CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

This chapter illustrates five major sections: (1) background of the study, (2) statement of the problems, (3) purpose of the study, (4) research framework, and (5) research questions.

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

In Taiwan, English education is of importance since it has been considered one of the dominant languages for communication in the world. Essentially, English has been a prominent tool for business people and scholars in various fields. To keep abreast of the time, one may need to master English to boost his or her competitiveness, thereby getting the upper hand to assimilate the latest knowledge in this competitive and globalized world.

Motivation of Learning English in Taiwan

In Taiwan, English is a foreign language and may be rarely heard or spoken outside the pedagogical settings. Most people may learn English for the sake of their occupations and studies by absorbing a great number of cognitive structures and contents in the target language. Brofenbrenner (1993) stated that human motivation is socially shaped to a large extent. This social dependence is crucial in the acquisition of a second or foreign language. As EFL teachers, it is significant that we could act as motivational figures to exercise constant influence or different types of teaching behaviors to maximize students' motivation in the subject matter of English so that students would put effort into learning English and seek available English resources despite the lack of stimulus outside the academic arena.

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For high school students, English is a required course which students may be exposed to for at least 5 classes per week, depending on their academic tracks (either the social science or natural science). It appears that mastering English in high school is in students' vital interests for their entry into university and career preparation. However, Dörnyei (2001) claimed that a great number of students may suffer from foreign language failures, which results from the lack of motivation as well as little significance and relevance perceived by students in learning a foreign language.

More specifically, Oxford (1998) indicated that there are three things teacher could do to better motivate students: (1) increasing the teacher's personal relationship with the students, (2) the teacher's positive attitude towards the course or the material and, (3) the English teachers' arrangement of the nature of the classroom activities. Judging from these three points, teachers could probably conceive that exercising motivating teaching behaviors may work to raise students' current level of motivation and sustain the drive towards the mastery of English. Apart from the motivational teaching behaviors, it is also important for EFL teachers to get a clear picture of learners' motivational orientations at a personal level, thus utilizing various teaching behaviors to increase their motivation.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEMS

Motivational Teaching Behaviors

A large body of research has indicated that motivation plays a vital role in the prolonged and enduring process of mastering a foreign language (e.g., Gardner, 1985; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Dörnyei & Csizer, 1998). In a context where English has rarely been used outside pedagogical settings, having a good command of a foreign language may require English teachers' motivational practice and teaching behaviors

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to drive students to learn to certain degree.

According to Dörnyei (2001), "motivational strategies" are defined as techniques or practices that sustain and promote people's goal-related behaviors. As a matter of fact, almost any influence each individual exposes himself or herself to might potentially affect his or her behavior. Specifically, motivational strategies refer to those motivational influences that are consciously exerted to achieve some systematic and enduring positive effect (p. 28). In a similar vein, Brophy (1998) stated that motivational practices implemented by English teachers may spark students' interests and motives for continuous learning. Through the implementation of various types of motivational practices and the educational application in language classrooms, students may be motivationally loaded to strive for their personal academic goals.

Equally important, Anderson (1982) argued that motivational teaching, which is related to the clarity, the organization of teaching behaviors, and the establishment of classroom climates conducive to acquisition of knowledge, may be considered of paramount importance to increase students' motivation to learn. Furthermore, McCombs and Pope (1994) argued that, perhaps, all students are motivated to learn as long as English teachers are dedicated to providing environments and atmospheres where students' learning desire and interest will increase and thrive.

While literature abounds with how the use of motivational techniques may shape students' motivation, the number of empirical studies conducted to examine how EFL learners view motivational practice in class has been underrepresented. Learners' appraisal of teaching behaviors may be worth investigating in that EFL teachers could adapt and modify their teaching behaviors or teaching curricula to accommodate to learners' various needs in the context of learning a foreign language.

Challenges of Motivating Students in EFL Contexts

Theobald (2006) stated that students who are not motivated cannot be made to learn. In Taiwan, English has been regarded as a foreign language and a tool which students would not be exposed to on a regular basis outside pedagogical settings and this may result in the relatively low motivation for students to learn English. One of the essential tasks for English teachers in class is to provide surroundings and atmospheres that can help students' desire of learning English grow. Nonetheless, there are great challenges for EFL teachers: (1) how to equip students with sufficient momentum in a context where English is hardly spoken outside the class, (2) how to make learning stimulating and sustainable and reach the stage of mastery of a foreign language after many years of formal schooling, and (3) how to arouse each individual's motivational awareness since each student is unique and may be motivated in his or her own way. These problems are complex in the sense that there are numerous variables that may influence learners' motivation and need to be addressed with various types of teaching behaviors in English classes. As EFL teachers, it is worth probing learners' motivational orientations, together with their perceptions on the teaching behaviors to ignite their motivation and interests in learning English.

Individual Motivation in Learning

Each student is one of a kind and so is his or her motivation. Nevertheless, the number of research regarding how learner motivational orientation may be correlated with teacher behavior has been underrepresented. English teachers should get to know various learners' motivational orientations and how teaching behaviors may be correlated with learner motivational orientation because each learner might be motivated differently.

One theory addressing motivational orientations much in-depth is Deci & Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory, which indicated that one's motivational orientation concerns largely with the extent to which he or she is self-determined. In this theory, there are two major motivational orientations: intrinsic and extrinsic ones. More clearly defined, intrinsic motivation refers to the internal drive within each individual, who does well because of a longing or desire to be challenged, for the sheer joy of participating or learning, or due to a personal willingness to succeed.

On the one hand, extrinsic motivation refers to the actions taken for instrumental ends. For example, students would like to learn on account of the influence of praise, reward and their future personal development (e.g., for the sake of gaining entry into a prestigious university). According to Vallerand (1997), extrinsic motivations have three major levels, ranging from the lowest to the highest self-determination along the continuum: (1) external regulation, (2) introjected regulation and (3) identified regulation. In the current study, I intended to borrow the major tenets from Deci and Ryan's theory (1985) to examine Taiwanese high school students' motivational orientations in learning English as a foreign language since the taxonomies could be significant constructs for understanding and conceptualization of L2 motivation(e.g., Brown, 2001; Crookes & Schmidt,1991).

On the other hand, Wlodkowski (1985) maintained that nurturing and developing learners' intrinsic motivational orientation via clear instructional and motivational practices in pedagogy may be of importance for the long-term development of assimilating knowledge of any kind. Once English teachers help students perceive their motivational orientations during the learning process through the implementation of various instructional strategies and multiple alternatives and different forms of assessments, students' existing motivational levels would be raised.

In Taiwan, Warden and Lin (2000) proposed another type of motivational orientation (required motivational orientation) and indicated that English has been regarded as a required subject, which results in the phenomenon that some students may show their disinterests and unwillingness in learning English. Furthermore, the findings from their studies suggested that students in an EFL context may tend to have extrinsic motivation and required one since students are not constantly exposed to the target language outside the academic arena. It should be noted here that English teachers should be aware of students' individual motivational orientation and consider what motivational teaching behavior may stimulate learners in English learning.

In conclusion, all of the aforementioned motivational orientations are worth exploring before English teachers determine what teaching behaviors may give students the impetus to learn. That is, to what extent do high school students attach the motivational importance to various types of teaching behaviors and to what degree may students' motivational orientations be associated with various types of teaching behaviors? These two questions are crucial for further investigation since empirical studies in this domain are scarce.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study is modified and replicated from Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) study, which investigated EFL teachers' use of motivational teaching behaviors across all educational levels in Taiwan. What the previous study did not address was the learner perspective, which is important to probe in English education since the learners' perspectives could offer English teachers valuable guidelines for modification of their curriculum and teaching behaviors. Therefore, I intended to investigate high school students' self-reported motivational orientations and perceptions on the frequency and

importance of EFL teachers' various types of teaching behaviors with the close-ended questions while the other part was intended to triangulate students' responses with two open-ended questions for eliciting high school students' opinion.

