important role in motivational development. Dewey (1916, p. 81) notes that since society is a social function, education will vary with the quality of life that prevails in a group. A social constructivist point of view requires that motivation be discussed in relation to context. As Galloway, Rogers, Armstrong, and Leo (1998, p. 19) argue, we must take into account not only learners' personalities but also the social psychology of teaching and learning. They explain the importance of contextual influences in motivation thus:

> Understanding motivation is *not* just about understanding individual differences in response to a given set of experiences, tasks and teaching methods at school. Teachers also need to explain and analyse how the organisation and delivery of these experiences, tasks and teaching methods influence the motivational styles which individual pupils adopt. In other words, individual differences are important, but so is the interaction between them and contextual influences. (p. 119)

Therefore, this chapter discusses the status of the educational context in Japan.

The first part (6.1) explores the relationship between society and motivation. Next, the discussion focuses specifically on the East Asian learning context, particularly that in Japan in relation to Confucian philosophy, business, and government policy. More specifically, I highlight some problematical issues in Japanese education such as entrance exams, the importance placed on memory-based learning, and a teacher-centred approach. The second part (6.2) discusses some problems common among Japanese learners, such as anxiety and perception, which largely arise from the English language education system discussed in the first part. The last part (6.3) is a literature review of language learning motivation studies peculiar to the Japanese context. At the end of the chapter, I restate my research goals, since they concern motivation in the university classroom.

6.1 ENVIRONMENTAL ISSUES IN THE JAPANESE CONTEXT

6.1.1 *The Effect of Confucius in the East Asian Context with Particular Reference to Japan*

In discussing the learning context in East Asia (China, Korea and Japan), the significant role played in Confucius by forming beliefs toward learning cannot be ignored. Some may argue that it is not appropriate to relate Confucius to motivation because human motivation is innate (see Chapter 1). However, the degree or type of motivation is influenced by the cultural context. Thus, Confucian thought may shed new light on the relationship between motivation and learning in the East Asian context (This is crucial for interpreting the qualitative study in this thesis, see Chapter 10).

Hawkins (1994) explains this clearly:

> East Asians are considered to be highly motivated with respect to formal schooling and, as a consequence, can be measured as higher achievers. It may be related to the role of Confucian thought, the influence of an ideographic language, a tradition of rote memorization. (p. 102)

It is therefore important to explore the educational context in Japan from a historical point of view, since to some extent learning and motivation can be the outcome of the learning context. Hawkins (1994) describes the reality of such formal learning:

> individualism is down played both at home and in the school. ...motivation and achievement are highlighted by student diligence, rote learning, memorization, emphasis on test-taking at an early age, and moral education (p. 103).

Thus, he considers schools as a kind of Confucian moral community expressing values, order and discipline, transmitted by moral example, usually with the teacher in the lead (p. 105). This implies that a high level of motivation can be sustained under such conditions where there is a common sense of purpose, ritually reinforced, and backed up by teacher behaviour. This notion does, however, need to be interpreted with special care, since motivation can be sustained at a high level only if all learners favourably accept formal learning.

I will now explain aspects of Confucian teaching that particularly affect Japanese students (though some are common in other East Asian countries too). First, affected by Confucius to a greater or lesser degree, Japanese students view humiliation in public as an intolerable shame. At the same time, overconfidence in one's capability and expression of one's beliefs in public are also regarded negatively. Speaking in public

can thus be an anxiety-provoking experience for Japanese students because they always worry about making mistakes.

Second, students have to obey the teacher's instructions, no matter how inappropriate they are, since the teacher is in control in the classroom. In Confucian thought, respecting one's teachers is considered a virtue.

Third, making an effort is considered as a virtue. Hess and Azuma (1985) asked Japanese students in the 5th grade and American students in 6th grade, and parents in both groups their attributional reasons for poor performance in mathematics. Compared with the Americans, Japanese children and their mothers were less likely to attribute their poor performance to lack of effort. This implies that Japanese people view internal changeable factors such as effort to be more important than either internal state factors (ability) or external factors (luck, task difficulty, quality of teaching, etc.).

Fourth, in Japan persistence (*gambaru*) is given more importance than ability (Singleton, 1995). Persistence is the secret; effort is the Japanese explanation for educational achievement.

Fifth, harmony in interpersonal relations and the ability to cooperate with others are both highly valued. In the United States Department of Education (1991) report on Japan, we read that "Classroom activities are structured to encourage or require participation in group activities, to emphasize the responsibility of individual students to the class as a group and the school as a whole, and to develop group loyalty"(p. 143). Group activity is common, especially in elementary schools. This is not the case, however, in English classes at junior or senior high schools. In Japan, the school

management system, like the wider society, tends to be group-oriented. Iwamura (1995) points out:

> In this type of society, teamwork, cooperation, consensus in a group, harmony, group cohesiveness, equal treatment of members' devotion to the organization, and members' participation is expected. The basic motivation in Japanese society seems to be "social needs," or needs for belonging, and for acceptance by fellow members. (p.73)

While it is true that there is much collaborative activity in the Japanese educational system, collaborative work differs from that in Western countries. The purpose of cooperation and discussion in Japan is not to debate or exchange opinions but to adjust the leaders' ideas so as to keep the discussion harmonious. Harmony is crucial in all areas of Japanese society, such as in companies, although here negotiating skills have more recently come to be required. Thus, my teaching goal described in the project (see Chapter 9) is to develop learners' debating skills and explore their motivational change in the process. In my teaching I attempt to help learners to feel more in control of their learning.

Littlewood (1999, pp. 84-86) identifies three characteristics of East Asian learners: (1) they see themselves as interdependent with other students; (2) are strongly aware of status differences in the classroom; and (3) are ambitious to achieve and are prepared to put a lot of effort into their learning. These characteristics seem to reflect at least in part Confucian thought. Expanding this framework, Littlewood (1999, p. 87-88) proposes the following five generalizations about autonomy in language learning in East Asia: (1) students will have a high level of reactive autonomy, both individually and in

groups; (2) groups of students will develop high levels of both reactive and proactive autonomy; (3) many students will have experienced few learning contexts which encourage them to exercise individual proactive autonomy; (4) East Asian students have the same capacity for autonomy as other learners; (5) the language classroom can provide a favourable environment for developing the capacity for autonomy.

Looking at Littlewood's characteristics and his proposals, it is quite convincing that social interaction does play an important role in East Asia, where Confusian thought still exists to a certain degree. Without doubt, these guidelines are effective for exploring the Japanese context. They tell us how teachers can promote learner motivation and as a result establish learner autonomy in English education settings. Interestingly, Flowerdew (1998) found that group work meets the Confucian principles of co-operation, the concept of face, and self-effacement, since it encourages the broader skills of cooperation and negotiation. Thus, both theoretically and practically, the proposals are useful for the teaching project in this thesis (see Chapter 9).

6.1.2 *Historical Overview of the Japanese Educational system*

Discussing motivation in a specific context will be less fruitful if educational policy in that context is not taken into account. Galloway et al. (1998) argue this as follows:

> if motivation is seen in social-cognitive terms, as children's responses to aspects of the situations in which they find themselves, the outlook for raising motivation improves .... motivation can not be seen in isolation from wider debates about education policy. (p. 5)

Compared with other East Asian contexts, the economy may be the most influential factor in the educational system in Japan. Education is essential for both individual and national development, and it requires an active, sustained commitment of energy and resources at all levels of society. That is to say, government, policymakers, and business leaders value the content and quality of public education for national cohesion, economic development, and effective international relations (United States Department of Education, 1991, p. 143). As the Japanese economy has expanded in the last 50 years, private educational institutions have developed and become widespread. Hawkins (1994, p. 106) emphasises that Japan's educational successes accompanied by high motivation are cultural-specific, since, for example, the private sector institutions like preschools, and cram schools (*juku*) played important roles in higher education; this is a phenomenon peculiar to Japan. Indeed, Hawkins (1994) considers the educational system to be the cause of Japan's economic success:

> In Japan, the links between motivation and the family, self-concept, locus of control, educational management and administration, and the curriculum seem to form a chain that encompasses a more comprehensive view of what accounts for motivation, moving the discussion beyond the familiar bounds of psychology and social psychology into structural issues of school management and administration, all bound up in the uniqueness of Japanese culture. (p. 113)

From the beginning of elementary school, Japanese students are exposed to the study of science and mathematics, either at school or in private cramming establishments whose role is to help students enter more prestigious high schools and universities. Such study is considered to pay off in terms of future careers or social

status. According to Ushiogi (as cited in Hawkins, 1994, p. 112), motivation to learn, and choices about what to study, come from the knowledge that large business enterprises prefer to recruit students from the faculties of law, economics, business management, commerce, and engineering rather than from the liberal arts. In this sense, students' motivation to learn may not be intrinsic but extrinsic. Hawkins (1994) explains this as follows:

> Most aspects of Japan's formal educational system were imbued with the concept that one studied, in preferred schools, in order to have a successful career. This career orientation lays the base for the manner in which schooling is viewed by all sectors in Japanese society down to and including students and their parents. (p. 111)

Indeed, it is common for adults to ask young people which college they are studying at or graduated from. Kitamura (1991) explains this in more detail:

> Japanese generally believe that high-achieving children are diligent and reliable while low-achieving children are not. There may be differences in innate abilities is simply not considered — a not so surprising omission in a relatively homogeneous society where racial and ethnic differences are not so obvious and variations in achievement not so dramatic. (p. 170)

During the 1960's – 1980's, there was a general impression among Japanese people that the purpose of education was to systematically produce effective workers for the economic development of Japan. The school as a competitive arena was regarded by society, and particularly by enterprises and government ministries, as a highly effective system for training and selecting manpower (Amano, 1995, p. 115). To some extent, this may still be the case. This notion was based on the assumption that children should

receive a standardised education, have standardised texts, and prepare for standardised examinations that differentiated them strictly according to their test scores (Kitamura, 1991). In reality, such an educational policy encouraged competition and differentiation among children. Indeed, educational credentials have provided an indicator of an individual's diligence and ability, and both the corporate world and the government placed great weight on these credentials in their basic personnel policy (Amano, 1995, p. 115).

Greatly influenced by such policies, Japanese high schools have sought status based on the difficulty of the entrance examination, the ranking of the school, and the quality of future career opportunities available (Fujita, 1991). Fujita also argues that even at the very practical level, school teachers advise their students about which universities they should enter following criteria of test scores, the school chart, and published rankings, since prestigious universities select their students exclusively on the basis of the entrance exams. Above all, the Ministry of Education[1] has the most significant and direct impact on this educational system, since it is the Ministry's function to define the purposes and contents of learning, to change the curriculum, and to control the whole educational administration in Japan.

The college entrance system, which predominantly tests learners' knowledge or memorization skills, may be the feature that best characterises the Japanese education

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[1] The Ministry of Education has now become part of the Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology Ministry.

system. College ranking is decided on the basis of test results called *"hensachi"* (deviation value), in which the data shows which range of learners taking the tests went to which college. "Winners" and "Losers" have been decided on the basis of these test results. This distinction really affects learners' futures. Those who succeed in this test and get into well-known colleges might go on to enter prestigious companies and be considered as winners by society. On the other hand, those who fail the test and consequently cannot get into prominent universities might not be able to obtain prestigious jobs and would be considered as losers. The question "Which college did you graduate from?" has been disheartening for losers. Unfortunately, we cannot deny the fact that some people even judge students' human values in this manner:

> Japanese companies, society, and government considered the same type of college entrance exam as a good predictor not only of their academic success but also of their subsequent job performance, since companies, society, and government required conducting skills rather than creative/planning skills in hard overwork situations. (Nakata, 1999, p.90, translated from Japanese)

Inevitably, the purpose of education has become the training for the entrance exams, though this was not the original intention. This is an example of how intelligence has been perceived in this society.

Many people of course recognise that the Japanese educational system is beset with problems. Since the 1970's, pedagogy, academic evaluation, discipline, and other aspects of schooling in Japan have been targets of criticism, and student dissatisfaction with the system in Japan began to take concrete form (Amano, 1995, p. 111). Fujita (1991, p. 158) points out several of the problems. First, many Japanese students lose the

incentive to study hard and get ahead, since their life is secure. Second, schools are unable to develop evaluation systems that stimulate students to do more than just pass tests. Third, because of the perceived unidimensional, meritocratic evaluation scale and the system's custodial orientation and ritualistic qualities, schools have occupied a central position in the life of Japanese children. Fourth, because of the density of the formal curriculum, the pressure of the entrance examinations, and poor teaching conditions (such as large class size, e.g., forty students per teacher), a significant number of students do not understand what they are taught. Fifth, school rituals tend to produce ritualism, formalism, and trivialism among teachers. Sixth, until recently, public schools were monolithic agents of cognitive training, and teachers were considered to have a monopoly of knowledge, skills, and moral authority. In such a traditional learning context, there is no place for learners to enjoy their life. And even "winners" may not make extra effort, since they can achieve their extrinsic purpose of learning (entering a prestigious university). It cannot be assumed that learners' intrinsic motivation (detailed in 4.4.2) can be enhanced in such a learning environment. This is not, of course, the picture that the Ministry of Education originally designed.

It may not be too overstated to liken the Japanese educational system to Japanese mass-production factories, which are known worldwide for producing superior quality products. Indeed, we cannot deny the fact the winners in college entrance exams, who may be considered as high-quality products of Japan, performed well in the business field up to the 1990's. They were successful because they required mostly analytical skills.

However, from a humanistic point of view, the situation described above has been a major problem. Students are of course complex human beings. Those who fail the entrance exam are not the products of a factory. As long as they are in this society with such an educational system, however, their self-efficacy is low and they run the risk of falling into a situation of learned helplessness. Such losers rarely get a second chance. It is interesting to note that among the losers there are talented, intelligent, creative youngsters who were not able to fit into the educational mould available and not willing to play the game of "examination hell," yet who became quite successful in American universities (Brown, 2000).

I would like to point out here that the problem is not only a matter of the educational system but also of Japanese society as a whole. The way we perceive winners and losers arises from our views that have been cultivated in society. Losers may feel psychological stress depending on how they internalise the outcome of their learning experiences. In any case, their experience is the reflection of society. As Deci and Flaste (1995, p. 81) argue, intrinsic motivation, autonomy, and social contexts are interrelated. Dewey (1916, p. 84) asserts learners' relatedness to society by saying: "it is reduced to a mechanical routine unless workers see the technical, intellectual, and social relationship involved in what they do, and engage in their work because of the motivation furnished by such perceptions" (p. 85). Japanese learners of English may not become truly intrinsically motivated unless they find what they are doing meaningful in the society they live in, that is, unless they understand the meaning of what they are doing. (The development of intrinsic motivation in relation to society is already

explained in *two levels of intrinsic motivation* in 5.5.1.)

6.1.3 *Recent Trends in the Educational System and Japanese Society*

Recently, with the rapid growth of globalisation, business leaders and government officials have come to realise that traditional formal training no longer produces effective workers. There is a need for businessmen who can compete in the global community.

Ichikawa (2001) proposes three crucial abilities for Japanese learners at three different levels. For university students, skills of logical thinking, written expression, self-expression, policy judgment, self-learning study skills, are required. For the businessman, practical and creative problem-solving abilities are vital. As members of the community, their interest in social problems in modern society and their sense of belonging to the family and community are necessary elements. Indeed, creative skills or practical skills, in addition to analytical ones, are essential in the business field. This trend can be seen in Japanese companies that have tried to employ people who have received a traditional formal education and also possess negotiation or creative skills. Taking the example of English, some companies even require a TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication) score of more than 600 as a condition for promotion. Furthermore, as members of the global community, they need to be able to think about and express their opinions in English. Recently, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (2002) has pointed out the problems in English proficiency among Japanese people:

> With the progress of globalization in the economy and in society, it is essential that

> our children acquire communication skills in English, which has become a common international language, in order for living in the 21st century. This has become an extremely important issue both in terms of the future of our children and the future development of Japan as a nation. At present, though, the English-speaking abilities of a large percentage of the population are inadequate, and this imposes restrictions on exchanges with foreigners and creates occasions when the ideas and opinions of Japanese are not appropriately evaluated. (http://www.mext.go.jp/english/news/2002/07/020901.htm)

In order to improve the situation, the Ministry (2002) formulated a strategy to cultivate "Japanese with English abilities" in a concrete action plan with the aim of drastically improving English education. This strategic plan includes two attainment targets. One relates to the English-language abilities of all Japanese nationals (the ability to hold simple conversations comprising greetings and responses on graduation from junior high school, and normal conversations on everyday topics on graduation from senior high school). The other is for those who are active in the international community (attainment targets are to be established by individual universities with a view to cultivating human resources capable of using English in the workplace).

There is no question that teachers and students in Japan are facing a difficult transitional period. Esaki (2002) has described such difficulties:

> We are now living under the influence of two opposite cultures: one is the traditional culture, which faces the past by putting emphasis on the judicious mind, admires wonderful old achievements and takes its lessons from the past. The other is the modern culture, which faces the future by putting emphasis on the creative mind, by always seeking for progress and by perpetually looking for something new .... once students go into research or industrial development or a venture business in which the modern culture prevails, they are suddenly asked to new ideas instead of acting as

> copy cats. Somehow, they have to make a difficult transition from the traditional culture to a modern culture in which creativity is indispensable. (p.8)

Few schools are as yet in a situation in which teachers can take care of students on an individual basis, though some have recently reduced class sizes to 20 – 30 students. However, Japanese society has not entirely accepted this view of ability yet. Some people seem to have a dilemma in that they know Japanese education to be problematic but still wish their children to enter prestigious universities and have good careers. So far, the university entrance exam has not yet changed its content much. The educational system in Japan has not kept up with globalisation.

As far as English education is concerned, the curriculum that has been directed from above by the former Ministry of Education, has not been very successful so far. According to Miyahara, Namoto, Yamanaka, Murakami, Kinoshita, and Yamamoto (1997), proficiency levels, as gauged by regional TOEFL tests, show Japan finishing near or at the bottom of the scale in Northeast Asia (TOEFL mean scores in Japan, 494; in China, 553; in Korea, 510). This situation has not yet been changed, as evidence suggests that, in comparison with other Asian countries, Japan was the second from the bottom in scores on the computer-based TOEFL and the third from the bottom in scores on the paper-based TOEFL (Educational Testing Service, 2002). An enormous amount of time, energy, and money has to be spent in order to raise the standards of English-language education and at the same time advance learners' English proficiency levels. Students are not at present provided with situations that foster their creative abilities. Rote memorisation cannot foster creativity and originality, since students are

so busy memorising they have little time for thinking and creating. Many scholars have noted the changing nature of attitudes and motivation, particularly in Japan (Berwick & Ross, 1989; Benson, 1991; Kobayashi, Redekop, & Porter, 1992). That is, their motivation is instrumental but anxiety-provoking to pass the university entrance examinations and thus they can be burned out after matriculation.

Whatever the difficulties, however, it is education that creates an appropriate transitional period for learners and fosters their creativity so that they can take it further after entering employment. And probably it is the responsibility of universities to turn out graduates with creative skills and a certain level of English proficiency. In this, a great deal depends on college teachers. Esaki (2002) sheds new light on this issue by stressing the necessity of autonomy in Japanese education:

> An important factor in making a successful and quick transition seems to be the extent to which personal autonomy is granted. This may be because autonomy helps to induce personal motivation and personal motivation is undoubtedly a key driving-force for creative performance. (p. 8)

Hart (2002) also argues that "Japanese students need to develop learner autonomy and the skills to use authentic language texts in a cooperative learning context so that they can develop the intellectual and social skills to use English as an authentic global language" (p. 33). English is not a language of daily communication for most Japanese people but it is still a *lingua franca* — an internationally used language. Globalisation and the development of information technology made it essential for Japanese students and businessmen to develop communication skills in English.

Both research and anecdotal evidence suggests that as Japan regards successful educational outcomes in terms of defined national goals, the situation has more than just parochial implications. The sheer scale of the student numbers involved offers the researcher an excellent forum for large and detailed studies over time. In Chapter 9, I will suggest a teaching project to help learners to motivate themselves by developing their self-expression ability in a context-sensitive way, and as a result to make themselves more autonomous, so that hopefully they will be able to work independently in the future.

6.2 PROBLEMATICAL ISSUES IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN JAPAN

6.2.1 *Whole-Classroom Structure*

Traditionally, whole-class instruction has been predominant in Japan. It is one-way teaching in the sense that teachers convey knowledge to all 40 or so students in the class in the same manner. This method may have a positive effect in enabling some learners to pass examinations. Harmer (2001, p. 114) also points out that whole-class instruction reinforces a sense of belonging among the group members, it is suitable for activities where the teacher is acting as a controller, and it is a good way for teachers to get a general understanding of students' progress.

On the other hand, the whole-class approach will have several negative effects on many learners. Harmer (2001, p. 115) also identifies several. First, every learner is required to do the same activities at the same time and at the same pace. Second, individual students do not have much of a chance to say anything on their own. Third,

many students are disinclined to participate in front of the whole class, since to do so brings with it the risk of public failure. Fourth, it may not encourage students to take responsibility for their learning. Fifth, communication between individuals is more difficult in a group of twenty or thirty than it is in groups of four or five.

It is true that in a whole-class situation, right and wrong answers are automatically made in public and are therefore comparable. Thus, it is often the case that a few self-confident students dominate large-group instructional periods, while students lacking self-confidence, and fearful of humiliating themselves, refuse to participate (Stipek, 1988). The approach may thus lead to long-term negative consequences, even for the high achievers, because it distinguishes performance levels of each learner based on one fixed perspective, thereby making differences of ability obvious. In such competitive settings, "success and failure tend to be attributed to greater or lesser ability, and self-esteem becomes dependent upon learners' perception of their own ability" (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 193). If learners are worried about making mistakes in public, they may be unwilling to communicate in the language. The whole-class structure ignores individual differences, social interaction, and the motivational process. Also, the teachers tend to rely too much on learners' test scores in grading. Especially those who believe their abilities are fixed, may lose the motivation to learn. Since evaluation is based on only one measure, their ability is obvious to others. Learners with low performance may feel humiliated. Even those who can demonstrate high performance in such a classroom structure may not continue to study, since they may worry about making mistakes in front of a wider public. The classroom atmosphere

will inevitably be competitive and goals will tend to be mastery-oriented rather than process-oriented. As a result, learners easily feel anxiety in the classroom.

We can suppose that many Japanese learners of English have been held back by the class structure described above. The following extract from Dewey (1916) seems to exemplify the problem of whole-class education in Japan very clearly:

> There are variations of point of view, of appeal of objects, and of mode of attack, from person to person. When these variations are suppressed in the alleged interests of uniformity, and an attempt is made to have a single mode of method of study and recitation, mental confusion and artificiality inevitably result. Originality is gradually destroyed, confidence in one's own quality of mental operation is undermined, and a docile subjection to the opinion of others is inculcated, or else ideas run wild. The harm is greater now than when the whole community was governed by customary beliefs, because the contrast between methods of learning in school and those relied upon outside the school is greater. (p. 303)

Learning in a real sense can occur where teachers and students work together, study together, participate together, and interact with each other; it is less likely to occur where teachers simply convey knowledge to students.

6.2.2 *The Japanese Grammar – Translation Method — Yakudoku —*

It is widely recognised in Japan that English language instruction in high schools has been dominated by *yakudoku*, a non-oral approach to foreign language instruction thought to be related to grammar/translation. (Hino, 1988; Gorsuch, 1998). The findings of several studies (Hino, 1988; Law, 1995; Gorsuch, 1998) confirm that *yakudoku* is at the heart of most English classrooms in Japan. According to Hino (1988), 70 to 80 percent of Japanese university and high school teachers use *yakudoku*. Hino (1988, p.

46) illustrates three stages of the *yakudoku* process. First, the reader mentally makes a word-by-word translation. Then, the translation is recorded to match Japanese syntax. Finally, the string of translated words is recorded finely into Japanese syntax. The teacher's job then is to explain the word-by-word translation technique, to provide a model translation, and to correct the student's translation. Gorusch (1998) also summarises the characteristics of *yakudoku*:

> *Yakudoku* can be characterized as a widely used text-based (non-oral) foreign language instructional methodology with some similarities to grammar/translation, but also with important differences. *Yakudoku* really seems to be more about the process of translating sentences of English text into Japanese, and understanding the text in Japanese, than about understanding English grammar through study of example English sentences. Finally, *yakudoku* is entwined with university entrance exams. (p. 11)

This method clearly contains severe limitations as a pedagogical tool. First, *yakudoku* instruction requires students to focus more on the Japanese translation of an English text rather than the English itself (Gorsuch, 1998, p. 26). Thus, while in grammar/translation there is a sense of two-way exchange of translating text from the L2 to the L1 and from L1 into the L2, in *yakudoku* English is considered as "a channel of one-way communication for the reception of Western ideas" (Law, 1995, p. 214). Second, *yakudoku* is a teaching method that can be conducted under the teacher's control (Gorsuch, 1998, p. 27). Learners are required to translate after nearly every phrase, and their translations are checked and controlled by the teachers. Teachers may believe that it is a way of controlling as many as 40 students in the classroom. Third, in

yakudoku classrooms, much of the students' attention is focused not on the English text but on the Japanese translation of the text. This may be the reason why Japanese learners of English are not good at production, especially in speaking. They may be accustomed to thinking in Japanese when learning English, and hence may be translating in their brain. They therefore take a lot of time to produce English.

As Gorsuch (1998, p. 27) also points out, *yakudoku* is accompanied by examinations administered on a large scale to secondary school students, and thus there is a powerful washback from the examinations onto secondary-level language syllabuses and teaching methodology. How good schools are at preparing their students for college exams may greatly affect their popularity. What is really problematical, however, is that many universities in Japan do not test translation skills in their entrance exams. According to Brown and Yamashita (1995), and Law (1994), English reading passages with comprehension questions, not translation tasks, comprise the greatest number of test items. In other words, teachers in high schools who follow the *yakudoku* system are not necessarily preparing their students for college entrance exams. Fifth, Guest (2000) shows that there is an emphasis on the teaching of grammar, but in this respect many high school teachers do not actually teach meaning-driven grammar but just the rules of syntax. Thus, students merely memorise discrete lexical, syntactical, and prosodic forms. It is obvious that under such learning conditions learners' intrinsic motivation (as defined in 5.1.6), is not likely to be enhanced. Dewey (1916) criticises such type of education as follows:

> In the degree in which what is communicated cannot be organized into the existing

> experience of the learner, it becomes *mere* words; that is, pure sense-stimuli, lacking in meaning. Then, it operates to call out mechanical reactions, ability to use the vocal organs to repeat statements, or the hand to write or to do "sums." (p. 188)

As we saw in 4.3.1, what teachers can develop through such instruction is analytical intelligence rather than creative or practical intelligence. Thus, *yakudoku* as a method runs counter to the aim of promoting creative language use.

6.2.3 *Characteristics of Japanese Learners of English*

Due to the above-mentioned shortcomings surrounding language education in Japan, many learners of English are in a far from ideal learning environment. There is a general consensus that the educational system has resulted in Japanese learners with weak English communication ability and low motivation toward learning the language.

Among the various skills — listening, speaking, reading, writing, grammar, and vocabulary — practising reading, memorising grammatical rules and vocabulary, and doing writing exercise are the focus of English classes because these skills are necessary for the college entrance exams. Their writing practice is practice such as filling in blanks (missing words in a sentence), choosing appropriate words in the blanks, or changing order of words or sentences, rather than creative writing. As a result, Japanese learners tend to be relatively competent in these areas but do not necessarily improve communicative skills.

In my experience, many 1st-year Japanese university students have a very low level of communicative ability in spite of 6 years of English in junior and senior high school. Probably the most distinctive feature of Japanese learners of English is their

anxiety in speaking. Of course, Japanese learners have few opportunities to communicate with native speakers in their daily lives, are hardly able to practise speaking English outside the classroom, and therefore possess anxiety in spoken production. They also have difficulty identifying the difference between written and spoken forms of the language since their learning has concentrated on the written language. Hence, they are unfamiliar with basic characteristics of spoken English, such as sound changes brought about by linking, elision, and assimilation (Nakata, Koyama, Otsuka, 2001).

The English that students are forced to study for the entrance exams is not the English they want to study. Boekaerts (1995) points out this problem in terms of learner motivation as follows:

> In a scholastic context, most of the goals a learner pursues are not self-chosen. This implies that functional deficits in self-regulation may arise from false internalisations; i.e. from encoding the wishes and expectations of others as obligations. Such other-related commitments may induce an emotion state that is counter productive for self regulation. (p. 15)

I found several interesting issues in a study of 288 1st-year university learners' perceptions toward their previous English learning experiences (Nakata, 2003). Their motivation was strongly and negatively affected by their previous experiences, which were teacher-centred, memorisation-centred, knowledge-transmission rather than knowledge-constructing, and entrance-exam oriented. As a result, students' motivation was rather extrinsic both in junior and senior high schools. In spite of such negative experiences, however, students have a desire to communicate with foreigners, though

they remain anxious about speaking and skeptical of ever becoming fluent. The results may be consistent with Nikolov's study (2001) that EFL learners in Hungary found were that oral and written assessment practices with insistence on accuracy and memorisation anxiety-provoking, and the focus on grammar drills and rote-learning of texts boring and useless. Nikolov (2001, p. 167) claims that past negative classroom experiences strongly influence current learner motivation and self-perception and do not support FL development. In the case of the motivation of Japanese learners of English, we should not disregard their perceptions of their previous English learning experiences. It seems that though oral practice can be anxiety-provoking, it may be a necessary step for Japanese learners of English to overcome.

As I discuss in Chapter 9 with reference to my teaching project, there are several ways to improve the communicative ability of Japanese learners of English. First, as noted above, regular practice in recognising sound changes caused by linking or assimilation is necessary. Second, learners need practice in expressing their opinions in writing (writing strategy training). In process writing, topics should be chosen by each learner. The more a student likes a topic, the more he/she will be able to write. Such experience should eventually contribute to the development of their self-expression skills in speaking. Third, learners should be provided with plenty of opportunities to speak in front of others. They will of course feel anxious at first, so their confidence needs to be built up slowly. For this reason, it is preferable to use writing before speaking. Fourth, learners should be provided with opportunities to communicate with classmates, teachers, and native speakers of English both verbally and in writing.

Computers can play an important role in communication within the group in the teaching project. Fifth, teachers should provide learners with an appropriate learning environment. Galloway et al. (1998) note "it is a truism to say that teachers can make any system devised by government, school governors or head teachers work effectively, or fail disastrously" (p. 12).

