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從學生和老師的角度來探討台灣國中英語課室教學中

動機策略的應用

The Use of Motivational Strategies in the Secondary EFL Setting in Taiwan: Teacher and
Student Perspectives



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摘要

本研究之目的在探討台灣國中課室中英語教師動機策略應用的情形，此研究調查學生和老師雙方面對於在課堂中動機策略使用頻率的感知，比較其中差異。很少研究同時參考雙方面的意見，本研究透過問卷的方式詢問老師使用動機策略的頻率，也詢問學生對於相同教師策略使用頻率的感受，目的在找出何種動機策略最常被使用，也最常被學生體驗到。另一個目的是要收集學生對於課室內動機策略的觀點，以瞭解在學生的觀點中，哪些策略可以有效提升他們學習興趣。問卷收集樣本共有老師 135 人，學生 216 人。另外，研究者還進行了 10 堂課的課室觀察，期以觀察所得的資料與師生填寫的問卷資料做對照。

研究結果顯示，學生和老師大致上對使用頻率較高的策略有共識。在 48 個動機策略當中，老師和學生對各項的排序幾乎相同。前幾名分別是適當的教師行為、辨別出學生的努力、適當地呈現教學任務、提升學習者的自我信心、創造愉悅的教室氣氛等。但是程度上老師表示的和學生體驗到的卻大不相同，以 T 檢定比較學生和教師問卷，發現大部分項目都達顯著性差異，教師表示使用的頻率高，但學生體驗到的頻率卻相對較低。在課室觀察的資料中，發現最常被觀察到教師使用的動機策略為：呈現教學工作、提供回饋、教師行為、提升學習者自主性，和提升與第二語言相關的價值，可能因為這些外顯行為的項目較其他容易被實際地觀察到。

此外，比較學生對不同策略重要性的看法問卷當中也指出，學生對於動機策略的想法的確和老師報導的使用頻率不相同。學生對重要性前幾項依序為：提升學習者的自主性、創造愉悅的教室氣氛、辨別學生的努力、適當的教師行為，和提升學習者的自信心。特別在提升學習者的自主性這個類別裡，老師和學生的看法就很不一樣。老師們最少使用這個類別的策略，但是學生卻認為這些是最有效於提升他們對學習語言動機的策略。

關鍵字：動機策略、英語為第二外語之學習環境、教師角色、學習者自主性

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the present study is to find out the use of motivational strategies in secondary EFL settings in Taiwan. Questionnaires were sent to inquire teachers' reported use and students' perception of such use of motivational strategies. Few studies have included questionnaire results from both students and teachers. The present study elicited answers from both parties to find out which motivational strategies were frequently used by teachers and which were perceived by learners in the foreign language classroom. Another purpose is to collect data from students about their opinion on the importance of various motivational strategies used in the classroom. The number of teacher sample is 135, and the number of students is 216. Besides, ten classroom observations were conducted by the researcher in order to complement self-reported questionnaire data.

The results of this study revealed that students and teachers generally agree on which motivational strategies were frequently used in class. The rank order of teachers and students were almost the same. The top ones, in the order of frequency, were proper teacher behavior, recognizing students' effort, presenting tasks properly, promoting learners' self-confidence, and creating a pleasant classroom climate. However, the frequency as reported by teachers and stated by students was very different. The data collected from teachers and students was examined by performing an independent sample t-test, and the result indicated that difference between them was statistically significant. Teachers reported that they frequently used the strategies, but students didn't experience those strategies as frequently as teachers reported using. In the data collected from classroom observation, the most observable and frequently used strategies were: presenting tasks properly, providing feedback, teacher behavior, promoting learner autonomy, and promoting L2-related values. The fact that these domains appeared to be more prominent in the observation data may probably be associated with the nature of their being more observable.

In addition, the result from the student questionnaire asking about students' expectation toward the motivational strategies also indicated that students' perceived importance of them was different from teachers' reported frequency of use. The rank-order of the ten clusters of students' expectation were: promoting learner autonomy, creating a pleasant classroom climate, recognizing students' effort, proper teacher behavior, and promoting learners' self-confidence. As to the conceptual domain of "promoting learning autonomy", it is viewed very differently by teachers and students. Teachers put this one on the last place, but students regarded this domain as the most effective strategy in promoting their motivation toward language learning.

Keywords: motivational strategies, EFL setting, English as a foreign language, teacher's role, learner autonomy

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

As a psychological concept, motivation is one of the most important factors in determining success or failure in any learning situation. Teachers and students commonly use the term to explain why some learners succeed and others fail. Without sufficient motivation, individuals, even with the most remarkable abilities, can not accomplish long-term goals (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998). The notion is also of great importance in language education. Positively, motivation provides the primary impetus to initiate second or foreign language learning and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process. It is believed that language learners with higher levels of motivation will be higher achievers. Motivation functions as the initial engine to generate learning and later serves as an ongoing driving force that helps to sustain the long and strenuous journey of acquiring a second or foreign language (L2). That is why English teachers should make more effort on encouraging students to be fond of learning the language and to raise students' motivation in language learning.

Learners' motivation is a key variable that frequently concerns and challenges practitioners in language classrooms (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007). Researchers used to focus on the definition of what motivation is. They tried to figure out what drives individuals to learn. However, an area of similar importance but much less researched is how teachers can better motivate learners. In recent decades, more and more researchers have decided to examine the pedagogical implications of research by conceptualizing motivational strategies. What's more, researchers also started to examine the pedagogical implications by conceptualizing motivational strategies.

Due to the importance of motivation, it has received abundant attention from L2 researchers during the past decades (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008). Motivation research was inspired and spearheaded by social psychologist Robert Gardner. According to Gardner (1985), motivation for L2 learners consists of three elements: motivational intensity, desire to learn the language, and attitudes towards learning the language. Another key issue of Gardner's motivation theory is the distinction of integrative and instrumental concepts. Integrative orientation is about holding a positive attitude toward the target culture or a willingness to be accepted as a member of the target language community, while instrumental orientations (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991) means studying a language to gain something, such as securing a better job, getting a higher salary, and passing an examination.

According to the socio-educational model (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1992, 1993), learners' affective variables, such as motivation, have an influence on their achievement in language learning. In turn, language achievement and learning experience also have an effect on learners' affective attributes. In other words, motivation is not only a cause but also a result of language learning success. Motivation is a key factor that influences the extent to which learners are ready to learn autonomously, and that teachers might therefore endeavor to ensure motivation before they train students to become autonomous.

The 1990s witnessed a general dissatisfaction with the somewhat "narrow" scope of Gardner's conceptualization of motivation. In other words, there seemed to be a need to make motivation theory more applicable to classroom applications. Dörnyei then conducted several researches which helped to design and summarize motivational techniques for classroom applications and published one book being particularly relevant to this topic "Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom" (2001).

With motivation being an important element that might determine success in L2 learning, strategies in motivating language learners should be seen as an important aspect of the theoretical analysis of L2 motivation. Some studies have been done (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Dörnyei & Cheng, 2007) to investigate teachers' motivational strategies in classrooms. Dörnyei says "the most pressing question related to motivation is not what motivation is but rather how it can be increased" (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 51).

The main finding of these studies is that there are relationships between motivational strategies and the motivation toward L2 learning. Also they identified the most important and frequently used strategies. In those studies, the researchers emphasized on the role of teachers, and discovered that when teachers applied more motivational strategies in class, students would be more willing to learn.

Background of the Study

Under the educational system in Taiwan, students receive compulsory education from grades one to nine. They are required to attend an elementary school for six years and then study at a junior high school for another three years. After completing compulsory education, the students must take the Basic Competence Test for further studies. In addition, based on Grade 1-9 Curriculum Guidelines, English became one of the school subjects for students in grade 5 to 9 in September 2001. Later, the policy changed and students began learning English in grade 3, starting from the 2005 school year. In some cities, like Taipei City and New Taipei City, English is even taught from grade 1. Under stress from the Basic Competence Test, students have to experience many emotions related to learning English.

Traditionally, Chinese teachers have had total control over the teaching/learning process and

some motivational strategies listed are easily perceived as incompatible with their core teaching beliefs and values. The common belief among Chinese educators is that the teacher is the ultimate source of knowledge, which he/she has then to transmit to the learners. Therefore, Chinese teachers are likely to be sceptical of activities such as peer teaching or peer evaluation, which require them to hand some teaching functions over to the students themselves. Interestingly, Chinese learners are often similarly unwilling to adopt new roles. It has been observed by many that they display a strong tendency to be dependent on the teachers' instructions, show little initiative in participating in group discussion and often lack critical or reflective thinking (e.g. Cortazzi & Jin, 1996).

Despite the wide spread use of English and the importance of English learning for Chinese students, many teachers struggle to motivate L2 learners in the classroom. The problem is exacerbated when teachers use lecture-based instruction focusing on grammar and linguistic features whilst ignoring interactive communication between teachers and students, resulting in learners having little chance to practice English (Zeng & Murph, 2007). In Taiwan, the importance of examinations driving student motivation towards acquiring a good grade as opposed to developing communicative skills further compounds the problem.

Statement of the Problem

With motivation being an important construct that might have a huge impact on learners' achievement as discussed earlier, there is no doubt that teachers play an important role in motivating their students. For teachers and practitioners, the most important thing is not the characteristics of motivation itself; instead, how to motivate the students is what really matters. As suggested in the book "Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom" (2001), many motivational strategies can be used in class to promote learners' motivation. Dörnyei and Cheng

conducted a modified replication of the Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) study: 387 Taiwanese teachers of English were asked to rate a list of comprehensive motivational strategies in terms of the importance they attached to these and the frequency they implemented them in their teaching practice. Yet, Dörnyei and Cheng's study didn't put any emphasis on students' perception.

Since few studies have included the opinions of both the students and teachers, the present study elicited the opinions of both students and teachers to find out which motivational strategies were frequently used and perceived in the foreign language classroom. By gaining an understanding of which motivational strategies teachers used more often, and which ones students perceived more and found motivational, we can find out which strategies teachers can use to connect more to students in the foreign language classroom

Significance of the Study

Now, more and more educators realized that knowing what teachers think and do is not enough. Students are the key component and also the target participants in class. Teachers should try their best to motivate learners intrinsically and help them to become autonomous learners. Both teachers' and students' opinions toward the teaching/learning process should be taken into consideration in promoting a better learning environment. However, little of the research examined the students' perception on the frequency of strategies used by teachers and how students feel about the motivational strategies used. The purpose of the present study is therefore to investigate the issue of not only teachers' but also students' perceptions of strategy use.

Furthermore, most participants in previous studies were elementary, senior high school, or university teachers (Dörnyei & Csizer, 1998; Dörnyei & Cheng, 2007), but few studies have been done on junior high school teachers as participants. Although most researches had examined L2

teachers' perceptions of their own motivational strategy use and teaching instruction in EFL setting (e.g. Dörnyei & Cheng, 2007), little of them compared students' perceptions with teachers'. On the basis of these reasons, the present study concentrated on revealing what strategies are reported by teachers as being frequently used in EFL classrooms, especially in junior high school level, and examine if students report being given the same strategies as frequently as claimed by teachers.

The purpose of this study is to explore the most frequently and the least employed motivational strategies among junior high school English teachers in the EFL setting in Taiwan. Another purpose is to collect data from students about their perceptions to the motivational strategies used in the classroom and their opinions toward them.

Research Questions

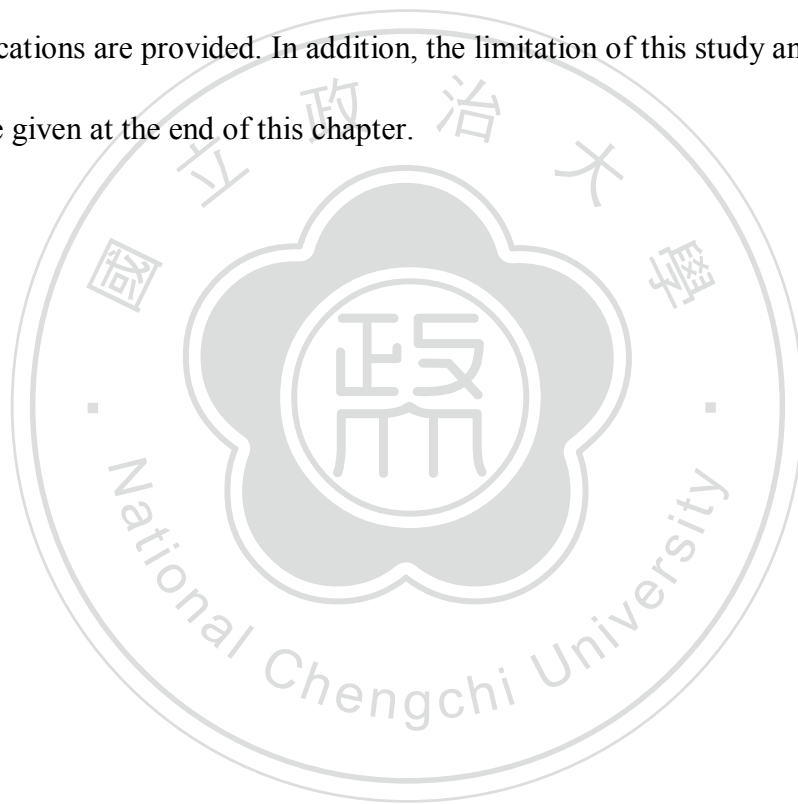
This study attempted to gain a better understanding of how teachers fostered students' motivation to learn in order to help teachers develop and find a balance among different motivational strategies in classroom.

The questions underlying my research are:

1. What motivational strategies are used frequently by English teachers in the classroom of junior high school, (a) as claimed by teachers, (b) as perceived by students, and (c) as observed by the researcher?
2. Are there differences among the three sources of data? More specifically, are there differences (a) between teacher and student questionnaires and (b) between questionnaire and observation results?
3. What motivational strategies are viewed effective by students in promoting their motivation toward language learning?

Organization of the Thesis

This thesis consists of five chapters. Chapter one is the introduction of the study. The background of the study, purpose of the study, and research questions are addressed. Chapter two discusses about theoretical framework of language learning motivation, motivational teaching strategies and related studies. Chapter three elaborates information of participants, instruments, procedure of data collection and analysis. Next, chapter four provides and examines the result of this research. Finally, in chapter five, the result of the data analysis is discussed and then the pedagogical implications are provided. In addition, the limitation of this study and suggestion for future research are given at the end of this chapter.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter first starts with an understanding of the definition and significance of motivation and a discussion of its dynamic nature. Secondly, some prominent motivation theories are introduced. In the past decades, a number of motivational theories have been proposed and employed to study language learner motivation in the learning process; however, as Dörnyei (1998:131) concludes that “no available theory has yet managed to represent it in its total complexity.” Although theories are usually not used to assist learners, it is necessary for researchers and practitioners to know basic knowledge of well-documented frameworks and theories. When it comes to motivation theories, we can refer to what Dörnyei (1998b:118) has stated: “it is not the lack but rather the abundance of motivation theories which confuses the scene”. Some of the famous motivation theories are: expectancy-value theory, achievement motivation theory, self-efficacy theory, attribution theory, self-worth theory, goal-setting theory, goal orientation theory, self-determination theory, social motivation theory, and theory of planned behavior.

Here, the researcher will discuss expectancy-value theory, self-determination theory as well as Gardner’s motivational theory. These theories are chosen because, according to Dörnyei (2001b), they are the most important paradigms. Gardner’s motivational theory is the pioneer theory which influenced many follow-up studies in second language learning. The others also have a great impact on the later research in second language (L2) motivation. Thirdly, and more specifically, Dörnyei’s motivational framework (2001a) is discussed as it serves as the foundation from which the motivational strategies employed in this study are developed. Lastly, the said motivational strategies are presented along with some elaboration of relevant studies conducted in this area.

The Definition and Significance of Motivation

When language teachers describe successful or lower achiever learners, they frequently use the term “motivation” to distinguish them. Motivation is typically defined as an internal status that activates, guides, and maintains behavior (Schunk,1990). Moreover, motivation can also be defined as language learners’ enthusiasm, their being commitment and persistence when engaged in the target task, therefore it is a key determinant of success (Dörnyei, 1998, 2001b).

Although opinions differ as to the definition of L2 learning motivation, there is a general agreement on both the important role that motivation plays in the success of language learning. Dörnyei & Csizér (1998) stated the following:

“L2 motivation is one of the most important factors that determine the rate and success of L2 attainment: it provides the primary impetus to initiate learning the L2 and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process. Without sufficient motivation, even individuals with the most remarkable abilities cannot accomplish long-term goals, and neither are appropriate curricula and good teaching enough to ensure student achievement.” (p. 203).

The significance of motivation is a contributing factor in second language (L2) acquisition.

It is shown here that a lot of research and theories have emphasized the significance of motivation, and the nature of motivation also needs to be discussed here. It is not fixed but has changed over time.

The Dynamic Nature of Motivation

Recently, scholars have theorized and explained many different reasons for language learners’ motivation. Motivation to achieve is tied to individuals’ personal, scholastic, and

professional goals, as well as to their self-concept and identities, both imagined and real. Motivation is also linked to interaction within the target community and a potential desire to integrate into either the target community, or the global community of language learners (Ryan, 2006).