Alonso-Tapia and Pardo (2006) indicated that learners' existing motives and motivational orientations may be associated with different types of teaching behaviors. However, few empirical studies have specifically shed light on students' perceptions of teaching behaviors and to what extent students' motivational orientations may be correlated with different types of teaching behaviors. Therefore, this present study also intended to investigate the correlation between the perceived importance of various teaching behaviors and high school students' motivational orientations.
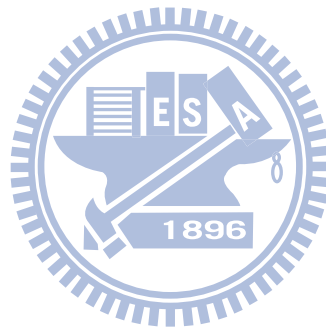
RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

Since one's motivation may be influenced by constant exposure to certain behaviors, the present study adopted Dörnyei's (2001) motivational teaching practice model. Furthermore, learners' rating of the motivational importance may differ individually due to their motivational orientations. For this reason, it may be crucial to probe EFL learners' motivational orientations so that EFL teachers may exercise appropriate behaviors to accommodate to learners' various motivational orientations.

Figure 1.1 depicts one of the major research frameworks of the present study. I adopted various motivational components from Dörnyei's (2001) systematic investigation of motivational techniques in foreign language classes, allowing students to rate the motivational importance of various teaching behaviors.

Figure 1.2 illustrates Ryan and Deci's (2000) taxonomy of human motivation, constituting the theoretical framework regarding learners' motivational orientations in the current study. I attempted to incorporate major components of various motivational orientations for a clear picture and conceptualization of high school

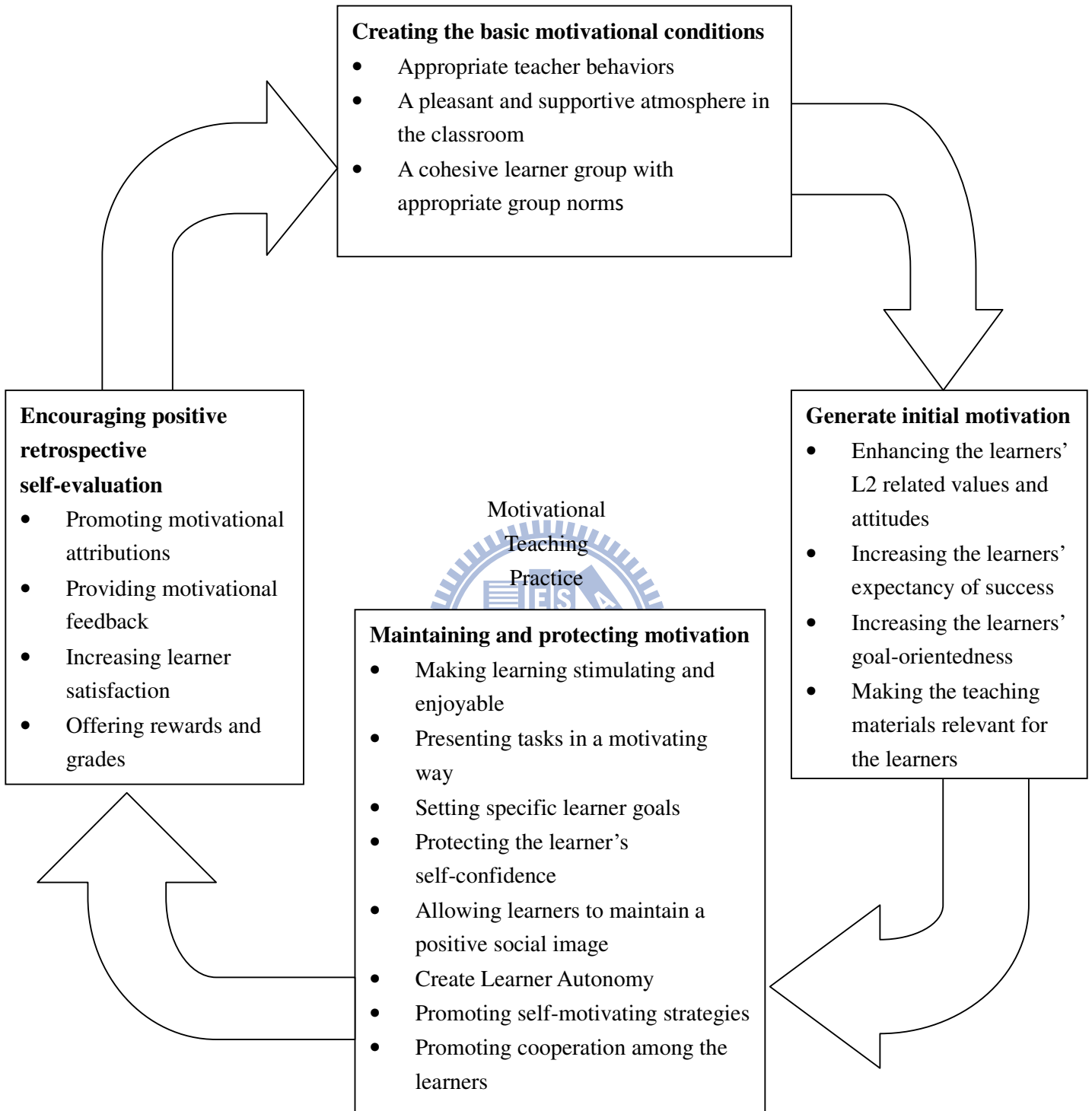students' motivational orientations in English learning.

Creating the basic motivational conditions
- Appropriate teacher behaviors
- A pleasant and supportive atmosphere in the classroom
- A cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms

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

Motivational Teaching Practice

Generate initial motivation
- Enhancing the learners' L2 related values and attitudes
- Increasing the learners' expectancy of success
- Increasing the learners' goal-orientedness
- Making the teaching materials relevant for the learners

Maintaining and protecting motivation
- Making learning stimulating and enjoyable
- Presenting tasks in a motivating way
- Setting specific learner goals
- Protecting the learner's self-confidence
- Allowing learners to maintain a positive social image
- Create Learner Autonomy
- Promoting self-motivating strategies
- Promoting cooperation among the learners

Figure 1.1 Adapted from Dörnyei's (2001) components of motivational teaching

practice

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REGULATORY
STYLES

	Amotivation	Extrinsic motivation				Intrinsic Motivation
		External regulation	Introjec-tion	Identifi-cation	Integra-tion	

| ASSOCIATED PROCESSES | Perceived non-consistency Low perceived competence Nonrelevance Nonintentionality | Salience of extrinsic rewards or punishments Compliance/ Reactance | Ego Involvement Focus on approval from self and others | Conscious valuing of activity Self-endorsement of goals | Hierarchical synthesis of goals Congruence | Interest & Enjoyment Inherent satisfaction |
| PERCEIVED LOCUS OF CAUSALITY | Impersonal | External | Somewhat External | Somewhat Internal | Internal | Internal |

Figure 1.2 Ryan & Deci's (2000) taxonomy of human motivation

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Based on the research framework and the purpose of the current study, I intended to investigate the following research questions:

(1) What are high school students' English learning motivational orientations? Is there any significance by genders and academic tracks?

(2) What are high school participants' perceptions on the frequency and importance of EFL teachers' teaching behaviors?

(3) To what extent do high school students with different genders and academic tracks perceive the importance of EFL teachers' teaching behaviors?

(4) What is the correlation between high school students' self-reported motivational orientations and their perceptions on various types of teaching behaviors?

These research questions are worth investigating for two major reasons. First, rarely have there been empirical studies eliciting students' perceptions towards teaching behaviors in EFL contexts. Second, studies regarding the correlation between motivational behaviors and orientations have not been given much attention to. With all these stated, it is of importance to explore the uncharted domain, thereby giving English teachers a clear picture of how high school students in Taiwan perceive the frequency and importance of various types of teaching behaviors and what their motivational orientations are.

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

The topic of "teaching behaviors" and "motivational orientations" could be approached from various angles. In teaching, many in-service practitioners believe that properly motivating learners has been considered paramount to initiate and stimulate student learning in class (e.g., Brown, 2001; Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Furthermore, some researchers have investigated various types of motivational teaching behaviors readily available for pedagogical applications in foreign language instruction (Dörnyei, 1994a; Dörnyei & Csizer, 1998; Dörnyei, 2001). Still other researchers have shed light on learners' motivational orientations inasmuch as one's motivational orientations may be connected with the extent to which certain individual could be motivated (Alonso-Tapia & Pardo, 2006; Noels et al., 2000).

Generally speaking, the purpose of the literature review is twofold: (1) to better conceptualize the teaching behaviors and motivational orientations of various types, I present motivation theories in regard to pedagogy, defining the underlying construct of teaching behaviors and empirical studies in general education and foreign language instruction and (2) to probe motivational orientations among EFL learners, the other aim of the literature review centers on learner motivational orientations. Finally, I discuss the empirical studies of motivational orientations conducted in EFL/ESL contexts. With the two purposes of literature review as the pivots in the current study, the epitome of the current study is thus established.

THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Human behaviors are generally influenced by motivation to act towards their goals to a great extent. By definition, motivation is a theoretical and psychological

construct that may account for the initiation, direction, intensity and perseverance of human action (Dörnyei, 2001). As educators, the ability to stir students to action by conducting teaching behaviors of various types for students to assimilate knowledge may be of great values across all educational disciplines. Olivia and Pawlas (2002) argued that the first and primary meaning of motivation as related to the process of learning is the disposition or the desire of learner to learn while the second meaning is found in those actions teacher implement in class to arouse desires on the part of the learner to learn (p.153).

Despite the fact that there are many validation and analysis of educational theories concerning motivation, one common theme operating within the motivation theories is what teachers do to cater to and meet students' learning needs and elevate their drive in learning. Thus, it should be noted that conceiving the learning contexts, needs and drives among students may be vital in the sense that English teachers could better perceive what actions or behaviors may ignite learner motivation. With all these stated, major theories regarding motivation are presented and discussed in the following paragraphs.

Gardner's Motivation Theory

In terms of motivational theories, one major theory has inspired a large amount of research in recent decades. For instance, Gardner and Lambert (1972) are the pioneers that adopt a social psychological approach to analyze motivation of second language in Canada, where the language of English and French are held in high regard.

Due to the nature of the context of their research, Gardner and Lambert (1972) consider the social milieu in which the second language is spoken could be an important source of conceptualization of motivation in one's success of learning a L2.

In fact, a key issue of Gardner's (1985) theory is the clarification of two

orientations: "integrative orientation," which illuminates the notion that concerns one's positive and interpersonal attitude towards the L2 community and culture, whereas "instrumental orientations" refers to the notion that one studies an L2 because of the external rewards or pragmatic gains. Furthermore, in another study conducted by Gardner and Tremblay (1994), a distinction has been drawn between "motivation" and "orientation." Namely, motivation, as defined earlier, is the continuous effort certain individuals make to achieve a task, while "orientations" is a host of reasons why each person would like to complete the task.

To sum up, Gardner's (1985) motivation theory has led scholars in motivational research to further motivational studies to examine learner motivational orientations in various ethnolinguistic contexts.

Maslow's Need Theory

Need theories are among the contemporary motivational theories to respond to humans' felt needs. The needs may be either inborn or universal (e.g., self-preservation, hunger, thirst, etc.) or acquired via cultural experience (e.g., accomplishment, affiliation, power, etc.). Maslow (1943) proposes one of the first theories on human needs by categorizing them into five dimensions:

(a) Physiological needs (thirst, sleep);

(b) Safety needs (freedom, danger, anxiety, or physiological threat);

(c) Love needs (acceptance from parents, English teachers, peers);

(d) Esteem needs (mastery experiences, confidence in one's ability);

(e) Needs for self-actualization (creative, self-expression, satisfaction of curiosity).

The classification suggests a kind of hierarchical relations among the various needs. Unless the lower needs are satisfied, the higher needs may not even be recognized. Physiological needs are the most fundamental ones that should be met

before pursuing higher needs. That is, if both physiological needs and security needs are met, people can appreciate warm interpersonal relationships and love needs may start to motivate their behaviors. Suppose love needs are gratified, it is likely that people may start to seek the ultimate need of self-actualization.

Likewise, in the classroom setting, Maslow's "needs model" implies that if students come into the class anxious and insecure, they probably could not become engrossed in lessons. Therefore, providing a warm and agreeable climate for students to learn should feature high on instructors' agenda. On the whole, Maslow's need theory addresses humans' needs that may be beneficial to EFL teachers so as to monitor students' various needs, which may trigger their learning motivation.

Goal Theories

Most people's behaviors are oriented by goals they have set for themselves. In pedagogy, it may be of importance to keep students goal-oriented to execute various types of learning activities. For instance, Ford (1992) has postulated a theory of human motivation that contains taxonomy of 24 goals divided into six categories (p. 6):

(a) Affective goals: entertainment, tranquility, happiness, pleasurable, bodily sensations, and physical well-being;

(b) Cognitive goals: exploration to satisfy one's curiosity , attaining understanding, engaging in intellectual creativity, and maintaining positive self-evaluations;

(c) Subjective organization goals: unity(experiencing a spiritual understanding or oneness with people) and transcendence(experiencing optimal states of functioning that go beyond ordinary experience);

(d) Self-assertive social relationship goals: experiencing a sense of individuality,

self-determination and resource acquisition (obtaining material and social support);

(e) Integrative social relationship goals: belongingness, social responsibility (meeting one's ethical and social obligations), equity (promoting fairness and justice), and receive provision (giving material and social support to others);

(f) Task goals: mastery, task creativity, management (handling everyday tasks with organization and efficiency), material gain, and safety.

Among the categorization, it should be noted that Ames (1992) constructed a dichotomy between master and performance goal orientations. Mastery goal orientation refers to the situation when students focus on the learning of the content while performing goal orientation highlights the occasion when students want to display their ability to get decent grades or outperform other classmates. For instance, as students come to perceive their learning goals, they concentrate their focus on whatever learning task is at their hands and attempt to complete the task successfully.

With the conceptualization of various learner goal orientations, English teachers may coordinate classroom climate, curriculum, instruction, and assessment practice in order to motivate students to adopt mastery goals instead of performance goals or work-avoidant goals in education. Similarly, by considering goal orientations among learners, it may be facilitative for English teachers to design courses since learners with different goal orientations could be motivated with different teaching behaviors.

Expectancy Motivation Model

Vroom (1964) proposed a crucial motivational theory that can be applied to educational settings. Vroom theorized that human motivation is on the basis of the product of three factors: valence (desire for reward), expectancy (belief that an effort will result in completion of a task), and above all instrumentality (the knowledge that

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a reward will be gained upon completion of the task). As applied to pedagogical settings, students may study hard to obtain the reward—the valence. The desire for reward constitutes the core motivation to get good grades. On the other hand, expectancy refers to a student's belief that his or her effort will bring about the successful completion of the tests and homework. The third component, "instrumentality" relates to students' belief of the possibility that a learning task can be done with "strings attached."

To effectively motivate students in a classroom setting, English teachers should combine the three factors—valence, expectancy, and instrumentality—to effectively motivate students. Furthermore, English teachers should dedicate themselves to providing incentives for their students to thrive in the warm and learning environment (e.g., establishing classroom rules and procedures, fair and consistent evaluation, and proper reward structures).

With the review of the aforementioned theories in regard to needs, goals and expectancy, EFL teachers could probably conceive what learners need and anticipate in the English learning process.

FRAMEWORKS FOR MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES

Any teacher who would like to promote teaching effectiveness may perceive the fact that without properly setting the procedures for motivating learners to engage themselves in learning activities, whatever teaching behaviors they conduct in class, the intricately designed curriculum may be unsuccessful and invalid. Dick and Carey (1996) argued, "Many instructors consider the motivation level of learners the most important factor in successful instruction" (p. 92). By the same token, Wlodkowski (1985) stated that "motivation is not only the core part of learning as it is a causal factor of learning, but it serves a fundamental mediator of learning and a result of

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learning well" (p. 4). From his perspective, as educators, we should sensitize

ourselves to raise the level of student motivation by establishing an agreeable learning

environment and displaying behaviors that may pique students' interests and

motivation (e.g., wearing smiles and maintaining eye-contacts).

In order to motivate learners to a greater extent, a central question has been given

much attention to: should there be a framework for designing motivational techniques

for the language instructors to increase learners' inner drives towards learning? In the

following sections, I am going to synthesize some crucial models regarding the

framework for motivational strategies.

According to Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008), motivational strategies are

defined as the behaviors English teachers conduct in class to greatly elicit and

stimulate student motivation. The major paradigm adopted in that study concerns the

systematic motivational techniques postulated by Dörnyei (2001). In fact, Dörnyei

(2001) postulated the following taxonomy in relation to the framework of

motivational techniques based on phases during which learner motivation could be

aroused. The key units in this organization are presented as follows:

(a) Creating the basic motivational conditions;

(b) Generating initial motivation;

(c) Maintaining and protecting motivation;

(d) Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation.