In realising these elements in the classroom, some caution should be borne in mind. It is noticeable that all of them are learner-centred. This is unfortunate because, as I described above, most Japanese learners of English have been mainly exposed to a teacher-centred approach. However, sudden exposure of learners to unfamiliar learner—centredness may be counterproductive, or may even demotivate them. To maximise the advantages of a learner-centred approach, teachers need to introduce it carefully into their teaching, considering both the general characteristics of Japanese learners and individual characteristics of their students. If they do not, an ideal learning environment will not be created.

In Japan (and probably in other East Asian countries as well), the trusting relationship between teachers and learners is the major element for motivating learners or helping them to motivate themselves — probably due to teacher-centred experiences and Confucian thought. It is often the case that Japanese learners attribute their dislikes of learning English to their teachers (see Nakata 1999, 2001, 2003). I strongly believe that in an appropriate learning environment, Japanese learners of English can improve their communicative ability, and as a result can become motivated to become autonomous learners. Above all, it is vital to establish a trusting relationship between

teacher and learner, since all the other elements discussed above are based on such a relationship.

The characteristics of Japanese learners of English suggest that many EFL learners in Japan are in the early stage of the process towards learner autonomy (They have not yet crossed the *autonomy threshold*). Due to the inadequacies of the Japanese educational system, learners have not yet reached a level of autonomous or conscious motivational thinking in which they reflect on their learning or take control of it. The reason is that they are in the early motivational stage, which is an unconscious rather than a conscious stage — although this does not necessarily mean there is no "consciousness" in this early stage. There may be a kind of psychological threshold (for the *autonomy threshold*; see 5.3.2) that has to be crossed before learners become autonomous. Autonomous motivational thinking may be a product of the teacher's support (scaffolding) in the learners' unconscious motivational process when the teacher provides students with an appropriate learning environment in which they can unconsciously motivate themselves. As a result, they may automatically start to consciously reflect on their learning and control it. My interest in this thesis is the process by which they move from the early motivational stage (mainly unconscious) with a low level of intrinsic motivation (see definition 5.3.2) to the next motivational stage where they can reflect on their learning.

6.3 OVERVIEW OF LANGUAGE LEARNING MOTIVATION RESEARCH IN JAPAN

6.3.1 *Situating My Study in the Context of Motivation Research in Japan*

In Japan, most motivation studies (Konishi, 1990; Matsukawa & Tachibana, 1996; Sawaki, 1997; Takanashi, 1990, 1991) have been based on a single approach — the social psychological approach, which is factor analytic studies using data from a closed questionnaire — based on Gardner's research results accumulated in ESL contexts mainly in North America (such as in Montreal). However, these contexts are substantially different from an EFL context like Japan. The concepts of integrative and instrumental motivation are not necessarily applicable when learners have infrequent contact with native speakers of English and thus have rare chances to actually use the language.

In an earlier study (Nakata, 1995a, 1995b), I spotlighted an important individual difference variable among Japanese learners, namely *international orientation* which involves a general cosmopolitan outlook. Learners with this international orientation do not have to worry about forsaking their L1 identity or assimilating the target language culture, but rather they study English as a means of communication while retaining their own identity as an international person (Nakata, 1995a, 1995b; I discuss this component further in Chapters 8 and 10). It was argued in Chapter 3 that the "integrative motivation" of Gardner and Lambert (1972) is not necessarily effective for Japanese learners of English, and I stressed that the notion of international orientation may be more effective for these learners. As far as social identity is concerned, this approach may be more appropriate than that of Gardner. Indeed, the study conducted for this thesis did identify such a component (see Chapter 8). Furthermore, Yashima (2000) found a similar major motivational component, which is called *intercultural friendship*

orientation in a factor analytic study. She also found a strong relationship between motivation and proficiency in her subsequent structural equation modeling analytic study (Yashima, 2000). However, this is just one aspect of motivation and has little practical value to the language classroom. Although the purpose of the social psychological approach is to explore the social context, not the situations of individual learners, this approach has not yet answered the question: how can language learners be motivated in the classroom?

Recently, however, research trends in language learning motivation in Japan employing various approaches have been shifting to uncover its multifaceted and changing nature. Matsura, Nishimoto, Ikeda, Kaneshige, Ito, and Miura, (1997) undertook large scale surveys of high school students in many institutions across Japan four times during the last forty years using the same questionnaire, and found several motivational changes during this period of time. Overall, learners' attitudes toward learning English have become more negative in the last 30 years. More than 60 percent of respondents expressed a wish to be a proficient learner of the four skills and referred to the necessity of learning English. However, their actual English learning did not meet their needs. More than 30 percent responded that English learning is not fun, or uninteresting, or indeed they even disliked it. There thus seems to be a gap between actual English learning in the classroom and learners' needs. These studies are valuable as a means of exploring how motivational levels of Japanese learners of English have changed over time, influenced by several factors such as social change, and changes in the educational system. Although the phrase "English education for communication"

has repeatedly appeared in the last 30 years, actual learning outcomes have not changed much. This is obvious from looking at the college entrance exams and the preparation for it in high schools.

Several cross-national studies of motivation have also appeared. Miyahara et al. (1997) conducted a large study to compare motivational components and English proficiency among college students in Japan, Korea, and China, and found Japanese students to be the least motivated learners of English with the lowest TOEFL scores (average, 493). Similarly, Tachibana, Matsukawa, and Zhong (1996) provided a comparison of Japanese and Chinese high school students' motivation in learning English, while Teweles (1996) found motivational differences between Chinese and Japanese learners of English in college. These studies enable us to investigate motivational types of Japanese learners of English in comparison with learners in other East Asian countries.

Greatly affected by the work of Dörnyei, Crooks and Schmidt, or Schmidt et al., several researchers in language learning motivation in Japan started to adopt cognitive theories of motivation in cross-sectional quantitative research (particularly factor analytic or structural equation modeling analytic studies). Kimura, Nakata, and Okumura (2001) conducted a large factor analytic study of motivation across educational levels and institutions, and found different types of motivational components in very diverse learning situations — university (English and non-English majors), junior college, high school, junior high school, and English conversation school for adults. In this study, the questionnaire requested learners to respond to items

on their intrinsic/extrinsic motivation, integrative/instrumental motivation, attribution, goal, teacher-specific motivation, and so on. My own cross-sectional qualitative studies (Nakata, 1999, 2003) support the finding that the motivational level of language learners in Japan goes up and down, largely affected by the entrance examinations and preparing for them.

Among the cross-sectional quantitative research methods for motivation research, structural equation modeling analysis is recently becoming a popular tool, replacing factor analysis. Kimura and Nakata (2000), using the data of Kimura, Nakata and Okumura (2001), examined the cause and effect relationship between motivation and other factors by the structural equation modeling approach. Ogane and Sakamato (1999) investigated the relationships among EFL motivation (extrinsic/intrinsic motivation, attitudes, motivational strength, expectancy/control, and anxiety) and proficiency factors by structural equation modeling approach, though the sample size needs to be bigger. Yamashiro and McLaughlin (1999) also examined links between attitudes, motivation, anxiety, and English language proficiency in Japanese college students using the structural equation modeling approach.

In the field of psychology, several psychologists have conducted motivational studies on language learning. Kubo (1997) conducted a factor analytic study and found two major factors: fulfilment-training and self-esteem-reward orientation. Kubo (1999) further developed this line of study using a structural equation modeling approach. In a longitudinal study, Koizumi and Mastuo (1993) found a drop in participants' motivation after the initial stages of learning. Based on the findings of his study, Hayamizu (1997)

argued that extrinsic and intrinsic motivation are not antagonistic, but rather are located on a continuum.

I propose several ways of attribution and feelings towards future action in my *model of attribution*, which perceives attribution as one of the factors in the process of motivational development (see Nakata, 1999, p.62 and also 4.3.3 for more details). Kurahachi (1997) investigated the effect of the communicative approach on learning and motivation. Mori (1999) conducted a factor analytic study of domain-specific motivation — motivation in reading.

Very recently, some researchers started to work on motivation studies within a qualitative paradigm. Fukada (1996) attempted cross-sectional qualitative surveys using open-ended questionnaires and found some possibilities in this approach. Kimura (2003) also explored how EFL learners can be motivated and why that motivation is constructed by a teacher in a particular classroom context using a semi-structured interview. I (Nakata, 2003) investigated the perceptions of first year university students toward their previous English learning experience using an open-ended questionnaire.

All of these studies have attempted to reveal the complex nature of language learning motivation in Japan from different perspectives. Several researchers found that simple replication of Gardner's approach is not effective in the Japanese context, while factor analysis or structural equation modeling analysis using questionnaires with education-focused items are effective means of capturing the motivational construct of Japanese learners of English. However, it cannot be denied that motivation studies have thus far produced few practical implications. Surprisingly, as far as I know, there have

been no longitudinal qualitative studies of language learning motivation in Japan. In order to understand how best to motivate Japanese learners of English, or how to help them to motivate themselves, it is necessary to trace how learners' motivation changes longitudinally. This can be an effective tool for exploring the motivational process and, at the end, establishing effective motivational strategies. Thus, the teaching project in this thesis investigates Japanese learners' motivational changes in a qualitative/longitudinal way, in addition to a cross-sectional/quantitative factor analytic study to explore their motivational construct. This may be the first attempt to investigate the motivation of Japanese learners of English from different perspectives with the same subjects.

6.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter stressed the important roles of context for motivation in the educational setting. First, I discussed learning environmental issues, describing the effect of Confucius on education and the characteristics of the Japanese educational system. Then, I pointed out problematical issues relating to language education which may demotivate language learners. A teacher-centred classroom, the English entrance exams, the grammar–translation method, and language education policy negatively affect Japanese learners of English. In the final part of the chapter, I surveyed the research literature concerning language learning motivation studies in Japan in order to show how it relates to my own research. Discussing these issues is very important in this thesis, since it is my assumption that the learning environment affects learning

experiences and consequently the motivation to learn.

Part I and II (from Chapter 1 to 6) of the thesis, I have reviewed the important relevant theories of motivation, and discussed contextual issues. In Part III, I will focus on the following two major research goals:

a) the research goal of Study 1 (Chapter 8) is to gain a snapshot insight into the motivational characteristics of 1st year non-English-major university students, with a focus on 10 categories.

b) the research goal of Study 2 (Chapters 9 and 10) is to investigate the extent to which the motivation of 5 of these learners' changes over time: from when they were at school (see the questionnaire in Study 1) to the end of their first year of university.

During the year these 5 learners took part in a project in which I was their teacher as well as the researcher. My teaching approach was based on findings of Study 1. My special focus in the project is the subjects' intrinsic motivation, and the ways in which they respond to being encouraged to use the target language for communicative purposes (first through writing and then through speaking) and to work together in small groups to achieve a common goal.

In the next Chapter, I will discuss the characteristics of various research tools available for motivation studies, argue the necessity of choosing the most appropriate tool(s) for each research goal, and finally describe in detail the research design of the studies conducted for this thesis.

PART THREE

THE RESEARCH

CHAPTER 7

METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES IN LANGUAGE LEARNING MOTIVATION RESEARCH

7.0 INTRODUCTION

So far in this thesis, I have dealt with theories of motivation from different perspectives. In this chapter, I discuss methodological issues in language learning motivation research, pointing out the strengths and weaknesses for each method. In this way, I set the scene for my own methodology.

In Chapters 3, 4, and 5, I considered three theories of learning: behaviourism (in relation to social psychology), constructivism, and social constructivism respectively. These theories feed into the methods researchers use. If a researcher adopts the philosophy of behaviourism, which has its roots within positivism, he/she tends to use a quantitative method that often relies on statistics. In contrast, if constructivism or social constructivism, which are fundamentally non-positivist, is favoured, a qualitative method (often involving content analysis) will be employed, the researchers will seek to understand the relationship between the human mind and behaviour.

In this chapter, I first discuss methodological traditions of motivation research (7.1). Then, I analyse the nature of the various research methods used in motivation studies and consider appropriate research goals for each method (7.2). Finally, on the basis of the foregoing discussion and my background knowledge of research that has been done, I try to give a complete picture of the methodological design of the study

reported in the thesis (7.3).

7.1 RESEARCHING AND CAPTURING L2 MOTIVATION

7.1.1 *Methodological Traditions of Motivation Research*

Various indices can be utilised for assessing motivation. These include choice of task, effort, persistence, and achievement. Pintrich and Schunk (1996, p. 22) describe the following ways of assessment: direct observation, ratings by others, and self-reports. Direct observations record instances of behaviour; ratings by others refer to judgments made by an observer(s) of students in respect of various characteristics that are indicative of motivation; self-reports, which include questionnaires, interviews, stimulated recalls, think-alouds, and learners' dialogues, refer to people's judgments and statements about themselves. Among these three, the self-report (for the most part questionnaires or interviews) has long been a major tool for motivation research, probably because it is easy to administer and manage, and, I believe, is reliable.

Williams and Burden (1997, p. 95) point out various problems in the research tradition into individual learner differences, including motivation research. First, research in the area of individual differences has been mainly concerned with measuring, labeling, and grouping people. Second, the purpose of such research is usually not to identify how individuals differ but to group them according to perceived similarities. Third, findings have been of limited practical value because they have not informed us how we can help an individual become a more effective learner. Fourth, in many instances they do not help us to improve the functioning of the groups that are

identified by this research. Fifth, research in this area is often based on a theory of learning that views people's behaviour as being heavily influenced by certain fixed traits or attributes.

Perhaps the biggest problem of traditional motivation research lies in the mismatch between the research goal and the method(s) used. Many researchers in the field of L2 learning motivation have been working with the purpose of determining how best to motivate language learners. In other words, their ultimate goal is to find the most effective way(s) to enhance learners' motivation and language proficiency. But in reality, motivation researchers often take a roundabout route in reaching that goal. In my case, the starting point as a researcher followed Gardner's approach (Nakata, 1995a, 1995b), which was valid in the sense that it explored language learning motivation in a social context, especially in bilingual settings. The method he used was one–shot multiple–choice questionnaire surveys such as AMTB (Attitudes and Motivation Test Battery; see Chapter 3). Factor analysis was mainly employed to explore the motivational components, with the possible use of correlational/ regression analysis to investigate the correlation between factors and proficiency, and structural equation modeling analysis was used to examine the cause-effect relationships among variables. Furthermore, motivation researchers have used different terminology for the same type of factor (see, for example, the concept of integrative motivation, in 3.2.2).

Though there is no doubt that Gardner's studies made a great contribution to the language learning motivation field, as I mentioned in 3.2, his main importance was that he explored social psychological aspects of motivation. Indeed, many researchers have

used Gardner's approach to find practical implications that will be directly useful in the classroom — a somewhat different approach to motivation from Gardner's. It seems that they might have used inappropriate approaches to answer their research goals. Indeed, in my experience, some of the questions raised by some of my graduate students have been inappropriately using Gardner's approach for exploring motivational strategies: how to motivate language learners. Here we find a mismatch between the research goal and a research tool (the quantitative questionnaire type of survey) often used in motivation research. This has been one major reason why many motivation researchers have been unable to pinpoint what they wanted to know, and thus their results have not been fruitful for practitioners.

7.1.2 *The Complex Nature of Language Learning Motivation*

Human behaviour is, as we know, highly complex, and thus tackling it is indeed difficult. But when we start understanding why and how we as teachers, and our L2 students, act as we do, this can be a most rewarding experience (Dörnyei, 2001a, p. 2). Learners' minds cannot be observed or read directly. And obviously, their cognitive and affective factors cannot be simply explained. Hence, as Dörnyei states (2001a): "researchers should be aware of the fact that the specific motivation measure or concept they are focusing on is likely to represent only a segment of a more intricate psychological construct (e.g., integrative motivation)" (p. 186). We should bear in mind that learners' motivation and their behaviour changes over time. Dörnyei (2001a) explains the positive aspect of motivation research as follows:

> Although the unobservable, multifaceted and dynamically changing nature of

> motivation makes its study admittedly complicated, there is a variety of research methodological tools at our disposal to help us with our inquiries and to avoid the pitfalls. I firmly believe that if we make informed decisions about which aspect of motivation to focus on and which methods to use when collecting and analyzing, our data, motivation research can produce meaningful and valid results even for the novice researcher. (p. 186)

In this sense, one-shot questionnaire surveys, which are often used in motivation research may only explain a small part of this multifaceted construct within a limited time. Thus, specifying aspects of motivation and using appropriate methods for it should be a prerequisite for language learning motivation studies.

7.2 METHODS IN LANGUAGE LEARNING MOTIVATION RESEARCH

7.2.1 *Self-report Assessment of Motivation*

As we have seen, self-report tools, either questionnaires or interviews, are often used in motivation research. In my view, self-report data are more reliable than observational data when carefully interpreted using several types of data. This is even more true in the case of motivation research dealing with an individual's psychology. Relying on direct observation can be problematical, as Pintrich and Schunk (1996) argue:

> by focusing only on overt actions, direct observations may be superficial and not fully capture the essence of motivation. ...motivation was inferential: We infer its presence from behaviours. Direct observations ignore the cognitive and affective processes underlying motivated behaviours. (p. 16)

Some may question the reliability of self-report data as well. Indeed, Seliger (1983) argues that any such data should be treated with caution, since they cannot be

independently confirmed. Pintrich and Schunk (1996) point out the need for careful assessment of self-report measurement (either questionnaire or interview):

> A problem may arise when inferences have to be drawn about students' response. Other concerns about self-report are whether students are giving socially acceptable answers that do not match beliefs, whether self-reported information corresponds to actual behavior, and whether young children are capable of self-reporting accurately. (p. 21)

Assor and Connell (1992, p. 41), however, provide evidence that when learners reach the third grade, self-reports are valid and reliable indicators of the beliefs and actions they are designed to assess. Ushioda (1995, p. 123) argues that in the case of an empirical investigation, the use of self-report data seems less problematical than in, for example, strategy training, because the learner is being asked to analyse perceived causes of behaviour rather than to describe cognitive behaviour through verbal processes.

Pintrich and Schunk (1996, p. 21) suggest using multiple forms of assessment (e.g., self-reports, direct observation) as an affective means of validating self-reports. In designing a research plan using self-report tools, researchers need to try to minimise potential problems. To this end, I believe motivation researchers need to employ multiple self-report methods in order to capture the cognitive and affective aspects of the motivational process.

7.2.2 *A Dichotomy in Motivation Research*

As I argued earlier, there is a philosophical background for each research approach. Sometimes, this philosophical difference causes confusion for novice

researchers when selecting research tools. The most notable dichotomy in language learning motivation studies is to be found between quantitative studies and qualitative studies. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) explain the differences as follows:

> The prototypical qualitative study methodology is an ethnographic study in which the researchers do not set out to test hypothesis, but rather to observe what is present with their focus, and consequently the data, free to vary during the course of the observation. A quantitative study, on the other hand, is best typified by an experiment designed to test a hypothesis through the use of objective instruments and appropriate statistical analysis. (p.11)

It is true that both types of research have advantages and disadvantages. Let me discuss the characteristics of the quantitative methods first. Williams and Burden (1997) describe the characteristics of the psychometric approach (quantitative method):

> (1) a hypothesis is made that a particular characteristic (for example, motivation) is likely to influence success in language learning; (2) a means of assessing that characteristic is selected or constructed; (3) aspects of that characteristic and success in language learning are both measured, usually with reference to a specific group of learners; (4) the results of the two measures are submitted to statistical analysis and statistically significant relationships are sought; (5) conclusions are drawn about the contribution of the particular characteristics to learning a language (p. 89).

The positive side of this method is that the data obtained are regarded as statistically reliable (if it is significant enough), replicable, and, therefore, generalisable[2]. This enables broader tendencies to be revealed. Struman (1996) supports this notion: "the advantage of the quantitative data is that it gives us the opportunity to see how representative the written comments are and whether these comments are

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[2] The procedures used to gather the data including sampling greatly affect generalisability and validity of any study that compare means (Brown, 1988, p. 157). Therefore, the subjects for Study I was carefully chosen (see 8.3, Table 4).

distributed randomly through the sample" (p. 350). In contrast, Dörnyei (2001a) argues the drawback of this approach:

> they average out responses across the whole sample or subsample, and by working with concept of averages it is impossible to do justice to the subjective variety of an individual life. Similar scores can result from quite different underlying motivational processes, and the quantitative methods are generally less sensitive to uncovering the motivational dynamics involved than qualitative techniques. (p. 193)

For example, it is questionable if a "test kind" of questionnaire like AMTB (which is often used in motivation research) can really measure motivation, or if motivation is really measurable. Williams and Burden (1997) argue this as follows:

> There is no such thing as "intelligence" or "field independence", or "motivation", but it can sometimes be convenient to treat such entities as if they do exist so that we can contrast tests to measure them. Unfortunately, the outcome of that testing procedure can then come to represent in people's minds the meaning of that construct. For example, for many years the only definition of intelligence that was offered in many psychological textbooks was that "intelligence is what intelligence tests measure." (p. 90)

Quantitative studies such as factor analysis have certain limitations since "such scales are extremely fallible in what they measure, and how well they measure it" (Skehan, 1989, pp. 10-11). Indeed, for statistical reasons, classification of factors and among groups needs to be clearly described (see an example of factor analysis in Chapter 8). In a practical sense, it is quite difficult to investigate learners' minds since there are no two learners with the same learning experiences. Thus, as Williams and Burden (1997) argue, "This kind of approach does not help us to deal effectively with

such issues as how individuals make their own sense of the process of learning a language, or how we as teachers can best help our learners, given that they are all different" (p. 95).

Qualitative research has its strength in rich descriptions of contexts, such as classrooms, schools, and communities, that are often familiar in a general sense from personal experience (Lazaraton, 1995, p. 468). Struman (1996) justifies the advantages of qualitative data by saying: "they allow the students' depth of feeling to be expressed, and are an opportunity for students to point out new problems that the researcher, or school, was not aware of and that were not addressed in the design of the research instrument (and therefore unlikely ever have been discovered)" (p. 350). Dynamic interaction, internal/external influences, and even causal relationships can be seen from the data elicited in this approach. Such research is a situated activity that is interpretive and naturalistic in nature (Lazaraton, 2003, p. 2).

On the other hand, the drawbacks of a qualitative approach may be a lack of reliability, representativeness, and generalisability. Generalisability especially, tends to be the factor frequently called into question by quantitative researchers. However, Lazaraton (1995, p. 465) discusses the possibility of doing justice to the issue of generalisability by raising these points: 1) generalisablity in research is more than a matter of counting; 2) even meeting stringent criteria (in quantitative research) does not guarantee meaningful interpretation of the result. In fact, the findings (which are considered statistically significant) from a large quantitative study do not guarantee its applicability to particular individuals in particular situations. In other words, the danger

of generalisability is not only an issue in the qualitative approach but also in the quantitative one.

Lazaraton (1995, p. 459) stresses the significance of both approaches by saying there is no superior method for understanding one's research goal. Each research method involves particular philosophical, theoretical, and methodological parameters that must be observed to ensure studies are valid /credible, reliable/dependable, and generalisable/ transferable (Davis, 1992, pp. 606-607). Johnson and Saville-Troike (1992) support this:

> Notions of validity differ substantially in different research traditions... In quantitative research, a test or measure is considered valid if it measures what it is intended to measure .... In qualitative research, judgments of validity focus primarily on the interpretation of findings. It is important to emphasize that validity in either quantitative or qualitative research is not an absolute notion nor can validity be "proven." Rather a high level of validity is a goal to strive for. (pp. 602-603)

In this regard, either the qualitative or the quantitative approach can be suitable, depending on the research question. Even combining both approaches can be appropriate.

Another dichotomy with regard to research paradigms is that of longitudinal as distinct from cross-sectional. It should be kept in mind that a longitudinal approach does neither necessarily mean qualitative, nor does a cross-sectional approach necessarily mean quantitative, (see Table 1). Richards and Schmidt (2002, p. 136) define these differences. In the cross-sectional method, a study of a group of different individuals or subjects is conducted at a single point in time, in order to measure or

study a particular topic or aspect of language. In contrast, a longitudinal method is one carried out by studying an individual or a group over a period of time.

Cross-sectional studies typically sample the participants' thoughts, behaviours, or emotional stances at one particular point in time (Dörnyei, 2001a, p.194). Most motivation researchers have tended to employ this cross-sectional questionnaire method. However, as the nature of motivation is not fixed but changeable, and influenced by many factors, the result of a cross-sectional study cannot easily be generalised. A cross-sectional study cannot investigate the learner's motivational process. Therefore, such results should be carefully interpreted. A cross-sectional study is relatively economical and easy to administer, compared with a longitudinal one which requires a great amount of time and energy for preparation and administration.

In contrast with cross-sectional studies, longitudinal studies observe the participants over a period time. Dörnyei (2001a, p. 196) suggests a variety of researchable topics via longitudinal research design: (1) the dynamic interplay between motivational factors and the day-by-day events in a language course; (2) the effects of teacher behaviour on student motivation; (3) the change of motivation during chronological development; (4) the change of motivation as a function of the development of L2 proficiency; (5) the dynamics of motivation during an extended stay in the host environment; (6) the analysis of motivational basis of "persistence" in the face of difficulties over an extended period; (7) the micro-analysis of motivational development during the process of task-completion.

As shown above, longitudinal research can challenge a wide variety of themes in

motivation studies. A longitudinal study is crucially important in exploring dynamics in the motivational processes. In my longitudinal/qualitative study, I investigate several of those listed above (1, 2, 3, 6 and 7).

7.2.3 *Various Types of Methods in Language Learning Motivation Studies*

In designing a research method for motivation, it is useful to categorise the approaches as shown in Table 1 below: quantitative/qualitative, cross-sectional/ longitudinal, in a 2 x 2 matrix.

Table 1. Summary of Different Approaches to Motivation

	Quantitative	**Qualitative**
Cross -sectional	*(TYPE 1)* *Measurable data in multiple choice questionnaire by statistics* -to explore motivational components by factor analysis -to investigate relationship between factors and proficiency by correlational analysis -to examine the cause and effect relationship among factors	*(TYPE 2)* *Non-measurable data in open-ended questionnaire and interview* -to find similarities to respondents' comments across learners by coding and classification (content analysis)
Longitudinal	*(TYPE 3)* *Measurable data in multiple-choice questionnaire by statistics* -to examine differences in motivational change due to the treatment/ non-treatment between groups over time by factor analysis and multivariate analysis of variance	*(TYPE 4)* *Non-measurable data in transcription developed from tape/videotape by interview or observation and comments in journals* -to investigate dynamic changes of limited subjects over time by interview journals, and observation (content analysis)

If we examine Table 1 more closely, the Type 1 approach (quantitative /cross-sectional), using Likert-type scales, has been dominant in motivation research. Factor analysis especially has been the most frequently used of the Type 1 methods. Motivation researchers have repeatedly used factor analysis in order to identify the

major constructs of the multifaceted concept of motivation (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1985; Dörnyei, 1990; Clément et al., 1994; Schmidt et al., 1996; Sawaki, 1997; Kimura, Nakata, & Okumura, 2001). Gardner and his associates used it as a primary research tool in studying the interrelationships among attitudes, motivation, and achievement (Gardner & Lambert, 1959; 1972; Gardner, 1985). The AMTB instrument has been reexamined for its applicability in the Japan context (Konishi, 1990; Miyahara et al., 1997; Sawaki, 1997; Yashima, 2000). Other researchers (Dörnyei, 1990; Clément et al., 1994; Schmidt et al., 1996; Kimura, Nakata, & Okumura, 2001) have also used this method. However, it has included education-focused questionnaire items based on theories in educational psychology, as well as those in social psychology, for the purpose of exploring the motivational construct from an educational perspective. In exploring motivation, it is a very effective tool to capture a global surface picture of motivation (see Chapter 8).

As Table 1 shows, correlation analysis has been used to examine the strength of the relationship between factors and proficiency/desired proficiency. Normally, this method has been used after factor analysis in order to discover correlations between factors and achievement or desired proficiency (see Dörnyei, 1990; Clément et al., 1994; Yashima, 2000). SEM (structural equation modelling) analysis is now becoming popular in motivation research since it enables us to test the cause – effect relationship between factors and proficiency, as, for example, in Gardner's *Socio-Educational Model* (see Gardner, 1985; Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgot, 1997; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995; Yashima, 2000).

The methods described in Table 1 as Type 1 are useful for generalising research results, since the data are measurable. Though there is no question that research using any of the methods in this category reveals many aspects of motivation, it is not easily revealed by only a single method. In terms of the relationship between factors and proficiency, the research results drawn from correlational and SEM analysis cannot be easily interpreted, due to their complexity. Dörnyei and Kormos (2000) point out this problem:

> Motivation as a psychological term is used to refer to the antecedent of action rather than achievement. It is true that motivated learners will demonstrate more effort and persistence in their task behaviour, which in turn can lead to increased achievement. However, this relationship is indirect, because achievement is also influenced by a host of other factors, most notably the learners' ability, learning opportunities and the instructional quality of the learning tasks. Thus we believe that examining the influence of motivational variables on actual learner behaviours may provide more reliable and valid measures of the general significance of motivation in L2 learning than examining motivation-achievement relationships. (pp. 281-282)

In such a statistical procedure, interesting insights tend to be ignored. For example, some interesting constructs may appear in groupings of factor analysis but they will be excluded.

Type 2 research (Table 1) has not been used much so far, although it is gradually becoming more common. It is possible to conduct such research when the data are analysed to determine differences among learners' perceptions, experiences and attributions of success/failure, or likes and dislikes. For example, Williams and Burden (1999) investigated learners' conceptions of themselves as language learners in terms of

their attributions of success and failure in learning French across different age groups (Years 6, 7, 8, and 10), using transcribed data from interviews. Williams, Burden, and Al-Bahana (2001) again employed this method to investigate the attributions of success and failure among 25 learners of English at secondary schools. Tse (2000) used a different technique — foreign language autobiographies to assess learners' perceptions of classroom interactions, perceived level of success, and attributions of success and failure. Fukada (1996) and Nakata (2003) also used a similar type of tool — an open-ended questionnaire — and analysed the data by categorisation and coding. As we have seen, this type of research aims to find patterns of characteristics across groups or learners from data collected at one time.