Researchers have also asserted that motivations may not only be intricate, but they also might change over time. Green (1999) asserts that “few research findings take into account the dynamic potential of motivational drives to change with the maturation, experience and developing world view of the individual learner” (p. 267). Dörnyei (2001) terms this idea the “temporal dimension of motivation” (p. 45), and agrees that student motivation undergoes constant change instead of staying the same. The original motives for language learning may change as learners gain more experience with language learning. Oxford and Shearin (1994) illustrate this idea with an example of one woman’s changing motivational drives as she learned Russian. Her initial motive for learning was to communicate with her boyfriend using the Cyrillic alphabet as a secret code. Later she was motivated by the idea of learning a valuable and prestigious language, and by possible career options. By the end of the study, the learner saw Russian as a valuable communication tool.

Since most of the researchers agree on the importance of motivation on L2 learning, there have been many studies that have investigated the relationship between motivational variables and L2 achievement and many influential motivational theories were established.

In the past decades, a number of motivational theories have been proposed and employed to study language learner motivation in the learning process; however, as Dörnyei (1998:131) concludes that “no available theory has yet managed to represent it in its total complexity.” Although theories are usually not used to assist learners, it is necessary for researchers and practitioners to know basic knowledge of well-documented frameworks and theories. When it comes to motivation theories, we can refer to what Dörnyei (1998b:118) has stated: “it is not the

lack but rather the abundance of motivation theories which confuses the scene”. Some of the famous motivation theories are: expectancy-value theory, achievement motivation theory, self-efficacy theory, attribution theory, self-worth theory, goal-setting theory, goal orientation theory, self-determination theory, social motivation theory, and theory of planned behavior.

Expectancy-value theory, self-determination theory, and Gardner’s motivational theory will be discussed later because they are the prominent ones in the field of motivational research.

The Prominent Motivational Theories

Expectancy-value theory

Probably, in the field of motivational psychology, expectancy-value theories are the most prominent ones. Expectancy-value theories (Brophy, 1999; Eccles & Wigfield, 1998) refer to one’s expectancy of success in a given task and the values one expects to benefit from the task. According to the theory, motivation is the product of two key factors, namely the expectancy in a given task and the value the individual attaches to success. The greater the perceived likelihood of success and the greater the incentive value of the goal, the higher the degree of the individual’s positive motivation. It is a belief that human beings are active in learning with an intrinsic curiosity to know their learning situation and meet challenges. The main issue is how to shape and direct learners’ natural motivations. People do excellently due to their belief that they can succeed. For example, we learn perfectly if we expect success, and it can be referred to as expectancy of successes’. Indeed, expectancy of success is not the only key factor to success; it should be accompanied by positive values. Therefore, expectancy of success and values are interconnected; that is, motivation is based on expectancy of success and values. Dörnyei (2001b: 57) has stated that ‘Expectancy is in the mind of the learner.’ Thus, the main concern is to increase learners’

expectancies through arranging the positive mood or environment for learners. For example, teachers should not give learners tasks that are too difficult for them.

There are several techniques provided by Dörnyei (2001a) to strengthen learners' expectations of success: provide sufficient preparation, offer assistance, let students help each other, make the success criteria as clear as possible, model success, and consider and remove potential obstacles to learning. As for offering assistance, if the students know that they can rely on a teachers' guidance while students are involved in a learning activity, this instruction will increase students' expectation of success. In comparison to completing a task individually, offering students guidance can help them value the outcome more.

According to the "expectancy-value theory" a learner's motivation is determined by how much they value the goal, and whether they expect to succeed. The greater the perceived likelihood of success and the greater the incentive value of the goal, the higher the degree of the individual's positive motivation.

Self-determination theory

Motivational theories are almost always associated with the concepts of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation deals with behavior performed for its own sake in order to have pleasure or satisfaction, such as the joy of doing a particular activity or satisfying one's curiosity. Extrinsic motivation deals with behaviors as a means to an end, that is, to receive some extrinsic reward (e.g. good grades) or to avoid punishment. Deci and Ryan (1985) set up a more sophisticated model to replace the dichotomy of intrinsic/extrinsic motivation with a more elaborate construct called self-determination theory. According to the theory, various types of regulations exist and these can be placed on a continuum between people's inherent growth tendencies and heir

innate psychological needs, depending on how internalized they are. It is concerned with the motivation behind the choices that people make without any external influence and interference.

Self-determination theory focuses on the degree to which an individual's behavior is self-motivated and self-determined (Deci & Ryan, 2002). Intrinsic motivation refers to initiating an activity for its own sake because it is interesting and satisfying in itself, as opposed to doing an activity to obtain an external goal (extrinsic motivation). Deci and Ryan (1985) state that people will be more self-determined in performing a certain behavior when three fundamental psychological needs are met. They are autonomy (experiencing oneself as the origin of one's behavior), competence (feeling efficacious and having a sense of accomplishment), and relatedness (feeling close to and connected to other individuals). Autonomy motivation in psychology is related and influenced by 'self-determination theory' (Dörnyei, 2001b:103).

Students' learning autonomy can be related to 'self-determination theory' (Benson, 2000; Deci & Ryan, 1985) which has been highlighted as one of the most influential motivation theories. As Ushioda (2003: 90-101) states, "Autonomous language learners are by definition motivated learners". Students are free to choose rather than being forced to perform according to someone else's preference. In addition, 'autonomy' is discussed by Ushioda under the categories of 'self-regulation' and much research have been published in L2 field about its significant value.

Gardner's motivational theory

The most influential of the early studies on motivation and second language learning centered on the work of social psychologists in Canada is headed by Robert Gardner. Gardner and Lambert initially introduced their instrumental / integrative model of motivation in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) in 1959 (Gardner & Lambert, 1959). This theory later became known as

the socio-educational model. It was the first real attempt to deal with SLA motivation and became the standard research tool and generated many studies until the 1990's, when it began to undergo some criticism. A key tenet of Gardner's theory is that attitudes to the L2 community have a strong influence on one's language learning. It is also assumed by Gardner that there are two broad categories of language learners' goals, integrative orientation and instrumental orientation.

Integrative motivation occurs when students want to learn a language to become part of a speech community. People who immigrate to new countries are some examples of people who may want to identify with the community around them. An important aspect of this form of language learning is using language for social interaction. Learners may be positively drawn to the culture of the target language and may desire to integrate into that culture. This form of motivation is thought to produce success in language learners.

Integrative motivation is often contrasted with the more externally influenced instrumental motivation. That is to say, when individuals wish to study a language in order to achieve an end, such as getting a job, obtaining a salary increase, or having a competitive edge over another, their goals arise from an instrumental orientation. Instrumental motivation (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991) means studying a language to gain something, such as money or a better job, both of which can be powerful instrumental motivators (Dörnyei, 1990; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991; Grosse, Tuman & Critz, 1998).

Gardner's main idea was that the integrative orientation is positively related to L2 achievement and there is a direct cause and effect relationship. Gardner also developed the Attitude / Motivation Test Battery to measure student motivation, and it is still the only major published standardized test for L2 motivation.

However, many researchers are not satisfied with Gardner's theory regarding L2 motivation. Ely (1986) states that it is not always easy to distinguish integrative and instrumental motivation in that learners may have both orientations at the same time or might learn the L2 for other reasons that are unrelated to either of two motivational orientations. Similarly, Dörnyei (1990) asserts that instead of being opposite ends of a continuum, these two orientations should be seen as overlapping constructs which have the same nature in part. Lamb (2004) stated that "we have seen that integrative and instrumental orientations are difficult to distinguish as separate concepts (p.15)." Also, it is possible that in certain social settings, instrumental orientation is the only prominent reason for learners to acquire a second language as Warden and Lin (2000) in their study in Taiwan concluded, "This preliminary study has discerned the existence of two temporal orientations in the Taiwanese EFL environment. An integrative motivational group is notably absent (p.544)." In addition, Irie (2003) in an article on motivation research in Japan stated ambiguous remark toward integrative motivation: "However, the researchers avoid using integrative motivation as a label, as they believe the factor does not fit the original definition (p.90)."

As Gardner's theory mainly evolved from the English as a second language(ESL) context and developed mostly in North America, Dörnyei (1990) states that general assumptions derived from the ESL context may not be applicable to the EFL context where English is typically encountered only in academic settings such as schools for example, he believes that integrative motivation might not be as important as instrumental motivation in a foreign language setting where students have limited exposure to the target community and its people. Later Dörnyei established a framework of second language learning motivation, which is viewed as a great finding in the motivational theories.

Dörnyei's L2 Motivation Framework

Dörnyei's (1998) work has been considered as one of the most influential contemporary motivational constructs in second language learning. He classified student motives into three dimensions; namely, language level, learner level, and learning situation level.

1. *Language level*, which includes an integrative and instrumental motivational subsystem, consists of loosely related, context-dependent motives.
2. *Learner level*, there are two motivational components underlying the motivational processes at this level; that is to say, need for achievement and self-confidence, the latter encompassing various aspects of language anxiety, perceived L2 competence, attributions about past experiences, and self-efficacy.
3. *Learning situation level*, consisted of intrinsic and extrinsic motives and motivational conditions concerning three areas; a) Course-specific motivational components are related to the syllabus, the teaching materials, the teaching method, and the learning tasks, b) Teacher-specific motivational components include the drive to please the teacher, authority type, and direct socialization of student motivation, c) Group-specific motivational components are involved four main components: goal-orientedness, norm and reward system, group cohesion, and classroom goal structure.

Dörnyei (2001b) states that the rationale for separating the three motivational levels is because they seem to have a vital effect on overall motivation independently of each other; that is, by changing the parameters at one level and keeping the other two dimensions constant, overall motivation might completely change. The learner might show a very different degree of motivation in the same learning situation depending on what the target language is. Each of the three levels of motivation might influence the others, and each has sufficient power to deduct the effects of the

motives associated with the other two levels.

Motivational Strategies

Dörnyei (2001a) defines motivational strategies as techniques that promote the individual's goal-related behavior. He states that motivational strategies refer to (a) instructional interventions applied by the teacher to elicit and stimulate student motivation and (b) self-regulating strategies that are used purposefully by individual students to manage the level of their own motivation.

Motivational strategies consist of four main motivational dimensions:

(1) Creating basic motivational conditions

By establishing a good teacher student rapport, creating a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere, and generating a cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms. English classes still tend to be teacher-centered, and those who cannot keep up with classes are prone to behaving poorly, such as paying less attention to teachers, talking to other students, being too quiet and so on. In order to change this situation and to get the unsuccessful learners more involved in class, changing the classroom atmosphere is considered indispensable. Moreover, Dörnyei (2001) goes on to argue that students can feel comfortable taking risks because they know that they will not be embarrassed or criticized if they make a mistake in a safe and supportive classroom.

(2) Generating initial motivation

It is, “whetting the students’ appetite” by using strategies designed to (a) increase the learners’ expectancy of success and (b) develop positive attitudes toward the language course and language learning in general. Classroom teachers in primary and secondary schools, however, tend to have perceptions that are in a sharp contrast with this idyllic view. School attendance is compulsory, and the content of the curriculum is almost always selected on the basis of what society—rather than the

learners themselves- considers important (Brophy, 1998). For most teachers the goals of the given classroom activities, regardless of whether or not the students enjoy these activities or would choose to engage in them if other alternatives were available.

(3) Maintaining and protecting motivation

By promoting situation-specific task motivation (e.g., through the use of stimulating, enjoyable, and relevant tasks), it provides learners with experiences of success, allowing them to maintain a positive social image even during the often face-threatening task of having to communicate with a severely limited language code, and promoting learner autonomy. That is to build students' responsibility. Students shouldn't just listen to teachers but get more involved in class. According to Oxford (1990), "When students take more responsibility, more learning occurs, and both teachers and learners feel more successful"(p11). One way to help students become more independent and responsible is applying student-centered activities, such as those in task-based learning, in which students are assigned specific roles in the meaningful and purposeful context. Another way to help students be more responsible is to develop students' self-awareness by allowing them to do self-assessment of tasks during class activities. These techniques would be crucial ways for teachers to employ in the classroom because of their effectiveness in making students responsible for their learning.

(4) Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation

By promoting adaptive attributions, providing effective and encouraging feedback, increasing learner satisfaction, and offering grades in a motivational manner. It may also be practiced as building students' confidence. Students tend to have no confidence in learning English. Not surprisingly these feelings lead to a downward spiral of unsuccessful learning. As Brown (2001) mentions, "Self-confidence: Another way of phrasing this one is the 'I can do it' Principle, or the

Self-Esteem Principle. At the heart of all learning is a person's belief in his or her ability to accomplish the task"(p.62). Then, how to build students' confidence? One crucial way to do this is to reduce students' anxiety in the classroom. As Oxford (1990) argues, "A certain amount anxiety sometimes helps learners to reach their peak performance levels, but too much anxiety blocks language learning. Harmful anxiety presents itself in many guises: worry, self-doubt, frustration, helplessness, insecurity, fear, and physical symptoms" (p.142). As Scarcella & Oxford (1992) suggest, using pair work, group work, or cooperative learning activities, help in not putting too much pressure on individual students in front of the whole class. In addition, optimistic beliefs cause better results. For example, if students have an optimistic belief such as, "I feel confident when I speak English", the classroom will be very active and interactive.

Studies Concerning Motivational Strategies

There are some researches exploring the use of motivational strategies in the classroom in recent years (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008). These researches can be roughly categorized into two main directions: language teachers' motivational strategies and teachers' pedagogical knowledge behavior in the classroom.

Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) conducted a research to investigate teachers' motivational strategies use and the frequency they used them in language teaching. The study involved two hundred Hungarian teachers of English, teaching in a variety of institutional contexts, ranging from elementary schools to universities. Those teachers were asked to fill in the questionnaire indicating how important they considered a selection of fifty-one strategies and how frequently they used them in their teaching practice. Finally, on the basis of participants' responses, Dörnyei and Csizér compiled a concise set of ten motivational macro-strategies, which they have called the 'Ten

commandments for motivating language learners.’ The final wording of the ten macro-strategies is as follows:

1. Set a personal example with your own behavior.
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 learner autonomy.
8. Personalize the learning process.
9. Increase the learners’ goal-orientedness.
10. Familiarize learners with the target language culture.

According to this study, the finding showed that the participants think that the teacher’s own behavior was the single most important motivational tool; moreover, the survey also revealed that a pleasant and supportive atmosphere in the classroom is also a very important key concept in creating the basic motivational conditions. Last but not least, the significance of their study had offered language teachers various motivational strategies that they can apply it in their classroom. Dörnyei (1998) emphasized that no certain motivation strategy’s value exists in a classroom absolutely and generally since the learning contexts are various, dynamic and changing often. In addition, the results only offer a tentative ranking of the diverse motivational strategies, since teachers’ beliefs might not correspond with actual strategy effectiveness. Therefore, it is necessary to examine whether the commandments actually work in EFL classrooms.

Responding to this call, Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) conducted a replication study of Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) Hungarian study to investigate the use of motivational strategies in language instruction in EFL teaching in Taiwan. The purpose of the studies focused on how important the participants perceive certain motivational strategies and the frequency they used these strategies in classroom. The participants in both researches were English teachers in all levels of institutes and were asked to fill in two types of questionnaires developed by the authors. One type of questionnaire was directed toward the perceived importance of motivational strategies, and the other type of questionnaire was directed toward the frequency of use based on teachers' past teaching experience. Cheng & Dörnyei claimed that the study was the first research looking at motivational strategies in the Asian EFL context. The findings showed that Taiwanese L2 teachers were better at employing certain strategies than others. They were aware of their roles as leaders, and the findings confirmed that teachers also projected their enthusiasm. For instance, while most teachers reported frequently creating a supportive learning atmosphere and recognizing students' efforts, strategies such as promoting learner autonomy, introducing L2-related values, and setting learning goals received low endorsement by most of the Taiwanese English teachers. This indicates that autonomy is not as highly appreciated by Chinese teacher as in Western learning contexts.

Additionally, Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) conducted an investigation of Korean teachers and students of English to examine the link between the teachers' motivational teaching practice and the effects of motivational strategies on students' language learning motivation. The participants in this study were 27 teachers and more than 1,300 learners. There was also a classroom observation scheme developed for this investigation and students' motivation was measured by a self-report questionnaire. The classroom observation record was conducted by using the motivation orientation of language teaching (MOLT) scheme. The MOLT follows the real-time coding

principle of Spada and Frohlich's (1995) communication orientation of language teaching (COLT) scheme but applies categories of observable teacher behaviors derived from Dörnyei's (2001b) motivational strategies framework for foreign language classrooms.

The results indicate that the language teachers' motivational practice is connected to increased levels of the learners motivated learning behavior and their motivational state. The significant positive correlations in Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's (2008) study, indicate that in classroom traditions teachers do not employ motivational strategies and the limited motivational practice as applied by the participating teachers was associated with a significant difference in student motivation due to there was a lack of motivation. In fact, the teaching and learning situation in junior high school in Taiwan also indicate limited motivational practice as applied in the classroom due to an examination-oriented system. Therefore, teachers have space to develop and find a balance of motivational strategies practice in classroom. The results indicate that the language teachers' motivational practice is connected to increased levels of the learners' motivated learning behavior and their motivational state.