The first component is a prerequisite to initiate student motivation. For instance,

English teachers should first construct a learning environment in which students could

feel less intimidated and anxious by incorporating "personal learning experience,"

"role modeling," and so on. On the other hand, the second component refers to the

concept that English teachers should generate student motivation by enhancing

students' L2 related values and attitudes, increasing students' expectancy of success, elevating students' goal-orientedness, making the instructional materials relevant for the learners, and creating realistic learner beliefs.

The third component mainly refers to how teachers make learning activities stimulating and present tasks in a motivating way. The fourth component, in a similar vein, concerns greatly with the way teachers offer feedback on learners' performances, such as class applause, effective praise, process feedback session and neutral feedback session. In the current study, I aimed to investigate how high school students may perceive the aforementioned motivational components in Taiwan. Furthermore, in the current study, different types of motivational strategies are referred to as "teaching behaviors" that may motivate language learners.

Schumann's Neurobiological Model

Schuman (1998) illustrated that environmental stimuli in a classroom setting for initiating and sustaining students' motivation may be considered paramount to arouse student learning. More specifically, Schumann (1998) contended that the key constituent in the model is stimulus appraisal, which occurs in the brain along five dimensions. The five environmental facets are thus categorized:

(a) Novelty

(b) Pleasantness

(c) Goal/need significance

(d) Coping potential

(e) Self and social image

Having established the five components, Schumann (1998) demonstrated that learners constantly assay the intrinsic enjoyment of activities in a particular context

they undergo and the relevance they perceive the learning tasks to be; they monitor how much progress they have made, to what extent they have approached their goal and finally how their self and social image may be influenced by the expected actions upon the task completion. With this model, it is suggested that what students are exposed to in class should be of concern for EFL teachers in that the stimulus appraisals could be held accountable for offering affective foundation on various subsequent actions.

In conclusion, these above-mentioned models presented tangible behaviors as well as neurobiological concepts that teachers in all disciplines may consider conducting to enhance motivation among learners at different phases of learning. Furthermore, the aforementioned motivational strategies are referred to as motivational teaching behaviors in the present study. In the following sections, I attempt to probe respective empirical studies related to teaching behaviors of various types in general education and foreign language instruction more in-depth.

Empirical Studies of Teaching Behaviors in General Education

In the 1960s, the number of research regarding teaching behaviors has received substantial attention in terms of the enhancement of motivation among students across various subject matters and ethnolinguistic contexts.

For instance, Beck (1967) reported on one study regarding an investigation of 2,108 sixth-grade students' perceptions of teacher's merit. In this study, a conclusion was derived: the students perceived motivational English teachers as warm, friendly and supportive people who communicate their ideas clearly, motivate and discipline students effectively, and are flexible in teaching. In order to investigate selected aspects of teacher personality in different American high school environments, Walker (1969) suggested the following features to be taken into account in fostering creativity

in American high schools:

(a) English teachers are generally adaptive to learners' current proficiency level;

(b) English teachers are flexible and not rigid in their materials for learning;

(c) English teachers are outgoing and permissive in regard to learners' challenges;

(d) English teachers play nurturing roles in shaping students' right state of mind.

On the other hand, Coats (1970) conducted a factor analysis concerning how 42,180 students responded to various types of teaching behaviors. It was found that a factor labeled as "English teachers' charisma" accounted for 61.5% of the variance in test items. From this result, it was concluded that this factor may play a significant part in teaching in a motivating fashion.

In another study, Blumfeld and her colleagues (1988) conducted a survey concerning English teachers' behaviors that may enhance student's level of motivation and cognitive engagement. They contrasted fifth- and sixth-grade science classes in which students reported higher level of motivation with classes they claimed to be less motivated when perceiving certain types of teaching behaviors in science classes. In the 5th grade class, the teacher highlighted and stressed more ideas instead of facts, elaborated on the values of science through stories about science or about the link between the knowledge with everyday experiences, which motivated students greatly.

According to the survey, three major English teachers' practices that may elevate students' learning motivation level arise:

(a) Opportunities to learn;

(b) Press;

(c) Support.

The findings from Blumfeld and Mergendoller (1988) revealed what teacher could do to motivate their learners: (1) bringing the lesson to the students by

providing chances for them to voice their opinion and enhance the interest value of

learning, and (2) bringing the students to the lesson by requiring them to think about

and use the material and appreciating their efforts to do so. The categorization of the

three components highlights certain teaching behaviors that may load students with

motivation and cognitive engagement. However, each individual has their own

motivational orientations. More research could be addressed on how English teachers'

behaviors correlate with learners' different motivational orientations, and perhaps to

determine what types of teaching behaviors and motivational instruction may work

for students with various types of motivational orientations.

After the early series of research, this line of research has shifted the focal point

from teacher qualities and characteristics towards "what teacher might do in the class

to make teaching motivating?" The paradigm underlying this line of research was

termed "process-product," which probed into the correlation between certain teaching

behaviors and the student achievement (Brophy & Good, 1986). This vein of research

adopted an approach that sought behaviors that predicted or preferably caused growth

in student knowledge, skills, and motivation.

For example, McKeachie, Lin, and Mann (1971) conducted a comprehensive

project, which investigated American college and university students' ratings of

instructors and instruction, found six major characteristics among motivational

English teachers. Six stable ones that emerged were skill, overload (difficulty),

structure, feedback, group interaction and student-teacher rapport (warmth). In

summary, the majority of research studies exploring teaching behaviors consistently

endorsed "structured" or "enthusiastic," and "stimulating" as being most motivating

in the classroom.

With these studies conducted, it is also suggested that both students' and English teachers' perceptions on how English teachers conduct classes are equally important when it comes to igniting student motivation. Burden and Williams (1998) surveyed 35 students' perceptions towards their learning environment using a questionnaire which identifies classroom environment or climate, personalization, participation, independence, investigation and differentiation. To put it shortly, this questionnaire consisted of twenty-five items designed to identify pupils' and English teachers' perceptions of the degree to which each of these aspects occurs within a particular teacher's lessons. This makes it possible to compare the teacher and the student perceptions of what motivating learning context would actually take place with what they would ideally like to take place. What was strikingly revealed in the study was the gender variation: boys and girls perceived differently on the category of investigatory nature of tasks, along with a greater degree of participatory involvement perceived by the boys. Based on the finding, it appears that the "gender factor" may be worth investigating in terms of various types of teaching behaviors.

Similarly, Alonso-Tapia and Pardo (2006) conducted a large-scale study, which surveyed learners' perceptions on secondary teachers' various motivational teaching behaviors across all educational disciplines. There were 630 participants, ranging from 15 to17 years old, from three schools. There were two forms of questionnaires administered in this study. The first one included different teaching behaviors aimed at arousing learning motivation. Students had to rate the motivational teaching behaviors in the form of a Likert Scale. The other one assessed students' motivational traits and orientations. The findings suggest that motivational importance attached to the teaching behaviors is associated with students' motivational orientations. Here, it is implicated that English teachers could conduct various types of teaching on the

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basis of students' motivational orientations.

With studies conducted in general education, it is suggested that empirical research on specific teaching behaviors conducted at specific educational levels should be examined more thoroughly, particularly in the language classroom, to determine what may boost students' existing level of motivation. In the next section, I will approach teaching behaviors in empirical studies of foreign language instruction.

Empirical Studies of Teaching Behaviors in EFL/ESL Contexts

Compared with motivational teaching empirical studies among various subject matters in general education, the number of studies has also been given attention to regarding 'what English teachers may do to maximize learners' motivation' and 'what different motivational orientation learners may possess in foreign language education (Brosh, 1996; Schulz, 2000). Furthermore, motivational teaching behaviors generally refer to the methods promoting learning effectiveness and achievement in the daunting and enduring process of learning a foreign language (Murray, 1991).

Dörnyei (1998) stated that teacher specific motivational components include teaching behaviors, personality and teaching style, which may greatly contribute to elevation of motivation in learning a foreign language. In the current study, I highlight empirical studies in relation to teaching behaviors in foreign language instruction, which are to be presented in the subsequent paragraphs.

Around the 1990s, a number of studies have shed light on investigating a set of systematic teaching techniques or strategies that would trigger the interests and perhaps sustain the motivation of learning throughout the learning process (Brophy, 1998; Dörnyei, 2006). Following this notion, Lowman (1995) stated that English teachers motivating in teaching generally displayed the following behaviors: (1) the ability to generate intellectual excitement and (2) interpersonal rapport in learners. To

further confirm the result of this study, Lowman (1995) investigated 500 teaching awards nomination letters from the students at the University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, and detected 39 descriptions of teaching behaviors. Then, Lowman (1995) argued that two more dimensions of teaching should have been added to the model. The following four components were found in order of weights: intellectual excitement (16 items), interpersonal concern (10 items), effective motivation (7 items), commitment to teaching (4 items) and others (2 items).