The research described in Table 1 as Type 3 is so far the least common in motivation research. It attempts to examine the motivational changes between groups before and after a particular treatment, that is, the effect of the treatment on learners' motivation in an experimental condition, using a Likert-type questionnaire repeatedly. Inbar, Shohamy and Donitsa-Schmidt (as cited in Inbar, Shohamy, and Donitsa-Schmidt, 2001) examined the effect of an experimental programme of teaching spoken Arabic on Israeli learners' attitudes, motivation, and achievement. Experimental research by Koizumi and Matsuo (1993) examined longitudinally (over one year) attitudinal motivational changes among 296 Japanese 7th grade students learning English, using the same questionnaire four times. In most of the studies in this category, the collected data is first subjected to factor analysis, after which analysis of variance is used to examine significant differences among groups, such as motivational changes after the

treatment. However, the results of this kind of research need to be interpreted with caution since motivation can possibly be affected by other factors that arise during the research period. It is extremely difficult to obtain clear–cut results in such a differential treatment experiment. Different from the case of the relationship between the treatment as the *independent* variable and the test scores as the *dependent* variable, it is not easy to find a clear linear relationship between the treatment and motivation. That is, if it showed motivational enhancement due to the treatment, this might be a good result for the treatment but not for motivation.

Type 4 research is the most interesting of the four types shown in Table 1. It investigates the dynamic aspect of motivation, since introspective data can be collected over a span of time. Dörnyei (2001a) explains the advantage thus:

> this line of investigation is more appropriate to uncover the complex interaction of social, cultural and psychological factors within the individual learner. ...qualitative (longitudinal) studies can reveal how these general principles are reflected in actual people's lives, what patterns emerge as a result of the dynamic interplay of motivational forces, time and personal priorities, what other, thus far undetected or underrated confounding factors shape student motivation. (p.240) (parentheses mine)

There are several research examples of this type. For example, using an open-ended questionnaire for eight years, Nikolov (1999) aimed to look at the attitudinal/ motivational changes of young Hungarian learners of English. Ushioda (1996b) stresses the significance of this method:

> There is clearly much potential in the theoretical development of a dynamic concept of L2 motivation. The concept of motivational change after all brings with it the notion of motivational control, or self-motivation. In this respect, a qualitative

> approach (longitudinal) may be the most fruitful means of exploring the role of motivation thought processes over the language learning time span. (p. 245) (parentheses mine)

This type of approach can provide a useful lens for examining learners' views over time, and possibly challenging conclusions drawn from survey and questionnaire methods and confirming them as well.

7.2.4 *Towards Combining Methods*

As mentioned earlier, motivation research has predominantly relied on questionnaire, quantitative, correlation-based techniques. On the one hand, investigating such a complicated concept as motivation, and attempting to capture its whole picture, relying on a quantitative approach only can be a case of "cannot see the trees for the woods." On the other hand, however, an over-reliance on a qualitative approach can also be a case of "cannot see the wood for the trees." This situation is quite confusing for novice researchers in the language learning motivation field.

Both quantitative and qualitative approaches can be used for different purposes. McCracken (1988) explains this as follows: "The quantitative researcher uses a lens that brings a narrow strip of the field of vision into very precise focus...the qualitative researcher uses a lens that permits a much less precise version of a much broader strip" (p. 16). I suggest using both of these lenses in motivation research. Using two types of lenses — using two types of data, quantitative and qualitative — may enable us to picture the complex nature of motivation better. Denzin (1970) argues this as follows:

> The use of data triangulation ensures that a theory is tested in more than one way, increasing the likelihood that negative cases will be uncovered .... While it may be

> difficult for any single investigation to achieve this full combination, it is certainly possible to utilize multiple data levels and methods ....the greater the triangulation, the greater the confidence in the observed findings. (p. 340)

In other words, using these two methods of investigating motivation may provide more information than that obtained by employing just one approach.

There is, indeed, a trend toward multi-method approaches which tend to reject narrow analytical paradigms. This is because the use of more than one method is expected to provide us with a wider range of information. Pintrich and Schunk (1996, p. 22) stress that the use of multiple forms of assessment provides richer data than a single measure of motivation. In the field of language learning motivation, Dörnyei (2001a) raises the possibility of a combined use of quantitative and qualitative studies in motivation research by saying:

> a combination of qualitative and quantitative designs might bring out the best of both approaches while neutralising the shortcomings and biases inherent in each paradigm. Given that collaborative research is very widespread in the L2 field, such a combination is not at all inconceivable within research teams that contain both quantitative and qualitative experts. (p.242)

It may be better to use not only different sized lenses but also lenses of different types, that is, multiple-methods that are both quantitative (such as factor analysis and SEM) and qualitative (such as interviews and journals). Various combinations are possible. Even within qualitative research, multiple-source data such as field notes of observations, interviews, and documents, should be collected in order to establish research credibility (Davis, 1995).

What about the longitudinal versus cross-sectional issue? Suppose one is a medical researcher working on a new type of virus; is it enough to use two sizes of lenses of different types? Obviously, "No." It needs to be examined many times longitudinally using different tools to capture what it is. This makes the investigation more valid and the result more reliable. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991, p. 13) discuss the possibility of combining longitudinal and cross-sectional approaches by referring to Dato's study (1970) of the acquisition of Spanish by English-speaking children using three groups of English speakers with varying levels of exposure to Spanish. The same approach can be applied to motivation research.

Probably, the real question lies in how we can combine these two different methods, each rooted in different philosophical backgrounds. I suspect that, trying to explain the complex nature of motivation while putting the same amount of emphasis on both the quantitative and qualitative methods may lead to confusion in interpretation. Thus, when designing research with the concept of combining qualitative and quantitative data, the focus of both (whether on the quantitative or the qualitative) should be clearly stated so as not to forcibly attempt to triangulate multiple data and thereby reduce the merits of both. In other words, if the focus is quantitative, then the qualitative data should play only a supporting role. A typical case of this approach is to give out open-ended questionnaires (qualitative) asking about a learner's motivation before developing closed-type of questionnaire items for factor analytic study (quantitative). Conversely, if the focus is on a qualitative approach, then the quantitative tools play a supporting one. The study in this thesis employs the latter

approach (see details in 7.3): the data of the factor analytic study are used for a qualitative study for a limited purpose (to gain a snapshot insight into the motivational characteristics of 1st year non-English-major university students). This is how I connect the qualitative study (Study 2) with the quantitative one (Study 1).

The selection of the research design must depend on the research goal (or goals). Larsen-Freeman and Long, (1991) discuss this essential issue as below:

> What is important for researchers is not the choice of *a priori* paradigms, or even methodologies, but rather to be clear about what the purpose of the study is and to match that purpose with the attributes most likely to accomplish it. Put another way, the methodological design should be determined by the research question. (p. 14)

In designing the research, an appropriate method, methods, or the ways of combining methods must be chosen with a clear understanding of the research purpose.

7.3 SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH DESIGN USED IN THIS THESIS

In this section, I describe how I mixed research tools in an attempt to capture the nature of motivation. By explaining the complete research design of this study, here I pave the way for Chapters 8 and 9.

Two types of study were conducted for this thesis. One is a quantitative study of 288 Japanese learners of English who had just entered university across various institutions (referred to as Study 1). The other is a longitudinal/qualitative study of 5 learners of English (called Study 2).

The purpose of the quantitative study is to obtain a general picture of patterns of motivation among 1st year Japanese university students. In order to do this, I employed

a factor analytic study, using a closed-questionnaire, for a large population across various institutions at different locations and with various subject majors. Factor analytic studies can "exploit the 'pattern-finding' capacity of the procedure by sampling a wide range of items and then examining their interrelationships and the common underlying themes" (Dörnyei, 2001a, p. 219). Dörnyei (2001a) also notes: "Because factor analysis is useful in making large data sets more manageable, the procedure is also used as a preparatory phase in data processing to some further analysis" (p. 219). It is the case that data collected quantitatively is analysed quantitatively. Using my data, I first characterise the general patterns of motivation among 1st year Japanese university students, and then use the qualitative data as a starting point for my study of 5 individual learners who were selected from this group. It should be mentioned that prior to this factor analysis, a preliminary factor analytic pilot study was conducted in order to confirm the validity and reliability of the instrument. As I discuss later, a slight revision of some questionnaire items was made in the light of the pilot study. As Table 2 shows, the thesis also describes the teaching project, carried out with a class containing the 5 learners of Study 2 (who also completed the questionnaire used in Study 1).

The project will be described in detail in Chapter 9. For the moment, it may be appropriate to ask why structural equation modelling was not employed instead of factor analysis? Obviously, structural equation modelling is an effective tool to find causal relationships between factors. And of course, both factor analysis and structural equation modelling use data collected in a given time. Due to this, using the result of

structural equation modelling may cause problems in explaining the causal relationships in a longitudinal/qualitative study in which the data is to be analysed in an interpretative way.

It should be kept in mind, however, that Study 1 was conducted in a one-shot manner, which may not be sufficient to obtain introspective and insightful data into the learners' motivational changes in the classroom setting. Though studies employing multiple-choice questionnaires and factor analysis are beneficial in allowing an intensive focus on particular characteristics of motivation and in providing characteristic similarities across a large number of learners, the dynamic nature of motivation can hardly be captured using only such a tool. If we view motivation as a *time* which includes "reason for doing something," "deciding to do something" and "sustaining effort, or persisting," as suggested by Williams and Burden (1997, p. 121), it is true that a cross-sectional study is not able to cover the dynamic aspect of motivation in its investigation. Schumann (1998) asserts:

> motivation varies over time and that the freeze frame nature of questionnaire research loses developmental and idiosyncratic information. ...we do not know what the learner's motivational profile was a month before the study or what it might be a month later. ...there is a danger that the freeze-frame motivational picture might be as a narrative or language learning history. Here one might incorrectly assume that a group of successful learners who evidenced an integrative orientation or an intrinsic motivation at the time of the study will be guided by these same profiles in their past learning and will be guided by them in the future. (pp. 180-181)

In order to reveal motivational aspects not uncovered by these dynamics in the classroom, a qualitative/longitudinal research should be called for. That is, though the

factor analytic study seems to play a role as a "camera" taking a snapshot (a quantitative study, see Study 1), thinking of the nature of motivation, it should be further "videotaped" in a longitudinal manner or "snapshot several times" over time (a qualitative study, see Study 2).

Before discussing my longitudinal/qualitative study, let me briefly discuss the nature of the teaching project I conducted (see details in 9.1.2 and also Table 2). In the period April 2000 – January 2001, I conducted a teaching project with 47 EFL learners majoring in law in their 1st year of university. These learners also took part in Study 1 and the 5 learners I mentioned were also in the group. In the first semester (April 2000 to July 2000), I taught writing strategies, a programme that included *sentence combining*, *the use of connectors*, *organization of paragraphs*, and *essay organisation* (introduction/discussion/conclusion), and so on (see details in chapter 8). In the second semester (October 2000 to January 2001), I organised computer-mediated group work among learners who shared the same interest in relation to a topic from the syllabus. The group work that focused on their chosen topic involved: discussions on e-bulletin boards, working together cooperatively, oral group presentations, and essay submission (see Chapter 9 details).

The aim of the teaching project was not to encourage motivational strategies, that is, how to motivate learners directly by using several strategies, nor was it to determine the effect of the project. Rather it aimed to investigate how each individual developed his/her motivation when provided with opportunities for group learning, social interaction, computer-mediated learning, and using English as a means of

self-expression.

Having explained the purpose of the teaching project, I would like to move on to the longitudinal/qualitative study (Study 2). The 5 subjects of this study were chosen from the 47 learners in the class. I will explain the process of subject selection and the guidelines employed for this. First, an initial factor analytic pilot study was carried out with the students in the same department in the same university to ensure more reliability in explaining the relationship between the results of the subsequent factor analysis (Study 1) and the individual motivational profiles of the 5 learners. Second, it was possible for me to conduct a teaching project in the institution. Third, in the light of my teaching experience, I thought that this group of 47 learners (including the 5 selected learners) had something to say about learning English and had the ability to record their feelings towards language learning. It is generally accepted that students in this particular university have a good command of English. Indeed, it emerged that in our subjects' entrance exams, English accounted for half of the scores for all compulsory subjects (English, Japanese, and Sociology): (200 out of 400 points). Possessing a certain level of proficiency however does not necessarily mean that the subjects like English. In fact, they seemed to be tired of learning English by means of rote memorisation of grammar and reading. Fourth, the subjects were from the same class, as I was their English teacher for that academic year.

How, then, did the 5 learners become the subjects for this study? There are several reasons. First, they were chosen from successful groups who regularly posted messages on the electric bulletin board (e-board), seemed to have group cohesion, and

did a good job in their oral presentations. (I have already stated that the purpose of the research was not to investigate the effect of the teaching project but to trace motivational changes over time.) Second, the subjects were chosen from a group who agreed to take part in interviews with me voluntarily (interview data form the major source for this study; see below), as I saw in their responses to a questionnaire seeking cooperation with interviews (see Appendix A5 for Ethics Protocol Sheet). This means that they were willing to participate in the research project.

Of course, one might question the possibility of teacher/researcher bias in this study since I analyse students' responses to two open-ended questionnaires about the teaching project. Conducting research playing these two roles, I was aware of the danger of causing a "Pygmalion effect" where the responses may be affected by the teacher's expectation about the students' learning (see Dörnyei, 2001a, pp. 175-176). This is one of the reasons why the interview dates were set in May of 2001, 5 months after the teaching programme (see Table 2 in this chapter). Thus, in the interviews with the 5 learners my role was researcher only. The interviews were conducted in Japanese. In the analytical processing of the data, all of the tape-recorded data were transcribed in Japanese first and then translated into English (see Appendix B and C).

Now I would like to show how I designed Study 2. Various types of tools were used. As Table 2 below shows, the first one used data for the 5 learners' data obtained from a closed questionnaire administered in April 2000, in order to determine any differences between the motivational characteristics of each learner with those of the "average" learner (as evidenced in the factor analytic study). It should be noted that I

used only those questionnaire items to which they responded either "strongly agree" or

Table 2. Summary of Research Design

DATE	*STUDY 1 QUANTITATIVE STUDY*	*THE TEACHING PROJECT*	*STUDY 2 LONGITUDINAL/QUALITATIVE STUDY (5 LEARNERS PROFILES) (1^{st} year law major university students) : research focus*
Jan 2000	*Pilot study Closed questionnaire 6-point Likert scale (103 2^{nd} year university students majoring in law)		
April 2000	*Closed questionnaire 6-point Likert scale (288 non-English majors 1^{st} year university students across institution) Factor analysis	*Writing/computer skill training (47 law-major 1^{st} year university students in my class (part of the 288 and including the 5 learners) *starts-*	1) 5 learners' the closed questionnaire administered to 288 learners 2) open-ended questionnaire (about their previous English learning experience)
July 2000		*-ends* *Focus on 1) group work, 2) computer-mediated learning, 3) freedom of topic choice 4) social interaction	
Oct 2000		*starts-*	
Nov 2000			3) analysis of responses to the open-ended questionnaire (asking initial responses to the group project)
Jan 2001		(Oral presentation)	4) video–recorded oral presentation
		-ends	5) analysis of responses to open-ended questionnaire (asking about their retrospective response to group work in the project) 6) analysis of their responses in the closed-questionnaire (the same closed questionnaire used with 288 subjects)
May 2001			7) interview data

"strongly disagree," so that their motivational characteristics could be more easily captured. In this way, I could see each learner's motivational characteristics that explicitly appeared (though their "strong" responses may be partly due to personal traits: they may have a preference for making extreme responses or non-extreme responses). As a second source of data for this study, I used an open-ended questionnaire that asked about their previous English learning experience (here I am only reporting on the 5 learners) which was also administered in April 2000 along with the closed questionnaire referred to above. This data enabled me to find out what kind of learning experiences the subjects had had in the past, and possibly how these may have affected their learning. The third source of data was an open-ended questionnaire asking for their initial responses (i.e., the 5 learners in the group of 47) to the teaching project. This was administered in November, 2000. The fourth source was another open-ended questionnaire that sought the five learners' responses after the teaching project (administered in January 2001). At this time, the closed questionnaire administered in April 2000 was given and the data obtained was used as the fifth source (5 out of 47) for this study. The purpose of using these data was to find out the motivational differences between the subjects' responses by the questionnaires administered with a 9 month interval. Only items with more than 2 scale differences were subjected to the analysis. The final source of data was interviews administered in May only to 5 learners with their permission. In this study, this interview data is the major source of data while the other sources are considered minor. Among several possible interview tools, the semi-structured interview was chosen. This tool is

beneficial in the sense that it is possible to focus on several themes by using a set of prepared questions, while the interviewee can still elaborate on issues raised in an exploratory manner (Dörnyei, 2001a, p. 238). Nikolov (2001) explains the benefit of interview techniques as follows:

> Qualitative analysis of these structured interviews provides insights into how early and later classroom contacts and life expectancies with modern languages have formed learners' attitudes, motivation, and language development and to what extent teachers, methodology, the intensity and community of programmes, parental support, and the study of other languages have contributed to the language and self-perception of the participants. (p. 149)

Audio-tapes are also effective in that they can provide a record of the data obtained and can be used to re-examine and reinterpret it as required (van Lier, 1988, p. 61).

I would now like to explain how the interview was considered to be the major source of data in the longitudinal/qualitative study. In addition to newly developed interview question items, one of the purposes of the interview was to obtain further evidence about the subjects' written responses in the other sources of data described above. Of course, in interpreting interview data, caution is required concerning the veracity of what subjects say in their responses. In particular, one needs to consider carefully how the subjects responded to questions — for example, whether they immediately responded, or they hesitated in answering, whether they explained in detail, or if they emphasised some particular part. This was especially important when the interviewee did not speak much and did not respond well. In transcribing recorded data, transcription conventions can be useful to explore the response behind surface level

utterance (see Appendix in van Lier, 1988, p. 243). By using such tools and through careful examination of the data obtained, its interpretation is believed to be credible.

The research design of this study can be summarised as follows: by conducting a quantitative study (Study 1), I was able to capture the general picture of motivational patterns among 1st year Japanese learners of English. But since the factor analytic study was done at a particular point of time and motivation has a dynamic changing nature, a longitudinal study was also called for. A longitudinal/quantitative study (discussed in 7.2.3) is problematical, since motivation can easily be influenced by other factors. This type of research result would not tell us what influenced the subjects' motivation and how it was influenced. A longitudinal/qualitative study in contrast can provide ample information by using multiple data sources. Again, I need to mention this thesis is largely based on the longitudinal/qualitative study, while using the results of the factor analytic quantitative study as supporting evidence.

7.4 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I have discussed the nature of motivation, self-report tools, and the characteristics of various research methods and their possible combination. By doing so, several crucial elements were noted as being central to the design of motivation research.

In designing research, investigators need to specify the research goal in advance and accordingly select the most appropriate tool or combination of tools for that goal, considering the research context. If the motivation research is designed with a careful

consideration of the types of tools available, and the combination meets the research goal, the outcome will be successful.

The study in this thesis employed mainly self-report tools of the questionnaire type to capture the motivational construct of a large population, as well as an interview to investigate the dynamics in the motivational processes. At the same time, direct observation of performance was undertaken by means of recorded videotape in order to observe the subjects' anxiety level in their oral presentation. (This data is not a major source of data but a supporting one in this study.) Each tool attempted to explore different aspects of motivation.

In the last half of this chapter, I have described the overall research design, explained the procedure of the research, including subject selection, and suggested the effective combined use of multiple research tools to capture the complex nature of motivation. The details are discussed in the subsequent chapters (Chapters 8 and 9).

CHAPTER 8

ANALYSIS OF STUDY 1 DATA

8.0 INTRODUCTION

At the end of the previous chapter, I described the overall design for the research carried out in this thesis. In this chapter, I first report on the results of the pilot study (8.1). I then return to the research questions of the study (8.2) and describe the subjects of Study 1 (8.3). Finally, I discuss the data analysis of Study 1 (8.4) and the findings (8.5).

This chapter concerns the quantitative factor analytic study of motivation among 288 subjects who were not majoring in English. They were EFL learners from various institutions and areas in Japan who had just entered university. As already explained, the purpose of the study was to obtain a snapshot insight of motivational characteristics among these 1st year university students. In other words, I wanted to know what kind of motivational characteristics they possessed after having gone through intense study for the university entrance exam. For example, I considered questions like: "Do they still have intrinsic motivation for learning English?" or "Do they have only extrinsic motivation for learning English after the university entrance exam?" Such questions were important, since they guided me in the teaching project I subsequently carried out with 47 of these learners.

Study 1 employed a 50-item questionnaire consisting of items relating to motivation and based on educational, cognitive and social psychological perspectives. As

already noted, the questionnaire was administered to 288 participants from various universities (their majors were law, economics, nursing, engineering, and science) in various locations of Japan (in the Kansai, Kyushu, Hokuriku areas) (see Table 4 below). The fact that the subjects had various major subjects, attended different institutions, and were from several locations enhanced the reliability of the research findings as generalisable data. All of the subjects were fairly homogeneous since they were learning English as compulsory subjects. This implies that their purposes for studying English may not be so different. This may also be a factor in enhancing reliability. The findings are discussed in terms of motivational characteristics found among non-English major EFL learners in Japan.

8.1 THE PILOT STUDY

8.1.1 *Limitations of the Pilot Study and Revisions to the Questionnaire in Study 1*

Prior to Study 1, a pilot study was conducted in January 2000 among 103 2nd year university students majoring in law in a university in the Kansai area of Japan. The purpose of this pilot study was to capture motivational components of university students in Japan and, more importantly, examine the validity and reliability of my questionnaire instrument. The questionnaire consisted of 50 items in addition to some demographic questions (see table 8.4 below). The components of the questionnaire were attribution (8 items: 1-8), self-confidence (3 items: 9-11), anxiety (6 items: 12-17), effort (5 items:18-22), goals (6 items: 23-28), autonomy (4 items: 29-32), attitude toward Anglophonic-culture (4 items: 33-36), beliefs (6 items: 37-42), intrinsic motivation (4

items: 43-46), and extrinsic motivation (4 items: 47-50) (see Appendix A1).

Participants were asked to answer each item on a 6-point rating scale. In addition to the 6-point Likert Scale ranging from "very much agree" to "never agree," the point "I cannot answer this question" was included at the left end. There are some reasons why this scaling was adapted. For one thing, Kimura (personal communication, Oct 22, 1998) points out the problems of 5- or 7-point Likert scaling and suggests a different type of effective scaling:

> In many cases subjects' responses in "neither agree, nor disagree" or "neutral" (often used in AMTB) are not necessarily reliable since we hardly know if they really thought so. Instead of using such scaling, adding a scaling "unanswerable one" may solve this problem and exclude those unreliable data from the study. This way, we can get more reliable data. (translation from Japanese)

Very interestingly, a part of the questionnaire used by Dörnyei, Nyilasi, and Clement (1996) employed a similar technique; "How much do you like the pop music of these countries? (Write 0 if you do not know it)."

In the case of my study, I used the 6 point scaling and an additional one (*1. strongly agree, 2. agree, 3. slightly agree, 4. slightly disagree, 5. disagree, 6. strongly disagree / 7. I cannot answer this question*). The questionnaire stated that the subjects could respond with 7 (*I cannot answer this question*) if they were not sure of the meaning of the question items. The slash (/) before 7 (see below) aims to distinguish subjects' responses within the six-point scaling from those on the 7th scale point. The slash (/) was used so that they could easily respond to items with understanding of this difference. The data of responses to *7. I cannot answer this question*, were excluded from further analysis. However, in the

factor analytic procedure, they were calculated as mean-substituted data in order not to throw data as possible[3]. Of course, those respondents who thought they could not answer did not respond on those items. They might have responded if the scaling were with the 6 point one (without 7). But in order to respond on those items with such scaling, they needed to put their feeling into this 6 point scaling no matter how they understood the items. I consider obtaining the purer data even with more missing data (*7. I cannot answer this question*) (rather than the less pure data with less missing data) to be more important.

The results of the pilot study are summarised below (see also Appendix A1 for Item means and SDs). Examination of the mean and standard deviation for the 50 items revealed that 2 items (5, 17) were right-skewed and 7 items (3, 9, 10, 15, 39, 40, 41) were left-skewed. Thus they were excluded in further analysis. This implies that the participants responded to the former two items to an extremely positive degree (*ceiling effect*), while they responded to the latter items to an extremely negative degree (*floor effect*). A Cronbach's alpha was computed for 41 items and a satisfactory score of .838 was obtained (see Appendix A3). Cronbach's alpha is a type of reliability to estimate internal consistency reliability. In this case, about 84 % of the variation in observed scores was due to variation in the true scores and the remaining 16 % cannot be accounted for and thus is called *error*.

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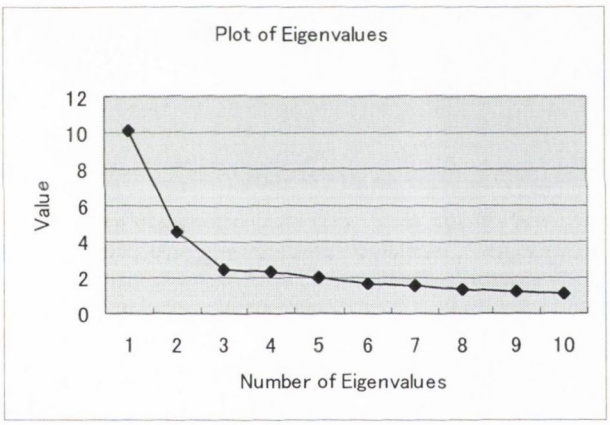
[3] *Case-wise data deletion*: When there are missing data for any variable used in a particular analysis, the entire record will be omitted from the analysis (eliminating the complete row). *Pair-wise data deletion*: When data are missing for either (or both) variable(s) for a subject, the case is excluded from the computation. *Mean* (average) *substitution*: This is the case we substitute variable's mean value computed from available cases to fill in missing data values on the remaining cases. (http://www.utexas.edu/cc/faqs/stat/general/gen25.html)

The results of eigenvalue and a scree plot were first used to predict the number of factors (see the following Table) (see 8.4..3 for the criteria for determining the number of factors). The number of factors is generally chosen where the plot levels off to a decreasing linear pattern, as we see in Table 3 below. In other words, by plotting the variance associated with each factor, the scree plot provides a visual representation of the steep decrease –the "slope" and the gradual trailing off –the "scree" – of the factors (Dörnyei, 2001a, p. 221).

Table 3. Scree Plot of Eigenvalues (The Pilot Study)

(see also the result of principal component analysis Appendix A2)



I made the final decision on the number of factors based on the results of scree plot and of several attempts at rotating 4 and 5 factors (*varimax* and *quartimax*). With regard to the selection of a rotation method, since unlike the case of Dörnyei and Clément (2001, p. 407) I was not going to investigate correlations among factors, I did not have to employ oblique rotation such as *promax*. Put another way, there was a danger that, in the case of this study, oblique rotation may have made the distinction between factors more difficult.

Instead, it may be more appropriate to employ orthogonal rotations such as *varimax* or *quartimax* for the purpose of this study, since with this approach we can obtain "clear" factors that do not contain overlapping elements between factors (Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001, p. 320). In this study I consider factor analysis of 4 factors with *varimax* rotation as the most appropriate means of explaining components and interpreting the findings. A *varimax* rotation method makes it as easy as possible to identify each variable with a single factor. This is indeed the most common rotation option.

Using the principal component analysis and *varimax* rotation (factor loading: .600), 4 factors were extracted (see Appendix A3). These factors accounted for 47.42% of the variance in the 41 items. This procedure is clearly explained by Hatch and Lazaraton (1991, p. 491-492). Principal component analysis is to discover components that underlie performance on a group of variables by looking at all variance of the present data. Ichikawa and Ohashi (1993, p. 209) recommend this as a factor extraction method due to its clearness of the statistical procedure and its desirable statistical nature that factor score estimate possesses. The purpose of factor analysis followed by principal component analysis is to discover factors that underlie a series of items that measure many variables by looking only at common variance (see Appendix A3). It makes our interpretation of various factors easier. This can be done by rotating factors, using the rotating factor analysis such as *varimax*. It is generally considered that principal component analysis is part of the factor analytic procedure. The factor analytic procedure thus consists of both principal component analysis and factor analysis. This procedure has indeed often been used in several factor analytic motivation studies on language learning （Dörnyei, 1990;

Schmidt, Boraie, & Kassabgy, 1996; Masgoret, Bernaus, & Gardner, 2001; Kassabgy, Boraie, & Schmidt, 2001).

In the pilot study, Factor 1 received appreciable loading from three items (26, 27, 30) and was called *Autonomy*. This term implies that if learners possess a learning goal, then they may be autonomous in the sense that they are taking some responsibility for their learning (see discussion of this factor in the section on Study 1 later). Factor 2 which consisted of 6 items (12, 13, 14, 23, 25, and 48) was named *Language Use/Test anxiety.* It shows that learner anxiety occurs in speaking (especially in public) due to lack of confidence. Learner anxiety also occurs in taking test when the subjects worry about passing exams or getting credit.

Factor 3 with 6 items (28, 33, 35, 36, 45, and 46) was named *International Orientation* (see 6.3.1). This implies that these learners do not necessarily possess integrative motivation but motivation with an international orientation. In other words, they learn English neither as a school subject nor for integrative reasons towards English-speaking cultures, but rather to be internationally-minded persons who are able to communicate with foreigners in English using English as a communication tool. Factor 4 received loadings from five items (18, 19, 20, 21, and 22) and was labelled as *effort*. They seem to possess their own learning strategies to some extent. In other words, learners seem to deploy various learning/study strategies.

The pilot study revealed the necessity to revise some part of this initial questionnaire instrument. The originally hypothesised set of attributional dimensions such as the questionnaire items of attribution of failure/success and likes/dislikes (see

Items 1- 8 in the descriptive statistics of the pilot study in the Appendix 1) did not appear as a factor from this analysis. This may be because the wording of the items did affect the results or because this component consists of two different attributional dimensions (success/failure, and likes and dislikes). While some of the items dealt with attribution of success and failure (Items 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8), the rest of them dealt with attribution of likes and dislikes of learning English (Items 5, 6). I decided that the questionnaire should have focused on one dimension.

Overall, the findings from the pilot questionnaire showed that it had the possibility of becoming a much better one with some revised items and some additional items replacing inappropriate ones. As far as the rating scale was concerned, the limited number of "no response (blank)" shows that this newly developed type of 7-point rating scale (6 point and additional one) did work well. That is, the subjects might have found the space to say "*no way to answer this item*" on 7th point "*I cannot answer this question*" without being forced to respond within the 6-point rating scale even for unanswerable questions (i.e., the questions that they felt they could not answer). This scaling is totally different from that located in the middle with the words "*Neither agree, nor disagree*" often used in 5-point Likert scale such as the questionnaire survey of Gardner and Lambert (1972). It is also different from a 6-point scaling where respondents are asked to respond to any of the following: *strongly agree, agree, slightly agree, slightly disagree, disagree, strongly disagree* (see e.g., Schmidt et al., 1996). It is different from those batteries in the sense that respondents are allowed to mark "I cannot answer this question" for ones they really do not know the answer to.