The latest relevant research was conducted in Japan by Nakata in 2011. The study attempts to explore Japanese high school teachers' readiness with regard to (1) the perceived importance of and the perceived use of strategies for promoting learner autonomy and professional autonomy by Japanese EFL high school teachers, and (2) these teachers' perception of their readiness for promoting learner autonomy. Eighty English teachers working in high schools in Japan participated in the study. Despite the fact that the development of learner autonomy and teacher autonomy is constantly influenced by contextual factors, these factors remain relatively underexplored. Unlike the existing literature on motivational strategies or strategies for promoting learner autonomy (e.g., Chang, 2007; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998) that targeted teachers of English in

a wide variety of educational contexts, the present study focuses on Japanese high school teachers of English. It is based on the assumption that teachers' perceptions of such strategies are likely to be influenced by the educational context to which they belong, and the teaching experiences they have accumulated; therefore, it is crucially important for such a study to focus on teachers at one educational level high school teachers of English in Japan.

Nakata used a questionnaire with some items adopted from Chang & Dörnyei (2007), and asked the participant teachers to rate their perceived importance of certain strategies for promoting learner autonomy. He then conducted several focus group interviews to collect more data in detail. Several interesting findings were observed from the study. For some reason teachers are in practice not employing strategies as much as they consider important for promoting their learners' autonomy and their own teacher autonomy, suggesting that there is a gap between the ideal and the reality inherent in their educational context. Because of the Japanese EFL classroom context is teacher-centered, grammar-translation, and the authoritarian methods are dominant (Nakata. 2011), some strategies for promoting learner autonomy may not be feasible. It seems that teachers cannot employ this strategy despite their expressed wishes, perhaps owing to the limitations and constraints inherent in the school context (e.g., limited time available, curricular goal, textbook, university entrance exam). The condition in Japan is very much alike as that in Taiwan. The results in Nakata's study (2011) show that many Japanese EFL high school teachers, while displaying different dimensions of autonomy in different ways, are not fully ready to promote autonomy in their learners.

In this chapter, the literature reviewed included a definition of an understanding of the definition and significance of motivation and a discussion of its dynamic nature. Some prominent motivation theories are introduced more specifically. Dörnyei's motivational framework (2001a) is

discussed as it serves as the foundation from which the motivational strategies employed in this study are developed. Finally, the motivational strategies are presented along with some elaboration of relevant studies conducted in this area.

Although many studies have been done to investigate teachers' motivational strategies use (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008), only a few researches have focused on both teachers' and students' points of view toward the motivational strategies. The central purpose of this research is to investigate the use of motivational strategies in language instructions concerning both teachers' self-report of the use of motivational strategies and students' reports and viewpoints on them.



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

The main purpose of this research is to investigate, in the EFL setting in Taiwan, what motivational strategies are used frequently by English teachers as reported separately by teachers and students. Besides, more objective data of teacher and student behavior were collected by the researcher through classroom observation. In addition, the effectiveness of teachers' motivational strategies especially from students' perception is discussed. The four questions underlying the present research were stated on page 6 in Chapter One.

By beginning with a description of the participants involved in the study, this chapter will provide an overview of this study's research design, the instruments by which data were collected, and the methodology employed in the analysis. Next it will describe the questionnaires used to elicit data from teachers and students. The following section will describe the procedure used. Finally, this chapter will provide a brief description and justification for the data analysis that was used.

Participants

Questionnaire participants-teachers

The focus of the present study is to better understand the actual situation and collect both students perceptions on teachers' use of the motivational strategies and teachers' self-report of the use of motivational strategies. The data was collected from different parts of Taiwan (including the capital city Taipei, the middle, the eastern, and the southern parts of Taiwan) to ensure that the data come from diverse classroom settings rather than being limited to one single region. Furthermore, to obtain data from teachers of a range of teaching experiences and educational background, the

questionnaires were filled by teachers with different educational background and a wide range of teaching experience.

In the present study, random sampling was ideal but not quite possible. However, with the personal connection resources from past teacher training experiences, the researcher has many friends who also teach in junior high schools all over Taiwan. They helped distribute the questionnaire to teachers and students in different areas. As a result, a convenience sampling strategy was adopted in the research. The participants comprised a convenience sample , and most of the questionnaires were administered by mail or handed directly to the participants. Teachers were invited to fill in a questionnaire which is designed to explore their motivational strategies used in the EFL classrooms.

The teacher participants in the questionnaire survey were 135 teachers of English in Taiwan (18 males, 117 females), teaching in public junior high schools all over Taiwan; including Taipei city, Taichung, Kaohsiung and Taitung. The participating teachers represented a range of teaching experiences and educational background. Table 1 presents the basic information of the teacher participants.

Table 1. Basic information of the teacher participants

Sex		Teaching experience		Region		Studying abroad	
Males	18	0~3 years	11	northern	93	Yes	30
	(13%)		(8%)		(69%)		(22%)
Females	117	3~6 years	23	central	20	No	105
	(87%)		(17%)		(15%)		(78%)
		6~10 years	36	southern	10		
			(26%)		(7%)		
		10~15 years	32	eastern	12		
			(23%)		(9%)		
		over 15 years	35				
			(26%)				
Total						135	

Questionnaire participants-students

The students participated in this study were junior high school students from different parts of Taiwan (including the capital city Taipei, the middle, and the southern parts of Taiwan). Students in seventh, eighth, and ninth grade all participated in the study. Their ages ranged from 13 to 15 years old. Both male and female students were included. With the help of many teacher participants, two kinds of student questionnaire were delivered. The researcher collected 216 student questionnaire on how often students felt that their teachers implemented various motivational strategies, and another 146 student questionnaire on students' opinions of the effectiveness of these motivational strategies. These students were in classes with normal class grouping, which means students in every class were in diverse abilities; some had high proficiency level but others were much less proficient. The two kinds of questionnaire were filled by two different groups of students because it was likely that students would check the same item without thinking carefully if they had to fill out the two kinds of questionnaire at the same time. Table 2 and 3 shows the basic information of the student participants:

Table 2. Basic information of the students participants-version 1 (asking for observation of frequency)

Sex		Grade		Region		
Males	108 (50%)	7 th grade	68 (31%)	northern	102	(46%)
Females	108 (50%)	8 th grade	110 (51%)	central	38	(18%)
		9 th grade	38 (18%)	southern	40	(19%)
				eastern	36	(17%)
Total				216		

Table 3. Basic information of the students participants-version 2 (asking for student opinions)

Sex		Grade		Region	
Males	74 (51%)	7 th grade	32 (22%)	northern	50 (35%)
Females	70 (49%)	8 th grade	36(25%)	central	35 (24%)
		9 th grade	76(53%)	southern	34 (24%)
				eastern	25 (17%)
Total				144	

Observation participants

In the meanwhile, the researcher asked for permission from several teachers to let the researcher observe their classes. At the beginning, the researcher contacted her former English teacher, who had taught English in junior high school for more than fifteen years. She immediately showed willingness to participate in the study. Other participating teachers were later introduced to the researcher as well. They all taught in public schools in Taipei. Their classes were all in normal class grouping with the average group size at about 35. They gave their consent for the researcher to do the observation in their classroom. The participants' background information will be illustrated here in table 4. The researcher then conducted ten classroom observations.

The researcher unobtrusively observed the English class by sitting at the back of the classroom. The length of each class observation was 45 minutes. The main focus was on teachers' use of the motivational strategies, and the researcher also kept a research journal during and after each observation. Some key points were recorded, for example, the atmosphere in the class, interactions not only between students and students but also between the teacher and the students, the seat arrangement, the way of teaching, and the performance of the students. They were all the information that helped the researcher discover more details to supplement the data collected from questionnaires. All participants were invited because of the personal connection or relationship. Due

to the convenience reason, all participants were in Taipei city or New Taipei city. The participant teachers' teaching experience ranged from 1 year to 20 years. They taught in different grades at that time and the total number of students in every class was about thirty. During every class observation, the researcher first kept this information in the journal about the teachers' characteristics according to the understanding on the teacher and his/her class atmosphere. After the observation, the researcher randomly interviewed three to five students in the class to describe the course and then came to the final description. The basic information of the classroom observations are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. The basic information of the classroom observations

	Place	Gender of the teacher	Years of Teaching	Teacher's Characteristics	Grade of the class	Total number of students
1	Taipei City	F	10	warm, create pleasant classroom atmosphere	9 th	36
2	Taipei City	F	15	humorous, open-minded,	9 th	37
3	Taipei City	F	20	sensitive to students' negative behaviors during class	7 th	35
4	Taipei City	F	8	well-organized, friendly	7 th	38
5	Taipei City	F	8	creative, use group activities	9 th	38
6	Taipei City	M	4	conscientious and careful,	8 th	36
7	Taipei City	M	7	warm, open-minded	9 th	32
8	New Taipei City	F	7	serious, well-organized	8 th	35
9	New Taipei City	F	13	strict, controlling	8 th	37
10	New Taipei City	F	18	humorous, warm, careful	7 th	34

Instrument

Instrument-questionnaires

In this study, I used a teacher questionnaire which is similar to the ones Dörnyei and Csizér

(1998) and Cheng and Dörnyei (2006) used in their researches. These two studies were concerned about Hungarian and Taiwanese teachers' motivational teaching strategy respectively. Two kinds of questionnaires were used in the previous studies. The items on each questionnaire were totally the same. The only difference between the two questionnaires was that one was used to ask the frequency of the use of motivational strategies, and the other was to ask about the importance that teachers thought about the strategies.

In the present study, in order to know the frequency of teachers' use of motivational strategies, the questionnaire asking about frequency was used in this study. Since asking about the frequency of use of strategies is about counting the occurrence of those strategies, it is easy and quick for teachers to reflect themselves on the questionnaire.

The questionnaire delivered to teachers is adapted from the original one proposed by Cheng (2006). This questionnaire includes 48 items rated on a 6-point likert scale, anchored from 1 (hardly ever) to 6 (very often). There are some reasons why I decided to adapt Cheng's questionnaire in the study. In Cheng's research, she asked English teachers in all levels from elementary school to university about the frequency of using motivational strategies. In this study, I focused on teachers in junior high school. By using her questionnaire (see Appendix A), I could investigate how frequently they actually make use of these strategies. In addition, I discovered what motivational strategies are neglected, underutilized, or frequently used by teachers, and to try to figure out the reasons. In the meanwhile, students were also asked to fill in a questionnaire that I modified from Cheng's in order to check teachers' use of those strategies from students' experiences. (see Appendix B). In addition, students' concepts on motivational strategies were also attached importance in the present study. An important difference between the survey instrument in this study and that of the Dörnyei and Csizér study upon which it is based is the absence of questions

related to the importance on particular motivational strategies regarding to teachers' viewpoints. For purposes of the present study, the researcher chose to focus not only on the extent to which each strategy was perceived as motivational on the teachers' actual practices but also students' point of view. In order to cover these three aspects, three questionnaires were developed containing the same set of motivational strategies. The only difference between the first two and the last concerned the rating scales: the first two comprised six response options describing degrees of frequency ('hardly ever' to 'very often'); the last describing degrees of helpfulness ('not helpful' to "very helpful") (see appendix C). Because all the participants were Taiwanese, Chinese versions of the questionnaires were administered to eliminate any potential language-based interference. The 48 strategies can be divided into ten clusters and the frequency of the ten clusters and each strategy would be discussed after the data was collected. The ten clusters would be listed by the frequency and have further discussion afterwards.

The reliability of the items in the questionnaires was verified by calculating Cronbach alphas. All of the ten categories reached over .9. In teacher's version the value of α reached to .944; in students' version 1, which asked about their perception about the frequency of the strategies in class, the value of α reached to .966; as to students' version 2, which inquired their expectation on the motivational strategies, the value of α reached to .975. In general, it has the ability to maintain its functions in routine circumstances.

Language of Questionnaires/Instruments

Questionnaires were delivered to explore the motivational strategies employed by Taiwanese English teachers with the focus on how frequently they actually made use of these strategies in their teaching practice and to check the students' points of view about which strategies would benefit

them more. Participants' mother tongue, Chinese, was used as the language of the questionnaires to exclude any potential language-based interference. The researcher got the Chinese translation version from Dr. Cheng, since it had been used and delivered in Taiwan, the validity and accuracy had been tested and assured.

In Cheng and Dörnyei's (2006) questionnaire, the selection of strategy items was based on Dörnyei's (2001b) systematic overview of motivational techniques. There are ten clusters of motivational strategies on the questionnaire. They are about having proper teacher behavior, recognizing students' effort, promoting learners' self-confidence, creating pleasant classroom climate, presenting tasks properly, increasing the learners' goal-orientedness, making the learning tasks stimulating, familiarizing learners with L2-related values, promoting group cohesiveness and group norms, and finally promoting learner autonomy. The 48 strategies on the questionnaire were categorized into the ten clusters. For example, in recognizing students' effort, the corresponding strategies are to recognize students' effort and achievement, to promote effort attributions, to make sure grades reflect students' effort and hard work, and to monitor students' progress and celebrate their victory.

Instrument of Classroom Observation -the MOLT Classroom Observation Scheme

The classroom observation scheme of the current study is a modification of Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's (2008) original investigation in order to explore the learners' motivated behavior and the teachers' motivational teaching practices. The MOLT classroom observation scheme (see appendix D) is adapted from Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008 which combined two established schemes and frameworks: Dörnyei's (2001b) system of motivational teaching practice and Spada and Frohlich's (1995) classroom observation scheme, communication orientation of language teaching (COLT).

MOLT replicates the real-time nature of the COLT. The MOLT follows the time-sampling format through relevant classroom events as recorded every 5 minutes in an ongoing form. There are 40 motivational variables that have clear definitions and observable items utilizing this real-time observation scheme. The 40 motivational variables are divided into nine categories. The categories are about supportive climate, teacher behavior, promoting group dynamic, promoting L2-related values, making the tasks stimulating, presentation of tasks, promoting learner autonomy, goal-orientedness, and promoting feedback. The detail division was presented in table 5 below:

Table 5. Nine categories and the activities under in the observation schedule (MOLT)

Nine categories	Activities
Supportive climate	Encourage humor Encourage risk-taking Avoid social comparison Use short opening activity
Teacher behavior	Show student you care about them Show your enthusiasm in L2 Take students' progress seriously
Promote group dynamic	Prevent the rigid seating Encourage information sharing Ask students to help each other Use small group tasks Set and monitor group norms
Promote L2-related values	Introduce cultural products Highlight the utility of L2 Encourage students to apply L2
Make the tasks stimulating	Make tasks challenging Make the content interesting Fantasy/exotic/novel element Personalize the tasks (role) Tangible task products Competitions and games Vary tasks and teaching aids
Presentation of tasks	Teacher explains purpose of tasks Give clear instructions

Promote learner autonomy	Teacher models every step
	Whet students' appetite about the tasks
	Teacher gives strategies and assistance
	Encourage project work
	Promote peer teaching
	Allow students genuine chooses
	Encourage student presentation
Goal-orientedness	Offer self-motivating strategies
	Create self-assessment opportunities
	Encourage students to set goals
	Build students' goals into curriculum
Promote feedback	Evaluate students' progress
	Celebrate students' success
	Affirm students' efforts and hard work
	Encourage students to try harder
	Provide information feedback

These nine categories are pretty much similar to the ten clusters from the questionnaire. The similarities of them make it possible to compare the result collected from questionnaires and observations. More details were shown in the table 6 below:

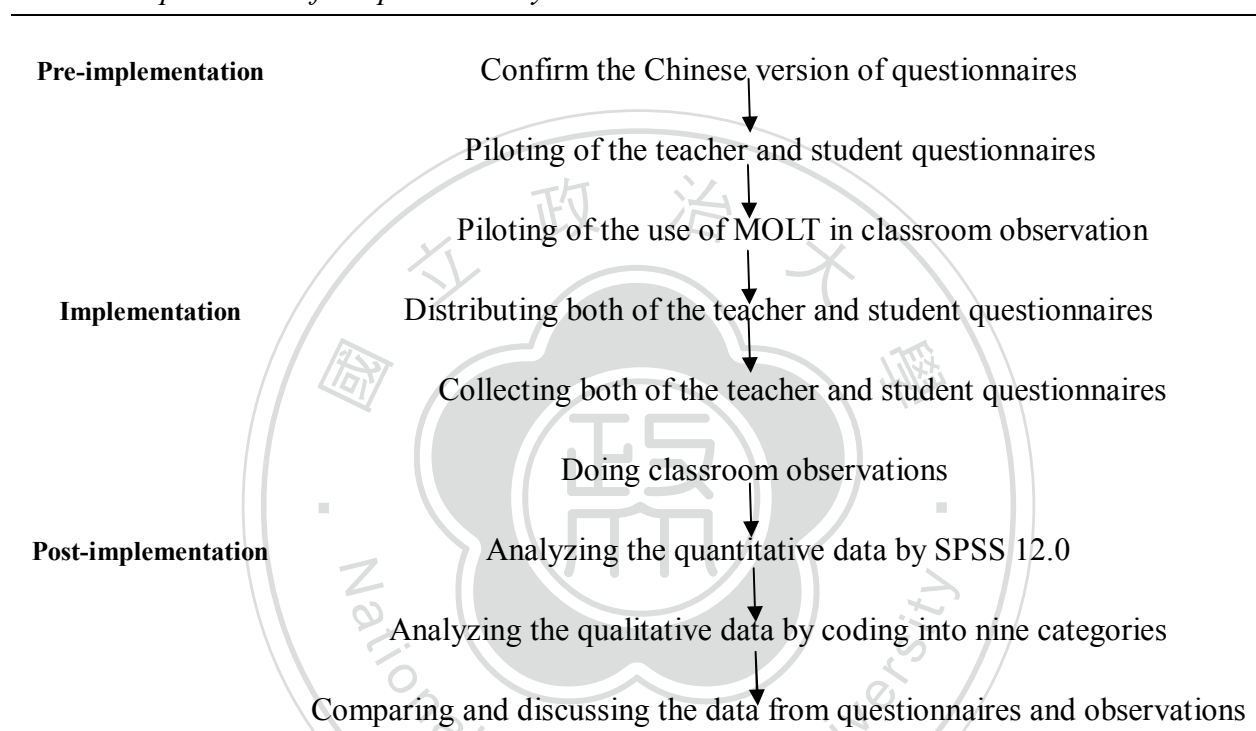
Table 6. The comparison between the two schemes

10 clusters from questionnaire	9 categories from observation scheme
Proper teacher behavior	Teacher behavior
Recognize students' effort	Promote feedback
Promote learners' self-confidence	
Creating a pleasant classroom climate	Supportive climate
Present tasks properly	Presentation of tasks
Increase learners' goal-orientedness	Goal-orientedness
Make the learning tasks stimulating	Make the tasks stimulating
Familiarize learners with L2-related values	Promote L2-related values
Promote group cohesiveness and group norms	Promote group dynamic
Promote learner autonomy	Promote learner autonomy

Procedure

There were three stages in the procedure of questionnaire delivery: pre-implementation, implementation, and post-implementation. Additionally, ten classroom observations were also carried out in the meanwhile. Table 7 illustrates the procedure of the present study:

Table 7. The procedure of the present study



Pre-Implementation Stage

As a preliminary step, the researcher tested the Chinese version of student questionnaire with a sample of 20 junior high school students. The students represented a population similar to that of the main study sample, but they were not included in the main study. While the sample students were asked to fill out the student questionnaires in class and were informed that they could raise any questions about the questionnaire whenever they did not understand the meaning of the questions. After they filled in the first version of the student questionnaire, the researcher revised the wording

of some items based on some communication with them to clarify what they did not understand or misunderstood. As to the teacher's questionnaire, the researcher asked five of my co-workers who were English teachers to fill in the questionnaire as a pilot. The researcher showed the Chinese version to them, and asked them to check if the questionnaire is comprehensible. After filling in the questionnaire, they provided me with comments regarding the wording and any ambiguous sentences. Based on the suggestions given by my colleagues, the researcher revised some wording they suggested.

Implementation Stage

After the pilot study of the questionnaires, both the teacher and student questionnaires were sent to the schools in different cities around Taiwan and were administered on the teacher and student participants. After collecting most of the questionnaires, the researcher conducted classroom observations in some teachers' classes; those teachers were who voluntarily offered their classes for classroom observation. The observations were recorded under the approval of the participants and later analyzed.

In the teachers' version, we asked each teacher to indicate the frequency of their use of certain strategies. Two kinds of questionnaire were delivered to students. One concerned frequency--students were asked about their perception on the frequency of the motivational strategies used by their teachers. The other was used to ask students' opinions. Lots of experiences and practical knowledge about questionnaire showed that participants do not like to spend hours filling in long questionnaires. Long questionnaires are usually not given proper treatment and consequently may lead to low return rate. Participants usually fill in long questionnaires without giving them much thought. As a result, if a student had got two questionnaires at the same time, he

would very likely give the questions arbitrary answers instead of reflecting his real opinion. Two groups of students were therefore needed. The student questionnaire on expectation presented a list of each of these 48 teaching practices that a teacher might use in the foreign language classroom and asked students to indicate how helpful that particular practice is in motivating them to learn the language.

Classroom Observation Procedure

While distributing the questionnaires, the researcher conducted 10 classroom observations in order to compare with the data collected from questionnaires. The observations took place in the second semester of the 2010-2011 academic year from March to May. Generally, each class lasted 45 minutes. In order to carry out the observation more objectively, the MOLT scheme was used as an observation instrument. Detailed description of the MOLT scheme will be discussed below.

For class observation, the researcher did some pilot studies in advance to practice using MOLT to code the use of motivational strategies before starting classroom observation. It is possible that not many teachers like to be observed when they are teaching. The researcher convinced the participants that the data would only be used for the purpose of completing the thesis by showing them the consent form, and the researcher would not judge their teaching in research and teachers' personal information was confidential. Still there were some difficulties in doing observations. After resolving the difficulties, the researcher eventually were able to observe ten classroom sessions.

The observation procedures were as follow:

- 1) Before the observation. The reseacher talked to the participating teachers about the general issues of the study and the researcher obtained information about teachers and students'

teaching/learning situation in that junior high school. In addition, the researcher told the participants what were to be recorded. The teachers were briefly shown the classroom observation scheme the researcher would be using, but they did not receive a copy.

- 2) During the observation. The researcher used the MOLT classroom observation scheme and recorded what was happening in five-minute intervals. There were 40 activities contained in 9 categories. During the five-minute interval, the researcher marked down all activities happened using the MOLT scheme.
- 3) After the observation. The researcher completed the notes, and recalled what had happened in the classrooms observations.

Teachers were asked to work as usual and follow their regular syllabus or textbooks. In most cases, the teachers were able to finalize the date of the researcher's visit only one or two days before it occurred, so it was very unlikely that they prepared special lessons for the observations. Indeed, all the lessons appeared as natural as they could be in the presence of an observer, and all were based on the contents of the regular textbook. During each observation, the researcher selected unobtrusive positions within the classroom to decrease the interference the best she could. The researcher usually sat at the back or sometimes silently to the side and carried the observation schedule, the taxonomy of activities and a timer on a clipboard. Time was counted down starting at 45 minutes (the standard lesson length in middle schools) from the time the teacher had signaled the start of the lesson. The researcher always remained uninvolved. The lesson was deemed to be finished when the school bell rang although sometimes teachers did have some wrapped-up activities unfinished and they would finish the class after the school bell rang.

Post-Implementation

After the completion of gathering all copies of the teacher and student questionnaires, the data was then examined and analyzed. When all the procedures were done and all data was collected, the researcher keyed in all the quantitative data in the software, SPSS 12.0 (Statistical Package for Social Science) to perform data analysis.

Data Analysis

Data from questionnaires was submitted to a number of initial statistical analyses to compute means, standard deviations, ranges, maximums and minimums of all items. The data of teacher's questionnaire and their students about the perception of the frequency of the use of motivational strategies were examined by t-tests. It was to measure if there were any significant differences between the two groups in terms of motivational strategy use.

To process the observational data, for each variable on the observation sheets (i.e., each column) we first added up the tally marks indicating the number of minutes during which a specific behavior or activity had taken place and then translate the figures into percentage. The nine categories were arranged from the highest percentage to the lowest. The lists of strategies made from questionnaire and classroom observations will be discussed later.

Different instruments were used to answer the three research questions. Table 8 below presents the detail information.

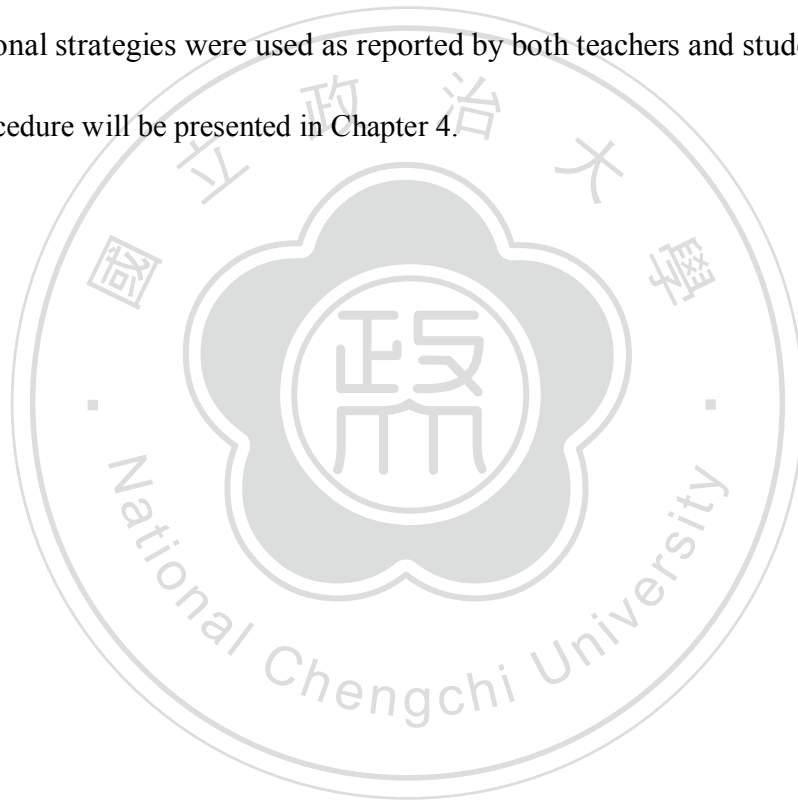
Table 8 Data Analysis Table

RQ	Instruments	Number of participants	Method of Data Analysis
RQ1(a)	Teacher questionnaire	135	Descriptive statistics- mean and SD
RQ1(b)	Student questionnaire-- asking for frequency	216	Descriptive statistics- mean and SD
RQ1(c)	Classroom observation	10	Coding and calculation of percentage
RQ2(a)	Student questionnaire— asking for frequency Teacher questionnaire	216 135	T-test between data of the student questionnaire and the teacher questionnaire Descriptive statistics- mean and SD
RQ2(b)	Classroom observation	10	Coding
RQ3	Student questionnaire— asking for opinion	144	Descriptive statistics- mean and SD

First, the means of teacher questionnaire can indicate the frequency that the participating teachers reported on how often they used each motivational strategies. Student questionnaire on asking the frequency of the motivational strategies is used to examine if students' perceptions corresponded with teachers' statements. In these two questionnaires, the motivational strategies which were frequently used or underused could be identified. In addition, ten classroom observations were conducted and the findings were also used to explain some circumstances which influence the use of motivational strategies. In the meanwhile, by conducting classroom observations in real teaching environment, some information that couldn't be told in the questionnaires could have been provided. Then, by carrying out the T-test between data of the student questionnaire and the teacher questionnaire, we can find out if the teacher data and the

student data share some similarities on the frequency of the motivational strategies. Researcher's anecdote record during the classroom observations may also be a supplement of the questionnaires and provide more explanations on the research questions. Finally, another student questionnaire was delivered in order to ask students about their opinions on the effectiveness of motivational strategies.

In this chapter, the participants, instruments, and procedure were described in detail. By conducting both questionnaires and classroom observations, the researcher tried to find out how often the motivational strategies were used as reported by both teachers and students. The results of each statistical procedure will be presented in Chapter 4.



CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

The results of the data analyses are presented in this chapter. There are three parts which aimed to answer the three research questions. First, results of the questionnaire were outlined by analyzing the frequency of motivational strategies used by teachers in the classroom and perceived by students, summarized by a list of the most and least frequently used motivational strategies. Secondly, based on the classroom observations, results of classroom observation were presented and the percentage of each item was shown. Reasons for explaining the frequency of strategies found were also proposed. Lastly, questionnaire results from teacher and student participants were compared to show similarities and differences.

The Results

The Results from the Questionnaire

The questionnaire data was divided into two categories. The first category consisted of individual motivational strategies referred to as micro-strategies, and the second category consisted of these individual micro-strategies grouped into 10 conceptual domains on the basis of its content similarities, as was done in Cheng and Dörnyei (2006). Inasmuch as the difference of the individual micro-strategies were found to be statistically significant, the results from conceptual domains were presented first, followed by the findings from individual micro-strategies.

Based on previous studies in the same vein, the 10 major conceptual domains were: proper teacher behavior, recognizing students' effort, presenting tasks properly, promoting learners' self-confidence, creating a pleasant classroom climate, promoting group cohesiveness and group

norms, increasing learners' goal-orientedness, making the learning tasks stimulating, promoting learner autonomy, and familiarizing learners with L2-related values (Dörnyei & Csizer, 1998; Dörnyei, 2001a ; Dörnyei & Cheng 2006).

Table 9 presents the descriptive statistics of the ten strategy domains from both teacher and student questionnaire.

The 10 strategy domains	Teacher		Student	
	N=135		N=216	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Proper teacher behavior	4.63	0.92	3.71	1.65
Recognizing students' effort	4.61	0.90	3.64	1.69
Promoting learners' self-confidence	4.32	0.91	3.37	1.64
Presenting tasks properly	4.43	1.01	3.49	1.70
Creating a pleasant classroom climate	4.32	1.04	3.36	1.72
Increasing learners' goal-orientedness	4.12	1.07	3.26	1.67
Making the learning tasks stimulating	4.00	1.16	2.99	1.74
Promoting group cohesiveness and group norms	4.16	1.15	3.28	1.70
Familiarizing learners with L2-related values	3.66	1.19	2.84	1.64
Promoting learner autonomy	3.79	1.21	3.110	1.69

The Means of the Result

As shown in Table 9, the mean of each conceptual domain was calculated by finding the mean of the individual constituent strategies that make up the particular conceptual domain. For example, the constituent strategies that make up the conceptual domain **Present tasks properly** include “Teachers give clear instructions about how to carry out a task by modeling” (teacher mean = 4.52) and “Teacher give good reasons to students as to why a particular activity is meaningful or important” (teacher mean = 4.34). The means of these two constituent strategies in the conceptual

domain “Present tasks properly” were calculated and became the mean of the conceptual domain (teacher mean = 4.43). Each conceptual domain was calculated in the same manner.

Table 10 presents the frequency of students’ perceptions on the use of motivational strategies and teachers’ declaration of using those strategies from the most frequently used one to the least one. In Table 10, strategy domains were listed by the means from the highest to the lowest, with teacher self-reports on the left and student observations on the right.

Table 10. Student and Teacher Conceptual Domain Frequency

Teacher Perception	Teacher		Student Perception	Student	
	Mean	SD		Mean	SD
Proper teacher behavior	4.63	0.92	Proper teacher behavior	3.71	1.65
Recognize students’ effort	4.61	0.90	Recognize students’ effort	3.64	1.69
Present tasks properly	4.43	1.01	Present tasks properly	3.49	1.70
Promote learners’ self-confidence	4.32	0.91	Promote learners’ self-confidence	3.37	1.64
Creating a pleasant classroom climate	4.32	1.04	Creating a pleasant classroom climate	3.36	1.72
Promote group cohesiveness and group norms	4.16	1.15	Promote group cohesiveness and group norms	3.28	1.70
Increase learners’ goal-orientedness	4.12	1.07	Increase learners’ goal-orientedness	3.26	1.67
Make the learning tasks stimulating	4.00	1.16	Promote learner autonomy	3.11	1.69
Promote learner autonomy	3.79	1.12	Make the learning tasks stimulating	2.99	1.74
Familiarize learners with L2-related values	3.66	1.19	Familiarize learners with L2-related values	2.84	1.64

The result demonstrated that generally the order of such lists were comoparable between both parties. The top cluster (macrostrategy) or conceptual domain was proper teacher behavior for both

teachers and students. Recognizing students' effort was listed next. The means of teachers' declaration was at 4.61, while the means from students' observation was at 3.64. The third one was 'presenting tasks properly.' It's obvious that teachers use the strategies in this domain very often. Teachers gave clear instructions by modeling and gave good reasons to students as to why a particular task was meaningful.

The following domain was 'promoting learners' self-confidence.' The teachers were supposed to help students develop a sense of achievement, and it was also part of the end result for students to get recognition in class. Next, the domains followed were 'creating a pleasant classroom climate', 'promoting group cohesiveness and group norms', and 'increasing learners' goal-orientedness.' Strategies in these domains did not appear as often as the top ones mentioned before. The three least used domains reported by teachers were 'making the learning tasks stimulating', 'promoting learner autonomy', and 'familiarizing learners with L2-related values.' On the other hand, although student questionnaire results were similar in these domains, two of the domains were put in reverse order. Students stated that their teachers used more strategies on promoting their autonomy than making the learning tasks stimulating.

The least used strategies belong to the domain of familiarizing learners with L2-related values. "Familiarizing learners with L2-related values" is in line with the notion promoted by Gardner (1985) that language learners' dispositions towards the target culture and its people have a considerable influence on their learning achievement. However, in the final result gathered from both teachers and students, this domain was put on the last place. The mean of this domain reported by teachers is 3.66, and the mean of this domain stated by students is only 2.84. According to these figures, it could be said that familiarizing learners with L2-related values was the least used strategy domain.