By the same token, Brosh (1996) identified the teaching behaviors of EFLT(Effective Foreign Language Teachers) perceived by the high school English teachers as well as students in Israel with interviews and a questionnaire comprising 20 items of teaching behaviors. Both groups attributed the highest importance to items regarding "commanding the target language" and "teaching comprehensibly," whereas neither the English teachers nor the students endorsed items about "positive attitudes toward L2 cultures" and "teaching in the target language." The possible explanation, as suggested in the study, may be that rarely do they have the opportunities to be exposed to the culture of the target language in their daily lives. More recently, Koutsousolis (2003) identified 94 behaviors of teaching by 25 high school English teachers in Cyprus. Koutsousolis (2003) classified the characteristics into three major categories: the ability to show teacher friendliness and understanding; the ability to communicate with students on equal terms and handle teacher-student relations with enthusiasm; and above all the ability to make lessons interesting and motivating. The above-mentioned studies reveal that some teaching behaviors may be universal while some may be context-dependent.

Similarly, Bell (2005) examined English teachers' perceptions concerning teaching behaviors and attitudes that contribute to effective foreign language teaching

and learning. The data were gathered via a questionnaire to which 457 postsecondary foreign language English teachers made response. Based on Bell's (2005) research on second language acquisition (SLA), various teaching behaviors and attitudes of effective foreign language English teachers were identified for incorporation on the questionnaire. The results revealed an emerging professional consensus regarding a number of teacher behaviors and attitudes related to foreign language teaching. In other words, the more motivational behaviors that are acknowledged by English teachers, the higher possibility the profession would be to establish recommended teaching model for foreign language teacher preparation and evaluation in English teaching.

The consensus among English teachers, though established, may be far from complete in this study. What English teachers may assume to be motivational teaching does not guarantee students' agreements along the same line. Namely, it may be crucial to elicit both sides of belief systems to be inspired by not only the English teachers, but also the students, on what "motivational teaching" exactly is.

Likewise, Dörnyei and Csizer (1998) surveyed 200 Hungarian English teachers' perceptions related to the frequency and importance of different types of motivational strategies across all educational levels. Hungary is known for its EFL context, where English is mainly regarded as an academic matter and students are hardly exposed to it outside class. For this reason, it may be particularly interesting to probe what English teachers may do to load students with ample motivation to learn despite the impoverished language stimuli. In this study, two sets of questionnaires were adopted: one allowed English teachers to rate the frequency of different types of teaching behaviors while the other addressed the importance of such behaviors from English teachers' points of view. The items of the questionnaire were based on Dörnyei's

(1994a) recommendations of teaching strategies for English teachers to implement in class. Based on the results, a concise set of "ten commandments" regarding motivational macrostrategies was compiled on the basis of the English teachers' responses to a selection of 51 teaching strategies or behaviors. The 51 motivational strategies were narrowed down to only ten categories according to how important and how frequent these strategies were perceived and used by Hungarian English teachers.

In spite of the "ten commandments," these teaching behaviors may be perceived differently for English teachers in various cultures and deserves further research in various ethnolinguistic contexts.

In a follow-up study, Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) investigated 387 English teachers' perceptions of motivational macrostrategies in foreign language instruction across all educational levels in Taiwan. Although the cultural and ethnolinguistic contexts differ in the two separate studies, similar motivational strategies were recognized as crucial and identical, as depicted in Table 2.1, which provides the evidence of somewhat transferability regardless of cultural backgrounds. Despite of the similarities among the strategies found, most of the types were rather culturally contingent (see Table 2.1).

Table 2.1

The Comparison of the Rank Order of the Macrostrategies Obtained in Taiwan and in

Dörnyei and Csizer's (1998) Study

Components of Motivational Strategies	Hungarian Survey	Taiwanese Survey
Set a personal example with your own behavior	4	1
Recognize students' effort and celebrate success	2	2
Promote learners' self-confidence	5	3
Create a pleasant and relaxed atmosphere in class	1	4
Present tasks properly	3	5
Increase the learners' goal-orientedness	8	6
Make the learning tasks stimulating	6	7
Familiarize learners with L2-related values	10	8
Promote group cohesiveness and group norms	9	9
Promote learner autonomy	7	10

Source: Cheng and Dörnyei (2007)

To follow up on this study, Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) conducted another study with regard to how English teachers' specific motivational components may influence student motivation in learning. To ensure the reliability and validity of the motivational study, three forms of schemes were adopted: (1) a classroom observation scheme (Motivational Orientation of Language Teaching), (2) a student questionnaire with motivational orientation and (3) postlesson teacher evaluation scale.

In terms of MOLT, the scheme specifically probed features of learners' motivated behaviors and English teachers' motivational practice. Furthermore, the scheme also follows the real time coding principle of Spada and Frohlich (1995).

Twenty five observable and definable motivational variables, adapted from Dörnyei's (2001) systematic investigation of motivational strategies, comprised the scheme and four major types of teaching behaviors were categorized: (1) teacher discourse, (2) participation structure, (3) encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation and (4) activity design. On the other hand, a student questionnaire with regard to motivational orientations was created to investigate student motivational state in a certain specific situation. Finally, a posthoc rating scale regarding motivational teaching components was filled in by the observer in the classroom setting. The finding suggests that motivational teaching practice implemented by language English teachers indicates a strong correlation with students' motivated behavior, which further attests to the fact that motivational practice in class may have s strong motivational influence on student behavior in learning a foreign language.

Generally, it is anticipated that motivational teaching behaviors may contribute positively to learners' orientations of learning. Nonetheless, some studies do not always support such predictions (Alonso-Tapia & Pardo, 2006), which pinpointed certain teaching behaviors may be positively or negatively correlated with students having various motivational orientations. Therefore, it may be of value to conduct research on whether or not motivational orientations correlate positively or negatively with motivational teaching behaviors. In the next section, the taxonomy of motivational orientations in regard to its theoretical basis and empirical studies regarding learners' self-reported motivational orientations will be discussed and synthesized.

MOTIVATIONAL ORIENTATIONS

A long-held notion in educational psychology is that English teachers should treat students as individuals in order to optimize their existing motivation and current learning. A large body of research in general education has also indicated that whether or not motivational teaching behaviors are motivating to students may depend greatly on students' various motivational orientations (Covington, 2000 ; Eccles & Wigfield, 2002).

Definitions of Motivational Orientations

As the concept of "motivational orientations" aroused researchers' attention, the conceptualization of it has been approached from various perspectives. According to Gardner and Lambert (1972), motivational orientations are viewed as one's attitude, goals and reasons towards the acquisition of a second language. That is to say, the two factors may be crucial constructs in relation to students' motivation to learn. In addition, Gardner and Tremblay (1994) defined motivational orientations as reasons or desires associated with why certain individuals would like to take action towards various learning task. In this scope, one's attitude towards why he or she learns a foreign language may bear somewhat correlation on one's learning outcome. What's more, Dörnyei (2001) considered motivational orientations "motivational antecedents," which indicates that the identification of learner motivational orientations should be reckoned with prior to conducting motivational teaching behaviors.

Taxonomy of Motivational Orientations

Generally speaking, three major motivational orientations have been proposed as to why students would like to learn a second language: external goal orientations,

intrinsic goal orientations and amotivation. Founded on Atkinson and Raynor's (1994) achievement motivation theory, Atkinson and Raynor (1974) divided "external motivational orientation" into the following taxonomy: desire of success, fear of failure and external incentives. In contrast, Dweck and Elliot (1983) claimed that one of the previously mentioned categories, "desire of success" should have been distinguished more clearly. Rather than regarding "desire of success" as only one motive, Dweck and Elliot (1983) stated that clarifying this motive into two more different motives—"the desire to learn", "increase or experience or one's own competence" and the "desire to obtain a positive evaluation of such competence"—was essential.

When it comes to the distinction of orientations of extrinsic motivation, Deci and Ryan (1985) proposed the notion that one's extrinsic goal orientation may be categorized by the extent to which one's motivation is self-determined. Following this concept, Noels et al. (2000) placed the extrinsic goal orientation along the continuum, from the lowest to the highest level of self-determination: (1) external regulation, (2) introjected regulation and (3) identified regulation.