It is beyond the scope of my present discussion to describe the pilot study's findings in detail. I can say however that generally speaking, the result of the pilot study (see the result of the factor analysis in Appendix A3) suggests that the subjects wanted to become fluent in English (especially in speaking and listening), yet they did not believe they had suitable ability to become fluent. They seemed to be confident in learning English in general, but not in oral and aural activities. They might have been disappointed with their achievements after six years of learning English in these areas. It is thus necessary to reveal further any underlying causes of this problem. Since the result of the pilot study may be peculiar to these subjects, it was decided to target a larger and more diverse subject group from several major disciplines apart from English.

8.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS OF STUDY 1

To the best of my knowledge, no similar research has been conducted that explores the motivational characteristics specifically among various non-English majored 1st year students in Japanese universities from social, cognitive, educational and psychological perspectives. The present study thus investigates the foreign language motivational components among 288 Japanese learners of English in their 1st year at university who are non-English majors. This study has the following two goals:

1) To gain insight into the construct of foreign language motivation among 1st year university non-English-major EFL learners who study English as a part of their degree requirements.

2) To use the findings as a framework for an appropriate teaching approach with a sample of these learners (Chapters 9 and 10).

8.3 SUBJECTS

As Table 4 below shows, the groups were fairly evenly distributed across six major subjects, with the largest category made up of Law majors in two universities; the smallest group was that of Economics majors. The male/female ratio was rather male dominated: 68% of the participants were male and 32% were female. Among the female participants, the number of the subjects who are majored in nursing at D University, was dominant at 51%. Repeaters who are not genuine 1st year were excluded from the study.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics for 288 Informants in Study 1

Sex:		Majors and University(location)		
Males	193	Law	A University (Kansai)	86
Females	95	Law	B University (Kyushu)	28
		Economics	B University (Kyushu)	36
		Science	A University (Kansai)	42
		Engineering	C University (Hokuriku)	47
		Nursing	D University (Hokuriku)	49
Total	288	Total		288

8.4 METHODOLOGY

8.4.1 *Materials*

In developing the questionnaire, I took the following points into consideration. First of all, as I have repeatedly argued, I bore in mind that motivation is a multi-dimensional construct. Questionnaire items should thus reflect the multi-dimensional nature of motivation. Second, the social psychological aspect should not be ignored since this is a study of L2 learning which inevitably involves "an alteration in self-image, and the adoption of new social and cultural behaviours and ways of being"

(Williams, 1994, p. 77). Third, contextual issues (e.g., international orientation) should also be taken into account since the subjects are in an EFL context. Fourth, the questionnaire should reflect how the subjects perceived language learning and their past learning experiences (beliefs and attribution). Fifth, any items related to intrinsic motivation such as effort, goal, and autonomy must be included in order to answer the second research goal referred to in 8.2. Sixth, the questionnaire should be appropriate for non-English-major 1st year university students. Above all, the questionnaire must include items with an educational focus where possible, to differentiate it from AMTB, which focuses on the social psychological dimension.

The set of 50 questionnaire items (see Appendix A1) consisted of 26 original items and 24 questionnaire items and were developed with some modification on the basis of those of Miyahara, Namoto, Yamanaka, Murakami, Kinoshita, and Yamamoto (1997), Schmidt, Boraie, & Kassagby (1996), Tremblay and Gardner (1995), Little, Ridley, and Ushioda (2002), and Kimura, Nakata, & Okumura (2001) (see Tables 5 and 6). Nine items (*2, 3, 4, 8, 9, 10, 11, 17, 50*) that were in the pilot study were excluded from this study due to the above-mentioned reasons (see 8.1 above). The wording in 5 items (*1, 7, 33*) in the pilot study was changed for new versions of these items (*1, 38, 33*) in this study. Item 17 was the newly developed one for this study to create an additional anxiety dimension. Ten items (*8, 12, 35, 36, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48*) were taken from Kimura et al. (2001) in order to capture intrinsic/extrinsic motivation in the Japanese context. For the same purpose, one item (*49*) was adapted from Miyahara et al. (1997). Ten items (*13, 14, 16, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 34, 50*) were modified from Schmidt et al. (1996), mainly to

explore anxiety and effort dimension in FL motivation in the Japan context. Two items (*1, 38*) have been adapted from Tremblay and Gardner (1995) to investigate the attributional aspect in FL motivation in the Japanese context. Item *37* was taken from the questionnaire in Little, Ridley, and Ushioda (2002) to add another intelligence dimension to the belief component.

As with the pilot study, participants were asked to answer each item. In addition to the 6-point Likert Scale from "very much agree" to "never agree," the point "I cannot answer this question" was included at the end. The pilot study verified the appropriateness of using this scaling (see 8.1 above). The components of motivation in the questionnaire are shown in Table 5 below. The data was elicited during the period from April, 2000 to May of 2000.

The questionnaire item components were the following: 8 items on *attribution*, 3 items on *self-confidence*, 6 items on *anxiety*, 5 items on *effort*, 6 items on *goal*, 4 items on *autonomy*, 4 items on *international orientation*, 6 items on *belief*, 4 items on *intrinsic motivation*, and 5 items on *extrinsic motivation*.

Table 5. Categories of Questionnaire for Study 1

Categories	N of items
Attribution	8
Self-confidence	3
Anxiety	6
Effort	5
Goal	6
Autonomy	4
International orientation	4
Belief	6
Intrinsic motivation	4
Extrinsic motivation	4
	total 50

8.4.2 *Statistical Analysis Procedure*

The questionnaire was administered under the supervision of the participants' English teachers, who kindly agreed to cooperate in the study.

On completion of the data collection, descriptive statistics examining the mean and standard deviations were computed for all the questionnaire items to eliminate skewed items with ceiling and floor effects. It should be noted that the discussion which follows discusses the items in their English translations. Items with mean scores plus or minus SD (standard deviation) over the 1-6 scaling, were considered to have a ceiling effect and a floor effect. Items over the 6 scaling had a ceiling effect (respondents strongly thought so) and thus are right-skewed. Items under 1 scaling had a floor effect (respondents disagreed strongly with the items) and thus are left-skewed. The left-skewed items, or the items to which the participants responded extremely negatively were: Item 12 (*I feel uncomfortable if I am named in class and have to answer the question in English*), Item 28 (*My goal of learning English is to actually use English in my life such as for work, travel, and communicating throughout the world*), and Item 39 (*I believe I can communicate with native speakers of English if I make a proper effort*).

The right-skewed items were Item 6 (*I don't like learning English because I could not find any good reason for doing so*), Item 7 (*I don't like learning English because I was scolded by an English teacher in the past),* Items 9 (*I feel confident in speaking English*), and Item 11 (*I am not good at pronunciation*). The participants responded to these items to an extremely positive degree. Thus, these seven skewed items were excluded from further analysis. The statistical analysis was conducted using *Statistica 4.1J* (1999).

Table 6. Questionnaire (Study 1) with Overall Means and Standard Deviations (N=288)

#	Questionnaire Items	Mean	S.D.
Attribution			
1	I like learning English because I have made effort in the past.	3.866	1.430
2	I like learning English because of my good grades.	4.240	1.464
3	I don't like learning English because I cannot speak English well.	3.444	1.543
4	I like learning English because it is enjoyable for me.	3.796	1.419
5	I don't like learning English because of the grammar-focused teaching I experienced in the past.	3.339	1668
**6	I don't like learning English because I cannot find any good reason for doing so.	4.560	1.579
**7	I don't like learning English because I was scolded by an English teacher in the past.	5.271	1.208
8	I like learning English because I was taught by a good English teacher in the past.	3.913	1.667
Self-confidence			
**9	I feel confident speaking English.	5.316	0.919
10	I am good at learning English.	4.453	1.321
**11	I am good at pronunciation.	4.953	1.166
Anxiety			
*12	I feel uncomfortable if I am named in class and have to answer the question in English.	2.242	1.384
13	It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in English.	2.540	1.404
14	I am afraid that other students will laugh at me when I speak.	3.604	1.538
15	I worry about test results whenever I take a test.	2.621	1.432
16	I think I can learn English well, but I don't perform well in test and exams.	3.752	1.238
17	I feel lost in the English class when the teacher speaks fast in English.	2.758	1.406
Effort			
18	When I don't do well on a test, I go back over it to make sure I understand everything.	3.845	1.235
19	I arrange my schedule to make sure that I keep up with my English class.	3.346	1.323
20	I always try to evaluate my progress in learning English.	4.241	1.152
21	When studying for a test, I try to determine which concepts I don't understand well.	3.242	1.376
22	I learn from my mistakes in using English by trying to understand the reasons for them.	3.390	1.375
Goal			
23	My goal of learning English is to pass the class exam.	3.982	1.481
24	My goal of learning English is to get a qualification (official evidence of English proficiency) such as the STEP TEST***, TOEFL, or TOEIC.	4.297	1.394
25	My goal of learning English is to perform well at school and get good scores on tests.	4.007	1.451
26	My goal of learning English is to master how to learn English.	4.080	1.310
27	My goal of learning English is to establish my own style of learning English.	4.169	1.291
*28	My goal of learning English is to actually use English in my life such as for work, travel and communicating with people throughout the world.	2.340	1.438
Autonomy			
29	I am good at setting goals for my learning English.	3.576	1.422
30	I have my own style of learning English.	3.960	1.329
31	I have a clear goal for learning English.	3.512	1.559
32	I feel in control over my learning of English.	3.448	1.320
International Orientation			
33	I would like to make a lot of friends overseas.	2.735	1.412
34	Most of my favourite actors and musicians are either British or American.	4.311	1.507
35	I long for American or British culture.	3.359	1.613
36	I would like to make American or British friends.	2.815	1.469
Language learning Belief			
37	Intelligence is something you are born with and cannot change.	4.371	1.369
38	The most important ingredient in learning English is my overall language ability.	3.511	1.445
*39	I believe I can communicate with native speakers of English if I make a proper effort.	2.146	1.167

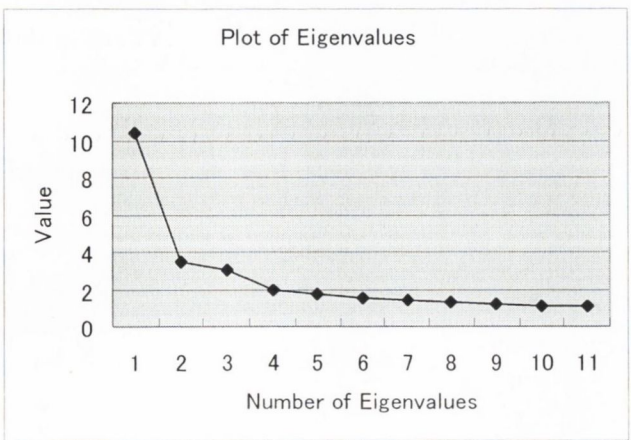
40	Communicating in English should not be so difficult since I can speak my native language: Japanese.	2.697	1.332
41	I believe everyone has the ability to master a foreign language.	2.174	1.173
42	It is too late to master spoken English since I have been taught mainly grammatical rules.	4.449	1.282
Intrinsic Motivation			
43	I study English because I like it.	3.620	1.500
44	I feel satisfaction when I am learning English.	3.735	1.447
45	I wish I could learn English without going to school.	2.737	1.481
46	I want to continue studying English for the rest of my life.	3.169	1.499
Extrinsic Motivation			
47	I am learning English because English is a compulsory subject for me.	3.557	1.496
48	The main reason I need to learn English is to pass examinations.	3.372	1.406
49	I am learning English because English is a must for Japanese people in the global community.	2.375	1.178
50	Learning English is important to me since it broadens my view.	2.412	1.280

***Floor effects;**
****Ceiling effects;**
*****The Standard Test of English Proficiency which has been officially organised by the Japanese Ministry of Education and Science as a reliable test of English proficiency.**

8.4.3 *Results*

A Cronbach's alpha was computed for 43 items and a satisfactory score of .828 was obtained. There are several criteria for determining the number of factors (StatSoft, Inc., 2004). One is the Kaiser criterion that we retain only factors with eigenvalues greater than 1. Another is the scree test. In this study, the eigenvalue result and its scree plot (below) were first used to predict the number of factors, which was chosen to be that where the plot levels off to a linear decreasing pattern.

Table 7. Scree Plot of Eigenvalues (Study 1) (see also Appendix A4)



However, the first technique sometimes retains too many factors, while the second method sometimes retains too few. StatSoft, Inc (2004), therefore, raises an additional important aspect: the extent to which a solution is interpretable. They argue that in practice, one usually examines several solutions with more or fewer factors, and chooses the one that makes the best "sense." In this study, the final decision on deciding the number of factors was made on the basis of the results of scree plot (see Table 7 above) and of several attempts at rotating 4, 5, and 6 factors by *varimax* and *quartimax*. Factor analysis of 5 factors with *varimax* rotation was considered to be appropriate for explaining the components. Using the principal component procedure (see Appendix A4) and *varimax* rotation, five factors were extracted. Table 8 shows the factor matrix with a loading greater than .50 as a criterion of factor salience, communalities *(h2)* (the proportion of a variable's variance explained by a factor structure), and eigenvalues. These factors accounted for 48.28 % of the variance in the 43 items. The factor loadings threshold was set at above 0.5. Tanaka (1996, p. 242) suggests that a factor loading (at least above 0. 4) is necessary in order to compensate errors of sampling and measurement. Gardner (2001, p. 258) also suggests one should set a factor loading threshold at 0.3 if the sample size were 100 or more, and 0.4 or 0.5 if it were less.

Table 8. Factor Analysis of Orientation Items: Principal Component Analysis with Varimax Rotation (Study 1) (N=288)

#	Questionnaire Items	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	*h2*
F1: Autonomy/Intrinsic Motivation (Chronbach's alpha = .920)							
1	I like learning English because I have made effort in the past.	**.681**	-.053	-.023	-.186	.136	**.521**
2	I like learning English because of my good grades.	**.646**	-.260	-.105	-.246	.085	**.565**
4	I like learning English because it is enjoyable for me.	**.701**	.208	.026	-.137	.216	**.602**

10	I am good at learning English.	**.694**	-.033	.000	-.321	-.004	**.586**
18	When I don't do well in a test, I go back over it to make sure I understand everything.	**.699**	.611	.109	.164	.010	**.532**
19	I arrange my schedule to make sure that I keep up with my English class.	**.672**	-.032	.132	.273	.057	**.549**
20	I always try to evaluate my progress in learning English.	**.627**	.018	.007	.186	.085	**.436**
21	When studying for a test, I try to determine which concepts I don't understand well.	**.646**	.062	.239	.065	.025	**.484**
22	I learn from my mistakes in using English by trying to understand the reasons for them.	**.719**	.030	.219	.017	-.089	**.575**
29	I am good at setting goals for my learning English.	**.630**	.066	.224	.003	.167	**.480**
30	I have my own style of learning English.	**.704**	-.008	.003	-.121	.128	**.527**
31	I have a clear goal of learning English.	**.507**	.063	.398	-.074	.201	**.466**
32	I feel in control over my learning of English.	**.641**	.670	.192	-.166	.091	**.489**
43	I study English because I like it.	**.652**	.241	.156	-.192	.326	**.651**
44	I feel satisfaction when I am learning English.	**.659**	.152	.174	-.119	.357	**.630**
F2: Instrumental Motivation (Chronbach's alpha = .802)							
23	My goal of learning English is to pass the class exam.	-.324	**-.644**	-.244	.081	-.075	**.593**
24	My goal of learning English is to get a qualification (official evidence of English proficiency) such as the STEP TEST, TOEFL, or TOEIC.	.206	**-.599**	.980	-.028	.004	**.412**
25	My goal of learning English is to perform well at school and get good scores on tests.	-.132	**-.766**	-.185	.043	-.082	**.648**
47	I am learning English because English is a compulsory subject for me.	-.386	**-.533**	-.291	.114	-.154	**.580**
48	The main reason I need to learn English is to pass examinations.	-.265	**-.737**	-.111	.114	-.129	**.657**
F3: Language Learning Belief (Chronbach's alpha = .435)							
40	Communicating in English should not be so difficult since I can speak native language: Japanese.	.209	-.012	**.606**	-.068	.030	**.417**
41	I believe everyone has the ability to master a foreign language.	.122	-.010	**.668**	.023	.012	**.463**
42	It is too late to master spoken English since I have been taught mainly grammatical rules.	-.035	-.200	**-.574**	.381	-.037	**.519**
46	I want to continue studying English for the rest of my life.	.409	.197	**.513**	.030	.349	**.593**
50	Learning English is important to me since it broadens my view.	.330	.044	**.624**	.058	.354	**.629**
F4: Language Use Anxiety (Chronbach's alpha = .671)							
3	I don't like learning English because I cannot speak English well.	-.133	-.251	.029	**.547**	.547	**.385**
13	It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in English.	-.010	-.126	-.124	**.610**	-.089	**.409**
14	I am afraid that other students will laugh at me when I speak.	.122	.026	-.256	**.536**	-.007	**.371**
15	I worry about test results whenever I take a test.	-.088	.017	.063	**.566**	.566	**.335**
17	I feel lost in the English class when the teacher speaks fast in English	-.114	-.058	.030	**.614**	-.001	**.393**
F5: International Orientation (Chronbach's alpha = .766)							
33	I would like to make a lot of friends overseas.	.216	.139	.251	.105	**.736**	**.682**
34	Most of my favourite actors and musicians are either British or American.	.065	-.088	.043	-.109	**.571**	**.353**
35	I long for American or British culture.	.169	.079	-.023	.026	**.723**	**.560**
36	I would like to make American or British friends.	.228	.124	.167	.111	**.763**	**.691**

Eigenvalue	**10.40**	**3.58**	**3.06**	**1.96**	**1.74**	
Percentage of Variance	**24.20**	**8.32**	**7.11**	**4.57**	**4.05**	
Cumulative Percentage of the Total Variance	**24.20**	**32.52**	**39.64**	**44.22**	**48.28**	

(Eigenvalue: the variance in a set of variables explained by a factor or component)

* In the case of orthogonal rotation (for example, Varimax), the factor loadings are simply correlations of the variables with that factor, and the factor is just a weighted aggregate of all the variables (see Gardner, 2001, pp.239-242). When all the factor loadings for Factor 2 are negative (see also the case of Factor 3 in Appendix A3), this simply means that all the factor loadings for this factor gathered together on the other side of the reference axes. It does not necessarily mean that we can interpret it as absence of instrumental motivation. When the factor loadings for a factor are mixed (that is, some are positive and some negative), it means that there are some reverse directivity in that factor. (This is based on my personal communications with Professor. Tetsuji Amane, Department of Psychology, Hyogo University of Teacher Education, and Ms. Mami Totani, SPSS Japan, Inc).

As we see in the above table, Factor 1 received appreciable loading from as many as 15 variables, the largest component of language learning motivation for this population. And as is shown in Table 8, this factor includes several elements, making it rather difficult to label in a single manner. Three variables (items 1, 2, 4) relate to good language learning experiences, while others (18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 29, 30, 31, 32) concern autonomy relating to strategy, effort, and goal. Still others (10, 43, 44) belong to intrinsic motivation. This largest motivational factor (F1) in foreign language learning among Japanese EFL students is indeed complex. It has intrinsic as well as autonomous characteristics. These variables suggest that the learners who have good language learning experiences are intrinsically motivated, and, therefore, potentially autonomous in certain types of language learning activities. We should of course be cautious about intrinsically motivated/autonomous characteristics appearing here because this may be partly due to learning experiences for the university entrance exam. Furthermore, autonomy and intrinsic motivation seems to strongly overlap and to be related. This is evidence for the discussion in 4.4. Factor 1 supports studies showing that motivation and learner autonomy go hand in hand (Benson & Voller, 1997; Dickinson, 1995; Ushioda, 1996a).

Thus, this factor can be defined as *Autonomy/Intrinsic Motivation* (see characteristics in 4.4).

Factor 2 loaded distinctly with 5 variables (23, 24, 25, 47, 48), all of which relate to an *instrumental orientation* of learning English. Therefore, this factor can be summarised as *Instrumental motivation,* as Gardner and Lambert (1972) noted. This shows that in the EFL context, where there is no target culture to integrate with, instrumental motivation is rather important. We cannot deny, however, the possibility that aspects of extrinsic motivation as well as instrumental motivation can become intrinsic when internalised within learners (see discussion in 4.4.2). In this sense, I believe this motivational component is not necessarily a negative component for language learning.

Factor 3 obtained appreciable loadings from five variables (40, 41, 42, 46, 50) which all seem to be associated with beliefs about language learning. Most items (40, 41, 44, 46, 50) have positive loading values, indicating learners' belief that they "can, must, and want to master English," whereas Item 42, with its negative loading value, implies a belief in the uncertainty of mastering spoken English because of past learning experiences. In other words, the subjects would *like* to study English, they think they *need* to study it and want to be able to master it, although they wonder if they really can master spoken English. Only Item 42 has a negative factor loading, and also lower internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) of this factor. Considering the content of this item, however, it should be interpreted as being valid in the other direction. Therefore, this factor can be called *Language Learning Belief.* It leads me to infer that subjects have self-confidence in mastering English, with a slight worry about being fluent in speaking

due to their previous language learning experiences, and thus perhaps would like to continue to study the language for themselves. Clearly, learning English here does not imply the type required for the university entrance exams (memorising grammatical rules, vocabulary etc.), but rather that needed for developing communication skills in English.

Factor 4 was characterised with heavy loadings of Items, 3, 13, 14, 15, and 17 which all are concerned with anxiety in language learning. Except for one variable, which shows test anxiety (15), this factor is dominated by variables relating to oral/aural anxiety in the classroom, and is probably more focused on speaking (3, 13, 14) than listening (17). Following the criterion defined by Dörnyei (1994b, p. 280), it makes sense to summarise this factor as *Language Use Anxiety*. These learners appear to be worried about speaking. This may be *social anxiety*, since they are potentially worried about losing face in public. As discussed in Chapter 6, this is related to culture: Confucian thought makes losing face extremely humiliating. Factors 3 and 4 suggest that although the subjects believe they can master English, they are a little anxious about becoming fluent in English due to their past English learning experiences. Although they potentially have a favorable attitude toward learning English, they worry about making any mistakes, especially in speaking.

Finally, Factor 5 is mostly defined by variables relating to the appreciable loading obtained from four variables (33, 34, 35, 36), implying a positive attitude toward English-speaking cultures (British or American) (34, 35, 36), with the additional element of Item 33 which does not specify English-speaking cultures but rather contains a feeling of an international outlook. Judging from the characteristics of these two mixed elements and from an EFL context like Japan, it is appropriate to name this component

International Orientation. Factor 5 revealed learners' interest toward *international orientation*. As already mentioned, since there is little target culture to integrate into for Japanese learners of English, the *integrative motivation* Gardner and Lambert (1972) noted was not an appropriate term for the component including Item 33 (*make a lot of friends overseas*). This result is consistent with my earlier studies (Nakata, 1995a, 1995b) and Yashima (2000). I named such a factor *international orientation* (Nakata, 1995a, 1995b), while Yashima (2000) named a similar component as *intercultural friendship* or *international posture*. In this study, I retain the term *international orientation*.

Summarising the results of this quantitative study, it can be said that Japanese 1st year university students do have motivation to learn English. It is based on their belief that they can master it in spite of a slight worry about not becoming fluent in spoken English. In addition to this long-term goal, they do have a short-term goal which is instrumental, and relates to English exams or other qualifications.

8.5 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The research findings from this large sample of Japanese EFL learners using this quantitative approach give rise to several pictures of language learning motivation. Moreover, the data I obtain here proves rather useful for my further longitudinal/qualitative study (Study 2) in choosing further sample subjects and focusing on themes in the teaching project.

The first research question of this study was designed to gain insight into the

motivational construct of 1st year university non-English-major EFL learners who have to study English as a part of their degree requirements. The characteristics of these learners can be summarised thus: they liked learning the language in general and studied by themselves especially for intrinsic purposes. But when it comes to learning English as part of their developing communication skills in the L2, they were uncertain about mastering spoken English, and they felt anxiety in oral/aural activities, although they wanted to be able to communicate with foreigners. The study showed that they possessed intrinsic motivation. However, the type of intrinsic motivation that appeared here was not only to do with self-determination theory (see 4.4.2) but also with social constructivism (see 5.1.4). Indeed, the questionnaire items that appeared in Factor 1 were based on self-determination theory. In general, the subjects seemed to have the self-determination to learn English and to be intrinsically motivated. As I have already argued, however, learning English here may mean learning it for university entrance exams. This is mainly because they have experienced learning for such exams. We can also say that they did not have intrinsic motivation to interact with the social world. Students seem to have intrinsic motivation in language learning in general, maybe because they have been successful — at least in studying for their university entrance exam — and thus they are confident at least about that. Drawing on this finding I shall carefully trace how this factor changes its shape through learning experiences during the teaching project (see Chapters 9 and 10).

The second research question of this study was to find a framework for an appropriate teaching approach in the teaching project that was for a sample of these learners. This factor analytic study showed five motivational components:

autonomy/intrinsic motivation, instrumental motivation, language learning beliefs, language use anxiety, and *international orientation*. These five factors were deemed suitable for use as the themes I focus on in the longitudinal/qualitative study (see Chapters 9 and 10).

As far as the methodology of this study is concerned, it can be said that it yielded more credible data than my previous studies (Nakata, 1995a, 1995b; Kimura, Nakata, & Okumura, 2001). The newly developed Likert scale (6-point scale and an additional point) did provide purer data than the results using a 5-point Likert scale where the middle point is rather confusing for the respondents; or a 6-point Likert scale in which the respondents must force their feelings into just 6 categories. This new scaling gave the respondents a chance to leave an item they could not answer. In addition, some revisions from the pilot study made the measurement more valid and reliable.

Two words of caution, however, should be borne in mind. First, as already known, this type of factor analysis is an exploratory research method. Thus, the interpretation of the research results can more or less be made based on the interpreter's subjective view. However, since I took every necessary step for this analysis and carefully interpreted the result, I believe I was able to capture a broad picture of the subjects' motivational characteristics. Second, the study was conducted in a one-shot manner. Studies that employ Likert-type scales and factor analysis are beneficial in allowing a focus on particular characteristics of motivation and in providing characteristic similarities across a large number of learners (Schumann, 1998, p. 181). I therefore further undertook a longitudinal/qualitative study (Study 2) to look at the *time* aspect of motivation (see the

next chapter). As already argued in Chapter 7, a longitudinal /qualitative study can make up for the shortcomings of a factor analytic study.

Finally, I would again like to draw attention to the connection between Study 1, the teaching project, and Study 2. The result of Study 1 suggested that university level Japanese learners of English possess potential intrinsic motivation to learn the language. That is, their motivation in learning English has not burnt out. In contrast, the study also indicated that they feel anxiety about using the target language. This gave me food for thought in developing the teaching project and to some extent in choosing the subjects for Study 2. I had to select from the members of the class: those learners whose intrinsic motivation had the potential to develop, once they had been exposed to a new learning approach. I consider the group I targeted for the teaching project quite appropriate, since most of the learners in this institution (A university, see Table 4) seem to have gone through all of the rote-memorisation, grammar-translation, and long-text reading needed to pass the entrance examination of that university. Thus, the characteristics of these learners were taken into account in my teaching approach in the project (see 9.2.1).

Chaper 9 that follows explains the methodology used in the teaching project and in the ensuing study of 5 learners. The perspective taken from now on is qualitative and longitudinal.

CHAPTER 9

THE TEACHING PROJECT, SUBJECTS AND METHODOLOGY OF STUDY 2

9.0 INTRODUCTION

In Study 1 (Chapter 8), I explored the multi-dimensional nature of motivation. In this chapter, I summarise the teaching project, and then describe subjects, and research methodology of Study 2, a longitudinal/qualitative study involving 5 learners who took part in the project.

First though, I'll contextualise the discussion. Several qualitative studies of language learning motivation have recently been published (e.g., Ushioda, 2001; Nikolov, 2001; Williams, Burden, & Al-Baharna, 2001). However, these studies have not taken contextual and situational factors into consideration, nor have they used multiple sources of data. Moreover, they generally use only one type of research tool: two interviews (Ushioda, 2001), one interview (Nikolov, 2001), one open-ended questionnaire and one semi-structured interview (Williams et al., 2001). The numbers of subjects in these studies were relatively large (20 for Ushioda, 94 for Nikolov, and 29 teachers and 25 students for Williams et al.). Two of the studies (Ushioda, 2001; Williams et al., 2001) employed a coding technique and tried to explore motivation using frequency of numbers. However, when targeting only a small number of selected subjects, as in my study, this may not be an appropriate technique. Indeed, I suggest that a qualitative study that

investigates the dynamic aspects of motivation must explore motivational changes using various sources of data over time, focusing on subjects who have different learning experiences accumulated within the educational system in a particular context.

First I give the background to, and the summary of the teaching project (9.2). Then, I describe the research goals of Study 2, the subjects, and the research tools (9.3). They include two closed questionnaires, two types of open-ended questionnaires, and interviews (see 7.3). Data obtained from observing the video tapes that I made of the subjects' oral presentations are also used as supporting evidence to investigate the anxiety levels of the 5 learners during their oral performance. I expected that, through their learning experience in the teaching project, these learners would be able to express their opinions in writing, and hopefully in speaking, and thereby increase their intrinsic motivation. As Dewey (1916, p. 76) notes, we can directly change the quality of the learning experiences as long as an activity is educational.

9.1 THE TEACHING PROJECT, April 2000 – January 2001

9.1.1 *Theoretical Background of the Teaching Project*

This section gives the background of the teaching project (see too Chapter 7). Here, I discuss the teaching project both from the learner's and teacher's point of view. In other words, my focus is on the interaction between the teacher and learners and on the effect that the classroom environment (including the learning activities) has on the learners' motivation (see 5.5 for *two levels of intrinsic motivation*).