Further Breakdown of the Micro-strategies

The ten domains mentioned above contain 48 individual teaching practices, also referred to as micro-strategies. In order to find out if the frequency of strategies stated by teachers and students were the same, the results collected from both sides were listed below. Table 11 and 12 present the means of the ten strategies with highest means as reported by teachers and stated by students.

Table 11. Most frequently used strategies as reported by teachers

No.	Strategy	Mean
1	2 Teachers show students that they care about them.	4.89
2	5 Teachers explain the importance of the class rules	4.79
3	23 Teachers establish a good relationship with students	4.66
4	9 Teachers remind students of the benefits of mastering English	4.63
5	1 Teachers bring in and encourage humor	4.62
6	17 Teachers show their enthusiasm for teaching	4.60
7	46 Teachers recognize students' effort and achievement	4.60
8	15 Teachers make sure grades reflect students' effort and hard work	4.59
9	47 Teachers be themselves in front of students	4.58
10	8 Teachers monitor students' progress and celebrate their victory	4.54

Table 12. Most frequently used strategies as observed by students

No.	Strategy	Mean
1	5 Teachers explain the importance of the class rules	4.18
2	2 Teachers show students they care about them	4.09
3	46 Teachers recognize students' effort and achievement	3.89
4	9 Teachers remind students of the benefits of mastering English	3.77
5	17 Teachers show their enthusiasm for teaching	3.76
6	23 Teachers establish a good relationship with students	3.75
7	34 Teachers provide students with positive feedback.	3.75
8	10 Teachers encourage students to set learning goals	3.73
9	36 Teachers teach students learning techniques	3.69
10	28 Teachers encourage students to try harder	3.67

As it can be seen in the tables above, there were six identical strategies from the two tables. They are “Teachers explain the importance of the class rules”, “Teachers show students they care about them”, “Teachers recognize students’ effort and achievement”, “Teachers remind students of the benefits of mastering English”, “Teachers show their enthusiasm for teaching”, and “Teachers establish a good relationship with students”. Strategies # 2, 23, 17 were in the same conceptual domain which were also the most frequently used. These strategies were in the domain of “proper teacher behavior”. Strategy 46 belonged to “recognizing students’ effort”. As reported by students, this strategy was positioned in the third place. To explain the importance of the class rules and arrange teaching procedures in an organized order were the base of conducting good teaching. Interestingly, although familiarizing learners with L2-related values was the least employed domain mentioned before, there was one strategy which was placed as the top ten frequently used strategies --to remind students of the benefits of mastering English.

As to the least employed motivational strategies, the researcher listed the five least employed strategies from both teachers and students. The detail information is listed in Table 13 and 14:

Table 13. The five least employed strategies as reported by teachers

No	Strategy	Strategy employed	Mean
5	27	Teachers encourage students to create products	3.45
4	31	Teachers display the class goals on the wall and review them regularly	3.32
3	22	Teachers involve students in designing and running the course	3.14
2	7	Teachers invite senior students to share their experiences	2.49
1	19	Teachers invite English-speaking foreigners to the class	1.85

Table 14. The five least employed strategies as observed by students

No	Strategy	Strategy employed	Mean
5	33	Teachers make clear to students that communicating meaning effectively is more important than being grammatically correct	2.61
4	27	Teachers encourage students to create products	2.56
3	31	Teachers display the class goals on the wall and review them regularly	2.39
2	7	Teachers invite senior students to share their experiences	1.91
1	19	Teachers invite English-speaking foreigners to the class	1.73

It is worthwhile to note that four out of five strategies had the lowest means in both teacher and student data. Generally, teachers seldom invite senior students or English-speaking foreigners to the class. Displaying the class goals on the wall and review them regularly is also perceived as inapplicable because of the limitation of facilities owned by the teachers and students. There are about thirty students in every classroom and the space is limit and shared by all students and teachers. It's not likely that every subject can have some space to display the class goals on the wall. As to encouraging students to create products, both teachers and students reported that it is underused. Teachers do more on instructing students to learn the target well, but they focus less on the creativity of students not to mention product-creating.

The result also shows that some of the motivational strategies were less frequently employed. Here were some examples: “Teachers invite English-speaking foreigners to the class”, “Teachers encourage students to create products”, and “Teachers involve students in designing and running the course”.

A Comparison of Teacher and Student Questionnaire on Strategy Use

However, to check whether students and teachers share similar or different reflection toward

the frequency of each motivational strategy, the data collected from teachers and students need to be examined by performing an independent sample t-test to see if there was any statistically significant difference. The results of the independent sample t-test demonstrated that on most of the motivational strategies, teacher and student data were significantly different. The results were presented in Table 15.

Table 15. T-test result comparing teacher and student questionnaire

Question	T test	P-value	Question	T test	P-value
1	6.601	0***	25	5.992	0***
2	5.689	0***	26	5.021	0***
3	5.828	0***	27	4.968	0***
4	7.586	0***	28	4.739	0***
5	3.784	0***	29	2.821	0***
6	5.276	0***	30	5.884	0***
7	3.309	0.064	31	5.332	0.022
8	6.913	0***	32	6.116	0***
9	4.871	0***	33	8.141	0***
10	4.225	0***	34	4.996	0***
11	6.786	0***	35	5.352	0***
12	6.616	0***	36	4.669	0***
13	7.744	0***	37	4.754	0***
14	6.147	0***	38	2.428	0.005**
15	4.202	0.109	39	5.152	0***
16	4.129	0***	40	5.975	0***
17	5.290	0***	41	3.431	0***
18	4.972	0***	42	4.863	0***
19	0.710	0.603	43	6.391	0***
20	6.092	0***	44	6.535	0***
21	4.886	0.064	45	4.646	0***
22	2.239	0.995	46	4.320	0***
23	5.531	0***	47	6.316	0***
24	5.132	0***	48	2.540	0***

(the detail items of every question was listed in Appendix E)

Note (***)= $p < 0.001$

As the result of the independent t-test presented in Table 14, the P-value significance of most of the questions was under 0.01; which means that teachers' reported use is generally different from students' reported perception at a statistically significant level. The bigger the number of T-test shows the bigger difference between students' conception and teachers' which has made. For example, the biggest number of T-test is from question 33 (T=8.141). Teachers addressed that they frequently monitored students' effort and achievement; however, students didn't feel the same way. Students weren't under the impression that their teachers did monitor their effort and achievement.

There were only a few items in which that teacher and student data did not show significant difference. The reasons why teachers and students had consistency toward these few ones should be inspected more. The questions and results were presented in Table 16:

Table 16. Strategies for which teacher and student data showed no significant difference

Question	Strategies	Teacher Mean/ (Rank)	Student Mean/ (Rank)	T test	P-value
7	Invite senior students to share their English learning experiences	2.49 (47)	1.91 (47)	3.463	0.064
15	Make sure grades reflect students' effort and hard work	4.89 (8)	3.67 (11)	2.586	0.109
19	Invite English-speaking foreigners to class	1.86 (48)	1.74 (48)	0.271	0.603
21	Use a short and interesting opening activity to start each class	4.12 (31)	2.94 (39)	3.464	0.064
22	Involve students in designing and running the English course	3.15 (46)	2.73 (41)	0.090	0.995
31	Display the class goal in a wall chart and review it regularly	3.33 (45)	2.39 (46)	5.293	0.022

Among the six strategies, “Make sure grades reflect students’ effort and hard work” was stated to be the frequently-used one by both teachers and students. Teachers put in on the eighth place and students also experienced these strategies often and ranked it on the eleventh place. However, most of the others were stated by both teachers and students to be strategies that were not commonly used. For example, both teachers and students claimed that “Invite senior students to share their English learning experiences” and “Invite English-speaking foreigners to class” were not frequently used in class as they were positioned in the last two rank-orders. Also “Display the class goal in a wall chart and review it regularly” was stated to be one of the least used strategies from teachers and students perspectives. Teachers admitted that they seldom involved students in designing and running the English course; this was the fourth to last strategy which teachers use in class as teachers reflected.

The Results from Classroom Observation

Based on MOLT records, the 40 activities observed on the schedule were divided into 9 categories: supportive climate, teacher behavior, promoting group dynamic, promoting L2-related values, making the tasks stimulating, presentation of tasks, promoting learner autonomy, goal-orientedness, and providing feedback. The activities under every category were added up and then divided by the total number of the activities happened in the whole class. The figure transformed into the percentage to represent the rate of each category happened every class. The percentages of each category from the ten classes are listed here in Table 17:

Table 17. The percentages of each category from the ten classes

Category / Class	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Sum
Supportive climate	5%	10%	9%	6%	6%	4%	7%	3%	4%	11%	65%
Teacher behavior	15%	10%	9%	10%	7%	8%	14%	20%	24%	13%	130%
Promote group dynamic	5%	5%	9%	6%	19%	8%	5%	0%	4%	7%	68%
Promote L2-related values	5%	10%	9%	10%	7%	4%	12%	7%	8%	9%	81%
Make the tasks stimulating	0%	10%	0%	6%	18%	0%	14%	7%	0%	16%	71%
Presentation of tasks	25%	15%	36%	23%	14%	36%	20%	23%	28%	20%	240%
Promote learner autonomy	15%	10%	9%	13%	12%	8%	12%	13%	12%	11%	100%
Goal-orientedness	10%	15%	9%	6%	4%	16%	7%	3%	8%	2%	70%
Provide feedback	20%	15%	9%	19%	12%	16%	9%	23%	12%	11%	146%
(Total)	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	

The classroom observation was conducted in ten classes. The result of each class was listed in Table 17, and the percentage of the 9 categories was listed in the table horizontally from top down. During the first classroom observation, there were 20 activities marked on the observation scheme so the researcher made a total of 20 marks. Within the 20 marks, there was 1 mark in supportive climate which made 5%, 3 marks in teacher behavior that made 15%, and the most ones were five marks in presentation of tasks which made 25%. The other statistics were calculated in the same way. The figures all added up vertically to 100%. In addition, in order to find out which cluster accounts for the maximum proportion, the sum of every cluster needed to be found out. By adding the ten figures represented the percentage of every cluster in the ten classes, the final result was found.

The result of the classroom observation can be compared with the result from the questionnaire as mentioned before; as is shown in Table 18. The order listed by the frequency of the ten categories from questionnaire and the nine clusters from classroom observation is compared in Table19.

Table 18. The comparison between the two schemes

10 clusters from questionnaire		9 categories from observation scheme	
1	Proper teacher behavior	Teacher behavior	3
2	Recognize students' effort	Provide feedback	2
4	Promote learners' self-confidence	Supportive climate	9
5	Creating a pleasant classroom climate	Presentation of tasks	1
3	Present tasks properly	Goal-orientedness	7
7	Increase learners' goal-orientedness	Make the tasks stimulating	6
8	Make the learning tasks stimulating	Promote L2-related values	5
10	Familiarize learners with L2-related values	Promote group dynamic	8
6	Promote group cohesiveness and group norms	Promote learner autonomy	4
9	Promote learner autonomy		

Table 19. The order listed by the frequency between the two schemes

10 clusters from questionnaire		9 categories from observation scheme	
Proper teacher behavior		Presentation of tasks	
Recognize students' effort		Provide feedback	
Present tasks properly		Teacher behavior	
Promote learners' self-confidence		Promote learner autonomy	
Creating a pleasant classroom climate		Promote L2-related values	
Promote group cohesiveness and group norms		Make the tasks stimulating	
Increase learners' goal-orientedness		Goal-orientedness	
Make the learning tasks stimulating		Promote group dynamic	
Promote learner autonomy		Supportive climate	
Familiarize learners with L2-related values			

The finding from the questionnaire and observation were a little different. From classroom observations, I found out that teachers care the most on presenting tasks, and then teachers do provide feedback to their students in classes. Teachers usually encourage students to try harder, affirm students' efforts and hard work. Based on my observation and my own experience as a teacher, I also discovered that students also prefer teachers who are emphatic and inspiring to them.

In the result from the questionnaire, promoting learner autonomy was rated the least frequently used macro-strategy, but in the observations I did noticed that teachers did do some things to promote students' autonomy. Teachers do encourage students' presentation, and teachers give students opportunities to accomplish some tasks, some teachers also promote peer teaching; in every classroom observation about 10% of the activities related to promoting learner autonomy.

The rest five clusters are less observed during the observations. They are "promote L2-related values", "make the tasks stimulating", "goal-orientedness", "promote group dynamic", and "supportive climate". There may be some reasons why these five clusters were less observed.

As to making the tasks stimulating, from the findings from both reported by teachers and students, showed that teachers do enough on this. In the ten observations, only three of the teachers used teaching aids. Dörnyei (2001b:77) suggested to that "make learning stimulating and enjoyable for the learner by increasing the attractiveness of the tasks." It is a pity that most of the teachers still conduct classes by illustration. They believe that it is the safest way to cover the most within the limit class period. However, sometimes students feel bored because of having too little to be involved in. A teacher could promote scaffolding feedback through students' responses and then enhance students' English proficiency and mental growth.

As mentioned to the rest three domains, because the items inside those domains were not easily observed in only one period, the percentage was lower and the rank order was also bigger. For

example, in “promote group dynamic”, the item “prevent the rigid seating” couldn’t be seen in a class. Also, in most of the classes in Taiwan, the learning style concerned more about personal performance than group dynamic. Goal-orientedness, as we can see, this macro-strategy was not used so often in class, which means that Taiwanese English teachers in language education setting have not yet consider this important domain. The possible reasons can be summarized as follows: a) it is impossible for teacher to assist each learner to design his or her own course plan; b) teachers might think that there is no need to individual or class goals because the school and government have already made up the institutional goals that are readily servable and c) it is hard for everyone in the classroom define and agree goals. Hadfield (1992) states, it is fundamental to the successful working of a group to have a sense of direction and a common purpose. Defining and agreeing aims is one of the hardest tasks that the group has to undertake together. Lastly, talking about supportive climate, although the researcher didn’t get much data on this domain, the finding can still show that teachers do have good relationship with students. Students were all comfortable taking intellectual risks in class because they knew that they would not be embarrassed or criticized even if they made a mistake. All of the teachers are patient, willing to help students, hard-working, and it is believed to be the basic element of creating a motivating learning environment.

Students’ Perceived Effectiveness of Motivational Strategies

Additionally, in the present study, the researcher also wanted to find out which motivational strategies were viewed important from students’ points of view. Students were asked about their opinions toward the effectiveness of these strategies in promoting their motivation toward language learning. The final means and the rank-order of the ten clusters of students’ expectation are presented in Table 20.

Table 20. The result of student questionnaire on the effectiveness of motivational strategies

Rank-order	Conceptual Domains	Mean
1	Promote learner autonomy	4.751
2	Creating a pleasant classroom climate	4.727
3	Recognize students' effort	4.722
4	Proper teacher behavior	4.624
5	Promote learners' self-confidence	4.556
6	Make the learning tasks stimulating	4.418
7	Present tasks properly	4.32
8	Increase learners' goal-orientedness	4.315
9	Familiarize learners with L2-related values	4.224
10	Promote group cohesiveness and group norms	4.07

In addition, the micro-strategies are discussed in detail here. Here are the top ten motivational strategies which students considered as more helpful in enhancing their motivation in learning:

Table 21. The top ten motivational strategies which students think more helpful

	Motivational strategies	Mean
1	Teachers monitor students' accomplishments, and take time to celebrate any success or victory.	4.97
2	Teachers bring in and encourage humor and laughter frequently in the class.	4.94
3	Teachers create a supportive and pleasant classroom climate where students are free from embarrassment and ridicule.	4.92
4	Teachers establish a good relationship with students.	4.86
5	Teachers show students that their effort and achievement are being recognized.	4.86
6	Teachers introduce in the lessons various interesting content and topics which students are likely to find interesting	4.85
7	Teachers show students that they respect, accept and care about each student.	4.84
8	Teachers try to be themselves in front of students without putting on an artificial 'mask,' and share with students their hobbies, likes and dislikes.	4.81

9	Teachers make sure grades reflect not only the students' achievement but also the effort they have put into in the task.	4.79
10	Teachers notice students' contributions and progress, and provide them with positive feedback.	4.70

As we can see on the ten strategies, students wanted to be equally treated, and they liked to be treated as capable and important individuals. Once their teachers successfully comforted their anxiety, they were willing to learn more. Having a good relationship was another main issue. Students thought it was very important that their teachers showed some positive appraisals and applauses to them. Teachers not only could develop learners' self-confidence but learners would deeply feel that the teacher really cared about them, and they would put more effort in learning. Generally speaking, teachers' role was an essential component that affected students' motivation in learning. If teachers know better about how to help students more and do more, students could get a lot of benefit.

Summary

The results of this study revealed that data from student and teacher questionnaire, when ordered according to means of individual strategies as well as larger strategy clusters, indicated that the relative frequency of strategies was generally quite similar between teachers and students. But the means as reported by teachers and stated by students were statistically different. That may be because the motivational strategies which teachers said they used often didn't actually match how students experienced in class. Researcher observation indicated that although some activities were noteasily observed in class, teachers focused on how to present tasks most and paid least attention to provide a supportive learning climate. Teachers did take notice of providing feedback and their

behavior, but the researcher did not observe much on how teachers promoted group dynamic and created supportive climate. The result from the student questionnaire asking about students' perceived effectiveness toward the motivational strategies also indicated that students' ideas toward them were different from classroom reality.



CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION

The central purpose of this research is to investigate the use of motivational strategies in junior high schools in Taiwan. In this chapter I return to the key question of how frequently teachers used motivational strategies, and checked the frequency stated by students on how often their teachers used the motivational strategies. There is one more key focus on the present study; that is, which teaching practices did students consider effective and helpful in enhancing their motivation in learning foreign languages.

Discussion and Implication of Results from Questionnaire

The result may be due to a few reasons. When answering the questionnaire, teachers probably tended to choose higher frequency to make them qualified or to be within the average; on the contrary, students may have underestimated the frequency because of their bias or distraction.

The results of this study indicate that, with few exceptions, teacher and student reports on strategy use were similar when individual strategies and larger strategy domains were reordered by their means. This suggests that students and teachers generally agreed on which teaching practices teachers applied in class. However, of all motivational strategies, only a few didn't reach statistical difference. That is to say, there was discrepancy between the frequency teachers claimed and students felt. It shows that although the rank orders of both sides were similar, the intensity that was reported by both sides had significant difference.

By analyzing the data with T-tests, the result indicated that only few strategies which were least frequently used were rated similarly between teachers and students; the others showed

significant difference between the two groups of participants. It stated that although the order listed by the frequency was almost the same, the actual degree of frequency was different between the two groups. We can see the divergence through the means of each item. For example, the mean score of “proper teacher behavior” on teacher side is 4.638, while on the student side it only reached 3.712.

The five motivational strategies that showed the highest discrepancy between teacher and student data were as follows: “Introduce in the lessons various interesting content and topics which students are likely to find interesting”, “Teachers motivate students by increasing the amount of English they use in class”, “Teachers monitor students’ accomplishments, and take time to celebrate any success or victory”, “Teachers encourage learners to try harder by making it clear that teachers believe that students can do the tasks”, “Try to be faithful in front of students without putting on an artificial ‘mask and share with them your hobbies, likes and dislikes”, and “Teach the students self-motivating strategies so as to keep them motivated when they encounter distractions”. It may show that teachers claimed much more frequently than they applied these strategies in class, or teachers did report appropriately but students did not pay as much attention in class.

Discussion and Implication of Results from Observation

Also, the researcher noticed some phenomena from the ten observations. Based on the observed percentage of strategies, the most obvious items to be seen in the classroom belonged to “presentation of tasks.” These teacher participants tended to make their classes well-organized. Based on the 8-year experience of the researcher and the understanding of the teaching environment here, it can be found that teachers want their classes to be in good order, so they give clear instructions to students, explain purposes of tasks, and provide strategies and assistance. Teachers also model every step to help decrease the anxiety of students and by doing it. They would not have

to worry that students may be confused on what to do in class. The second obvious items to be seen in the classroom belonged to “promoting feedback” which corresponded to the questionnaire data collected from both teachers and students. From the result of the questionnaire, this conception of teaching practice was ranked in the second place. Teachers said they used these strategies often, students thought this domain of teaching practice very important, and the observer kept track of many activities related to this domain. Teachers did celebrate students’ success, affirm students’ efforts and hard work encourage students to try harder, and provide informational feedback. Those teaching practices seemed helpful in enhancing students’ motivation in learning.

Praise from teachers helps students improve their self-esteem and it strengthens their confidence for using English as a communication tool (Deng, 2006). To establish good relationship with students is also very essential. The relationship between the teachers and the students is very important when it comes to building the necessary motivation to learn English. Good relationship lessens the anxiety of the students and as a result they will enthusiastically participate in the class. A caring teacher who is also supportive and respects the values of the students can make them study harder, as his or her qualities can highly motivate them (Deeba, 2006). Recognizing students’ effort is also very essential. Wlodkowski (1986) asserts that making consistent comments to the effort and perseverance of the students should be regarded as valued components of the class ethos.

By recognizing students’ effort, teachers can help students become more self-confident about learning English and on themselves. L2 confidence concerns with the relationship between the individual and the L2; it corresponds to the individual’s overall belief in being able to communicate in the L2 in an adaptive and efficient manner (Macintyre, Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998, p. 551). L2 confidence is composed of two components: one of them is cognitive and corresponds to the self-evaluation of L2 skills, judgments made by the speaker about the degree of mastery achieved in

the L2 (p. 551). The other component is affective and related to the lack of language anxiety.

Discussion and Implication of Results from Students' Opinions on Strategy Effectiveness

The result gathered from the students' perceived effectiveness questionnaire indicated some points relevant to the specific situation in Taiwan. The first one on the rank-order of students' expectation on the motivational strategies was "promote learner autonomy". This gives teachers a good point to think about what teaching practices they can use in the classroom that will increase students' intrinsic motivation to learn. Since students cared about being autonomous, it is a leading question to think about what teachers can do more.

When it comes to promoting learners' autonomy, teachers should teach the students self-motivating strategies, for instance, try to make some self-encouragement, so as to keep them motivated when they encounter distractions. As mentioned before, in Taiwan, teachers used to be the dominant of classes. Nevertheless, teachers should adopt the role of a 'facilitator'; that is teachers' role would be to help and lead students to think and learn in their own way, instead of solely giving knowledge to them. It is beneficial for students to help them lead their own learning process. In addition, teachers ought to encourage student participation by assigning activities that require active involvement from each participant, for example creating some opportunities to do group presentation or peer- teaching. Teachers should also give students choices in deciding how and when they will be assessed or evaluated; by allowing students genuine chooses, students will be more responsible for their studies. To give students opportunities to assess themselves is a good teaching practice to promote students' autonomy. Teachers can use multiple assessments and should involve students as much as possible in designing and running the language course. During those processes, students think themselves important as a key element in the class and will be willing to

participate more in language learning.

Following up with some special behavior and attitude that teachers should pay attention to: "creating a pleasant classroom atmosphere", "recognize students effort", and "proper teacher behavior". From here, we can understand that both teachers and students believe that the teacher's dedication to the class and the subject matter, as well as the teacher's willingness to develop a good relationship with the students as the best way for teachers to increase students' motivation.

This study took a more holistic approach by focusing on both teachers and students as integral parts to the whole equation. This study used most of the same motivational strategies Dörnyei and Csizer (1998) used, but elicited data from both teachers and students from the same language learning environment, namely junior high school students in Taiwan. By gaining an understanding of which teaching practices teachers frequently used in class, and which teaching practices students found motivational, we can find out which teaching practices teachers can use to connect more to students in the foreign language classroom.

A Comparison with Previous Studies

The findings of this study differed from those of Csizer and Dörnyei (1998) and Cheng and Dörnyei (2006) in several ways. Csizer and Dörnyei asked the same questions of English teachers in Hungary and asked them to rate the frequency and importance of each teaching practice. Also, Cheng and Dörnyei's study was a modified replication of the Csizer and Dörnyei study: 387 Taiwanese teachers of English were asked to rate a list of comprehensive motivational strategies in terms of (1) how much importance they attached to these and (2) how often they implemented them in their teaching. Based on the responses they gathered, they both came up with a rank-ordered list of the most frequent motivational conceptual domains, which they call the Ten Commandments for

motivating language learners. The table below presents the results of those two studies, which differ from the results of this study.

Table 22 Comparison of the results among related studies

10 clusters	Csizer & Dörnyei	Cheng & Dörnyei	From the present study	
			Teachers' frequency	Students' opinion on effectiveness
Proper teacher behavior	1	1	1	4
Recognize students' effort	8	2	2	3
Promote learners' self-confidence	5	3	4	5
Creating a pleasant classroom climate	2.4	4	5	2
Present tasks properly	3	5	3	7
Increase learners' goal-orientedness	9	6	7	8
Make the learning tasks stimulating	6	7	8	6
Familiarize learners with L2-related values	10	8	10	9
Promote group cohesiveness and group norms		9	6	10
Promote learner autonomy	7	10	9	1

From the table, we can discover that the preference pattern of motivational macro-strategies that emerged in this study beared a resemblance to a similar inventory generated by the other two previous studies that four of the top five macro-strategies in the lists coincided (though not necessarily in the same order).

The most interesting comparison between these studies is the ranking of “Promote learner autonomy”. Teachers used to pay little attention on that as we saw from the result of the previous study, but in the present study, students ranked it as the most motivational teaching strategy. In the study of Cheng and Dörnyei (2006), promoting learning autonomy was listed as the least used and

important strategy. Cheng claimed that different cultures appear to show that participants have their own perception of what autonomy entails and what the optimal degree of learner freedom is.

“Promoting learner autonomy” used to be regarded as unimportant in terms of motivating language learners. Traditionally, Chinese teachers have had total control over the teaching/learning process.

The common belief amongst Chinese educators is that the teacher is the ultimate source of knowledge, which he/she has then to transmit to the learners. The situation has a slight change.

Chinese teachers are likely to apply activities such as peer teaching or peer evaluation in class now, which require them to hand some teaching functions over to the students themselves. Interestingly, Chinese learners used to be unwilling to adopt new roles. They used to display a strong tendency to be dependent on the teachers’ instructions, show little initiative in participating in group discussion and often lack critical or reflective thinking (e.g. Cortazzi & Jin, 1996).

In the present study, we found out that students wanted to take action, and to be the initial of their own learning experience. Once they get used to the notion of taking control of their own learning and become autonomous learners, they will have higher motivation in learning. Although the relationship between motivation and autonomy could also be dynamic and operate in different directions depending on the kind of motivation involved, with this in mind, teachers in the classroom may wish to reexamine their approaches to teaching autonomous practices. This is not to say that learner autonomy should no longer be a goal of teaching. In a learning context that necessitates life-long learning and increasingly calls for distance learning, autonomy must surely remain an important aim.

In Csizer and Dörnyei’s (1998) study, “promote learner autonomy” ranked only as the seventh, and in Cheng and Dörnyei’s (2006) study, it was placed on the least frequent/important place.

Students’ attitude has changed, so teachers should be aware of it and do more about it.

This difference in these studies' findings is important, because it supports the value of gathering data from both students and teachers from the same language learning environment. If students' perceptions are left out of the equation, then teachers might be missing what really motivates students to achieve in the foreign language classroom.

We examined the reported frequency of the use of the specific strategies. The three most underutilized macro-strategies relative to their importance were 'making the learning tasks stimulating' 'promoting learner autonomy' and 'familiarizing learners with L2-related culture', which is all the more remarkable because teachers and students undervalue these strategic domains. These appear to be real motivational 'trouble spots' in language teaching in Taiwan.

Discussion and Implication on Specific Strategies

Promoting learner autonomy

Motivation is a key factor that influences the extent to which learners are ready to learn autonomously. Many writers have concluded that it is autonomy that leads to motivation. Deci and Ryan(1985), for example, state "intrinsic motivation will be operative when action is experienced as autonomous"(p. 29). Many language teachers believe in the importance of autonomous learning, and they have paid attention to the role they can play in training the learner to be autonomous. This involves engaging in such classroom practices as teaching study skills, training learning strategies, building up students' awareness of available language learning resources, and inviting students to make pedagogical choices about their own learning. Here students themselves also regarded that to promote learner autonomy is the most useful motivational strategy which helps enhance their motivation in language learning.

Creating a pleasant classroom climate

Creating a pleasant and secure learning environment is particularly significant for the teachers. According to MacIntyre (1999), the teacher will be aware of the fact that student anxiety created by a tense classroom climate is one of the most potent factors that undermine learning effectiveness and L2 motivation. Dörnyei (2001) states that learner involvement would be the highest in a psychologically safe classroom climate in which students are encouraged to express their opinions and in which they feel that they are protected from ridicule and embarrassment.

According to Good and Brophy (1994), as for teachers, they should be a patient, encouraging person who supports students' learning efforts. Students would feel comfortable taking intellectual risks because they know that they will not be embarrassed or criticized if they make a mistake. Consequently, the teacher needs to create a learning environment without giving much pressure to the learners. By doing so, the learners might feel free to learn language in the classroom. On the basis of my results, teachers in junior high in Taiwan gradually emphasize this strategy and apply it in the classroom. Students considered having a pleasant classroom climate the second useful strategies that teachers should do to motivate their learning.

Recognizing students' effort

Wlodkowski (1986) asserts that making consistent comments to the effort and perseverance of the students should be regarded as valued components of the class ethos. Any remark that says 'You did a great job' or 'You made a wonderful effort' or 'I like the way you try' can emphasize the importance of effortful behavior and contribute to making it a classroom norm. A good teacher should try to give his/her students compliments. Scheidecker and Freeman (cited by Dörnyei, 2001:125) state that: "Recognition of success is not juvenile- in fact it is what we all expect from

life, and the wise teacher, in a non-threatening manner, takes full advantage of this most common human desire.” It is quite encouraging to see that English teachers in Taiwan realized the importance of recognizing students’ effort, and students take this seriously as the top three motivational strategies that motivate their language learning.

Proper teacher behavior

Proper teacher behavior was seen as the most important motivational strategy among teachers in EFL learning setting in previous studies. The teacher in the classroom need to play an important role in front of the learners because everything the teacher does would influence the learners. However, the rank-order of this domain in students’ mind in this study was not as important as teachers thought. Therefore, the result showed that Taiwanese English teachers viewed themselves as the leaders in front of learners. However, students wanted their teachers to be the facilitator rather than a leader.

Coincidentally, according to Dörnyei and Csizer’s (1998), they investigate Hungarian English teachers’ perception of the importance of the motivational strategies; the participants rated the teacher’s own behavior as the most important motivational factor in the classroom. In addition, based on Chambers’s (1999) study, he concluded that of all the factors that were hypothesized to contribute to the pupils’ positive or negative appraisal of L2 learning, the teacher came out on top for all cohorts surveyed. On the other hand, Alison (1993) asserts that motivational teacher influences are manifold, ranging from the rapport with the students to specific teacher behaviors which persuade and attract student to engage in on-task behaviors. Therefore, as we can see, the findings also showed that Taiwanese L2 teachers used this strategy the most frequently in the classroom, while their students didn’t consider it as more important than promoting learner

autonomy.

Making the learning tasks stimulating

The basis of this commandment is the general observation that the quality of the learners' subjective experience is an important contributor to motivation to learn (e.g. Deci & Ryan, 1985; Schiefele & Csikszentmihalyi, 1994). Accordingly, the concept of 'stimulating' has been given its due importance in Gardner's (1985) original model and also in more recent approaches to L2 motivation (e.g. Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1994a; Schmidt et al., 1996; Schumann, 1998; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995; Williams & Burden, 1997). Humans are willing to invest a considerable amount of time and energy in activities that are stimulating. Accordingly, in educational psychology, arousing the learners' curiosity and sustaining their interest as the course goes on has been one of the focal issues when addressing the topic of motivating learners (e.g. Brophy, 2004; Keller, 1983; Stipek, 2002). Not surprisingly, the idea of 'interest' has also been regarded as a prominent motivational component in a number of L2 motivation-related models (e.g. Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1994; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995), yet as the low ranking of this strategy in Taiwan indicates, most practicing teachers for some reasons do not deem adopting interesting learning tasks a significant component of motivating learners.

Presenting tasks properly

There is no doubt that the way the teacher presents the learning tasks bears a strong effect on how the students perceive the assigned activity. Indeed, no matter how capable a teacher is, it is unreasonable to anticipate that student motivation will be aroused if the teaching lacks instructional clarity. The results of our study suggest that communicating an appropriate rationale and strategic

advice concerning how to approach a particular activity is endorsed by Taiwanese English teachers as an essential ingredient of a motivating teaching practice where ‘presenting tasks appropriately’ was ranked third amongst all the motivational dimensions. From students’ point of view, they were eager to have self-fulfillment in learning, so the top three dimensions were related to affect domain. Through focus-group interviews with some students, they indicted that since their teachers always presented tasks properly, they usually took it for granted, and that is why they didn’t put so much emphasis on this.

Increasing learners’ goal-orientedness

In the present survey this macro-strategy was positioned only in the seventh of the rank order by teachers and came only eighth in students’ expectation. This reflects that English teachers are either not entirely sure about the value of setting learner goals or have difficulty in putting this strategy into practice in their teaching contexts. A lack of recognition of the utility of goal setting may also be due to the fact that language teachers often believe that the official curricula outline a set of institutional objectives that are readily servable. On the side of students, Taiwanese students seldom set their goals. Most of the time, they follow what their parents or teachers ask them to do. Lacking of goal-orientedness may be a cause of lacking motivation. To conquer this problem, teachers could probably give the right to students to define their own personal goals. To do so, the learners might follow the criteria they set and approach their own goals. Increasing learners’ goal-orientedness may help students become active in their learning.

Familiarizing learners with L2-related values

The respondents think that this strategy is not very important for several reasons. First, L2-related values seem to be far from their lives. Second, they think that it's not easy to be familiar with other countries' values just by learning their language. Third, there are so many countries use English, and to choose whose values to learn isn't an easy job. Indeed, it is a valid question to ask whose English or culture that one should be teaching and learning.