External regulation is highly related to the extrinsic orientation because it refers to the situation when one would like to get good grades because of the pressure imposed by parents, English teachers, and the surroundings. The sources of motivation may be completely external. Given that the external incentive is taken away, he or she may discontinue engaging in the learning process.

The introjected regulation, on the other hand, refers to the reasons concerning the external pressure certain individuals have incorporated into themselves while executing tasks. While these people are responding to stress, their actions are not self-determined, not acting on the basis of personal choice. The striking example is

that when students would like to practice a foreign language because he or she may feel embarrassed if they do not. Learning occurs when students feel the need to lessen a sense of guilt and the learning is not self-determined.

For the identified regulation, this bears somewhat resemblance with the intrinsic motivation in that each individual with this one may pursue knowledge because they perceive the intrinsic values and relevance for their future success. This type of orientation is by far the most self-determined, which allows students to endure the repetitive boredom to achieve fluency for they have conceived the significance to attain this personal valued goal.

The last component "amotivation" depicts the situation in which learners perceive little relevance between their actions and the consequences of these actions is hypothesized by Deci and Ryan (1985). In most cases, students may have neither intrinsic nor extrinsic orientations and, perhaps, they may possess learner helplessness during the learning process.

More specifically, based on Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determined theory intrinsic goal orientations would be stimulated by the intrinsic value, interest and self-realization attached to the learning activity per se. Furthermore, Vallerand (1997) proposed three sub-orientations of IM (intrinsic motivation): IM-Knowledge, IM-Accomplishment and IM-Stimulation. In terms of IM-Knowledge, it is believed that this type of orientation is related to one's inner desire to pursue knowledge or explore the latest information while IM-Accomplishment refers to the sense of achievement one could gain in the learning process. IM-Stimulation, on the other hand, stems from the excitement and entertainment one could sense out of executing the learning task.

In addition, several researchers have underscored the importance of "avoidance

motivation" or "amotivation." This notion generally refers to the fact that students may avoid school or academic work in that they are intimidated by the negative consequence that may tag along with the cognitive demanding academic work (Elliot & Covington, 2001).

Nonetheless, in various learning contexts, the aforementioned goal orientations may not suffice to account for learners' motives to acquire knowledge. Wentzal (1994, 1995) proposed that there might be other possibilities regarding students' motives as well: (1) social goals, which are related to social motives, refer to the "desire to help others" and the "desire to be unconditionally accepted by the teacher"; (2) the desire to have impact on others because by gaining good grades, one may easily earn the social recognition of their own value (Costa & McClelland, 1971) and (3) the desire to avoid being overwhelmed by the time or environment pressure (Mandler & Sarason, 1972).

More recently, Alonso-Tapia and Pardo (2006) has proposed the following taxonomy in relation to motivational orientations: (1) learning orientation, (2) outcome orientation, (3) and avoidance orientation. The learning orientation refers to one's desire to learn for the sake of joy and enjoyment while the outcome orientation resembles Vallerand's (1997) taxonomy of extrinsic goal orientations. The last orientation, as indicated above, refers to one's unwillingness to learn due to lack of motivation.

Studies of Motivational Orientations in EFL/ESL Contexts

Empirical studies conducted in relation to motivational orientations have been robust across various contexts. For instance, Crookes and Schmidt (1991) indicated that the conceptualization of motivational orientations may be significant to understand L2 motivation. Moreover, Dörnyei (1990) conceptualized motivational

orientations as four major components: an integrative subtype, an instrumental

dimension, a need for accomplishment and attribution of past failures.

On the other hand, Clement et al. (1994) presented also four dimensions of

motivational orientations, which are the integrative element, the self-confidence one,

anxiety and the classroom environment as a crucial element. On the other hand,

Csizer and Dörnyei (2005) adopted the Hungarian L2 learners' motives, which

constitute seven components: integrativeness, instrumentality, attitudes toward L2

speakers, cultural interest, and validity of L2 community, social contexts, and

linguistic self-confidence.

Furthermore, Kang (2000) conducted an empirical study to investigate tenth

graders' motive types in the context of a high school in Korea. In this study, the aim

was to examine students' orientations in learning English, the types of motives that

promote motivations. A self-developed questionnaire was implemented. The results of

the study showed that tenth graders had higher level of intrinsic and extrinsic motive

types than integrative and instrumental ones. Moreover, Kang (2000) indicated that

motivation consists of various dimensions rather than a single construct, contingent

upon the language learning context.

Peng (2001) also investigated Taiwanese EFL learners' language learning

motivation, strategy use, and the relationship between them. Three hundred and

twenty six participants from four senior high schools participated in the study.

Variables examined were motivational intensity, intrinsic motivation, extrinsic

motivation, and requirement motivation. The results of the study indicated that

Taiwanese senior high school learners did not show a high level of intrinsic

motivation for English and students' achievement and strategy use were highly

correlated.

In Taiwan, Kang (2004) conducted an empirical study to examine different motive types among students (from the third grade to the ninth grade). The relationship between student motives and their background information were investigated as well. The motive types that were probed encompassed: (1) integrative, (2) instrumental, (3) intrinsic, (4) required motive and (5) amotivation. The AMTB questionnaire was adopted in this study. The findings suggest girls show relatively higher degree of intrinsic learning motivation than boys. Furthermore, elementary school students tend to have stronger integrative, extrinsic and intrinsic motives than junior high school students. What may be striking in this study was that junior high school students have a higher level of amotivation, which indicates a possible research direction in future research.

In another large-scale study, Warden and Lin (2000) investigated 2000 students' motives at college level using Gardner's integrative and instrumental motives. Three specific motives were investigated: (1) integrative, (2) instrumental and (3) require motives. The findings suggest that these students of university of technology possess higher level of instrumental motive than integrative one. Furthermore, it is suggested in this study that the required motive may account for the reason why students would like to learn English. This conclusion may provide the insight that understanding students' main motive at various educational levels may be a prerequisite to enhance motivation.

By the same token, Noels et al. (2000) adopted Deci and Ryan's (1985) SDT (self-determination theory) and Vallerand's (1997) taxonomy of motive types to develop a valid and reliable questionnaire to assess 159 students' IM(Intrinsic Motive), EM (Extrinsic Motive) subtypes, integrative and instrumental orientations in an English psychology class at a French English Bilingual University. These

participants share a unique background. That is, participants involved in this study are English speakers, whose second language is French. A questionnaire comprising 21 items with three subtypes of motivation was adopted in this study: intrinsic motives, extrinsic motives and amotivation. The results suggested that there was a pattern indicating a continuum of enhancing self-determination, with amotivation being the least self-determined to less self-determined forms of motivation (introjected regulation and external regulation) , and to the most self-determined forms of motivation (identified regulation and IM). With this study, it is suggested that learners' motivational orientations could be assessed with Deci and Ryan's (1985) layout of IM and EM, which provides insights for the current study. This array of motive types in various studies may stem from different contexts, participants and the language learned in a particular context. To conduct motivational behaviors, language instructors should be made aware of student motivational orientations.

With the empirical data in various studies, the current study explored two major aspects. First, surveys from English teachers alone may not guarantee learners' consensus. Learners' perceptions should be taken reckon with since whether or not the teaching behaviors are motivating is contingent upon learners' agreements. Second, to optimize learning, learners' existing motivational orientations were examined in the hope that more individualized teaching may be achieved. Without considering the aforementioned domains, the so-called motivational behaviors used by language instructors may simply be lop-sided.

CHAPTER 3
METHOD

This study aimed to explore the following research questions: (1) what are high school students' English learning motivational orientations? Is there any significance difference by genders and academic tracks? (2) what are high school students' perceptions on the frequency and importance of EFL teachers' teaching behaviors? (3) to what extent do high school students with different genders and academic tracks perceive the importance of EFL teachers' teaching behaviors? and (4) what is the correlation between high school students' self-reported motivational orientations and their perceptions on various types of teaching behaviors?