As I noted in Chapter 6, Japanese learners of English have been exposed to

teacher-centred and rote-memorisation oriented types of teaching. As a teacher, I believe that they need to be exposed to a learner-centred approach and be part of a learner-centred experience. What I mean by a learner-centred experience is that they should be provided with opportunities to express themselves in English, to communicate with others in English in a way that is both meaningful to them and also non-face threatening/less anxiety-provoking. And as I discussed in 5.2.2, computer-mediated collaborative learning is a particularly appropriate means for providing such opportunities. I believe, however, that this approach must be introduced in a context-sensitive way.

The main purpose of this teaching project was to promote learner autonomy, a concept I discussed in 4.4.3. I aimed to promote learner autonomy following the three principles proposed by Little (2001): *learner empowerment, reflectivity,* and *appropriate target language use*. My teaching project however took an *implicit* rather than an *explicit* approach. I allowed the learners to select topics according to their interest. This was my starting point for them to start to take responsibility for their own learning. I also gave them opportunities to reflect on their learning, not explicitly (e.g., by using diaries or a portofolio) but implicitly. I expected that, by giving them the opportunities of self-expression and exchanging opinions, they might naturally reflect on their learning. I also encouraged them to express opinions and exchange their opinions in English using computers and also in their oral presentation at the end of the project, when I thought they were ready for it. Above all, the participants were not informed of the fact that one of the purposes of the teaching project was to promote their developing sense of autonomy. This is what I mean an *implicit* approach.

As I argued in 4.4.3, an *implicit* approach, in which (the teacher ensures that the learning activities in the classroom provide opportunities for learner autonomy to flourish), was appropriate for the subjects of this study who had been exposed to a teacher-centred approach for many years. In the early motivational development of such learners, this may be more beneficial because they can naturally develop their intrinsic motivation. Through the experiences of choosing their theme topic of using the target language, and discussing the selected theme via computers with others sharing the same interest, it was hoped they would naturally find such learning fun and meaningful, that they might develop intrinsic motivation, and as a result they may become more autonomous learners. This is what I mean by an *implicit* approach. And hopefully, as a result of this, we could say that using the social interaction, their intrinsic motivation was *tapped into* (see 5.5.1).

Another important purpose of this project was to promote intrinsic motivation (I see the project from a learner's point of view here). Blumenfeld, Soloway, Marx, Krajcik, Guzdial, and Palinscar (1991) suggest that in order to capitalise on students' intrinsic motivation, teachers should introduce project-based learning. The project should be relatively long-term, problem-focused, and should include meaningful units of instruction that integrate concepts from a number of disciplines or fields of study. According to Brophy (1998), within such a framework, students can "pursue solutions to authentic problems by asking and refining questions, debating ideas, making predictions, designing plans or experiments, collecting and analysing data, drawing conclusions, communicating their ideas and findings to others, asking new questions and creating

products" (p. 151). The effect of project-based learning will be maximised when motivational features such as the following are incorporated:

> tasks are varied and include novel elements, problems are authentic and challenging, students exercise choice in deciding what to do and how to do it, they collaborate with peers in carrying out the work, and the work leads to closure in the from of production of the final product. (Brophy, 1998, p. 151)

My teaching project included those features to a great extent.

It was conducted between April, 2000 and January, 2001. It involved a class I taught of 47 students. I designated the period from April 2000 to September 2000 as the "readiness period", in which my students practised writing strategies and computer literacy; and the period from February 2001 to May 2001 (when the interviews with five learners took place). I called this the post-project period, during which time I investigated the carry-over effect of the project from the point of view of learner motivation.

The specific purpose of the teaching project was to provide class members with opportunities for: cooperative work, freedom of choice of topics for discussion, self-expression both in writing and speaking, social-interaction, group discussion, computer-mediated learning, and essay writing and oral presentations (in which they spoke about their chosen topic). The list of topics from which they could choose were: *smoking, school uniforms, legalised gambling, city life, informing patients of cancer, social security, coeducation, corporal punishment, organ transplant, civil disobedience, abortion, censorship, equality of the sexes, foreign aid, divorce, compulsory military service, voluntary euthanasia, capital punishment, trade protectionism,* and *nuclear*

power. As discussed already in 4.3.3, the opportunity of discussing interesting themes can help the learners feel autonomous (Stryker & Leaver, 1997), it can promote social interaction (Legutke & Thomas, 1991), and can help groups become more cohesive. Although most of these activities were done during the second semester (from October 2000 to January 2001), I considered the readiness period to be part of the teaching project. In fact, the readiness period played a crucial role in the project since the effect of such an approach can be maximised only when learners have obtained a certain level of competence in writing strategies as well as confidence. Ueki, Kiyokawa, Iwao, and Ichikawa (2002) found that with a certain preparation period to get them accustomed to the media and cooperative learning, students were able to concentrate on self-regulated activity in a theme-oriented study and develop their self-regulation skills. That is why I considered the whole academic year (from April, 2000 to January 2001) as the teaching project period.

Discussions between learners using writing through a web-network can be beneficial in many ways. First, using an electronic bulletin (e-bulletin) board for discussing themes can enhance social interaction. Paramaskas (1995, p. 30) stresses the significance of e-bulletin boards as useful tools for augmenting student interaction and collaboration. Through the e-bulletin board, learners learn a language by understanding others' ideas, expressing their ideas, exchanging ideas, and communicating with each other, and constructing knowledge together. Smith (2003) stresses the value of synchronous computer-mediated communication as an ideal interactive medium for students: "the written nature of computer-based discussions allows a greater opportunity

to attend to and reflect upon the form and content of the message" (p. 39). It can be even more effective when they discuss mutually interesting themes. The discourse-related demand in the process of exchanging ideas in a network-based situation may develop an awareness of practical aspects of language use (Sengupta, 2001, p. 105-106). Discussions using the Internet also allow writers to express their opinions on a particular topic with their classmates in and outside of the classroom, or with other learners in different institutions.

Second, learners, especially in an EFL context, can benefit from having time in which to read what others write, and to think, write, and express their opinions in their own way and at their own pace. Being able to write at their own pace may also reduce their anxiety about expressing themselves in the target language, since writing is, of course, different from speaking which requires a spontaneous response. Additionally, computer-mediated communication can contribute to the reduction of their anxiety (Beauvois, 1999). In the case of such learning through Web-based interaction, what learners write can be permanently recorded and revisited, rethought, revised, discussed, or argued over (Sengupta, 2001, p. 104-105). Thus, providing adequate time is an advantage of Web-based classrooms, as learners get more time to think, to phrase responses, and to participate (Sullivan & Pratt, 1996).

Third, such a learning environment can provide learners with chances to improve their writing skills. Shen (1999, p. 1) found that autonomy, free space, and computer-assisted writing does to some extent ease learners' anxiety in writing and helps them improve output both in quantity and quality. Shen's study showed that learners'

writing skills were enhanced in three aspects: topic generation, clarification of meaning, and peer editing of structure, and lexis.

Fourth, in a computer laboratory where there is an authentic writing environment and less pressure on learners, they become more confident in their writing and are more motivated to write than in a traditional writing class (Shen, 1999, p. 4). This may be because of the convenience of revision possibilities, the relaxed atmosphere, and self-generated, interesting topics (Shen, 1999, p. 4).

In her study, Shen (1999, p. 4) provides some plausible evidence of this approach. In a Web-based writing project, learners exhibited the following characteristics: they started to take the initiative, to construct and expand on topics. They also were more efficient in discourse management than in the traditional writing classroom, and they developed the ability to give feedback to others. And they also acquired sociolinguistic competence in greeting and leave-taking, requesting confirmation, and giving clarification.

In the second semester of my teaching project (from October 2000 to January 2001), groups of 4-6 learners participated in discussion forums on the Web-based electronic bulletin board. In other words, they used the e-bulletin board to discuss their topic. Their chosen topics were also used for their oral presentations. I was careful to tell my learners not to worry about accuracy, such as grammatical errors, but to focus on fluency or intelligibility during the writing process on the e-board. Asao (1995) found that lack of motivation on the part of students in writing courses is largely a result of overwhelming emphasis on accuracy. I also informed the learners that I was not going to

correct any grammatical errors that I noticed on what I saw on the e-board; this was based on my belief that learners' experience of communicating with each other is more important than giving them grammatical feedback. Since they are struggling to produce comprehensible output, we should not interrupt their valuable experiences and the challenge of producing language. It should be noted that I could access and read what they wrote on the e-bulletin board.

I must state again here that the sudden introduction of such a project is not appropriate for learners who have been exposed only to a teacher-centred approach for a long time. Writing strategy and computer skill training were therefore prerequisites for my teaching project. I hypothesised that, after receiving such training, my learners would be ready for writing activities in the teaching project (using computers) and would have some confidence in self-expression (at least in writing) in the second semester. This is crucial, because without such training and confidence in writing, some learners may not be able to fully develop their research and self-expression skills. And without some level of computer skills, they may not be able to express their opinions using computers. This view is consistent with the assumption of the *WTC* model (MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998), that willingness to communicate in the L2 can be promoted when learners already have self-confidence and communicative competence. Littlewood (1996, p. 428) also convincingly argues that willingness depends on having both the *motivation* and the *confidence* to take responsibility for the choices required. In their study of EFL learners in Hong Kong, Spratt, Humphreys, and Chan (2002, p. 245) further conclude that teachers need to ensure motivation before they train their students to become autonomous,

since motivation can influence the extent to which learners are ready to learn autonomously. Thus, I considered that in this particular period of the project, the teacher had to play a role rather like a controller directing what learners do, since the purpose of teaching in this period was developing learners' writing skills for the project. As a teacher, I had the responsibility of developing their writing skills required to express and exchange their opinions on the Web-based e-bulletin board for the project (in the second semester). Brophy (1998) supports this type of approach:

> Teachers using project-based learning need to make sure that students possess whatever subject-matter knowledge and research skills are required to complete their projects successfully, that the projects cause students to learn key ideas and skills in the process of carrying out, and that students view the projects as authentic and value the projects they create. (p. 151)

9.1.2 *The Teaching Approach for an Academic Year (from April 2000 to January 2001)*

Now I would like to describe my teaching approach during the whole academic year (April 2000 to January 2001). The textbook *Developing Writing Strategies* (Kitao & Kitao, 1995) was used throughout in order to develop learners' writing skills. In the first semester, in addition to this textbook, a textbook called *5-Minute Quizzes for TOEIC* (Kimura, Johansson, & Kimura, 1994) was used in order to develop the learners' listening ability for the end-of course listening test. In the first semester, the following strategies were studied: *sentence combining*, *making referents clear, using connectors*, *parts of paragraphs and essays*, *types of organisation (illustration*, *classification*, *cause and effect*, *comparison and contrast, opinion)*, *topic sentences*, *irrelevant sentences*, and *outlining*. I

further taught *the organisation of an introduction, discussion and conclusion in paragraphs and essays*, *topic sentence*, and *using the right connectors*, in advance of the teaching project in the first semester. The final exam of the first semester also tested the acquisition level of these skills. In the second semester, the strategies covered included *choosing the right word*, *readability, parallel, constructions*, *using verb tenses correctly*, *emphasis*, *conciseness*, *persuasion, figures of speech*, *abstract and concrete writing*, *writing about time*, and *acts and opinions*. Each lesson lasted for 90 minutes. Half of this time was used for working on the text book, while the rest of the time was devoted to the project work. 47 students were in the class, which was held in the 3rd period (13:10 – 14:40) on Mondays.

From here on, I would like to focus on the teaching project in the second semester, during which the computer-mediated group project was carried out in the second semester (from October 2000 to January 2001). I shall first explain how I evaluated their performance and determined their final grades. Prior to the teaching project (in the 1st lesson of the second semester at the beginning of October 2000), I told my learners that I would give them final grades according to the test result of their final written exam, and also on their performance in the teaching project. I told them that, different from the traditional grading system of focusing mostly on test results, their effort and learning process on the project will also be evaluated.

In the project, *mastery goals* as well as *performance goals* were emphasised (see 4.4.1), and I expected that this would naturally contribute to their motivational enhancement toward the project. Less proficient learners can develop some level of

self-efficacy. They can make an effort even with limited language proficiency, and thus can believe "they can do it," since their effort will be rewarded in the evaluation. And even proficient learners will not be bored, since they must contribute to the group project and do not have to wait for their last effort just before the exam. The evaluation elements for the project were: cooperation (how they helped each other), process (how appropriately they took the necessary steps), and product (group oral presentations (including Q & A and essay writing). I assured them that their written comments on the e-bulletin board would not be subject to evaluation in the form of grammatical error correction on my part. Thus they should be able to express their opinions without anxiety. I suggested however that they should discuss their topic with the others in their group as much as possible, without worrying too much about grammatical errors. I stressed that positive contributions and discussions in the forum using the e-bulletin board would be subject to evaluation. This follows Brophy (1998, p. 151), who considers that the final product represent the students' solutions to problems, organised and presented in a form that can be shared with others and critiqued. By informing them about my evaluation procedure in advance, I hoped that they would be able to work on the project without too much anxiety.

The potential drawback of the system employed in the project was that the electronic bulletin board used, called the *Alta-Vista Forum*, was only accessible via networks in the university, that is, it was not accessible to learners working with their own computers at home.

9.1.3 *Details of the Teaching Project (from October 2000 to January 2001)*

In this section, the detailed procedures of the project are explained in terms of learning both in class and outside. It is summarised in Table 9 below. In the first week, the purpose of the project, the procedure, and general evaluation guidelines were explained with the help of a handout. The evaluation guidelines emphasised process (to further *mastery goals* rather than *performance goals*, see 4.4.1) and cooperation in addition to product (oral presentation and essay), so that even learners with low self-efficacy would hopefully perceive this project as something they could manage. Guidelines using the e-bulletin board in relation to the "netiquette" (etiquette in using e-bulletin board) were also explained with a handout. Learners were provided with a list of possible topics for the project from which they had to select the one they found most interesting. If they found another interesting topic not on the list, they were allowed to discuss this with the teacher. As for the assignments, they were requested to think about the topic they would work on, and familiarise themselves with how to use the e-bulletin board.

In the 2nd week of the project, students were asked to indicate the topic they were most interested in. The average number per group was 4 or 5 students (3 was also acceptable). In cases where more than 6 students chose one topic, I divided them into separate groups of 4 or 5 students (unless they specifically wished to choose particular members). If only 1 or 2 students showed interest in a particular topic, I asked them to think of other possible topics they could be interested in. With permission from these students and from the group who would accept them, these students were added to an already established group. Negotiation between the teacher and the group was done confidentially. During this week, students started to write on the e-bulletin board,

referring to the manual on how to use it, and helping each other within the group to get onto the board. They each wrote a self-introduction, the reason why they had chosen the topic, and their position regarding whether for they were or against the issue they selected.

Table 9. Detailed Procedures of the Teaching Project

Week	My Tasks and Student Tasks in the classroom	Students' Tasks outside of the Classroom
1st week Oct, 16-	• I explained the purpose of the project and its procedure • I gave a list topics for the project • I explained the "netiquette" of the e-bulletin board (ethical issues on the Web)	• Think about the topic they will work on • Be ready to use in computers • Be familiar with using the e-bulletin board • Understand the procedure of the project
2nd week Oct, 23-	• I put learners into groups according to their interest • I explained how to use the e-bulletin board • I suggested that they helped each other in getting to know how to use the e-bulletin board in groups	• First attempt to enter the e-bulletin aboard (write self-introductions, why they chose the theme, their initial opinion about the topic)
3rd week Oct, 30-	• I suggested adding supporting details to their argument. • I suggested that they exchange their opinions using their written comments in e-bulletin board (in English)	• Support their argument by providing data of personal experience on the e-bulletin board and by researching the topic using the library and Internet • Read comments written by others on the board
4th week Nov, 6-	• The same as above	• The same as above
5th week Nov, 13-	• The same as above	• The same as above
6th week Nov, 20-	• I suggested they negotiate with others on the e-bulletin board • I suggested that they think about the outline of their essay and oral presentation and get together (if necessary)	• Put their opinions on others' written comments on the e-bulletin board • Put their opinions about the outline of the essay and presentation (if necessary)
7th week Nov, 27-	• I discussed the outline of the essay and oral presentation • I suggested they start writing their essay • I instructed them to write a conversation	• Write a conversation dialogue about the topic • Discussion on the outline and content of the paper on the e-bulletin board continues • Work on writing a dialogue of conversation

	dialogue about the topic	with 2 to 5 speakers based on their discussions on the e-bulletin board
8th week Dec, 4	• Students presented the conversation dialogue about the topic • I suggested they should express their own feelings on the e-bulletin board	• Discussions on the outline and content of the paper on the e-bulletin board continue. • Express opinions on how they felt about their performance in the dialogue
9th week Dec, 11-	• Students submitted 1st draft for their speech (oral presentation) (as a part of process writing)	• Discuss the possibilities of the paper with other members in a group on the e-bulletin board
10th week Dec, 18-	• I returned the papers with comments • Students explained some important points in presentations	• Prepare for oral presentation (memorizing, presentation practice) • Finalise the written essay
11th week Jan, 15-	• Students did their oral presentations • They submitted an essay along with an essay analysis sheet	• Prepare for oral presentation
12th week Jan, 22-	• Students did their oral presentations • They submitted an essay along with an essay analysis sheet	• Prepare for the final exam

In the 3rd week, I instructed students to exchange their opinions based on the comments they had put on the e-bulletin board. I asked them to seek other information to support their assertions. They were also required to seek necessary information outside of the classroom by using the Internet and the library, and to add this as supporting details on the e-bulletin board. They were encouraged to discuss their written comments orally in the next class. This cycle continued to the 5th week of the project.

In the 6th week, I encouraged students to post comments on what others wrote, exchange their own opinions with each other, and to continue their discussion until the argument actually finished. I also told them that they should start to think about the outline of the essay and the group presentation. They actually worked on these outside of the class during this week. They discussed the outline on the e-board in English. In the next class (7th week), they discussed the essay outline. In class, I told them to gradually

start writing their input for the group presentation, and set the 9th week of December as the deadline for the 1st draft. I also asked the participants to write conversation dialogues about the topic their English based on their discussions up until that time and present it in the next class. This dialogue conversation was to be performed by 2 to 5 speakers in each group. The purpose of this task was to provide learners opportunities to verbalise their discussions and present their opinions in public.

In the 8th week, learners presented their conversation dialogue. They were asked to write their feelings about presenting it on the e-board. Outside the class, they discussed the outline and content for the group presentation and also wrote down their feelings about the dialogue presentation. In addition, they worked together writing up the first draft. After submitting their 1st draft in the 9th week, they discussed possible revisions on the e-board outside the class. In the 10th week, the draft with the teacher's comments was returned. In this lesson, I taught them some crucial issues for oral presentations, such as emphasis, eye contact, posture, and memorisation, so that they could practice these together outside the class. After the lesson, they actually practised them while finalising the essay for the presentation. I recommended them to memorise their speech for their presentation as far as possible so that they could convey their messages to the audience with proper eye contact. I asked them to do their best, out of consideration for those who found it more difficult. In the 8th week, their conversation dialogues were presented. Students were asked to write their feelings about presenting their opinions on the e-board. Outside the class, they discussed the outline and content for the group presentation and also wrote down their feelings about the dialogue presentation. They further worked

together writing up the first draft.

In the 11th and 12th weeks, students did their oral group presentations. Their performance was videotaped. After the presentation, there was a Q & A time between presenters and audience for each group presentation. In the 11th week, those students who were planning to present in the 12th week, practised outside of the classroom. After the group presentations were done in the 11th and the 12th weeks, I explained about the final exam to be held in mid-February.

As can be seen, what the learners were required to do tied in with good teaching/learning practise that encourages the learners' interests and hopefully their motivation. These learning experiences of process writing, exchanging opinions on interesting themes with each other using a Web-based bulletin board, making output as their creative meaning construction (in writing and oral presentation), and helping each other for the group goal of an oral presentation were indeed new to most of these learners who had mainly been exposed to rote-memorisation, the grammar translation-method, and a teacher-centred approach.

9.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS OF STUDY 2: FOCUS ON FIVE LEARNERS

As discussed earlier in Chapter 6, I attempted to investigate motivational changes within a small group of learners in an environment in which there were opportunities for social interaction, cooperative learning, freedom of choice, computer-mediated communication, and oral presentation. The two main research aims of this study are now addressed:

1) To investigate how learning experiences (school and university) affect motivation
2) To investigate how intrinsic motivation changes in response to different learning experiences

Clearly the main research goal is to explore the social aspect of motivation, while the sub-research goal is to investigate individual aspects of motivation.

9.3 METHODOLOGY OF STUDY 2

9.3.1 *Subject Selection*

5 first-year university students majoring in law who took part in my teaching project participated in this study. The detailed procedure of subject selection for this study has already been discussed in 7.3. They were all from the same class in the same university, which means they would have been exposed to the same type of teaching approach. According to the guidelines discussed in 7.3, two groups were chosen for this study from among 11 groups in my class (47 students altogether). 5 learners from two groups actually participated in the study. One male and two female students came from one group (consisting of one male and three female students), while one male and two female students are taken from another group (consisting of one male and three female students).

Learners M, E, and K worked together and dealt with the topic of *corporal punishment* in Group 1, while learners D and A worked together and discussed the topic of *divorce* in Group 2. M and D were male; while the others (E, K, A) were female. All of the subjects responded to several types of questionnaire (see 7.3): an open-ended

questionnaire administered in April, 2000, a closed-questionnaire administered in April, 2000 and January, 2001, two types of open-ended questionnaire, one administered in November, 2000 and the other in January, 2001 (along with other learners in the class used for the teaching project who were not subjects for this study). Interviews were held on 21st May, 2001 with learners M and E, on 28th May, 2001 with learners D, A, K. (see Table 10 below)

Table 10. Summary of Subjects and Research Tools of Study 2

Subject	Gender	Group	Selected Topic	Questionnaire/ Administration data	Interview Date
Learner M	Male	Group 1	Corporal Punishment	1. Open-ended questionnaire (prior to the teaching project, April, 2000) 2. Closed-questionnaire (prior to the teaching project, April, 2000; also administered in Study 1) 3. Open-ended questionnaire (shortly after the beginning of the group activity (part of the teaching project), November, 2000) 4. Closed questionnaire (end of the teaching project, January, 2001) 5. Open-ended questionnaire (end of the teaching project, January, 2001)	21st May, 2001
Learner E	Female				21st May, 2001
Learner K	Female				28th May, 2001
Learner D	Male	Group 2	Divorce		28th May, 2001
Learner A	Female				28th May, 2001

9.3.2 *Data Collection*

As discussed in 7.3 (see Table 2), for this longitudinal/qualitative study, multiple data was collected using various research tools. In this section, I first explain the research focus of the study. (This will be explained in greater detail in Chapter 10.) Then, I

describe the analytical procedure of the study.

Research focus of this study

The research focus can be divided into four stages. The first stage was to gain factual background information about the subjects' proficiency level, gender, early English learning experiences, and experience of study abroad (if any). The second stage was to obtain an overview of the motivational characteristics and previous English learning experiences for each learner before he/she entered the university.

The main focus of the third stage was to answer the two major research goals of this study noted earlier. I describe each learner in terms of how his/her motivation changes and what kind of motivation he/she seems to currently have. I wanted to gain insight into: i) the extent to which the learners developed (during the year of the teaching project) their intrinsic motivation that is part of their developing autonomy, ii) any changes in their instrumental motivation (assuming they have it already), iii) any changes in attribution, self-efficacy, and anxiety or self-confidence in relation to their international orientation.

In investigating motivational changes over time, I used the questionnaires and interviews described in Table 10 above. My observation of their oral presentations (I videotaped) and perusal of their essays were used as additional evidence from a teacher's point of view.

Analytical Procedure of the Study

In this section, I describe the analytical procedure for each type of data collected one by one. How I use these data for each focus of interest in this study will be more

explicitly described in Chapter 10.

Open-ended questionnaire administered in April, 2000 for Phase 1

This open-ended questionnaire asked about the subjects' English learning experience in the past. They were asked to answer factual questions (demographic information) such as gender, major (main subjects), foreign experience and its length, and their history of motivational changes for each period in an open-ended questionnaire in Japanese (see Appendix B).

They were also asked to write the reasons why they liked or disliked learning English in each school year, adding as many necessary comments as possible. They were instructed to write about their experience citing concrete reasons or specific events. In advance of the survey, the participants were informed that the questionnaire would never be used for their course grades but only for the purpose of improving the teaching in the class and English education in general, while maintaining its confidentiality.

This open-ended questionnaire consisted of 8 parts (1st year, 2nd year, 3rd year at junior high school and high school, beginning of the 1st year at university, and others such as English conversation school, or cram school) with three double-spaced lines allocated for each part (see Appendix C). The questionnaire asked about motivational experiences for each grade from the 1st year at the junior high school to the 1st year at the university; this approach is a revision of the one I used asking about motivational experiences for only three periods: junior high school, high school, and university) (see Nakata, 1999, pp. 70-82).

It was considered that 1st year university students would be able to reflect their true

feelings about their past learning experiences since they were not writing about their current teachers in the university. Since they were asked to recall and write about their past learning experience without prior warning, their written comments were not something they had created or prepared in advance. There was a possibility that they might not be able to write everything they could due to memory limitation, and thus some comments might not necessarily reflect the reality of the time. However, what they wrote about was probably something memorable or impressive for them from their current perspective. This means, what they wrote was indeed their perception of their past language learning experiences. There was a high possibility that their written comments would include the crucial and influential factors that motivated or demotivated them in their past learning. In this sense, the study has a certain level of credibility as qualitative material.

Closed questionnaire administered in April, 2000

The questionnaire has already been discussed in Chapter 8 (see Table 6). In analysing the data for Study 2, I selected only items with extreme responses — scale point *1* as positive responses and point *6* as negative ones — and analysed the motivational characteristics for each learner. Because with too many items motivational characteristics may not appear explicitly, I needed to clarify the criterion point. I expected that with fewer items (i.e., extreme responses showing "strongly agree" or "strongly disagree"), the subjects' motivational characteristics would be more clearly defined. In other words, I could determine how has the motivational characteristics of each individual learner differed from the findings of factor analytic study (Study 1). The data in this study (Study

2) is used to ascertain qualitative changes for each individual learner.

Closed questionnaire (using the same data as above) administered in January, 2001

The content of the questionnaire is the same as that given in April, 2000. In analysing this data, I picked up only those items with a difference of two scale points between the two sets of data for each learner (i.e., their responses to the questionnaire in April, 2000 and those in January, 2001). There are some reasons why I chose this as a criterion. Items with one point difference (e.g., from "strongly disagree" to "disagree") were not considered to reflect motivational changes explicitly. Also, I found items with three point differences in scales between their responses not appropriate. Because there were only two or three items which showed more than three point differences, their motivational characteristics may not easily be perceived, even vaguely. Thus, I employed items with a difference of two scale points. This way, their motivational changes in terms of the themes could be investigated. These findings were considered and interpreted as part of the subjects' motivational changes, and were later used as part of the aspects of motivation examined in the interview data.

Two types of open-ended questionnaires administered in November, 2000 and January, 2000

Two types of open-ended questionnaire were used to investigate the differences between learners' initial responses to the project and their responses immediately after the teaching project (see Appendix C). The first, administered in November, 2000, asked the participants (originally it attempted to ask 101 learners from two classes, as shown in 6.3, but for this study only 5 learners are targeted) to write their responses to 10 open-ended

questions regarding their goals in the teaching project, their anxiety about performing the task to be practised, their perceptions of the teaching project, and their attitude towards group work (see Learner Profiles in Appendix C). The second open-ended questionnaire, administered in January, 2001, asked the participants to write their responses to 12 questions concerning their sense of group cohesiveness, sense of achievement, anxiety over oral presentation, their feelings about the project, freedom of choice, and their level of confidence in self-expression (see Learner Profiles in Appendix C). For both questionnaires, a two-page (double-spaced) limit was placed on the responses, and students were asked to be as specific as possible in their answers. In both cases, the participants were also informed that their responses would be used only for research purposes and for further developing English education, and they would not be graded. The subjects were instructed to respond to all of the questions (Their responses would also be the focus of the subsequent interview). In addition, their confidence and anxiety level during their oral presentation were reexamined by my observing their videotaped performance.

Video-recorded oral performance in Jan, 2001

This data was used for the purpose of investigating the learners' anxiety level in their performance in the oral presentation. Their performance was (subjectively) assessed in terms of i) the extent to which they appeared anxious, (ii) the extent to which they possess a certain level of lexical and grammatical knowledge, (iii) their ability to get across their message. In order to understand the level their performance, I gave each of the 5 learners a subjective rating mark (*1: very low, 2: relatively low, 3: average, 4:*

relatively high, 5: very high) for each of the three components.

Interview administered in May and June, 2001

The final research tool was a semi-structured, face-to-face interview. Participants were told that the purpose of the interview was exclusively for educational research, as stated in the ethics protocol sheet (see Appendix A5) and thus they would not be asked about their course grades (from October 2000 to January 2001). In 7.3, I discussed the reason why I chose the semi-structured interview as a tool. In order to answer the research questions described earlier in this chapter, the interview can be an effective means of investigating the more dynamic aspects of motivation. I believe interviews, when appropriately conducted, can provide more insightful data than questionnaires (either closed or open-ended).

As discussed already, 5 learners from two groups of the same class were chosen as subjects. My choice was based on the agreement that the students signed at the end of the course in January, 2001 which they showed their willingness to cooperate in this study (see Appendix A5). The interviews took place in May and June, 2001. The interview dates for each learner were set by contacting the leader of each group using e-mail.

Each interview was conducted in Japanese in the following manner. Prior to the interview, I verbally read the ethics protocol sheet in front of the interviewee. The interviewee then read it silently and afterwards signed and dated it. By reading the sheet, they understood that they had volunteered for the interview, that they had the right to skip answers and stop the interview if they felt the questions to be inappropriate, and that the data would be kept confidential, to be used for research purposes only. They were invited

to talk freely in a relaxed manner about what they thought. Since I (the interviewer) was no longer their teacher, the interviewees did not have to worry about any effect on their grades. In addition, I assumed they were happy to talk freely, since they had volunteered to participate. In this way, the face-threatening potential of the interview environment for interviewees became minimal.