Over the past decades raising L2 learners' cross-cultural awareness has become a key objective in several language programs across the world, including Taiwan. As mentioned before, when designing textbooks, all publishers considered introducing cultures and values a key element. However, as shown in the result here, the endorsement of this strategic area by the participating teachers and students is limited relative to the other strategies.

Promoting group cohesiveness and group norms

Group-related issues are very much at the heart of the affective dimension of classroom learning and the available evidence supports this with regard to the study of foreign languages as well. Clement et al. (1994) found that perceived group cohesiveness substantially contributed to the learners' overall motivation construct and correlated significantly with various language criterion measures. However, it seems that the respondents are doubtful about the effectiveness of group work. To be more specific, they do believe that group work or games are fun, but they do not believe that those activities are beneficial for the students. Teachers hardly emphasize group work. In my observation, only one class used small group tasks. The teacher set up small groups by arranging each group into an equal level, but sometimes this kind of arrangement decreased students' interest in learning. As students stated that when they were in a group with someone they

didn't like or with those group members who never worked hard to get points, they would feel so upset and also angry. In this situation, they gave up participating in class. They did nothing to express their anger. It seems that many Taiwanese consider learning everyone's responsibility and that promoting group cohesiveness and group norms does not help motivate learning so much.

Limitations of the Study

There are limitations that restrict this study to a certain extent. First, the number of students seemed to be too small to be compared with the teachers. The way of delivering the student questionnaires should have contained as many students from different classes as possible. If the researcher had achieved this, the data would have been more precise to describe the actual reflections from students. Second, although conducting classroom observation is a good way to examine the actual circumstance, it's really hard to get enough teachers who are willing to participate in such research method. To establish the relationship of trust between the observer and the participant teachers is also very difficult. Teachers feel insecure to be observed. They think that they are judged when being observed. They feel uncomfortable at the time. If teachers can be educated to be more open-minded when being observed, research using this kind of method will be more easily conducted, and more valuable finding can be discovered. Third, although the present study tried to describe the situation in Taiwan, the sample was inadequate in representing the entire population. Also, teacher participants were not entirely matched with student participants from their own classes. Since learner questionnaires were not matched with their own teachers, it is not advised to look at the results as an interpretation of difference between teachers and students of the same classroom teaching/learning activities

Suggestion for Future Research

The findings of the study suggest areas for future research. Researchers should give particular attention to the different statement between teachers and students. Qualitative studies, in particular, may provide greater insights into why students hold certain attitudes.

Additionally, a study could be conducted to find out the reason why students find strategies related to promoting learner autonomy so motivational. It would also be interesting to gather data from students to find out what teachers can do to enhance their motivation by using the strategies.

Based on the difference in ranking between this study and the other studies, it would also be interesting to find out why teachers from each country ranked that same conceptual domain so differently. Ethnographic methods or discourse analysis may yield important information about the role of teachers in various cultures.

Additionally, future studies should gather data from students and teachers with broader scope. Having data from more students and more teachers would give a larger sample size resulting in a more accurate representation of student and teacher perceptions.

Finally, scholars should compare the results of different language groups. It would be interesting to know if a student learning Chinese finds different teaching practices motivational from a student learning English. If there are differences between students studying different languages, then teachers of particular language learning groups would know which teaching practices to emphasize in their classrooms. If, on the other hand, future studies reveal no differences, then the results could support the current study and really show teachers what teaching practices they can concentrate on in order to increase student motivation.

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*** The questionnaire is proposed by Cheng (2006)***

Please mark a tick () in the appropriate blank on the continuum between 'Hardly ever' to 'Very often' (e.g. ____ : ____ : ____ : ____ : ☒ : ____). Please only tick one space and answer all the questions.

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11. Design tasks that are within the learners' ability so that they get to experience success regularly. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
12. Introduce in your lessons various interesting content and topics which students are likely to find interesting (e.g. about TV programs, pop stars or travelling.) Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
13. Make tasks challenging by including some activities that require students to solve problems or discover something (e.g. puzzles.) Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
14. Teach the students self-motivating strategies (e.g. self-encouragement) so as to keep them motivated when they encounter distractions. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
15. Make sure grades reflect not only the students' achievement but also the effort they have put into in the task. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
16. Ask learners to think of any classroom rules that they would like to recommend because they think those will be useful for their learning. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
17. Show your enthusiasm for teaching English by being committed and motivating yourself. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
18. Break the routine of the lessons by varying presentation format (e.g. a grammar task can be followed by one focusing on pronunciation; a whole-class lecture can be followed by group work.) Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
19. Invite some English-speaking foreigners as guest speakers to the class. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
20. Help the students develop realistic beliefs about their learning (e.g. explain to them realistically the amount of time needed for making real progress in English.) Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
21. Use short and interesting opening activities to start teaching class (e.g. fun games.) Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
22. Involve students as much as possible in designing and running the language course (e.g. provide them with opportunities to select the textbooks; make real choices about the activities and topics they are going to cover; decide whom they would like to work with.) Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
23. Establish a good relationship with your students. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
24. Encourage student participation by assigning activities that require active involvement from each participant (e.g. group presentation or peer teaching.) Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
25. Give good reasons to students as to why a particular activity is meaningful or important. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often

26. Try and find out about your students' needs, goals and interest, and then build these into your curriculum as much as possible. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
27. Allow students to create products that they can display or perform (e.g. a poster, an information brochure or a radio program.) Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
28. Encourage learners to try harder by making it clear that you believe that they can do the tasks. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
29. Give students choices in deciding how and when they will be assessed/evaluated. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
30. Create a supportive and pleasant classroom climate where students are free from embarrassment and ridicule. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
31. Display the 'class goals' on the wall and review them regularly in terms of the progress made towards them. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
32. Bring various authentic cultural products (e.g. magazines, newspapers or song lyrics) to class as supplementary materials. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
33. Make clear to students that the important thing in learning a foreign language is to communicate meaning effectively rather than worrying about grammar mistakes. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
34. Notice students' contributions and progress, and provide them with positive feedback. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
35. Include activities that require students to work in groups towards the same goal (e.g. plan a drama performance) in order to promote cooperation. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
36. Teach students various learning techniques that will make their learning easier and more effective. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
37. Adopt the role of a 'facilitator' (i.e. Your role would be to help and lead your students to think and learn in their own way, instead of solely giving knowledge to them.) Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
38. Highlight the usefulness of English and encourage your students to use their English outside the classroom (e.g. internet chat room or English speaking pen-friends.) Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
39. Motivate your students by increasing the amount of English you use in class. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
40. Share with students that you value English learning as a meaningful experience that produces satisfaction and which enriches your life. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
41. Avoid 'social comparison' amongst your students (i.e. comparing them to each other for example when listing their grades in public.) Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often

42. Encourage learners to see that the main reason for most failure is that they did not make sufficient effort rather than their poor abilities. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____ Very often
43. Make tasks attractive by including novel or fantasy elements so as to raise the learners' curiosity. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____ Very often
44. Encourage student to share personal experiences and thoughts as part of the learning tasks. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____ Very often
45. Enrich the channel of communication by presenting various auditory and visual aids such as pictures, realia, tapes and films. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____ Very often
46. Show students that their effort and achievement are being recognized by you. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____ Very often
47. Try to be yourself in front of students without putting on an artificial 'mask,' and share with them your hobbies, likes and dislikes. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____ Very often
48. Give students opportunities to assess themselves (e.g. give themselves marks according to their overall performance.) Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____ Very often

Finally, would you please answer the following short questions:

1. What's your gender? Male _____ Female _____
2. How long have you been teaching English (in months)? _____
3. Have you ever studied abroad? If so when and how long?

4. Which region do you come from? _____
A. Capital B. North (without capital) C. Center D. South
5. In what sort of place is the school you teach? _____
A. City B. Town C. Village

The Questionnaire of Motivational Strategies-teachers' version

動機策略問卷—教師版

各位英語科老師，您好：

這份問卷列出了一些提升語言學習者動機的教學策略。其目的在於了解英語科教師，經常使用哪些教學策略，以做為日後教師在教學上的參考。

您的作答將對本研究有相當大的意義及幫助。此外，本份問卷裡所有的資訊及調查結果，將謹供學術研究使用，絕對會受保密且不公開，所以請您放心地填寫。

非常感謝您願意抽空填寫問卷，謝謝您的協助。

指導教授：黃淑真博士

研究生：陳純鈴

謹誌

政治大學英語教學碩士班

一、個人基本資料

1. 您的性別為：☐ 男性 ☐ 女性
2. 您的英語教學年資：☐ 0~3 年 ☐ 3~6 年 ☐ 6~10 年 ☐ 10~15 年 ☐ 15 年以上
3. 您的學校規模：☐ 10 班以下 ☐ 10~20 班 ☐ 20~30 班 ☐ 30~40 班 ☐ 40 班以上
4. 您居住的區域為：
☐ 台北縣市 ☐ 北部(不包括台北) ☐ 中部 ☐ 南部 ☐ 東部
5. 您任教的學校隸屬於
☐ 省 ☐ 直轄市 ☐ 縣市 ☐ 鎮 ☐ 鄉
6. 您曾經有出國留學的經驗嗎？如果有，請說明求學的年限。
☐ 是 約_____年 ☐ 否

二、英語學習動機教學策略

以下為激勵學生英語學習動機的策略，請依您利用這些教學方式的頻率，回答以下的問題。

請於適當的空格打勾(✓) 例如：極少使用__:_:_:✓:_:_:經常使用

每題請打一個勾，並請回答所有題目。

1. 於授課時，不時穿插幽默。
2. 讓每一個學生感受到你尊重、接受並關心他們。
極少使用__:_:_:~:_:_:經常使用
3. 時常安排課堂活動，使學生有更多的機會互動以更了解彼此(例如：小組活動、競賽式遊戲)。
極少使用__:_:_:~:_:_:經常使用
4. 使學生熟悉一些英語系國家的文化背景及知識。
極少使用__:_:_:~:_:_:經常使用

5. 向學生解釋你認為重要的班規(例如:不要嘲笑同學所犯的錯),並說明這些規範如何促進學習,以尋求學生的認同。 極少使用 __:__:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
6. 安排活動時,給予清楚的指示,並示範每一個步驟。 極少使用 __:__:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
7. 邀請對學習英文很有熱忱的學長來班上,以分享他們學習英語的正面經驗。 極少使用 __:__:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
8. 觀察學生的進步與成就,並找機會獎勵他們的學習成果。 極少使用 __:__:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
9. 時常提醒學生,學好英語將有利於他們日後的發展(例如:到較好的工作、出國進修)。 極少使用 __:__:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
10. 鼓勵學生為自己選定明確、合理且短程的學習目標(例如:每天學五個新的單字)。 極少使用 __:__:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
11. 安排一些學生能力可及的活動,使他們經常有成功的體驗。 極少使用 __:__:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
12. 利用吸引人的內容及主題,以提升學生的學習興趣(例如:電視節目、明星、旅遊)。 極少使用 __:__:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
13. 設計一些有挑戰性的活動,如鼓勵學生去解決問題或發現隱藏於其中的資訊(例如:謎題)。 極少使用 __:__:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
14. 教導學生一些自我激勵的策略(例如:自我鼓勵),讓他們遇到困難時仍然能保持學習動機。 極少使用 __:__:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
15. 使成績不僅反應學生的學習成就,並且將他們所付出的努力納入考量。 極少使用 __:__:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
16. 鼓勵學生建議並且設立他們認為很重要的班規。 極少使用 __:__:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
17. 於教學過程中,展現你對英語教學的熱忱。 極少使用 __:__:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
18. 經常變換課堂活動,以打破單調的學習常規。(例如:練習完發音後,可以做一些文法的練習;小組討論後,進行全班授課的活動)。 極少使用 __:__:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
19. 邀請一些外國人到班上。 極少使用 __:__:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
20. 幫助學生發展合理的學習信念,例如欲使英語能力進步,需要一定的時間。 極少使用 __:__:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
21. 用簡短並能引起學生興趣的活動開始每一堂課(例如:有趣的遊戲)。 極少使用 __:__:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
22. 鼓勵學生參與英語課程的設計(例如:選擇教科書;選擇他們有興趣的活動及主題;選擇合作的夥伴)。 極少使用 __:__:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
23. 與你的學生培養一個友好的師生關係。 極少使用 __:__:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
24. 設計需要學生主動積極參與的活動,以增進學生的課堂參與度(小組報告或同儕教學)。 極少使用 __:__:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
25. 向學生說明並解釋每一個活動的意義與目的。 極少使用 __:__:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
26. 試著發現學生的需要、目標以及興趣,並盡量把它們整合於課程中。 極少使用 __:__:__:__:__:__ 經常使用

27. 讓學生創作一些可供展示及分享的成品(例如:海報、宣傳單或廣播節目)。
極少使用 __:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
28. 鼓勵學生持續努力,並相信他們有能力完成指派的工作。
極少使用 __:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
29. 讓學生選擇評估學習成果的時間及評量的方式。
極少使用 __:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
30. 營造愉悅及有助於學習的課堂氣氛,使學生免於受嘲弄及尷尬的情境。
極少使用 __:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
31. 將全班的學習目標展示於牆上,並定期檢視學生離達成目標的進度。
極少使用 __:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
32. 使用各種不同的真實文化教材(authentic cultural materials)以作為補充教材(例如:英文雜誌、報紙及歌詞)。
極少使用 __:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
33. 讓學生了解英文是用來溝通的工具,不要太在意文法上的錯誤。
極少使用 __:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
34. 肯定學生於課堂上的貢獻與進步,並時常給予正面的回應與建議。
極少使用 __:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
35. 安排需要學生合作以達成共同目標的活動,促進合作關係(例如:設計一齣話劇表演)。
極少使用 __:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
36. 教導學生一些學習策略,讓他們的學習更簡單有效率。
極少使用 __:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
37. 扮演輔助者的角色(例如:引導學生獨立思考與學習,而非僅僅傳輸知識)。
極少使用 __:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
38. 強調英文的實用性,並鼓勵學生在課堂外使用所學的英文(例如:網路聊天室、英文筆友)。
極少使用 __:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
39. 於課堂中多使用英文,以提升學生的學習動機。
極少使用 __:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
40. 與學生分享你自身學習英語的正面經驗,以及英文如何使你的生活經歷更豐富。
極少使用 __:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
41. 避免比較學生的學業表現(例如:公開宣布他們的成績)。
極少使用 __:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
42. 鼓勵學生將失敗歸因於本身的不夠努力而非能力不足。
極少使用 __:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
43. 設計一些新穎、特別有趣的活動以引起學生的好奇心。
極少使用 __:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
44. 鼓勵學生於活動中分享他們的個人經驗與想法。
極少使用 __:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
45. 運用多種視聽輔助工具使教學的管道多元化(例如:圖片、實物、錄音帶及影片)。
極少使用 __:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
46. 讓學生知道你肯定他們的努力與成就。
極少使用 __:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
47. 在學生面前盡量表現真實的自己,並與學生分享你的興趣與喜好。
極少使用 __:__:__:__:__ 經常使用
48. 提供學生自我評估的機會(學生依其整體表現自己評分)。
極少使用 __:__:__:__:__ 經常使用

於此再次誠摯地感謝您的參與及幫助!

APPENDIX B

The Questionnaire of Motivational Strategies—students' version

Below is a list of motivational strategies that your teachers may use in class. We would like to ask you to decide about each strategy *how often* your teacher uses it in your class.

Please mark a tick () in the appropriate blank on the continuum between 'Hardly ever' to 'Very often' (e.g. ___:___:___:___:✓:___). Please only tick one space and answer all the questions.