Particularly, one questionnaire encompassing two parts was administered as a means to allow high school students to self-report their motivational orientations and how they perceived the importance, together with the frequency of various types of teaching behaviors. The following sections consist of four major parts: (1) participants, (2) instruments, (3) data collection procedures, and (4) data analysis procedures.
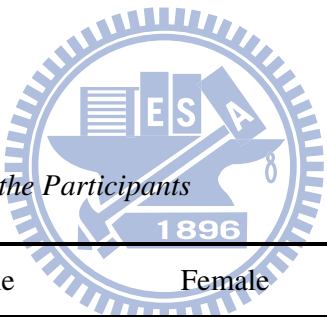
PARTCIPANTS

Participants in the current study included 320 students, 167 males and 153 females, coming from eight classes of the second year in one high school in northern Taiwan. The particular grade was chosen because the second year comprised classes of different academic tracks: one track of social science and the other track of natural science. The chosen high school is well known for their prestigious performance in the college entrance exam: the rate of the admission into national university amounted to 70 percent last year. Moreover, the admission score, according to the entrance exam of high school, has ranked the second place in Taoyuan County over the last few

decades, which may indicate that the students' willingness to learn and motivation in learning English may be generally high.

In the current English education in Taiwan, high school students are required to take at least five classes per week, which may render students the chance to perceive and observe if English teachers' behaviors have motivational influence in the process of English learning. To compare and contrast the motivational importance of teaching behaviors and orientations observed and perceived by students with different academic tracks, I selected eight classes out of convenience based on classes of different academic tracks of the second year. The academic tracks involved in the current study were based on their personal interests in the subject matter when turning to sophomores.

Table 3.1

Demographic Information of the Participants

Genders	Male	Female	Total
	167	153	320
Academic Tracks	Studies of Social Science	Studies of Natural Science	
	156	164	320

INSTRUMENT

In the current study, one questionnaire consisting of close-ended and open-ended questions was adopted as the method to collect the data. For the close-ended questions, I allowed students to self-report their motivational orientations and perceptions on various types of teaching behaviors. For the open-ended questions, two questions

were presented to further probe students' responses concerning the reason why they wanted to learn English and the behavior students consider may motivate them. With the open-ended questions, participants could write down their perceptions freely which were not incorporated in the questionnaire.

In the following sections, the development of the items and content for the pilot study were discussed. Second, the results of the pilot study were presented and the questionnaire items were revised based on the results of the pilot study, along with the interview with two high school students in the same high school previously mentioned. Finally, the final version of questionnaire for students to self-report their motivational orientations and eliciting students' perceptions on teaching behaviors of various types were elaborated.

The Pilot Study

The first part of the questionnaire consisted of 13 items with 3 major categories: (1) intrinsic orientation, (2) extrinsic orientation and (3) amotivation. In terms of intrinsic orientation, 5 items were mainly derived from Deci and Ryan's (1985) notion concerning intrinsic value, interest and self-realization attached to the learning activity per se.

In terms of extrinsic orientation, 4 items were developed from the study of Noels et al. (2000), which categorized extrinsic motives into three major subtypes: extrinsic regulation, introjected regulation and identified regulation. In terms of amotivaion, 4 items were derived from the concepts of Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory, which refers to the notion that students may shy away from learning in that they perceive little relevance and consequence of why they need to execute certain tasks.

In the first part, there were 13 initial items (see Appendix A) selected from

various literature sources. Still in the first part, there were 53 items in total, deriving

from Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) study, which offers a comprehensive repertoire of

motivational techniques for the educational application in the language classroom.

Translated into Chinese and modified from the major source regarding motivational

orientations and teaching behaviors by the researcher, along with the help from one

in-service English teacher in the same high school, the questionnaire items emerged

for the initial pilot study (see Appendix A).

As stated earlier, 53 items for probing learners' perceptions on teaching

behaviors originally stemmed from 48 items selected on the basis of Cheng and

Dörnyei's (2007) survey among EFL teachers' use of motivational strategies in

Taiwan. The ten types of motivational behaviors were classified based on the

rank-ordered motivational clusters perceived by English teachers in terms of

importance and the content similarities.

In the pilot study, 31 first-year students who almost excelled in the entrance

exam of English (with only one question missing) were involved to fill out the

questionnaire. The piloting questionnaire aimed to measure participants' self-reported

motivational orientations and their perceptions on the importance of teaching

behaviors of various types. Table 3.2 and 3.3 show the detailed structures of the items

and the source for the pilot study.

Table 3.2

The Structure of the Questionnaire of Motivational Orientations

Types	Item	Source
Intrinsic Orientations	1-5	Deci and Ryan (1985); Noels et al. (2000)
Extrinsic Orientations	6,7,10,11	Deci and Ryan (1985); Noels et al. (2000)
Amotivation	8,9,12,13	Deci and Ryan (1985)

Table 3.3

The Structure of the Questionnaire of Motivational Teaching Behaviors

Types of Teaching Behaviors	Items
Proper Behaviors	1-7
Appreciating Student Effort	8-11
Raising Confidence	12-16
Creating Agreeable Contexts	17-18
Presenting Tasks Properly	19-24
Promoting Goal Orientedness	25-29
Making Tasks Simulating	30-38
Related with L2 Values	39-46
Increasing Group Cohesiveness	47-50
Increasing Learner Autonomy	51-53

Source: Cheng and Dörnyei (2007)

The Result of the Pilot Study

　　After the initial selection of the items in the first part of the questionnaire, these

items for the pilot study were given to 31 students of the first year, with the assistance of one experienced English teacher in the same national high school on September 22nd, 2008. These students were given twenty minutes to fill out the questionnaire, with 66 items in total. Afterwards, I entered the data into SPSS 15 to examine the reliability of each scale in the questionnaire and determine if the wording or content should be modified and revised. Table 3.4 depicts the results of motivational orientations in the pilot study.

Table 3.4

The Result of Pilot Study for Motivational Orientations

Types	Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Intrinsic Orientations	1-5	.812
Amotivation	8,9,12,13	.548
Extrinsic Orientations	6,7,10,11	.816

For the piloting result of the 13 items, the overall Cronbach's alpha reliability was .893, which is satisfactory enough. From Table 3.4, it is inferred that the reliability of "amotivation" was lower than other scales. The explanation for this is that the items involved in the pilot study are heterogeneous by nature since these four items describe various English learning situations of non-intentionality and non-relevance for high school students. Despite this, I investigated the problematic scale and modified the ambiguous wording of Chinese based on the item analysis, together with the insightful feedback from the interview with two second-year high school students for the ease of comprehension of Chinese translation. After the discussion with the two students concerning the Chinese translation items, the final

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version of the questionnaire for the investigation of motivational orientations was

constructed (see Appendix B).

Similarly, to assess if the items in the piloting questionnaire were reliable enough,

the questionnaire of teaching behaviors was subjected to "Cronbach's Alpha Internal

Consistency Reliability" to delete inconsistent items that failed to show their intended

construct. The overall reliability for the pilot study was .922, which is satisfactory

(see Table 3.5).

Table 3.5

The Results of Pilot Study for Motivational Behaviors

Types of Teaching Behaviors	Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Proper Behaviors	1-7	.735
Appreciating Student Effort	8-11	.556
Raising Confidence	12-16	.636
Creating Agreeable Contexts	17-18	.630
Presenting Tasks Properly	19-24	.559
Promoting Goal Orientedness	25-29	.752
Making Tasks Simulating	30-38	.795
Related with L2 Values	39-46	.593
Increasing Group Cohesiveness	47-50	.836
Increasing Learner Autonomy	51-53	.741

Source: Cheng and Dörnyei (2007)

As can be seen in Table 3.5, there were several scales that show relatively lower

reliability in the questionnaire of motivational strategies/behaviors: (1) appreciating

student effort, (2) presenting tasks properly and (3) related with L2 values. One thing

should be noted is that the items contained in the pilot study were generally

behavioral rather than attitudinal (i.e., these behavioral items describe what "English teachers" do in class and thus these items may bear great dissimilarity by nature) so such items have the tendency to be more heterogeneous even within the same scale than attitudinal items (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007).

Considering the results of the pilot study, the content and the wording of individual items were revised and checked based on item analysis, along with the interview with two second-year high school students in the same high school to ensure the ease of comprehension of Chinese translation on the part of the participants.

Although the reliability for items regarding teaching behaviors in the pilot study was high, the two second-year high school students interviewed pointed out that some of the teaching behavioral items were ambiguous in Chinese translation and out of high school context, suggesting that those previously translated items for the pilot study were not clearly defined or rarely practiced by EFL teachers in high schools. For instance, "increasing group cohesiveness" and "increasing learner autonomy" were two types these two students claimed that were never practiced by their high school English teachers in class, and thus the two types were removed from the final version of the questionnaire.