The interview was held in a classroom in a quiet environment with only the interviewee and interviewer present. The average length of each interview was approximately 20 minutes. Each interview was recorded on an audio-tape and transcribed, then translated into English for the purpose of this thesis. The content and structure of the interview were based on the learner's own personal conceptions of language learning, including variables such as motivation and anxiety, communication, and cooperative learning. They were asked factual questions (e.g., whether they were learning other foreign languages), their perceptions of their responses they had written in the closed-questionnaires, and their feelings about their learning experiences in the computer-mediated group project. (see details in Learner Profiles in Appendix C)

Now I would like to discuss the reliability of this retrospective data. Ericsson & Simon (1999, see Chapter 1; also see Poulisse, Bongaerts & Kellerman, 1987, p. 217) note that retrospective data can be considered as a reliable source of information if it is collected under the following conditions:

1. the data should be collected immediately after the task performance, when memory is still fresh (not applicable to my study);
2. the subjects should be provided with contextual information to activate their memories;

3. all the information asked for must be directly retrievable;
4. for the same reason, the information asked for should relate to specific questions, or a specific situation;
5. no leading questions should be asked, to minimize the effects of "researcher bias";
6. the subjects should not be informed that they will be asked for retrospective comments until after the task performance, so as not to affect their performance on the task (not applicable to my study).

In addition to these requirements, in interpreting data the relationship between the interviewer and interviewee should not be underestimated. Given that my collected retrospective data and analytical procedure satisfied the above requirements (except for conditions 1 and 6), I considered that I created conditions for maximum data credibility.

I shall point out that the subjects' responses after the project were reported only in the open-ended questionnaire. Most of the interview questions were semi-structured ones so that respondents could answer each question in turn (see Appendix C). For those questions that some interviewees were not able to respond to immediately, additional questions were asked to see how they would respond. In analysing their responses, transcription conventions such as pause, emphasis, or non-verbal cues are used (see the beginning of Appendix C). The analytical procedure can enhance the credibility of data when data from multiple sources is carefully collected under the above conditions and the credibility of the data can be enhanced when careful interpretation is made using all of the data acquired.

The purpose of this study was not to verify a hypothesis or theory, but to investigate "meaning" in a specific context, and thus to uncover hidden truths that could not be found

by a quantitative study. In this study, I was only the researcher in the interview (which is the core source of data) while I was a teacher *and* a researcher in the teaching project. My study, using multiple and longitudinal sources of data, describes 5 learners so that the contextual and situational factors can make my interpretation of the data more accumulative and reliable. It is based on the premise that the subjects are an indispensable part of the society and culture as a whole. It attempts to explore language learning motivation possessed by 5 selected learners with different learning backgrounds under the educational system that exists in a particular cultural context and to analyse their motivational development using several sources of data over time (including recorded and transcribed interview data) from a social constructivist point of view.

9.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter has provided an overview of Study 2. First, I described the theoretical background of the teaching project and its procedure in detail. Then, I formulated the research questions of this study. Finally, I described the subjects, and methodology. I gave details of both the focused research themes and the procedures used to analyse the various data employed in this study. Chapter 10 will present the data obtained and analyse the findings for each learner.

Before I conclude this chapter, I would like to state how I incorporate a social constructivist view of motivation into the interpretation of the qualitative study in Chapter 10. The major aim of this thesis is to take account of individuals' intrinsic motivation, because it is so important for effective learning. I take account of the ways in

which an individual's intrinsic motivation is affected not only by the immediate learning environment of the classroom (especially certain activities) and but also by the social environment of Japan. I believe that the current focus on exams and the educational system as a whole is not necessarily conducive to intrinsic motivation. Thus, in the qualitative data (the interviews especially), I try to gain an insight into the growth of intrinsic motivation within individuals as they are encouraged to take part in the planning of activities, as they interact with each other, learn things from each other, and also try to communicate with each other in English (writing first and then speaking).

CHAPTER 10

DATA ANALYSIS OF STUDY 2

10.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, I discussed the subjects and methodology of Study 2, and I explained the tools used for analysis. This chapter presents an analysis of the data with the following aims: 1) to investigate how the 5 learners' learning experiences affected their motivation; 2) to investigate how their intrinsic motivation changed in response to different learning experiences.

For each of the 5 learners, I describe (i) *factual background information*, (ii) *their previous learning experiences*, iii) *their motivation on entering university*, and (iv) *evidence of changes in motivation during the year of the teaching project*. Then, having interpreted the various data (see Chapter 9), I summarise the motivational development of each learner by means of a model. This model takes account of the extent to which (i) each learner is either encouraged or inhibited by his/her learning experience in the teaching project, (ii) the learners develop some autonomy in their learning (see 4.4.3 for the concept of autonomy, and 5.3.2 for the concept of an *autonomy threshold*).

The factual background information (i) (taken from school records and the interview data) includes their L2 proficiency level. *Learners' previous learning experiences* (ii) were investigated using the data of the open-ended questionnaire (administered in April, 2000). *Learner motivation on entering university* (iii) was explained on the basis of items that

elicited strong responses (i.e., *1. strongly agree* or *6. strongly disagree*) in the closed-questionnaire administered in April 2000. All of these data contributed to my understanding of each learner within the context of their learning experience, including any motivational change as a result of the teaching project (iv).

Evidence of changes in motivation during the year of the teaching project (April 2000 to May 2001) (iv) was investigated in terms of the following points: 1) how their instrumental motivation changes; 2) how their anxiety level changes with regard to writing and speaking in the target language; 3) whether they exhibit characteristics of autonomous learners and to what extent ; 4) how their intercultural attitude changes; 5) how their intrinsic motivation affects their learning behaviour outside of the classroom and after the project.

Several items of data were used to investigate the above points. First, I analysed those items in the two questionnaires administered in April, 2000 and January 2001 which showed that these subjects gave noticeably different responses, namely more then two-points difference on the Likert scale (for example from *3. slightly agree* to *5. disagree*). Second, their interview responses to the questions I asked about the *reasons* for these changes were examined in order to gain further insights. Third, their responses relating to their previous learning experiences that they gave in the open-ended questionnaire (administered in April 2000) were investigated. Fourth, two types of open-ended questionnaires (administered in November 2000 and January 2001) that asked about their attitudes toward the computer-mediated group project (from Oct, 2000 to Jan, 2001) were also used in my investigation. Fifth, the videotaped oral performance with a subjective

rating mark was also used to investigate their anxiety level, using other sources of data from their interview responses and two open-ended questionnaires (in November and January). Sixth, themes that were the topics in the interviews that did not appear in the above procedure were considered as evidence for the research questions.

In the final discussion, I suggest a model (Figure 13) that describes the 5 learners' intrinsic motivation. A distinction is made between core and surface intrinsic motivation (see 5.5.1 and Figure7). My final argument is that the learner's intrinsic motivation has been influenced by the learning environment; hence the term *a social-constructivist approach to the exploitation of intrinsic motivation*.

The interview data and the closed questionnaire data (administered twice) are the two major research tools employed in this study. The interview data, however, play a more crucial role for the qualitative study. The remaining data are used to support the factors that emerge from the two major data sources. I do not report on the behaviour of learners in the classroom because I feel the class I taught was too large for me to be able to observe them closely. It should be noted that in this chapter JH1, 2, 3 and H1, 2, 3 are used as abbreviations for junior high school 1st, 2nd, 3rd year, and high school 1st, 2nd, 3rd year. It should be noted too that in the following sections I use the translated version of the learners' introspective data (originally in Japanese).

10.1 ANALYSIS OF DATA PERTAINING TO LEARNER M

Learner M — A Goal-directed Learner —

Learner M seemed always to be goal-directed. He actively involved himself in the

computer-mediated group project, and was goal-directed not only in the project but also in his personal approach to learning English.

(i) Factual background information

Learner M's attendance record during the year I taught him was excellent (no absences). He scored 69 points out of 100 in the final exam of the first semester (the mean score on the final exam was 71.2), and he got 8 out of 10 points in listening quizzes. He missed the final exam of the second semester on the official date due to illness, but he took it later. I concluded from these results that he was an average student.

(ii) Learner M's previous learning experience

The open-ended questionnaire (administered in April 2000) describes how Learner M perceived his previous English learning experience. When he started to learn English in junior high school, he felt it was rather easy because he thought he did not need to possess a high level of grammatical ability and vocabulary (see his comments on JH1 in the questionnaire in Appendix C –Learner M). However, he gradually started to feel he was "getting behind other learners in learning English" (see his comments on JH2) partly because he thought he could not remember vocabulary. The positive side of his learning experience at this time was that he passed the 3rd grade of the STEP test (see his comments on JH3). After entering high school, he had a good English teacher. Influenced by this teacher, he came to like learning English, though this did not necessarily mean he was good at English. However, as he studied the language, he came to dislike it more and more (see his comments in relation to JH3, H1, and H2).

In the 3rd grade of high school, Learner M became more confident with regard to

the university entrance exam type of English, since he had studied English very hard for the entrance exams. Although he passed the entrance exam, he still did not consider himself to be a good English learner. As a short-term goal, he would like to take English Step Test 2nd grade. He is confident in writing, though he is not sure of the real level of his English proficiency. In contrast, he considers his "pronunciation as my weak point"(see his comments in "Now" – April, 2000 when the questionnaire was carried out). He had no experience of being in an English-speaking country.

These data on Learner M's perceptions of his previous learning experiences seem to suggest that he had acquired the ability to reflect on himself. He was able to describe his psychological/behavioural process very clearly.

(iii) Learner M's motivation on entering university

On entering university, learner M seemed to be generally extrinsically motivated to learn English and, due to his learning experience in the past, was anxious about speaking the target language.

From the closed questionnaire data (administered in April 2000), it seems that his high school teachers influenced his subsequent learning of English both positively and negatively. We see this in his responses to Items 7 and 8: he strongly disagreed with the statement (*I don't like learning English because I was scolded by an English teacher in the past*) but strongly agreed with the statement (*I like learning English because I was taught by a good English teacher in the past*). Probably due to his learning experiences, he did not have confidence in his English pronunciation and speaking abilities. This was revealed in his responses to Items 11, and 40: he strongly disagreed with the statements (*I*

am good at pronunciation); (*Communicating in English should not be so difficult since I can speak my native language: Japanese*). Thus, at the time the questionnaire was given, his purpose for studying English was to get good grades or to improve his overall language proficiency. We see this in his response to Item 25: he strongly agreed with the statement *My goal of learning English is to perform well at school and get good scores on tests*. He appeared to hold the belief that everyone possesses the ability to master a foreign language with effort (Item 41).

iv) Evidence of changes in learner M's motivation during the teaching project year

The following can be said with regard to Learner M's motivational characteristics. Through his learning experience in the teaching project of exchanging opinions and interacting with others, he felt a great sense of participation and of cohesiveness in his group. He seems to have found learning English (by actually using it rather than just memorising it) enjoyable, and to have gained confidence in self-expression. He had come to understand that developing self-expression skills through writing can lead to the development of oral communication. Judging from the data described below, it can be said that Learner M's intrinsic motivation changed from being oriented toward knowledge construction to being more communication-oriented.

Turning now to the motivational factors that were found to be important in Study 1 — namely *autonomy/intrinsic motivation, instrumental motivation, language learning beliefs, language use anxiety,* and *international orientation* — these were apparent also in Study 2. The following sections show this.

Autonomy/intrinsic motivation

We can infer from his questionnaire and interview responses that Learner M's intrinsic motivation was enhanced, and thus promoted his autonomous capacity to learn English. In the closed questionnaires (administered in April 2000 and in January 2001), we see this in his changed responses i) to Item 7 (from "strongly disagree" to "slightly disagree" for the statement *I don't like learning English because I was scolded by an English teacher in the past*); ii) to Item 26 (from "disagree" to "slightly agree" for the statement *My goal of learning English is to master how to learn English*); iii) to Item 27 for the statement *My goal of learning English is to establish my own style of learning English* (from "disagree" to "strongly agree"); iv) to Item 29 (from "slightly disagree" to "strongly agree" on the statement *I am good at setting goals*); and v) to Item 31 (from "strongly disagree" to "slightly agree" for the statement *I have a clear goal of learning English*). Now, he studied English to establish his own style of learning and master how to learn it. He considered himself to be a learner who was good at setting goals. He seemed to have reset his goal from passing the university entrance exam to developing his English communication abilities. In short, he had a clear goal for learning English.

These changes are also apparent in Learner M's interview responses (see Appendix C — Learner M). Before entering university, he believed that "memorisation is the best way of learning English" (M82) but "it was not fun before" (M122). The purpose of learning English was to "develop proficiency for the entrance exam" (M114-115). He did not want to go to class because he could not memorise the material (M115-116). He changed his approach to language learning during and after the project; this can be seen in the

following interview responses: "I thought I could improve my English proficiency by discussion with others, and talking in English" (M87-88), "I began to think and focus on using English rather than memorising it" (M122), and "I realised it is important to convey my message to others despite some grammatical errors" (M117-118). For Learner M, learning English had become fun, mainly due to his learning experience in the project after entering university. We see this in his interview response: "I came to learn English effectively through my interesting experience and I felt that learning English through the project was enjoyable" (M82-83); "In university, it is more important to be able to communicate without paying much attention to minor grammatical errors" (M116-117). "I realised learning English is fun when I learned it in a different way of learning" (M123); "By doing this project, I realised I could enjoy learning English by actually using it, rather than memorising it" (M132).

It seems that Learner M's intrinsic motivation, which may have been dampened by his previous learning experiences such as rote-memorisation within the traditional teaching framework, had been revived through his experience in the project. As noted earlier, he seems to have become an autonomous learner. Furthermore, at the behavioural level there is some indication that he has begun to learn English in a self-directed way. For instance, when he said: "foreign movies on DVD, I read the subtitles to follow what as being said in the movie" (M125-126). He did this several times because he felt "interest arising from myself for learning English voluntarily" (M126-127). His improved self-determination is seen in his response, "from now on, I think I can direct myself to learning English more positively" (M133-134).

Instrumental motivation

Learner M's motivation became less instrumental, and less extrinsic due to his learning experience in the project. His response changes to Items 23 and 47 (from "agree" to "slightly disagree" for *My goal of learning English is to pass the class exam* and from "agree" to "slightly disagree" for *I am learning English because English is my compulsory subject*) clearly showed that he did not study English only for instrumental reasons as he used to in the past. We see this even in his interview responses: "Well, through the group project I felt I could study and use English not in the way of learning for the entrance exam" (M77-78), and "I thought I could learn English in a different way from that for the entrance exam" (M111). In other words, he seems to have found other reasons to study English through his learning experiences in the project.

Language learning beliefs (self-efficacy)

There is some evidence that Learner M's perceived ability of intelligence and aptitude shifted from negative to positive throughout the academic year at the university. We can see it in his different types of response over time in the questionnaires from "slightly disagree" to "strongly disagree" to the statement *Intelligence is something you are born with and cannot change* (Item 37), and from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" to the statement *Communicating in English should not be so difficult since I can speak my native language: Japanese* (Item 40). We can also find it in some of his interview responses, such as, "Well, now I have come to think intelligence can be changed with effort" (M105) (see also M106, 107, 108 for question and answer).

Language use anxiety (and self-confidence in self-expression)

Learner M's anxiety in using English seems to have been enhanced through his experience in the project. Having experienced the oral presentation, his questionnaire responses changed as follows: from "slightly agree" to "strongly agree" for Item 15 (*I worry about test results whenever I take a test*), Item 16 (*I think I can learn English well, but I don't perform well on tests and exams*), and Item 17 (*I feel lost in the English class when the teacher speaks fast in English*). He seemed to be rather confident in the area of grammar as can be observed in his interview responses: "I had a little confidence of grammar in my high school days" (M66-67), and "I understand grammar since it was a written form" (M72). But he was not necessarily so confident in other skills. As he said in the interview, "In other English classes such as listening, / I cannot do anything in a test if it is listening-focused" (M72-73).

Through his learning experience in the teaching project, Learner M's anxiety especially in pronunciation, was not lessened. We see it in his responses "Well, my anxiety is I am not good at pronunciation. / Even after your class; I still don't think I could completely get rid of anxiety over pronunciation" (M52-53). It is understandable because this was the first time he had to speak and give an oral presentation.

Thus Learner M had anxiety-provoking experiences in the group project and the oral presentation. It seems however that as a result he gained overall confidence in using English. He thought he did the oral presentation in a "very relaxed" way (see ⑤ in 1st open-ended questionnaire in Jan, 2000). Indeed, he did a good performance without much anxiety according to my observation of his video-recorded performance (*the extent to*

which he appears anxious- 1: very low; the extent to which he seems to have lexical/grammatical problems- 2: relatively low; an ability to get across the message- 4: relatively high). We see it too in his interview response: "By doing writing and presentation with other people in class, / we attempted to make them understand what we said/ since it was not such a bad grade; yes it led to my **confidence** very much" (M48-49). The emphasised utterance "**confidence**" contains clues that he did indeed do his oral presentation with confidence. The following response supports this: "Well, making it on my own, to be understood by others, I think I did it with great confidence" (M56). Furthermore, my observation of his videotaped oral performance seems to suggest that he was not specifically nervous, but rather concentrated on producing English utterances. His occasional eye contact with the audience may indicate that he was rather relaxed in his oral speech. After each member in the group had finished their presentation, he voluntarily took a question from the audience, "Did you receive corporal punishment?" and answered it in a relaxed manner (even though he was not the leader in the group). This may be a sign that he was not so anxious in the oral performance.

Overall, Learner M seems to have gained confidence in his self-expression in English through his learning experience in the project, especially in writing.

International orientation

Learner M's international orientation in learning English seems to have become stronger during this year. He would like to communicate with foreigners and study for that purpose as his questionnaire response changes indicate: from "slightly agree" to "strongly agree" in Item 28 (*My goal of learning English is to actually use English in my life*

such as work, travel, and communicating with people throughout the world.), item 33 (*I would like to make a lot of friends overseas*), and Item 36 (*I would like to make American or British friends*). Through his learning experience in the project, his willingness to communicate with foreigners seems to have been enhanced. We see this in his interview responses: "Rather than memorising, / I thought I could improve my English proficiency by discussing with other members in the group in English" (M87-88); "I realised learning English is fun by putting my ideas in written form" (M94-95); "Because I felt speaking in different language enjoyable. / So I wish I could have friends I could talk to in English" (M100-101). He did not study English only because it was a compulsory subject. This implies that he studied English in order to develop his communicative ability as well.

During the teaching project, Learner M seems to have become more motivated in an affective (emotional) and cognitive (self-regulatory) sense (see 1.2.4). This learner used to have low self-efficacy in learning English since he had been studying English exclusively for the university entrance exam. Having experienced the teaching project, however, he started to take responsibility for his learning, to reflect on his learning process to a certain degree, and to use English as a means of communication. Since he could now use English as a channel for communication, he clearly set his goal of learning English as the development of his English communication ability. I would also suggest that his intrinsic motivation was enhanced through the social interaction process and then was *further tapped into* (since he seemed to find a connection between his learning and the world). There is a possibility that his English learning will become habitual as the model suggests (see 5.5.1). Overall, Learner M seems to have entered the autonomous

stage of learning (see 5.3.2). His motivational development is summarised in the model below.

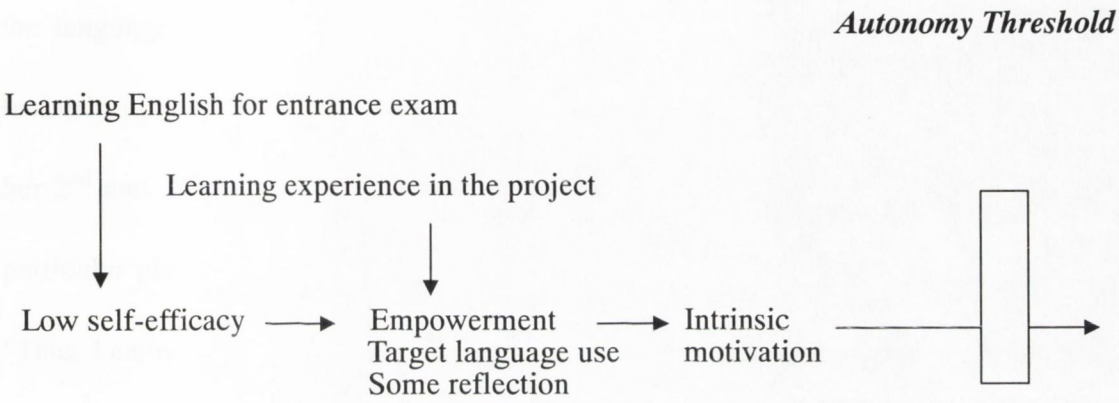


Figure 8. Motivational Development of Learner M

10. 2 ANALYSIS OF DATA PERTAINING TO LEARNER E

Learner E — A Hard-working Learner —

Learner E was a hard-working and tireless student who enjoyed making an effort to learn English. Thanks to the accumulated experience of her effort and its rewards, she came to appreciate that hard work will lead to success.

(i) Factual background information

Learner E's attendance record during the year I taught her was excellent (no absences). In the first semester, she obtained 87 out of 100 points in the final exam (mean score, 71.2) and 10 out of 10 in listening quizzes. In the final exam of the second semester, she scored 55 out of 60 points (mean score, 42.0). I concluded from these results that she was a very good student of English who made a lot of effort.

(ii) Learner E's previous learning experience

Data from the open-ended questionnaire (administered in April 2000) indicated that throughout her English learning experience, Learner E had a positive attitude towards the language. From the beginning, she seems to have enjoyed it, and it became her favourite subject. Evidence for this is her participation in two speech recitation contests in her 2nd and 3rd years of junior high school. English lessons, including songs, gave her particular pleasure. We see this in her comments "I was looking forward to it" (JH1) and "Thus, I enjoyed learning English" (JH3). Once she entered high school, she enjoyed oral communication classes though she still struggled with many difficult grammatical concepts. After she grew accustomed to reading longer texts, she found the written language more enjoyable. As a consequence of her effort, she found learning English, including grammar and long texts, easier. It seems that her teachers knew of her proficiency and attitude, since she was often chosen in class to answer questions: "I was often asked questions in the English class" (H2 — high school 2nd year).

With regard to speaking, however, Learner E had not acquired confidence, perhaps because she had been studying English exclusively for the university entrance exam.

It is plausible to consider that, partly due to the fact that she attended an English conversation school in her childhood, Learner E was able to enjoy learning the language at junior high school with a positive attitude, despite the hard study needed for the entrance exams. Although she was still not confident in her conversational ability, she seemed to have gained a positive attitude towards learning English and may, to some extent, have become an autonomous learner.

(iii) Learner E's motivation on entering the university

It is of interest that Learner E did not make many extreme responses in the closed questionnaire administered in April, 2000. There were of course some exceptions. She strongly disagreed with Item 6 (*I don't like learning English because I cannot find any good reason for doing so*) and Item 7 (*I don't like learning English because I was scolded by an English teacher in the past*). A clear motivational pattern can be found in her responses in which she strongly disagreed with Items 9 and 11 (*I feel confident in speaking English* and *I am good at pronunciation*). These responses imply that she was confident neither in speaking nor in pronunciation. However, such responses should be interpreted with caution, since some respondents tend to react less extremely than others. Learner E may be one of them. Because of the possible influence of her tendency to avoid extreme responses, it may be safe not to interpret these results as conclusive.

(iv) Evidence of changes in learner E's motivation during the teaching project year

Learner E's learning experience in the project seems to have been a good driving force in making her autonomous. At the beginning, she did not find the work easy: "This was my first experience of using the electronic bulletin board / ...so I was not used to typing in English" (E25-26), "At the beginning, our discussion was not so active" (E28). As she gained more experience, however, she started to show affective changes. This is clear from her interview responses: "But I gradually started to do that with interest (laughing)" (E26), "But at the end / I felt we exchanged opinions on the e-bulletin board more and more" (E28-29).

She seems to have understood the purpose of the teaching project. In the interview she explains the purpose of the project as: "Those people who are interested in the same topic

make groups / and exchange opinions in English / so it was like studying to convey our message to others in English" (E21-22). She did indeed have a sense of participation in the project, which she described in her interview as follows: "I feel I did participate in the project / I think I put a lot of opinions on the e-bulletin board / so I feel like I did participate" (E32-33). Having been exposed to this learning experiment, her intrinsic motivation to learn English was enhanced, and as a result Learner E became an autonomous learner.

It is interesting that her responses to the closed-questionnaires (administered in April 2000 and in January 2001) did not differ greatly. It means there were almost no items with more than two scale-points difference on the rating scale except for Item 6. However, as I noted earlier, we cannot discount the possibility that this might be due to Learner E's tendency to respond less emphatically than other learners. In this regard, her interview responses may provide more insightful data.

As for the motivational factors that were found to be important in Study 1, only *autonomy/intrinsic motivation* and *language use anxiety* are suggested here. This is because there were no items she responded to with more than two scale-points difference in the closed-questionnaire.

Autonomy/intrinsic motivation

Learner E's perceptions towards English seem to have changed over the year. Prior to entering university (before experiencing the teaching project, more precisely during the period from October 2000 to January 2001: the computer-mediated group project) she seems not to have been an autonomous learner. We can see this in the following interview responses: "The reason why I was studying English at high school was mostly for the university

entrance exam" (E58); "learning English for entrance exam at high school was a pain" (E63); and "I felt like I was studying English only for homework or assignments in my high school" (E69).

But, through her learning experience in the teaching project, she seemed to have become more autonomous. This is revealed in the following interview responses: "But now, I feel like I am studying more practical English" (E59); "now learning English is not a pain any more" (E62-63); "after I entered the university, I think I started to listen to the radio autonomously since I wanted to be proficient in English." (E69-71); "I do not feel I am forced to study / but I feel that I am doing it because it is necessary" (E86). These comments show that the emphasis of her motivation shifted from extrinsic towards intrinsic. And her comments suggest that her intrinsic motivation was enhanced. She seems to have become autonomous, at least psychologically, though she did not show many behavioural changes (e.g., she did not start to study English outside of the classroom).

Language use anxiety (and self-confidence in self-expression)

In her junior high school and high school days, Learner E used to be anxious in expressing herself, especially speaking in public, whether in Japanese or in English. She often felt nervous when called upon to speak in public, though she wanted to be able to express herself in English.

The data provide evidence that she distinguished between anxiety in writing and in speaking. Through her experience in the project, she seems to have gained confidence in self-expression, especially in writing. This can be seen in the following interview responses: "Since I wrote a lot of opinions on the e-bulletin board / I think I obtained a little bit

more confidence than before" (E36-37) and "I felt like my anxiety in writing decreased from last year" (E40-41). She might have felt it easier to participate in Web-based writing activities rather than in face-to-face speaking. By interacting with others in her group, she might have been gradually increasing her confidence in self-expression.

However, her anxiety over speaking had not gone away. This is evident in her responses, "I still do not have much confidence in speaking" (E36) and "I still feel anxiety in speaking like last year" (E40). Nevertheless, I judged that her oral presentation was adequate when I watched her video-recording (*the extent to which she appeared anxious – 3: average; the extent to which she seemed to have lexical/grammatical problems – 2: relatively low; her ability to get across her message – 4: relatively high*). She did not make much eye contact with the audience, but she delivered her speech steadily in her own way. Though she might have been psychologically nervous, her presentation was satisfactory overall. However, we cannot conclude that this observational judgment reflected her state of mind at that time. Several things she self-reported were indicative of her anxiety level during her oral presentation. For instance, she said she was: "somewhat nervous" in the 2nd open-ended questionnaire (Q5), and in one of her interview responses she stated, "I was nervous about that" (E44). One reason was her admitted lack of preparation for the oral presentation: "but since I could not memorise them, I was just reading them / I was nervous because of it (laughing)" (E46-47). So her anxiety stemmed partly from her failure to memorise her speech, despite my recommendation (see 10th week of Table 9 and the discussion in 9.1.3). The difference between my observation and her self-reported comments indicates that self-reported data is more reliable than

observational data. Though she still got nervous when speaking, it can be said that on the whole her self-expression anxiety level was lower than that of the previous year.

When we add Learner E's learner-centred learning experience in the project to her previous English learning experience in her childhood at an English conversation school, her characteristics as a language learner changed from being a hard-working, independent learner studying for the university entrance exam to an autonomous learner studying to develop her English communication ability. Thanks to her English learning experience in her childhood, she was able to protect her intrinsic motivation of learning English even while learning it for the university entrance exam. Through the social interaction process, her intrinsic motivation was enhanced. Her motivational development is summarised in the following model:

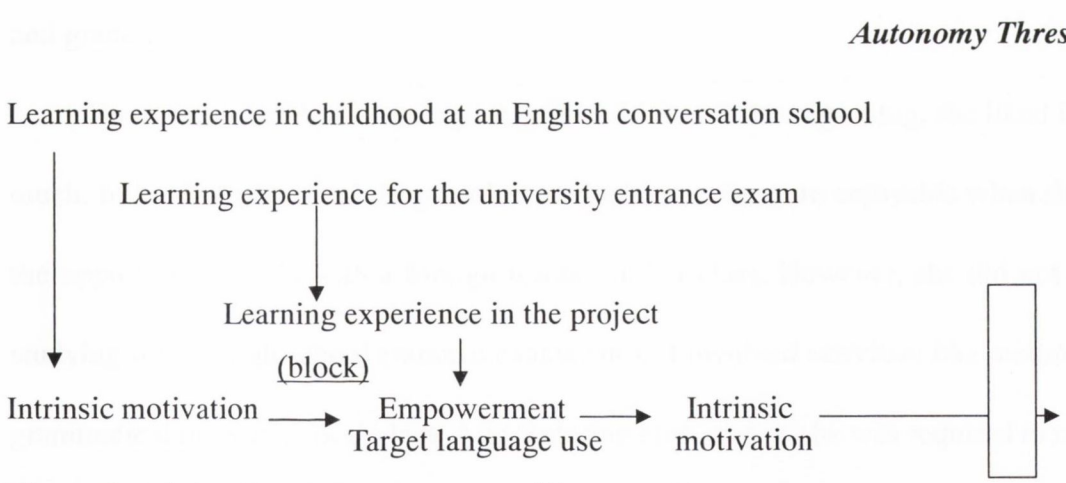


Figure 9. Motivational Development of Learner E

10. 3 ANALYSIS OF DATA PERTAINING TO LEARNER K

Learner K — An Intrinsically Motivated Learner —

Learner K was an intrinsically motivated learner who wanted to communicate with

foreigners in English.

(i) Factual background information

Learner K attended most classes throughout the year (three absences). In the first semester, she obtained 72 out of 100 points in the final exam (mean score, 71.2) and 7 out of 10 points on listening quizzes. In the second semester final exam, she scored 46 out of 60 points (mean score, 42.0) and 28 out of 30 points on the project. I concluded that she was very much an average student.

(ii) Learner K's previous learning experience

The open-ended questionnaire (administered in April 2000) shows how Learner K perceived her previous English learning experience. Like many of her classmates, she passed the university entrance exam through working hard on rote-learning of vocabulary and grammar.