1. Bring in and encourage humor and laughter frequently in your class. Hardly ever ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ Very often
2. Show students that you respect, accept and care about each of them. Hardly ever ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ Very often
3. Create opportunities so that students can mix and get to know each other better (e.g. group work, game-like competition). Hardly ever ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ Very often
4. Familiarize the learners with the cultural background of the English language. Hardly ever ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ Very often
5. Explain the importance of the 'class rules' that you regard as important (e.g. let's not make fun of each other's mistakes) and how these rules enhance learning, and then ask for the students' agreement. Hardly ever ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ Very often
6. Give clear instructions about how to carry out a task by modeling every step that students will need to do. Hardly ever ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ Very often
7. Invite senior students who are enthusiastic about learning English to talk to your class about their positive English learning. Hardly ever ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ Very often
8. Monitor students' accomplishments, and take time to celebrate any success or victory. Hardly ever ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ Very often
9. Regularly remind students that the successful mastery of English is beneficial to their future (e.g. getting a better job or pursuing further studies abroad.) Hardly ever ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ Very often
10. Encourage students to select specific, realistic and short-term learning goals for themselves (e.g. learning 5 words every day.) Hardly ever ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ Very often

11. Design tasks that are within the learners' ability so that they get to experience success regularly. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____ Very often
12. Introduce in your lessons various interesting content and topics which students are likely to find interesting (e.g. about TV programmes, pop stars or travelling.) Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____ Very often
13. Make tasks challenging by including some activities that require students to solve problems or discover something (e.g. puzzles.) Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____ Very often
14. Teach the students self-motivating strategies (e.g. self-encouragement) so as to keep them motivated when they encounter distractions. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____ Very often
15. Make sure grades reflect not only the students' achievement but also the effort they have put into in the task. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____ Very often
16. Ask learners to think of any classroom rules that they would like to recommend because they think those will be useful for their learning. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____ Very often
17. Show your enthusiasm for teaching English by being committed and motivating yourself. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____ Very often
18. Break the routine of the lessons by varying presentation format (e.g. a grammar task can be followed by one focusing on pronunciation; a whole-class lecture can be followed by group work.) Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____ Very often
19. Invite some English-speaking foreigners as guest speakers to the class. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____ Very often
20. Help the students develop realistic beliefs about their learning (e.g. explain to them realistically the amount of time needed for making real progress in English.) Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____ Very often
21. Use short and interesting opening activities to start each class (e.g. fun games.) Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____ Very often
22. Involve students as much as possible in designing and running the language course (e.g. provide them with opportunities to select the textbooks; make real choices about the activities and topics they are going to cover; decide whom they would like to work with.) Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____ Very often
23. Establish a good relationship with your students. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____ Very often
24. Encourage student participation by assigning activities that require active involvement from each participant (e.g. group presentation or peer teaching.) Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____ Very often
25. Give good reasons to students as to why a particular activity is meaningful or important. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____ Very often

26. Try and find out about your students' needs, goals and interest, and then build these into your curriculum as much as possible. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
27. Allow students to create products that they can display or perform (e.g. a poster, an information brochure or a radio programme.) Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
28. Encourage learners to try harder by making it clear that you believe that they can do the tasks. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
29. Give students choices in deciding how and when they will be assessed/evaluated. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
30. Create a supportive and pleasant classroom climate where students are free from embarrassment and ridicule. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
31. Display the 'class goals' on the wall and review them regularly in terms of the progress made towards them. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
32. Bring various authentic cultural products (e.g. magazines, newspapers or song lyrics) to class as supplementary materials. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
33. Make clear to students that the important thing in learning a foreign language is to communicate meaning effectively rather than worrying about grammar mistakes. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
34. Notice students' contributions and progress, and provide them with positive feedback. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
35. Include activities that require students to work in groups towards the same goal (e.g. plan a drama performance) in order to promote cooperation. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
36. Teach students various learning techniques that will make their learning easier and more effective. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
37. Adopt the role of a 'facilitator' (i.e. Your role would be to help and lead your students to think and learn in their own way, instead of solely giving knowledge to them.) Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
38. Highlight the usefulness of English and encourage your students to use their English outside the classroom (e.g. internet chat room or English speaking pen-friends.) Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
39. Motivate your students by increasing the amount of English you use in class. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
40. Share with students that you value English learning as a meaningful experience that produces satisfaction and which enriches your life. Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
41. Avoid 'social comparison' amongst your students (i.e. comparing them to each other for example when listing their grades in public.) Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often
42. Encourage learners to see that the main reason for most failure Hardly ever ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ Very often

are with them your hobbies, likes and _____ Hardly ever _____

ties to assess themselves (e.g. give _____ Hardly ever _____

ding to their overall performance.)

please answer the following short questions:

at's your gender? Male _____ Female _____

o you come from? _____

North (without capital) C. Center D. South

place is the school you teach? _____

own C. Village

- are with them your hobbies, likes and _____ Hardly ever _____
- ties to assess themselves (e.g. give _____ Hardly ever _____
- ding to their overall performance.)
- please answer the following short questions:**
- at's your gender? Male _____ Female _____
- o you come from? _____
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are with them your hobbies, likes and _____ Hardly ever _____

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動機策略問卷—學生版

政治大學英語教學碩士班

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9. 老師時常提醒學生，學好英語將有利於日後的發展(例如：到較好的工作、出國進修)。 極少使用 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ 經常使用
10. 老師鼓勵學生為自己選定明確、合理且短程的學習目標(例如：每天學五個新的單字)。 極少使用 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ 經常使用
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33. 老師有讓學生了解英文是用來溝通的工具，不要太在意文法上的錯誤。 極少使用 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ 經常使用
34. 老師會肯定學生於課堂上的貢獻與進步，並時常給予正面的回應與建議。 極少使用 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ 經常使用
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39. 老師於課堂中多使用英文，以提升學生的學習動機。 極少使用 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ 經常使用
40. 老師會與學生分享他自身學習英語的正面經驗，以及英文如何使生活經歷更豐富。 極少使用 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ 經常使用
41. 老師會避免比較學生的學業表現(例如:公開宣布成績)。 極少使用 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ 經常使用
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44. 老師會鼓勵學生於活動中分享個人經驗與想法。 極少使用 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ 經常使用
45. 老師會運用多種視聽輔助工具使教學的管道多元化(例如:圖片、實物、錄音帶及影片)。 極少使用 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ 經常使用
46. 老師會肯定學生的努力與成就。 極少使用 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ 經常使用
47. 老師在學生面前盡量表現真實的自己，並與學生分享他的興趣與喜好。 極少使用 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ 經常使用
48. 提供學生自我評估的機會(學生依其整體表現自己評分)。 極少使用 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ 經常使用

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APPENDIX C

The Questionnaire of Motivational Strategies—students' version

Below is a list of motivational strategies that your teachers may use in class. We would like to ask you to think about each strategy *how helpful for you if your teacher uses it in your class.*

Please mark a tick () in the appropriate blank on the continuum between 'Not helpful' to 'Very helpful' (e.g. ___:___:___:___:✓:___). Please only tick one space and answer all the questions.

1. Bring in and encourage humor and laughter frequently in your class. Not helpful ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ Very helpful
2. Show students that you respect, accept and care about each of them. Not helpful ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ Very helpful
3. Create opportunities so that students can mix and get to know each other better (e.g. group work, game-like competition). Not helpful ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ Very helpful
4. Familiarize the learners with the cultural background of the English language. Not helpful ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ Very helpful
5. Explain the importance of the 'class rules' that you regard as important (e.g. let's not make fun of each other's mistakes) and how these rules enhance learning, and then ask for the students' agreement. Not helpful ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ Very helpful
6. Give clear instructions about how to carry out a task by modeling every step that students will need to do. Not helpful ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ Very helpful
7. Invite senior students who are enthusiastic about learning English to talk to your class about their positive English learning. Not helpful ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ Very helpful
8. Monitor students' accomplishments, and take time to celebrate any success or victory. Not helpful ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ Very helpful
9. Regularly remind students that the successful mastery of English is beneficial to their future (e.g. getting a better job or pursuing further studies abroad.) Not helpful ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ Very helpful
10. Encourage students to select specific, realistic and short-term learning goals for themselves (e.g. learning 5 words every day.) Not helpful ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ Very helpful

- | | | |
|-----|---|--------------------------------------|
| 38. | Highlight the usefulness of English and encourage your students to use their English outside the classroom (e.g. internet chat room or English speaking pen-friends.) | Not helpful _____ Very helpful _____ |
| 39. | Motivate your students by increasing the amount of English you use in class. | Not helpful _____ Very helpful _____ |
| 40. | Share with students that you value English learning as a meaningful experience that produces satisfaction and which enriches your life. | Not helpful _____ Very helpful _____ |
| 41. | Avoid 'social comparison' amongst your students (i.e. comparing them to each other for example when listing their grades in public.) | Not helpful _____ Very helpful _____ |
| 42. | Encourage learners to see that the main reason for most failure is that they did not make sufficient effort rather than their poor abilities. | Not helpful _____ Very helpful _____ |
| 43. | Make tasks attractive by including novel or fantasy elements so as to raise the learners' curiosity. | Not helpful _____ Very helpful _____ |
| 44. | Encourage student to share personal experiences and thoughts as part of the learning tasks. | Not helpful _____ Very helpful _____ |
| 45. | Enrich the channel of communication by presenting various auditory and visual aids such as pictures, realia, tapes and films. | Not helpful _____ Very helpful _____ |
| 46. | Show students that their effort and achievement are being recognized by you. | Not helpful _____ Very helpful _____ |
| 47. | Try to be yourself in front of students without putting on an artificial 'mask,' and share with them your hobbies, likes and dislikes. | Not helpful _____ Very helpful _____ |
| 48. | Give students opportunities to assess themselves (e.g. give themselves marks according to their overall performance.) | Not helpful _____ Very helpful _____ |

Finally, would you please answer the following short questions:

6. What's your gender? Male _____ Female _____
7. Which region do you come from? _____
A. Capital B. North (without capital) C. Center D. South
8. In what sort of place is the school you teach? _____
A. City B. Town C. Village

動機策略問卷—學生期望版

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Teacher's Use of Motivational Strategies: Observation Schedule (APPENDIX D)

School:

Teacher:

Learner group:

Date:

Time (minutes)	Activities	Supportive climate		Teacher behavior	Promote group dynamic	Promote L2 -related values	Make the tasks stimulating					Presentation of tasks				Promote learner autonomy				Goal-orientedness		Promote feedback																			
		Encourage humour	Encourage risk-taking	Avoid social comparison	Use short opening activity	Show S you care about them	Show your enthusasm in L2	Take S' progress seriously	Prevent the rigid seating	Encourage information sharing	Ask S to help each other	Use small group tasks	Set & monitor group norms	Introduce cultural products	Highlight the utility of L2	Encourage S to apply L2	Make tasks challenging	Make the content interesting	Fantasy/exotic/novel element	Personalize the tasks (role)	Tangible task products	Competitions & games	Vary tasks & teaching aids	T explains purposes of tasks	Give clear instructions	T models every step	What S' appetite about the tasks	T gives strategies & assistance	Encourage project work	Promote peer teaching	Allow S genuine chooses	Encourage S presentation	Offer self-motivating strategies	Create self-assessment opportunities	Encourage S to set goals	Build S' goals into curriculum	Evaluate S' progress	Celebrate S' success	Affirm S' efforts & hard work	Encourage S to try harder	Provide informational feedback
5																																									
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Appendix E: Final descriptive statistics of the 10 conceptual domains and the individual constituent strategies

Scales and constituent strategies	Teacher		Student	
	N=135		N=216	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1 Proper teacher behavior	4.638	0.925	3.712	1.654
(2) Teachers show students that they respect, accept and care about each student.	4.89	0.83	4.09	1.51
(23) Teachers establish a good relationship with students.	4.66	0.93	3.75	1.69
(17) Teachers show their enthusiasm for teaching English	4.60	0.95	3.76	1.61
(47) Try to be yourself in front of students without putting on an artificial 'mask,' and share with them your hobbies, likes and dislikes.	4.58	0.88	3.5	1.77
(40) Teachers share with students that they value English learning as a meaningful experience that produces satisfaction and which enriches their life.	4.46	1.02	3.46	1.69
2 Recognize students' effort	4.617	0.903	3.640	1.695
(15) Teachers make sure grades reflect not only the students' achievement but also the effort they have put into in the task.	4.88	0.81	3.66	1.71
(46) Show students that their effort and achievement are being recognized by you.	4.6	0.87	3.89	1.64
(8) Teachers monitor students' accomplishments, and take time to celebrate any success or victory.	4.54	0.88	3.39	1.75
(42) Encourage learners to see that the main reason for most failure is that they did not make sufficient effort rather than their poor abilities.	4.45	1.03	3.62	1.68
3 Promote learners' self-confidence	4.324	0.915	3.374	1.640
(34) Teachers notice students' contributions and progress, and provide them with positive feedback.	4.53	0.85	3.75	1.59
(28) Teachers encourage learners to try harder by making it clear that teachers believe that students can do the tasks.	4.45	0.81	3.67	1.71
(36) Teachers teach students various learning techniques that will make learning easier and more effective.	4.42	0.83	3.69	1.58
(11) Design tasks that are within the learners' ability so that they get to experience success regularly.	4.28	0.98	3.15	1.69

(33) Teachers make clear to students that the important thing in learning a foreign language is to communicate meaning effectively rather than worrying about grammar mistakes.	3.94	1.09	2.61	1.63
4 Creating a pleasant classroom climate	4.322	1.041	3.360	1.720
(1) Teachers bring in and encourage humor and laughter frequently in the class.	4.62	1.28	3.49	1.67
(30) Teachers create a supportive and pleasant classroom climate where students are free from embarrassment and ridicule.	4.54	0.82	3.59	1.71
(21) Teachers use short and interesting opening activities to start teaching class	4.11	0.80	2.93	1.71
(41) Teachers avoid 'social comparison' amongst students (i.e. comparing them to each other for example when listing their grades in public.)	4.02	1.25	3.43	1.79
5 Present tasks properly	4.430	1.010	3.495	1.700
(6) Teachers give clear instructions about how to carry out a task by modeling every step that you will need to do.	4.52	1.05	3.64	1.71
(25) Give good reasons to students as to why a particular activity is meaningful or important.	4.34	0.96	3.35	1.69
6 Increase learners' goal-orientedness	4.120	1.079	3.26	1.675
(20) Teachers help the students develop realistic beliefs about your learning (e.g. explain to you realistically the amount of time needed for making real progress in English.)	4.45	1.02	3.48	1.65
(10) Teachers encourage you to select specific, realistic and short-term learning goals for themselves (e.g. learning 5 words every day.)	4.43	0.90	3.73	1.69
(26) Teachers try and find out about students' needs, goals and interest, and then build these into curriculum as much as possible.	4.29	0.97	3.44	1.72
(31) Teachers display the 'class goals' on the wall and review them regularly in terms of the progress made towards them.	3.32	1.40	2.39	1.64
7 Make the learning tasks stimulating	4.000	1.168	2.99	1.740
(18) Teachers break the routine of the lessons by varying presentation format (e.g. a grammar task can be followed by one focusing on pronunciation; a whole-class lecture can be followed by group work.)	4.04	1.33	3.13	1.81

(12) Introduce in your lessons various interesting content and topics which students are likely to find interesting (e.g. about TV programs, pop stars or travelling.)	4.37	0.95	3.24	1.79
(45) Enrich the channel of communication by presenting various auditory and visual aids such as pictures, realia, tapes and films.	4.29	1.10	3.5	1.82
(43) Make tasks attractive by including novel or fantasy elements so as to raise the learners' curiosity.	3.96	1.12	2.87	1.69
(27) Teachers allow you to create products that you can display or perform (e.g. a poster, an information brochure or a radio program.)	3.45	1.37	2.56	1.71
(13) Make tasks challenging by including some activities that require students to solve problems or discover something (e.g. puzzles.)	3.89	1.12	2.64	1.62
8 Promote group cohesiveness and group norms	4.166	1.155	3.288	1.702
(5) Teachers explain the importance of the 'class rules'	4.79	0.91	4.18	1.59
(44) Encourage student to share personal experiences and thoughts as part of the learning tasks.	4.19	1.00	3.09	1.71
(16) Teachers ask learners to think of any classroom rules that they would like to recommend because they think those will be useful for their learning.	4.19	1.10	3.48	1.67
(3) Teachers create opportunities so that students can mix and get to know each other better (e.g. group work, game-like competition).	4.09	1.47	3.04	1.78
(35) Teachers Include activities that require students to work in groups towards the same goal (e.g. plan a drama performance) in order to promote cooperation.	3.57	1.27	2.65	1.76
9 Familiarize learners with L2-related values	3.668	1.192	2.847	1.647
(9) Teachers regularly remind students that the successful mastery of English is beneficial to their future (e.g. getting a better job or pursuing further studies abroad.)	4.63	1.01	3.77	1.79
(4) Teachers familiarize the learners with the cultural background of the English language.	4.49	1.02	3.27	1.62
(39) Teachers motivate students by increasing the amount of English they use in class.	4.15	0.89	3.3	1.71

(32) Teachers bring various authentic cultural products (e.g. magazines, newspapers or song lyrics) to class as supplementary materials.	4.08	1.19	2.97	1.80
(38) Teachers highlight the usefulness of English and encourage students to use their English outside the classroom (e.g. internet chat room or English speaking pen-friends.)	3.99	1.21	2.98	1.59
(7) Teachers invite senior students who are enthusiastic about learning English to talk to your class about their positive English learning.	2.49	1.57	1.91	1.54
(19) Teachers invite some English-speaking foreigners as guest speakers to the class.	1.85	1.42	1.73	1.48
10 Promote learner autonomy	3.793	1.212	3.11	1.695
(14) Teach the students self-motivating strategies (e.g. self-encouragement) so as to keep them motivated when they encounter distractions.	4.22	0.93	3.2	1.70
(37) Teachers adopt the role of a ‘facilitator’ (i.e. Teachers’ role would be to help and lead students to think and learn in their own way, instead of solely giving knowledge to them.)	4.17	0.96	3.38	1.69
(24) Teachers encourage student participation by assigning activities that require active involvement from each participant (e.g. group presentation or peer teaching.)	3.95	1.19	3.06	1.69
(29) Teachers give students choices in deciding how and when they will be assessed /evaluated.	3.68	1.30	3.16	1.74
(48) Give students opportunities to assess themselves (e.g. give themselves marks according to their overall performance.)	3.6	1.31	3.13	1.72
(22) Teachers involve students in designing and running the language course	3.14	1.55	2.73	1.63