Since she found learning English relatively easy at the beginning, she liked it very much. In junior high school, English lessons became even more enjoyable when she had the opportunity to talk with a foreign teacher in her class. However, she did not enjoy studying for the high school entrance exams since it involved activities like memorising grammatical rules and vocabulary. After entering high school, she was required to take so many tests and write so many assignments, that she lost interest in learning English. We see this in her comments, "I was not interested at all" (JH3) and "I did not have any interest in learning grammar" (H1). But once she started to study hard for the university entrance exam, she became able to read long texts more easily. Partly because of this, English became her strong subject. At the time when the open-ended questionnaire was given

(April, 2000), she worried that she would forget vocabulary and idioms and wondered whether she would be able to catch up with her classmates. She had no experience of being in an English-speaking country.

(iii) Learner K's motivation on entering the university

The data from the closed questionnaire (administered in April 2000) seem to reveal Learner K's motivational pattern very clearly. The effects of her rote-memorisation-oriented learning (for the university entrance exam) remained even after the exam was history. All of the following data illustrate her motivational pattern during this period: her motivation to learn English was communication-oriented, and she was anxious about using English. This may be because she has been mainly exposed to the entrance exam mode of learning.

First, she seemed to possess autonomous characteristics. She strongly agreed with the statements of Items 29 and 30 (*I am good at setting goals of learning English* and *I have my own learning style of English*). Second, her anxiety in language use (mostly in speaking) clearly appeared in many items. She strongly agreed with many statements: Item 12 (*I feel uncomfortable if I am named in class and have to answer in English*); Item 13 (*It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in English*); Item 14 (*I am afraid that other students will laugh at me when I speak*); Item 15 (*I worry about test results whenever I take a test)*; Item 16 (*I think I can learn English well, but I don't perform well on tests and exams*); Item 17 (*I feel lost in the English class when the teacher speaks fast in English*); and Item 42 (*It is too late to master spoken English since I have been taught mainly grammatical rules*). Third, her responses to the questionnaires that followed seem to

illustrate that she had an international orientation rather than a positive attitude toward Anglophone cultures or integrative motivation as defined by Gardner and Lambert (1972) (see discussions in Nakata (1995a, 1995b), and Yashima (2000) in 6.3.1). Learner K strongly disagreed with the statements of Item 34 (*Most of my favourite actors and musicians are either British or American*) and Item 35 (*I long for American or British friends*), while she strongly agreed with the statement of Item 28 (*My goal of learning English is to actually use English in my life such as for work, travel, and communicating with people throughout the world*).

(iv) Evidence of changes in learner K's motivation during the teaching project year

During her learning experience in the project, Learner K seems to have gradually become more comfortable in expressing herself in English. However, like learner E, this was more so in writing than in speaking. She experienced a new type of learning in the project. Now she had a personal relationship with English and devoted time to studying it in order to develop her communication ability. Her learning experience in the project enhanced her self-efficacy (belief in her ability to express herself in English); her anxiety was lower and the project helped her to gain confidence in English. From all this information, I can state that her intrinsic motivation was increased.

Turning now to the motivational factors that were found important in Study 1, namely *autonomy/intrinsic motivation, instrumental motivation, language learning belief, language use anxiety,* and *international orientation,* all of these factors appeared in the various sources of the data pertaining to Learner K.

Autonomy/intrinsic motivation

The evidence suggests that she clearly understood the difference between learning English for the entrance exam and for communicating in English. She explicitly exhibited her changed view about learning English. We can see her first thoughts about English in the following interview responses: "In high school, I did it only for the entrance exam" (K117); "When I was studying English for the entrance exam, the purpose was only for the entrance exam. / I was studying only for it" (K111-112). However, she perceived that in university learning English was different. We see this in her interview response, "My study for the entrance exam was over" (K81). She was convinced of the practical value of the new type of learning she experienced in the teaching project. She says, "I realised that study at the university is not for the entrance exam, it is different / I think I will gradually get used to it" (K82-83); "At university, it is different in the sense that I study English for communication" (K112).

I would expect that due to the years of exposure to the experience of learning English for the university entrance exams, this learner came to want to develop her English proficiency not for an extrinsic purpose such as an exam, but more for the intrinsic purpose of improving her communication ability. After passing the university entrance exam, she seems to have lost a clear goal for learning English, and began wondering how she could study effectively without such a goal. We can see this in her changed responses to some questionnaire items: from "slightly agree" to "slightly disagree" for Item 21 (*When studying for a test, I try to determine which concepts I don't understand well* and from "strongly agree" to "slightly disagree" for Item 29 (*I am good at setting goals for learning English* and Item 30 (*I have my own style of learning*

English).

Learner K became a different learner of English in the sense that she came to study voluntarily. This is a sign that her intrinsic motivation was enhanced through her learning experience. We may infer her autonomous characteristics from her interview responses: "I would like to study voluntarily for developing English communication ability. / I am different in this sense./ I do have a different feeling in the sense that now I can direct myself voluntarily in learning English" (K117-119).

At the behavioural level, Learner K did show some changes. She started to watch English movies and listen to music — something she had not done before. She also planned to take exams to gain a further qualification in English. We can see behavioural changes in her interview comments: "I did not do any kind of study in particular / but I began to watch English movies, which I have not watched before, and to listen to English songs, which I have not done before" (K123-125).

Instrumental motivation

Learner K's instrumental motivation seems to have increased. We can clearly see this in her changed questionnaire responses for two Items: from "slightly agree" to "strongly agree" on Item 47 (*I am learning English because English is a compulsory subject for me*), from "slightly disagree" to "agree" for Item 50 (*Learning English is important to me since it broadens my view*). She convincingly explains this in her interview: "Of course, at the university I want credits (as part of university requirements). So I have motivation to study English for this purpose in order to graduate" (K103-104). However, that instrumental motivational included an intrinsic element as the following comments

show: "English is necessary to communication, I think. / And I think it is important for me, since it broadens my view" (K107-108).

Though the above comments (K103-104 and K107-108) seem very different in nature, they may actually have a straightforward interpretation. Although she studied English to get the requisite credits (as part of the requirements for graduation), this may have been her short-term goal; at the same time she studied English to develop her communication skills as a longer-term goal. The former goal can be considered extrinsic/instrumental motivation, while the latter is intrinsic motivation. In a sense, she was able to have two different goals in learning English.

Language learning beliefs (attribution and self-efficacy)

It seems plausible to suggest that after experiencing the project, Learner K's self-efficacy in learning English in general (though not specifically in mastering spoken English) was enhanced, since before this she believed that to acquire communicative ability in English would not be easy.

Although she had confidence when she learned English for the university entrance exam, she felt she lacked communicative ability. In this sense she was not confident in learning English. But after she has worked on the project, she seems to have regained confidence in her communicative ability to a certain degree. This can be seen in her questionnaire responses and interview comments. Her response to Item 10 (*I am good at learning English*) changed from "slightly agree" to "disagree" showing evidence of a change of her self-efficacy belief. There is no question that she had studied English hard for the university entrance exam and that her confidence was based on such learning:

"Rather than saying I am good at English / I mean learning English for the entrance exam, I was confident over such English since I put in a lot of effort for the entrance exam" (K66-67). However, her low level of self-efficacy regarding English communication can be inferred from the following interview response: "At the beginning, I realised I was short of real English ability through studying real English communication" (K67-68), and "Since I studied English for entrance exams, I thought it was impossible to have English communication ability" (K97-98).

Learner K's changed response (from "slightly disagree" to "strongly disagree") to questionnaire Item 37 (*Intelligence is something you are born with and cannot change*) shows she no longer believed intelligence is fixed. Instead, she thought that everyone has an ability to master a foreign language. We can see this in other response changes: from "slightly agree" to "strongly agree" for Item 41 (*I believe everyone has the ability to master a foreign language*) and from "strongly agree" to "disagree" for Item 42 (*It is too late to master spoken English since I have been taught mainly grammatical rules*). Once exposed to a different type of learning experience, this learner's self-efficacy belief changed, as evidenced in several of her interview comments: "After the project, however, I came not to think so due to my experience in the project" (K69), "But by participating in the project, I came to believe I can have English communication ability / I believed this to be the case especially in writing / I really think it is not too late to study English for communication" (K98-100).

Language use anxiety (and self-confidence in self-expression)

Learner K provides evidence that she was able to lower her anxiety in regard to

self-expression in English overall, though more so in writing than in speaking. Before entering the university, she was not the type to become nervous when called upon to speak in public. She wanted to be able to develop her ability to express herself in English, though she recognised the difficulty of doing this due to her lack of experience. In her oral presentation, she appeared a little anxious not because she had never made a public speech in English before, but because she was not confident in answering questions in English after her speech. But she seems to have generally lowered her anxiety and gained confidence, especially in writing.

Throughout her learning experience in the project, Learner K seems to have become more confident about self-expression, though she still felt nervous about speaking in English according to her response to the 2nd open-ended questionnaire (② "I realised we could create something through cooperative work", ③ "through the project I felt much closer to English", ④ "I was able to express my opinions fully" ⑤ "somewhat nervous"). Similarly, she clearly displayed confidence in writing, as is emphasised in her interview comments: "**Yes, I did gain confidence** / A lot better than before" (K46). She clearly explained this and her anxiety about speaking in the interview: "Though I do not have much confidence in speaking, I was able to improve my writing skill very much" (K43-44), "But about writing / though I thought I was not able to write in English at all before / I realised I could write and thus could lowerd my anxiety over writing English" (K50-51) and "Though I did not have much confidence and was a bit shy about doing it, I managed to do it (laughing)" (K55-56).

In the oral presentation, Learner K was rather nervous because she was anxious that

she would not be able to answer the questions in English. This is supported by my observation of her videotaped performance (*the extent to which she appeared anxious — 4: relatively high; the extent to which she seemed to have lexical/grammatical problems — 3: average; an ability to get across the message — 3: average*). During her presentation, her behaviour indicated she was not relaxed, and she did not make any eye contact with the audience. However, in the Q and A session, she seemed to be more relaxed. She voluntarily took the question, "Would you give corporal punishment to your children?" and smilingly answered in a relaxed manner: "I do not know since I do not have any children." To a further question, "What would your parents think if you received corporal punishment from the teacher?" she answered "Probably they would get angry."

Thus it can be inferred that through her learning experience in the project, this learner became able to express herself without worrying too much about grammar, though she was still anxious about expressing herself in public.

International orientation

Learner K seemed not to possess a social psychological (culturally bounded) type of motivation. Although she came to disagree with the relevant items to a lesser degree, she does not appear to have developed a strong positive attitude toward Anglophone cultures. We see this in the following questionnaire response changes: from "strongly disagree" to "slightly disagree" for Item 34 (*Most of my favourite actors and musicians are either British or American*) and 35 (*I long for American or British culture*). However, one can not say that her motivation was not internationally oriented either in view of her response change from "strongly agree" to "slightly disagree" for Item 28 (*My goal of*

learning English is to actually use English in my life such as for work, travel, and communicating with people in the world).

To summarise the changes apparent in Learner K's motivational development, the multiple data provide evidence that through her learning experience in the teaching project, her intrinsic motivation for using English as a channel of communication and her efforts to develop her English communication ability were enhanced. Thus the social interactive process enabled her to develop her intrinsic motivation. This learner's intrinsic motivation may be in the process of being further tapped into. Her motivational development is summarised in the following figure:

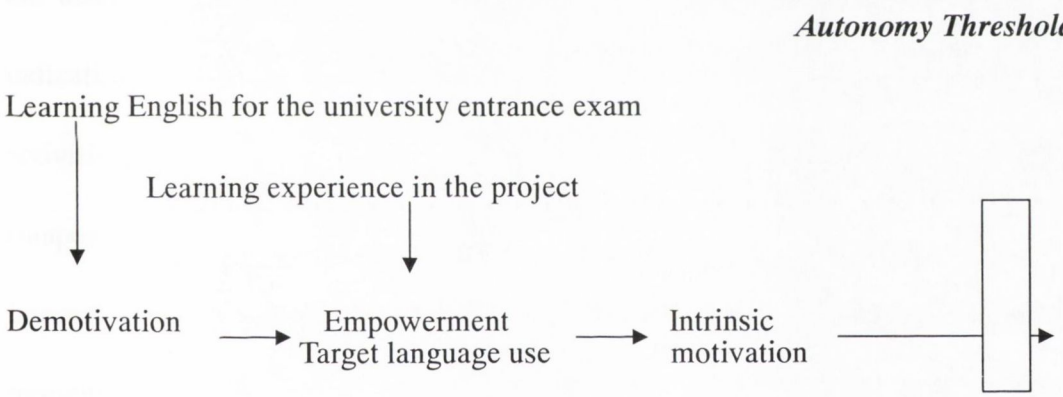


Figure 10. Motivational Development of Learner K

10. 4 ANALYSIS OF DATA PERTAINING TO LEARNER D

Learner D — A More Confident Learner —

Learner D was, in general, already a confident learner of English who became more confident in expressing himself during his experience in the teaching project.

(i) Factual background information

Learner D's attendance record during the year I taught him was excellent (no absences). In the first semester, he obtained 70 out of 100 points in final exam (mean score, 71.2), and 10 out of 10 on listening quizzes. In the second semester final exam, he scored 47 out of 60 (mean score, 42.0). I concluded from these results that he was very much an average student.

(ii) Learner D's previous learning experience

In the open-ended questionnaire (administered in April 2000), we see that during three years of learning English in junior high school he did not develop a dislike of English. In high school, he needed to work harder and he did. He was excited listening to the teacher; he reports "the teacher talked a lot about Australia" (H1). This may be an indication that he was intrinsically motivated to a certain degree. He also liked writing activities, maybe due to his confidence in writing: "I was excited to know that my composition was correct" (H2). This may imply that he tended to attribute outcomes to internal factors. In the 3rd year of high school, the amount of reading he had to do was tremendous, and even when he entered university, he was still anxious about whether he would be able to understand the lessons. As for his learning experience outside of school, he started to study English at a private "preparatory school" during his 1st year of junior high school. He had no experience of learning in an English-speaking country.

The data leave the impression that, in general, this learner did not dislike learning English, even during the time he was studying for the entrance exam, which may have been due to his learning experience outside of school. There are grounds for considering that his motivation was influenced by his learning experience, but we need to verify this

from further data.

(iii) Learner D's motivation on entering the university

Learner D did not respond to questionnaire items in strong terms (i.e., either 1 "strongly agree" or 6 "strongly disagree"). Basically, he liked learning English. This was partly because of his good grades, but he also had his own reason for studying English (see his responses to Items 2 and 7 in the closed questionnaire administered in April, 2000). However, he is not confident about his oral/aural abilities (see his responses to Items 12, 13). But, since his avoidance of choosing extreme responses may have been a personal trait, it may be better not to draw a firm conclusion from this limited source.

(iv) Evidence of changes in learner D's motivation during the teaching project year

Learner D considered his learning experience in the project (specifically, computer-mediated group work) meaningful. Previously, he had not had opportunities to work in a group and discuss one theme. He considered the project work a good experience because he was able to get to know what others thought, and to discuss his ideas with fellow students using the internet. He recognised the value of the oral presentation and the effort it involved as a necessary experience, though he was full of anxiety about speaking in public. The multiple data provide grounds to conclude that through such experiences, his motivation for developing his communicative ability in English was enhanced and that he established a positive attitude toward English voluntarily.

The following is a profile of changes in Learner D's motivational characteristics with regard to *autonomy/intrinsic motivation, language learning beliefs,* and *language use anxiety*.

Autonomy/intrinsic motivation

Learner D's attitude toward learning English changed during the project. His learning experience was different from that he had had when studying for the university entrance exam. We can see this in the following in his interview responses: "Though it used to be a subject for memorisation / it became a subject of speaking and writing, / **not a subject for memorisation, I think**" (D102-103); "In high school, I studied English **because I could not keep up with others** if I didn't / It is due to the difference between a passive and an active attitude" (D109-110).

Through his learning experience in the project, this learner became more autonomous. This can be inferred from several of his comments: "So now I think I need a better attitude about learning voluntarily. / The fact English was no longer a memorising subject was a big thing in my mind" (D103-104); "I feel like I should voluntarily prepare for the class in advance" (D108-109). His choice of words like "voluntarily" and "active" clearly shows that he had become an autonomous learner, at least at the psychological level, though he had not as yet shown much autonomous behaviour. The data give the impression that he may have just passed over the autonomous threshold, and may gradually start to show autonomous behaviour in the near future. This, of course, needs support from other data.

Language learning beliefs (attribution)

Learner D's different learning experiences in preparation for the university entrance exam and in the project affected his perceptions about learning English. He came to attribute his liking for English to his effort in the past (from "strongly disagree" to "agree" on Item 1 on the closed questionnaire: *I like learning English because I have*

made effort in the past), and attributed less importance to his grades (from "strongly agree" to "slightly agree" for Item 2: *I like learning English because of my good grades*).

This cannot be explained without referring to his learning experience when studying for the university entrance exam. In his high school days, his language learning belief was based on this. We see this in the following interview responses: "After all, the Center Test (the standardised test for Japanese university entrance) was the result of what I had studied and memorised for the entrance exam // Yeah, yeah // **And the result of the Center Exam** happened to be good" (D71-72). Having experienced a new type of learning in the project, this learner realised that "what I did for the entrance exam bore no relation to general English communicative ability in daily life" (D73). And as a result he says "I lost confidence" (D74).

It can be supposed that Learner D came to attribute his liking of learning English to changeable internal factors. He believed he could do better with appropriate effort. Since he did not have to study for the university entrance exam any more, he liked and studied English not only for the purpose of getting good grades.

Language use anxiety (and self–confidence in self–expression)

In his junior high and high school days, Learner D used to become nervous when speaking in public in English or Japanese, as is evidenced in his response to Item 4 of the open–ended questionnaire administered in Nov, 2000: "I get nervous because in English there are more possibilities to make mistakes in speaking than in Japanese." This may have been partly due to lack of experience. Through the learning experience of the project, his anxiety decreased. This can partly be supported by the evidence of his response changes from "agree" to "disagree" and from "strongly agree" to "slightly agree" for Item 3 (*I*

don't like learning English because I cannot speak English well) for Item 13 (*It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in English*) of the questionnaire.

Learner D's anxiety about writing and speaking should be discussed separately. He seems to have gained confidence in writing. He says this in his interview responses: "Although I had anxiety / I learned how to write strategically (writing strategy) / Through this, I think I was able to gain confidence, **at least in writing"** (D59-60). And indeed, his anxiety did seem to be lower: "Well, after studying at university for one year / and I have learned things I didn't learn in high school / I think in practice my anxiety was lowered **a little**" (D83-84); "Yes, it did decrease a little" (D62). He also explained how writing practice influenced his speaking ability: "Well, anyway I was able to manage to speak **a little / through writing practice,** I feel it transferred to (positively affected) my speaking" (D78-79).

Furthermore, Learner D came to worry about his test scores less than before — presumably through his learning experience in the project. His anxiety over taking tests also decreased, as his response changes from "agree" to "slightly disagree" for Item 15: *I worry about test results whenever I take a test*) testify. He admits this too in his interview comments: "Well, originally, I am not a type to worry about results, / and as I repeatedly said, / your lecture last year was very meaningful, / in a sense I have not done such learning at high school, / So in that sense I gained confidence a bit, I think" (D87-89).

However, this does not mean that he no longer felt anxiety about speaking. He conceded in the interview that the experience of the oral presentation made him anxious: "I did an oral presentation at the end of the course / when doing it, I was indeed nervous; got into a panic and could not speak well" (D42-43), "We all were nervous in public when we went up

onto the platform in front of our classmates" (D44); "Although I did have anxiety last April as well, I think it increased a bit more" (D45-46). However, from my observation of Learner D's video-recorded oral performance, he seemed to accomplish the oral presentation without anxiety (*the extent to which he appeared anxious — 1: very low; the extent to which he seemed to have lexical/grammatical problem — 2: relatively low; an ability to get across his message — 4: relatively high*). In his speech, he used eye contact to a certain degree. He also voluntarily took the question, "Why is the divorce rate in Japan increasing?" and answered smoothly, "It is because we are getting more individualistic than before." He even responded to an additional question. "How different in terms of the divorce rate are the US and Japan?" answering, "We just researched it in Japan. I do not know about it in the U.S."

It should be mentioned that this learner regarded his experience of anxiety as meaningful rather than merely as just an anxiety-provoking experience. He described it this way: "After all, the opportunity I had to present in public, in front of my classmates, in English / was a very good experience. I think it was very good experience for me" (D112-113). This is a case where my observation matched the psychological reality.

Due to his experience in the project, Learner D came to have some self-confidence and competence in self-expression (especially in writing), and thus perceived learning English not as memorisation practice as he used to do when studying for the entrance exam but as something he should do to develop his English communication ability in the language. The evidence provides enough grounds to consider that his intrinsic motivation was enhanced through social interaction and was being *entered the core level of intrinsic*

motivation). His motivational development is summarized in the following model:

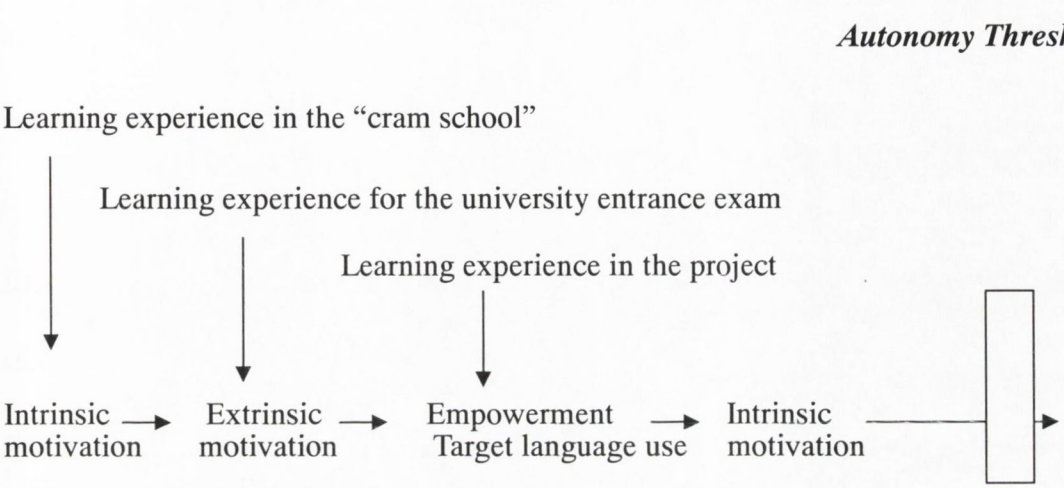


Figure 11. Motivational Development of Learner D

10. 5 ANALYSIS OF DATA PERTAINING TO LEARNER A

Learner A — A Reflective Learner —

Learner A was a reflective learner who could manage her learning. Thus, she keeps obtaining good grades and hardly lost her motivation for studying English.

(i) Factual background information

Learner A's attendance record during the year I taught her was excellent (no absences). In the first semester, she obtained 80 points out of 100 in the final exam (mean score, 71.2) and 10 points out of 10 on listening quizzes. In the second semester final exam, she scored 39 points out of 60 (mean score, 42.0). I concluded from these results that she was an above average student with regard to English proficiency.

(ii) Learner A's previous learning experience

Data from the open-ended questionnaire indicates the influence of teachers or their

teaching style on Learner A's perceptions of her previous English learning experience. In the first year of learning English at junior high school, she disliked learning English because the teacher focused on pronunciation too much. She made this point in her interview responses: "Since I could not produce an 'r' sound and the teacher repeatedly pointed it out, I started to dislike learning English" (JH1). Because of this teacher, she did not study English even in her second year. She was in a vicious circle. As she reported: "I did not study English, got a bad grade and thus hated it" (JH2). Though her mother encouraged her to study, learning English proved painful to her. This was a case in which a teacher influenced a student's motivation negatively. It can be assumed that this learner did not like the teaching style of the teacher who specifically focused on the sound segmental aspects of pronunciation. We cannot however conclude from this evidence, that she also disliked practice of suprasegmental phonological features (stress, rhythm, intonation, etc).

In her third year of junior high school, a teacher who did not focus on pronunciation taught this learner. Since this teacher also praised her many times, she did her best to learn English. Here is a case where a teacher influenced a student's motivation positively. At home, Learner A's mother helped her with English, and this also motivated her to learn. Even after entering high school, English remained her strong subject. Since her personality was such that she always tried to be perfect, she did her best and entered the highest-ranked class (based on a proficiency test). She approached her English classes in a relaxed manner since she no longer had to worry about pronunciation. In her interview, she commented: "My grades were fairly stable" (H2), indicating that she was easily able to

get good grades at school and hence could focus on learning English for the university entrance exam. In her third year of high school, she studied primarily for the entrance exam rather than for school tests. Although her test scores went down, English was still one of her favourite subjects. Her teacher at a private preparatory school that she attended after regular school also positively affected her motivation to learn English, as she considered that learning experience enjoyable and the teaching easy to understand. She had no experience of visiting an English-speaking country.

It is interesting to note that (as evidenced in her response to the questionnaire given in April, 2000) she came to realise that pronunciation practice as well as grammar were important for communication, and she expressed a desire to improve her pronunciation and communication skills.

Overall, she seemed to be a self-directed learner who had developed her own learning strategies and who possessed an ability for self-reflection. However, the data referred to above indicates that she tended to attribute her learning to external factors such as her teachers, their teaching approaches, or even her mother. The data give the impression that though she might have had self-determination with regard to learning English, this remained within the confines of a teacher-centred curriculum (at least up to April, 2000).

(iii) Learner A's motivation on entering university

The data from the closed-questionnaire (administered in April 2000) suggested that Learner A was a good English learner, although she had insufficient experience in practising speaking. Her "strongly agree" response to the statement in Item 1 (*I like*

learning English because I have made effort in the past), and "strongly agree" response to the statements in Items 43 (*I study English because I like it*), 44 (*I feel satisfaction when I am learning English*), 45 (*I wish I could learn English without going to school*), and 46 (*I want to continue studying English for the rest of my life*) show that she liked learning English because it was enjoyable and it broadened her views. She thus wanted to continue studying it. She responded "strongly agree" to the statements in Items 21 (*When studying for a test, I try to determine which concepts I don't understand well*), 22 (*I learn from my mistakes in using English by trying to understand the reasons for them*), 29 (*I am good at setting goals for my learning English*), 30 (*I have my own style of learning English*), and 31 (*I have a clear goal of learning English*), illustrating that she had her own style of learning English. She strongly believed that she would master spoken English and thus be able to communicate with foreigners in English with suitable effort. She answered "strongly agree" to the statements in Items 39 (*I believe I can communicate with native speakers of English if I make a proper effort*), 40 (*Communicating in English should not be so difficult since I can speak native language: Japanese*), and 41 (*I believe everyone has the ability to master a foreign language*), and "strongly disagree" to those in Items 37 (*Intelligence is something you are born with and cannot change*), 38 (*The most important ingredient in learning English is my overall language ability*), 42 (*It is too late to master spoken English since I have been taught mainly grammatical rules*). These responses seem to suggest that she already possessed intrinsic motivation and the characteristics of an autonomous learner. However, the qualitative changes in her intrinsic motivation and autonomous characteristics must be further traced.

(iv) Evidence of changes in learner A's motivation during the teaching project year

From an analysis of the multiple data, we can infer that through her learning experience in the project, Learner A's original intrinsic motivation, which was within Deci & Ryan's self-determination theory (for the university entrance exam), changed its quality in the direction of a social-constructivist approach to the exploitation of intrinsic motivation (see 5.1.6).

During the teaching project, this learner made a lot of effort, since she felt a sense of participation and responsibility in her group through writing her opinions on the e-bulletin board, reading others' opinions, and giving feedback on them. All the group members discussed with each other and tried to find differences in the others' opinions within their shared standpoint on the topic (all of them were taking a positive stand on "divorce"). It was a meaningful experience for Learner A in that she expressed her opinion with a clear viewpoint (as a law student). In this way, her learning experience did positively affect her motivation.

Changes in Learner A's motivational characteristics were seen in the following factors: *autonomy/intrinsic motivation, instrumental motivation, language use anxiety,* and *international orientation*. An additional factor, *willingness to communicate* also appeared.

Autonomy/intrinsic motivation

Through her learning experience in the project, Learner A seems to have realised that she needed to improve her English skills not for the entrance exam (i.e., grammar) but for communication. We can see this from her changed responses to questionnaire Item

26 (*My goal of learning English is to master how to learn English*) from "I cannot answer this question" to "agree" and to Item 27 (*My goal of learning English is to establish my own style of learning English*) from "strongly disagree" to "agree". She gave further evidence of this in her interview comments: "Since I already had a certain basic knowledge of grammar (though one thing I lacked was the ability to use that knowledge) on entering university, I thought I had enough room to improve my skills in the sense of making a lot more opportunities to use English" (A86-89). Although she considered that she had already developed a certain level of grammatical ability, she realised that she needed to develop her English communication ability. The data seem to suggest that by becoming aware of the reality of her proficiency level in English communication, she was able to enhance her motivation to learn English in order to develop her communicative ability, and to start reflecting on her learning. The fact that she seemed to have realised her weaknesses and strengths may indicate she was becoming an autonomous learner.

In her high school days, Learner A thought she was good at English, at least in memorising material for the university entrance exams. We see this in her interview responses: "At high school, I was not allowed to attend English class without preparation. / Moreover, it was a kind of study involving memorising and putting knowledge in our head" (A116-117). English was indeed her favourite subject, as she explained in the interview: "When I was in junior high school and high school, I did not attempt to make English my strong subject. / I memorised things without much intention to make my strong subject for the entrance exam" (A124-125), "Well, until I entered university, I was endeavouring about memorising vocabulary and grammar for the entrance exam. / I have considered myself as a learner with a

good command of English" (A52-53).

However, through her learning experience in the project, this learner realised her lack of English proficiency for communication and the necessity of making effort and taking voluntary action. We can see how she viewed learning English at the university in the following responses: "it requires of us voluntary thought and action / After all, I feel university is a place where each individual needs to study voluntarily" (A118-119). Her use of the word "voluntarily" and her conscious awareness of that she was using it, may shed a little light on her autonomous characteristics in that she realised the necessity of voluntary individual study. This is supported by her interview response: "Yes. Very much so" (A135) to the question, "Do you now have a sense of studying voluntarily more than you used to do before?" (A134) and in her comments "In spring last year, I did not feel so / But in actually using real English voluntarily everyday in the fall semester, I felt the necessity of learning English more and more" (A149-150). That she realised the necessity of making efforts is shown in the following comments: "After I entered the university, I realised I was not good at speaking and listening at all. / I brushed up my listening skills in the other English class / about writing, I have not done it. Since the Center Exam was mostly multiple-choice type questions, / I realised I could learn more by listening to English conversation on TV programs" (A53-57).

When learners reflect on their strengths and weaknesses, they show evidence of being autonomous. The following extract illustrates how this learner she stresses the necessity of making effort and setting goals (being proficient in English communication, and becoming self-determined to become so): "I still have a lot of things to learn / I really think I need to make a lot of effort and would like to understand a lot better. / Since learning

English is a lot deeper, I came to think I would like to understand a lot better by making a lot more effort. / So I did my best. Making my best effort was good, I think" (A57-60).

Learner A was self-determined in learning English for communication. She may have become different from what she used to be in the sense that she now realised the necessity of developing her communication skills in English. She seems to have reset her goal from passing the university entrance exam to developing her communicative ability. This can be seen in her decision to put off a plan to study abroad. Though she had hoped to go abroad to study soon, she decided not to go until later due to her realisation that she lacked the basic English proficiency for communication: "I need to develop English as a basic skill to study abroad. / It was good for me to be able to think that I would like to study for such a purpose, I think" (A127-128). She might have realised this in her interaction with others using the e-board and experiencing the oral presentation. This may be a case of interactional modification due to negotiation for meaning facilitating language learning (Long, 1980, 1996), since negotiation is considered to be "modification and restructuring of interaction that occurs when learners and their interlocutors anticipate, perceive, or experience difficulties in message comprehensibility" (Pica, 1994, p. 495). Furthermore, she seems to have been able to recognise what she needed to do since she noticed a gap between what she wanted to say and what she actually could say. Thus, she may have started to grow more rapidly as a learner. Her experience in the project seemed to contribute to her consciousness raising.

Learner A's autonomous characteristics are also evident in her behaviour: "In the spring break… / not specifically in fact, just to take the STEP Test (pre-1st grade) or TOEFL /

doing such studies when I have time" (A142-143); "since spring listening to English conversation, I am doing such things" (A143-144). "Though before I gave up listening to English conversation on the radio several times, / now I am actually listening to it since I have started to try and make effort without giving up" (A 151-153). This may be a case in which temporary learning behaviour became habitual, as the concept of *two levels of intrinsic motivation* suggests (see 5.5.1). This learner explicitly showed her autonomous characteristics in her behaviour, not only psychologically but also physically. She started to study for her own personal growth as a learner, which may be part of her life-long learning.

Overall, Learner A exhibited characteristics that are consistent with the those of autonomous foreign language learners proposed by Ridley (2000, p. 126): "autonomous foreign language learners ... are able to identify their own needs, strengths and weaknesses and to set appropriate goals accordingly." Having been exposed to the learning experience in the project, her autonomous characteristics changed from *reactive* to *proactive* ones (see the discussion in 4.4.3)

Instrumental motivation

Learner A still seemed to possess instrumental motivation, not for the entrance exam but for something that may be linked to her intrinsic motivation. Her response change from "strongly disagree" to "slightly disagree" to the statement in Item 47 of the closed questionnaire (*I am learning English because English is a compulsory subject for me*) seems to support this.

In her high school days, this learner studied English solely for an instrumental

reason: "I think I am good at English / Since junior high school, English has been a necessary subject for the entrance exam. / I understand in my mind that it is a compulsory subject" (A109-110). However, in the university she exhibited a rather different type of instrumental motivation, which she had together with her intrinsic motivation. We see it in the following interview comments: "But now since it is an international language, in that sense I think I need to study voluntarily...." (A110-111). "Now in university, of course I study partly for obtaining a qualification. /But learning English can lead to the study of law such as British and American law" (A126-127). She explicitly responded: "No, so I would like to continue studying English permanently" (A113), to the question: "Not just for qualification?" (A112).

Language use anxiety (and self-confidence in self-expression)

In her high school days, Learner A just memorised vocabulary and grammatical rules for the university entrance exam. Since she was good at this, this led her to believe she had a good command of English, including pronunciation. In reality, however, she did not have much listening and speaking practice. Although before entering the university she was not the type of learner who became nervous when speaking in public, she did have an anxiety-provoking experience in the oral presentation, and through her learning experience in the project she realised her lack of real English ability, especially for communication purposes.

In terms of anxiety about pronunciation, when she entered the university this learner thought her pronunciation was satisfactory, but her learning experience in the project convinced her it was not. Without question, her anxiety in using language

increased, as her changed response from "slightly agree" to "strongly disagree" to the statement in questionnaire on Item 11 (*I am good at pronunciation*) shows.

Prior to her learning experience in the project, Learner A wanted to develop her self-expression ability by studying at a language institution in a foreign country, although she realised that expressing herself in English was difficult. Through her experience in the teaching project, she realised her English communication ability was inadequate, and that she needed to develop her self-expression skills. Her response to Item ⑩ in the 2nd open-ended questionnaire more or less illustrates the point that she was becoming self-regulated both cognitively and motivationally (see self-regulation in 1.2.4): "I could improve it a little, though not to a high degree. It was good for me to realise my lack of English proficiency. Because I became aware of the reality, I was able to improve my self-expression ability in English."

In the oral presentation, Learner A thought she was a little nervous, partly because she knew her group had not prepared enough. According to my observation of her videotaped her oral performance (*the extent to which she appeared anxious* — 2: relatively low; *the extent to which she seemed to have lexical/grammatical problems* — 2; relatively low; *an ability to get across her message* — 5: very high), she appeared to deliver her speech in a relaxed manner. She also did the concluding part of her group's presentation, accomplishing it smoothly. She might have been anxious, but she did not reveal much anxiety in her behaviour. However, lack of anxiety at the surface level may not reflect the psychological reality. Hence, in this instance, self-reported data may be a more appropriate investigative tool than observation.

Interestingly, this learner seemed to consider the anxiety-provoking experience of the project meaningful because she would not have appreciated her real ability without it. This is clearly indicated in the following interview responses: "Yes, in my high school days, I thought I pronounced carefully and did okay. / But as we practised speaking and listening, / I thought I still cannot pronounce at a certain level" (A79-80).

Learner A clearly recognised the importance of speaking opportunities, including anxiety-provoking experiences, in developing her spoken English ability. She realised that such experiences can be a good motivator. And, as Dewey (1916, p. 140) explains, she was able to learn from her experience by making a backward and forward connection between what she does to accomplish things and what she enjoys (in the project) or indeed suffer from things (pronunciation exercise in her junior high school days).

International orientation

Although she hoped to communicate with foreigners (and may be still hoping so), through her learning experience in the project Learner A seems to have realised the necessity of developing her English communication skills first in order to be able to communicate with them abroad.

Prior to the project, this learner displayed very simple integrative motivation; she says in her interview, "Since I have not been to foreign countries such as America or England, I wanted to study in such places" (A101-102). This can even be interpreted as "interest" or "curiosity" rather than "motivation." The following interview comments indicate that rather than giving up her dream of studying abroad, her motivation for it had increased: "But I realised I am not ready for study in a foreign country, that is, I have not prepared enough for

it. / Since there is a lot to do for it, I thought I actually need to prepare for it rather than just longing for it" (A102-104). In other words, she was now willing to prepare so that her future study abroad would be fruitful. We can see this in the following: "Someday, I would like to go abroad to study when I have studied enough for it" (A146). This supports the notion that in an EFL context like Japan, learners study English for communication purposes, that is, they tend toward international orientation, since there is no target culture to integrate with in Japan. In this sense, she seems to have acquired an international orientation.

Willingness to communicate

This factor did not appear in the closed questionnaire data of the other four learners. However, in the case of Learner A, it explicitly emerged from the interview data with ample evidence. This is not surprising, because according to the *WTC model*, learners must have various individual variables to reach the level of willingness to communicate (MacIntyre, et al., 1998, p. 547). Through her learning experience in the project, this learner started to become more willing to communicate with others. The following extract from her interview illustrates the point that the project experience enhanced her willingness to communicate: "By putting my personal opinion on the computer every week / well, ah, we were discussing for or against divorce / By doing it, well, as a law major student, we have learned about divorce from a legal perspective, / though it was hard to convey such difficult things in English. / But we seriously considered how to convey our message to others effectively / it was quite useful doing it, though it was quite difficult, I think" (A24-28).

All of the members in her group tried to put across their message in the oral presentation. She believed this was meaningful in the sense that she realised the importance of such an experience: "I think it was also difficult to present in front of others at the end. / Though I was nervous, I thought it was important" (A28-29). She believed the oral presentation helped her develop her self-expression ability: "I realised that expressing my opinion verbally and in public is very important. And I realised that I was able to use a computer" (A138-139). Significantly, Trevarthen (1992) notes that "people assimilate the reality they know and use into their communications" (p. 102).

Furthermore, through her learning experience in the project, Learner A seems to have realised the importance of writing practice, in that it can enhance one's spoken self-expression: "Well / Uh ... I have not had much practice in writing and expressing my opinion before. / By doing so, it leads to improving speaking ability" (A137-138).

There are grounds to consider that by experiencing communication and mutual help with others in her group on an interesting topic while making clear assertions through her writing, this learner's willingness to communicate was enhanced.

To summarise Learner A's process of motivational development, the multiple data provide evidence to suggest that she reached *the core level* as described in the model (see Figure 7 below). She did indeed come to be motivated both affectively and cognitively. In other words, her motivation was self-regulated both affectively and cognitively. This type of intrinsic motivation seems to have arisen from her learning experience in the project. She became more reflective in the sense that she realised her weakness and understood what she needed to do to develop real English communicative ability. Her autonomous

characteristics changed in nature from being *reactive* to *proactive*. As evidenced by her change of attitude, Learner A gave the impression of being in control of the direction of her L2 learning and of making deliberate decisions about it. Her motivational development is summarised in the model below:

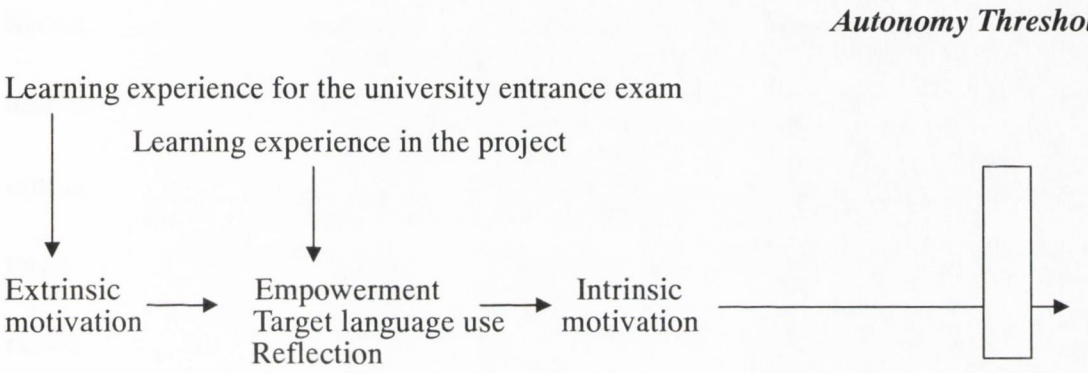


Figure 12. Motivational Development of Learner A

10. 6 DISCUSSION

Having explained the process of motivational development for each learner, I now attempt to answer the two research questions posed in this study.

The first was to investigate how the subjects' learning experiences affected their motivation. The multiple-source data clearly indicates that their previous learning experiences (positive and negative) affected their learning for the university entrance exams. It seems that the Japanese educational system tends to encourage extrinsic motivation, while it hinders learners' readiness to take responsibility for their own learning. In contrast, their learning experience in the teaching project influenced their motivation mostly positively. When we look at the motivational changes among these

learners that seem to be connected with their learning experience in the project, several interesting features emerge.

There is ample evidence to suggest that their learning experience during the project contributed to their motivational enhancement. Changes that I noted can be summarised as follows. First, all 5 learners acquired more confidence in writing in the target language. Second, although they were still anxious about speaking, by the end of the project they understood that anxiety-provoking experiences, such as making an oral presentation, are crucial as a means of reducing their general anxiety about speaking English in the long term. In other words, they saw the relevance of the oral presentation to their long-term needs. Third, although they felt they were forced to study only for instrumental reasons for the entrance exam, they become willing to study English voluntarily after having experienced the project. Fourth, the project raised their consciousness about learning English, in that they got to use the language and to exchange opinions in it. Fifth, we can say that they were indeed psychologically autonomous; or at least ready to become autonomous (see the discussion in the introduction to this chapter). It can be concluded that their intrinsic motivation was increased, and autonomous characteristics (at least psychologically, in their attitudes, for example) appeared.

I conclude therefore that most of the learners did cross what I term the *autonomy threshold* and became autonomous learners (at least in their attitude). Through the experience of a learner-centred approach in the teaching project, their motivation developed through interactions between internal and external factors (see 5.5.1); it changed its shape as it crossed what I call the *autonomy threshold* (see 5.3.2). In other

words, these 5 learners were successful in changing internal factors that are closely related to motivation or motivated behaviour, having been exposed to this new learning experience. Learners M and A, however, may be a bit ahead of others. They both seem to have reset their goal of learning English from passing the university entrance exam to developing their communicative ability. Obviously, the motivational or autonomous characteristics they exhibited differed in each individual since developmental processes are different from one learner to another.

It became also clear that most learners (except for learner E), who were affectively demotivated to a lesser or greater extent by their learning experiences in school, became motivated more affectively (e.g., a feeling that it might be fun to learn) and later became motivated both affectively and cognitively (e.g., reflection, goal setting) through their learning experiences in the project (as it became meaningful as well as fun). This implies that unless learners find their learning interesting and challenging, they do not realise the necessity of effortful learning.

Referring back to different types of extrinsic motivation proposed by Deci and Ryan (1985) (see 4.4.2), we can say that in their high school days most of these learners' instrumental motivation (except for learner E) was *external regulation* for the university entrance exam (the least self-determined form of extrinsic motivation, originating entirely from external sources). However, after the experience in the teaching project, the motivation of Learners E, K and D turned out to be *integrated regulation* (i.e., the most developmentally advanced form of extrinsic motivation that involves intentional behaviour, and that is fully assimilated with the individual's other values, needs and

identity). It seemed, however, that only Learners M and A had reached the level of pure intrinsic regulation, in Deci and Ryan's terms.

As for the second research question, regarding how the subjects' intrinsic motivation changed as a response to different learning experiences, each learner's intrinsic motivation seems to have been enhanced but in different ways, as a response to (i) different previous learning experiences and (ii) their learning experience in the project. By socially interacting with each other on the e-bulletin board, they became more intrinsically motivated to learn English for the purpose of developing their communicative ability. All 5 learners came to believe that ability or aptitude are not necessarily fixed but can be changed. In other words, we can say that their internal beliefs were to a certain extent changed by their social interaction (via use of the target language use, the computer, and group work) with each other. The learners' intrinsic motivation was socially enhanced in this learning environment. All 5 learners referred to their enhanced intrinsic motivation through their learning experience in the project. Furthermore, learners M and A were clearly able to find the connection between their learning and the real world: the reason why they study English. The others were perhaps about to find their reason. It may be that only these two learners had entered what we might call the "core level" of intrinsic motivation, while the others are psychologically ready to enter and would probably enter that level in the near future, but are still at the surface level. The difference between Learners M & A on the one hand and Learners E, K and D on the other is illustrated in Figure 13 below. In short, we can suggest that the characteristics of the learners' intrinsic motivation changed.

Additionally, all of the data provided enough evidence that all of the learners accepted new type of learning experience (learner-centred, project-based) and enhanced the quality of their intrinsic motivation. It can be construed from those data that it is partly due to enough preparation for new type of learning (until October, 2000) and a less distant relationship with the instructor, inasmuch as I made it clear that I was interested in individuals' progress.

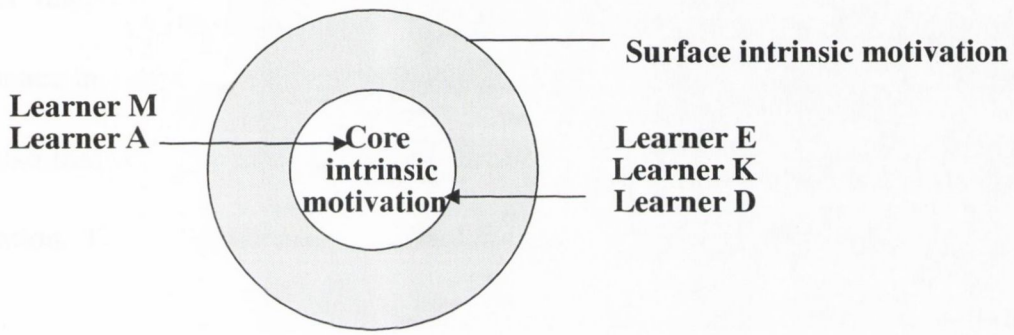


Figure 13. Two Levels of Intrinsic Motivation (Surface and Core Levels): Focus on 5 Learners

Now let us look at more detailed aspects of the second research question. As far as the five learners' instrumental motivation is concerned, this was lowered after their university entrance exam, but in different ways. After she entered university, Learner M seems to have retained an instrumental motivation, but less explicitly than before. Similarly, Learner A had instrumental motivation for studying abroad, but not for the entrance exam. These two wished to study English to obtain a qualification or for travel. Only Learner K apparently enhanced her instrumental motivation for getting university credits.

As for the ways in which the learners' anxiety levels in writing and speaking

changed, it can be said that generally their anxiety in writing decreased (and their confidence increased), whereas their anxiety in speaking was enhanced through the project. However, such an anxiety-provoking experience was perceived as a necessary and beneficial experience for their future learning by most learners, since they knew they were short of such important experiences. Learners like M seem to gain confidence in self-expression first through writing and then through oral presentation. These findings suggest that, in terms of self-expression, learners may be ready to develop their confidence in speaking when they have gained confidence in writing. It is interesting to note also that all the learners came to have an international rather than an integrative orientation. That is, they would like to study English to be able to communicate with others.

With regard to the characteristics of autonomous learners (see the discussion in the introduction to this chapter), I suggest that these learners did show autonomous characteristics, at least psychologically. However, only Learners M and A seemed to exhibit autonomous characteristics at the behavioural level: e.g., they actually started to learn English on their own outside of the classroom.

Finally, I would like to refer to the impact of intrinsic motivation on the subjects' behaviour outside the classroom and after the project. Although their learning experience in the project did tap into their intrinsic motivation, of all the learners only Learners M and A showed some carry-over effect in their behaviour due to the project (they started to watch movies on DVD, and started to listen to English on the radio without ending up falling by the wayside, for example).

10.7 CONCLUSION

Examining each individual learner as a whole person in a rich natural setting helped me gain a clearer picture of each student's motivational development in language learning, and especially of how internal and external factors interact with each other. Rather than solely focusing on causal variables, such as attitude or aptitude, which have appeared in much quantitative motivation research, this study focused more on the developmental process of intrinsic motivation of each learner, and on their prior learning experiences, world view, and on the way they internalise various factors. The multiple sources of data confirmed the reliability of self-reported data. All the sources helped to elucidate each student's development of intrinsic motivation in language learning: *how* they perceived their previous learning experience and *why*, *how* they perceived their recent learning experience and *why*, and *how* they behaved the way they did and *why*.

A thorough examination of each participant's background and values (their views toward their previous learning experiences) revealed that learning experiences did affect views toward subsequent learning. It is perhaps significant that Learner E, who had the experience of learning English in childhood, was helped by this experience to sustain motivation to learn English, even during the period of studying it for the university entrance exams, which as we have seen, is a potentially demotivating experience. In the case of learner D, although her childhood learning experience did not protect her intrinsic motivation from the negative experience of learning for the university entrance exam, the new learning experience in the teaching project revived her intrinsic motivation. An analysis of the five language learning histories shows that in the course of their life

experience, each learner had come to regard foreign languages either as meaningful, or just a requirement (or both). The learners' school English learning histories shed light on how formal schooling affected their subsequent learning and on how they perceived learning.

In short, this study suggests that motivation can be strongly influenced by one's learning experiences under a certain learning environment and by the ways in which learners internalise what they have learned. In the concluding chapter, I elaborate on this by examining the development of *intrinsic motivation*.

CHAPTER 11

CONCLUSION

11.0 INTRODUCTION

This concluding chapter summarises the line of argument that this thesis has developed. It will be recalled that the general aim of the thesis as explained in the Introduction was to explore the links between learners' educational experiences and ways in which they develop certain types of motivation. For this purpose, I set out to explore two aspects of learning behaviour. First, the extent to which university-level Japanese learners' commonly perceived lack of motivation for learning and using English is linked to their previous learning experiences, and secondly, the extent to which they become more motivated, both in general and in relation to using the target language, when they are given more responsibility for their learning in class — first through L2 writing and then through L2 speaking.

The first part of this thesis (Chapters 1 to 2) discussed theoretical issues that are fundamental to the study of motivation in human behaviour and language learning. This discussion was necessary in order to identify which aspects of motivation might be particularly relevant to foreign language learning. Chapter 1 examined the biological roots of motivation from the perspective of human behaviour. Self-regulation in learning and the relationship between cognition and motivation were examined. I argued that all living beings, animal and human, have a capacity to be autonomous, and that autonomy can

develop through interaction. Although human motivation also changes in nature under different environments, the psychological process involved may be very more much complex than that of other animals. Chapter 2 examined motivation from various perspectives (*consciousness/unconsciousness, cognition/affect, time, context*) and I proposed the following as a working definition of language learning motivation: "Motivation in language learning is a multidimensional construct that is dynamically changing by nature, under different environments, and over time." This definition takes account of my own view of motivation in language learning.

The second part of the thesis reviewed research in motivation. In Chapter 3, motivation studies that take a social psychological approach and those that have a more educational focus were discussed. I described the dramatic change in language learning motivation research from Gardner's social psychological approach focusing on the *state* aspect of motivation to research focusing on the *time* aspect of motivation exemplified by the work of Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) and Ushioda (1994, 1996a). Chapter 4 dealt with theories in educational and cognitive psychology that provide a theoretical framework, especially for Study 1. Theories of learner beliefs, self-efficacy, attribution, several factors that influence learner beliefs, and autonomy in relation to goal-oriented, intrinsic motivation were discussed. Chapter 5 presented the theoretical framework of the thesis: a social constructivist view of language learning motivation (see 11.2 below). Chapter 6 discussed the influence of Japanese social, cultural, and contextual issues on learner motivation including Confucian thought, the educational system, and language education. How the educational system and its philosophical underpinnings affect learner motivation

in language learning in Japan was considered. This discussion was crucial for interpreting the findings of Study 2, since it supports my argument that motivation is affected by the social environment in which learners live.

The third part of thesis began with Chapter 7 which discussed various methodological tools available for motivation research and provided the rationale for the research methodology used in this thesis. Chapter 8 reported the results of a factor analytic study of 288 EFL learners in Japan (Study 1). Chapter 9 described the details of the teaching project and presented the subjects and methodology of the qualitative and longitudinal study (Study 2), which used various research tools — closed and open-ended questionnaires, and interviews. Chapter 10 described the findings of Study 2 and presented a model of each learner's motivational changes.

11.1 SUMMARY OF THE APPROACH TAKEN IN THIS THESIS

The thesis has pursued the motivational development of university-level Japanese learners of English as they react to new learning experiences. The study is based on two crucial premises. The first is Dewey's educational philosophy of social constructivism: "the only way in which adults consciously control the kind of education which the immature get is by controlling the environment in which they act, and hence think and feel" (Dewey, 1916, p. 18-19). This view is based on his argument that teachers never educate learners directly, but indirectly by means of the environment. This is the key to explaining the development of *intrinsic motivation*; that learners can enhance their motivation by interacting with others in an appropriate learning environment. One of the

purposes of this thesis was to find ways to create a good educational environment in which learners can motivate themselves toward greater autonomy. The second premise is my working definition of motivation and its consequences:

> Motivation in language learning is a multidimensional construct that is dynamically changing by nature, under different environments, and over time. Learner motivation changes both affectively and cognitively through social interaction, influenced by internal and external variables which may be in a reciprocal relationship. The teacher's role is thus to provide learners with an appropriate environment in which to learn language effectively, wherein there is a trusting relationship between the teacher and learners, so that learners perceive and use language as a means of self-expression and communication. This trust involves a commitment to the learning process by both the teacher and learners.

With this in mind, I was interested in how learners react to the environment, that is, how their motivation changes through being exposed to a learning environment where they can interact with others using the language being learned. To properly investigate these aspects of motivation, the study had to be longitudinal and qualitative, while the interpretation of its findings should relate not only to particular circumstances of learning within the classroom but also to the wider educational system within the society. Furthermore, in order to investigate the dynamic nature of motivation, the study had to be not only longitudinal and qualitative but also contextual and multi-layered, since motivation can be influenced by many factors during the developmental process of L2 learning. Hence its analysis requires careful description of the various data over time.

I hypothesised that the quantitative data from Study 1 suggested the whole Japanese educational system interacts in a negative way (has an inhibiting effect) on

individuals' intrinsic motivation in terms of their developing communicative ability in English, but that such motivation may grow through a learning experience involving a learner-centred approach such as computer-mediated target language use, and discussion-based group activities for promoting social interaction.

As already noted, the thesis is based on two connected empirical studies, Study 1 and Study 2. Study 1 investigated the motivational characteristics of 288 Japanese learners of English on entering university. In order to include a social dimension in the study, it was necessary to carry out a large-scale survey of learners with different majors across variety of institutions and locations. Otherwise, we would not know what kind of motivation 1st year university EFL learners possess that can be considered to reflect their society. Moreover, we would not be able to properly place the 5 learners used for Study 2 among 1st year students in general in Japan.

In Study 1, the closed questionnaire data were factor-analysed in order to determine the motivational constructs for Japanese learners of English. As a result, five factors — *autonomy/intrinsic motivation*, *instrumental motivation*, *language learning belief*, *language use anxiety*, and *international orientation* — were identified. This approach was not, however, sufficient to obtain introspective and insightful data on the learners' motivational changes in the classroom setting in a true sense. Studies that employ multiple-choice questionnaires and factor analysis are beneficial in allowing a focus on particular characteristics of motivation and in providing characteristic similarities across large number of learners (Schumann, 1998, p. 181).

To make up for the shortcomings of the factor analytical study, I carried out a

further longitudinal/qualitative study (Study 2) to look at the *time* aspect of motivation (Chapters 9 and 10). In this study, various sources of data (a closed questionnaire administered twice, two open-ended questionnaires, and an interview) investigated the motivational development of 5 learners and suggested that all of them had crossed what I call the *autonomy threshold* (though how far they went depends on each individual learner). A through examination of each participant's background and values (their views toward their previous learning experience) revealed that a learner's experience affects his/her views toward subsequent learning. The study provided evidence that learners can enhance both their affective and cognitive aspects of motivation by interacting with others and internalising the significance of learning, each in a different way and at his/her own pace and that this process is linked to past learning experience, probably personality variables, and the learning environment provided.

As discussed in Chapter 1, humans have the capacity to motivate themselves by dealing with their environment. And once they are provided with an environment in which they can interact with others, and internalise the meaning of their learning, learners have a high possibility of further enhancing their motivation. This study provides some degree of evidence that through their learning experience in a Web-based collaborative learning project, the learners' conceptions of and attitudes towards English and the process of learning English changed when they realised the *usefulness* of being in situations in which they could learn the language through using it; and that their confidence increased when they employed English as a genuine means of communication and self-expression (first through writing and then through speaking). As a result of such

a learning experience, some learners possibly found meaning in their learning in the society in which they live, and went on to exhibit habitual motivated and self-regulated learning behaviour.

11.2 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The presentation and discussion of the empirical approach and results (Chapters 8, 9, and 10), using a mixture of quantitative and qualitative data and taking contextual elements into consideration in the interpretation of data, helped me to confirm in this thesis that humans have the nature to change themselves under different environments, — that is, each learner can develop his/her motivation in complex and different ways when given an appropriate learning environment in which to learn.

Most teachers are interested in how to motivate learners directly and would like to witness some visible improvement in the classroom. We must understand however that learners' motivation grows only in an appropriate learning environment. And it is also true that learner motivation is unlikely to grow if we provide learners with an optimal environment (just once) that we have prepared in advance - and then leave them alone to follow their innate capacity to develop naturally. Rather, it is a continuous and developmental process that requires learners and teachers working together. And the teacher is the person who is responsible for continuously making efforts to shape better learning environments for the learners. In short, what teachers control is not "students" but "the learning environments".

As a teacher, I believe it is also important that we teach our students something that

can positively affect their future learning; as a researcher, my aim is to investigate this "something." I am of the opinion that what we have to do is to sow the field so that 5, 10, or 20 years later the seeds will have attained a natural capacity to grow themselves. It is our responsibility to provide an environment that will not disturb their natural growth, just like the growth of the *avocado* I referred to at the beginning of the Introduction. When something goes wrong within the system, it should not necessarily be seen as the fault of individuals, but as a lack of balance in the system. When students in Japan fail the university entrance examination, it may not be their own fault but because they did not fit into the Japanese educational system. In Study 2, social contextual aspects clearly played a crucial role in our understanding of the data. Hence, I consider that we might be able to provide some hints for exploring how to create an appropriate learning environment to support the motivational development of learners. These can be informed by an understanding of both negative and positive contextual aspects, including the educational system. An understanding of ways in which aspects of the environment affect learning is particularly important for language teachers and learners. It is my belief that this is crucial for motivation research, much of which aims to pursue practical implications in a specific context.

Without doubt, the trend of utilising longitudinal/qualitative studies will be a growing area in motivation research. However, obtaining more generalisable and real longitudinal data, including learners' learning histories in different educational backgrounds, may not be easy. This thesis employed both quantitative and qualitative data, and reflected on social contextual elements, especially in the interpretation of the

data of Study 2. As a result, it is hoped that this work may shed new light on how learners develop their motivation in foreign language learning situations.

As Dörnyei and Schmidt (2001) note, "L2 motivation research has reached maturity and the motivational basis of second language acquisition is fertile ground for research" (p. ix). It is thus our responsibility that we successfully and significantly contribute to the renaissance of research on motivation. Without question, one direction is research in the area of motivational mental processes. The other direction should carefully take account of the contextual element. We must continue to tackle such challenges in order to uncover the complex nature of motivational development.