Furthermore, the two high school students interviewed provided some comments on the types of teaching behaviors in terms of the overlapping meanings: (1) proper behaviors, (2) appreciating student effort, (3) raising confidence, (4) creating agreeable contexts, (5) presenting tasks properly, and (6) making tasks stimulating. The two second-year students suggested that the above-mentioned types could be categorized into more clearly defined types of teaching behaviors. Table 3.6 presents the modified types of teaching behaviors from the pilot study based on the discussion

in the interview with two second-year high school students.

Table 3.6

The Finalized Types of Teaching Behaviors Modified from the Pilot Study

Original Types for the Pilot Study	Finalized Types for the Current Study
Proper Behaviors ⟶	Role Modeling
Appreciating Student Effort ⟍	
	Positive Retrospective Evaluation
Raising Confidence ⟋	
Presenting Tasks Properly ⟶	Activity/Course Design
Making Tasks Stimulating ⟶	Establishing Relevance

Having been revised and modified on the basis of pilot study and the suggestions from two high school students in the interview, the wordings of teaching behavioral items were modified and reduced to 28 definable and observable items (see Appendix B). Table 3.7 and 3.8 illuminate the progression and the number of items and types of teaching behaviors in the final version of the questionnaire and the justification why I would like to do so.

Table 3.7

The Types and the Number of Items in Studies of Motivational Teaching Practice

Studies	Types of Teaching Practice		Number of Items
Cheng and Dörnyei (2007)	1.	Proper teacher behavior	5 items
	2.	Recognizing students' effort	4 items
	3.	Promote learners' self-confidence	5 items
	4.	Creating a pleasant classroom climate	4 items
	5.	Present tasks properly	2 items
	6.	Increase learners' goal-orientedness	4 items
	7.	Make the learning tasks stimulating	6 items
	8.	Familiarise learners with L2 related values	7 items
	9.	Promote group cohesiveness and group norms	5 items
	10.	Promote learner autonomy	6 items
Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008)	1.	Teacher Discourse	11 items
	2.	Participation Structure	2 items
	3.	Activity Design	7 items
	4.	Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation	5 items
Current study	1.	Teacher Discourse	15 items
		a. Positive Retrospective Evaluation	7 items
		b. Role Modeling	4 items
		c. Establishing Relevance	4 items
	2.	Activity and Course Design	5 items
	3.	Familiarizing Learners with L2 Values and Cultures	5 items
	4.	Increasing Learners' Goal Orientedness	3 items

Table 3.8

The Structure of the Questionnaire of Motivational Behaviors

Type	Item	Source
Teacher Discourse:		
Positive Retrospective Evaluation	1,5,6,7,8,10,11	Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008)
Role Modeling	2,3,12,14	Cheng and Dörnyei (2007)
Establishing Relevance	4,13,17,18	Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008)
Activity/Course Design	9,15,16,19,20	Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008)
Familiarizing Learners with L2 related Values	21-25	Cheng and Dörnyei (2007)
Increasing Learners' Goal Orientedness	26-28	Cheng and Dörnyei (2007)

Table 3.7 illustrates various types of motivational teaching behaviors in the most current studies. The types and 48 items in Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) study were based on Dörnyei's (2001) systematic selection of more than 100 motivational behaviors, which were reduced to 48 items via piloting among 19 English teachers, who were conducting studies within the English Teaching Programme at the University of Nottingham.

Likewise, the items and types shown in Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's (2008) study were based on Dörnyei's (2001) systematic review of motivational teaching practice. As Table 3.8 shows, the types and categorizations in the current study were empirically grounded and revised on the basis of the aforementioned studies. In the following paragraphs, the items and categories are to be discussed.

In the present study, there is one major reason why the items of the first category sharing the property of teacher discourse outnumbers the remaining three categories: "teacher discourse" is a broad concept that may encompass either written or spoken

communication in class, which may account for the major proportion of teacher

behaviors in the questionnaire. In order to illuminate the contents of the first category,

I break the items of "teacher discourse" into three subtypes on the basis of their

content similarities and previous empirical studies (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007;

Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008): (1) teacher's positive retrospective evaluation, (2) role

modeling, and (3) establishing relevance.

First, the items belonging to the first and the third subtype were modified based

on Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's (2008) study, which probe whether those subtypes may

concern with students' elevation of motivation in class. Second, the items of the

second subtype "role modeling" were derived from one of the motivational strategies

regarding "proper teacher behavior" in Cheng and Dörnyei's study (2007). There are

two major reasons why I alter the wording of the categorization of "proper teacher

behavior." First, "proper" may be difficult to define inasmuch as the definition may

differ from person to person. Second, the category of "proper teaching behavior" may

overlap with other categories in the current study, such as "activity and course

design," "familiarizing learners with L2 language values and cultures" and

"increasing learners' goal orientedness." Those categories may be interpreted as

"proper teacher behavior" as well. Thus, the second subtype of the first category

emerges as the "role modeling" to avoid the ambiguity of wording with the remaining

categories in the current study.

Second, the items of the second category in the present study were derived from

the third taxonomy of Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's (2008) study, which concretely

illustrates the ways English teachers arrange curriculum and activities to increase

intellectual challenge, encourage tangible task product and create interesting or

fantasy element. Having been adapted and revised based on the third category of

"activity design" from Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's (2008) study, the second category regarding "activity/course design" appears as the second category of teaching behaviors in the current study.

The third category, "familiarizing learners with L2 values and cultures," stems from one of Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) motivational teaching practice. The notion of this categorization is in line with Gardner's (1985) study, which indicates that learners' achievements in learning may be influenced enormously by his or her disposition towards the target culture. In addition, Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) indicated that raising cultural awareness has featured high on the agenda of language teaching.

In terms of the last category, "increasing learners' goal orientedness" may concern greatly with the conceptualization of the education-specific goals, which shed light on the powerful values of goal setting on the enhancement of learner motivation (e.g. Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei, 2001). With the recognition of the utility of promoting goal orientedness among learners, it may be of value to probe this motivational component in the language classroom.

PROCEDURES

Prior to the execution of the survey, the questionnaire encompassed in the study had been administered to 31 students of the first year as a pilot study in the same senior high school. As mentioned earlier, the contents and the wording of questionnaires administered in the present study were revised based on the item analysis and the insightful feedback from two second-year high school students in the interview.

Data Collection

Before the distribution of the questionnaire, I contacted the Academic Office of the high school to assist with the data collection. The data were collected and distributed to eight classes, 320 students in total, from May, 4th to 11th, 2009. During the data collection process, I briefly explained the purpose of the study and ensured that the participants' personal information would be kept confidential and the data gathered would be used only for academic purposes. Soon afterwards, these participants were asked to fill out the self-reported questionnaire regarding motivational orientations of learning English. Furthermore, the participants were inquired about how frequent various types of teaching behaviors were conducted and how important various types of teaching behaviors were to increase their learning motivation in English for twenty minutes. Furthermore, participants were also asked to express their opinion in the two open-ended questions regarding students' reasons for learning English and what teaching behaviors may trigger their learning motivation in English. Throughout the data collection process, I closely monitored the proceedings and patiently responded to questions inquired by the participants.

Data Analysis Procedures

SPSS 15 was used for various statistical analyses. For the analysis of the first research question, 13 variables were computed into 3 categories. The means and percentage distribution of agreement of the three categories were calculated to determine what high school students' motivational orientations were in the self-reported questionnaire. For the first open-ended question, I categorized the responses qualitatively and triangulated their responses to the self-reported questionnaire. Furthermore, to determine if any significance exists among various

motivational orientations by genders and academic tracks, two-way MANOVA and between subjects t-tests were performed to illuminate the whole picture of high school students' motivational orientations.

For the 2nd research question, the means and standard deviations of the six types of teaching behaviors and individual items were calculated. The percentage distribution of the observed frequency and the perceived importance were calculated as well. In terms of the mean differences, I subtracted mean scores of importance from that of frequency. Furthermore, the within subject t-tests were performed to determine the underutilization of the teaching behaviors relative to their perceived importance. Additionally, the second open-ended question was intended to triangulate participants' responses and supplement the second research question.

For the third research question, two- way ANOVA was performed to examine if independent variables of "genders" and "academic tracks" had any effect on the dependent variable of the perceived teaching behaviors of various types. Following two-way ANOVA, between subject t-tests was performed to further examine if the independent variables had significant effect on the dependent variables.

For the final research question, the Pearson correlation coefficient is a statistic used to determine the degree and direction of relatedness between two continuous variables. It is hypothesized that motivational orientations may correlate positively or negatively with motivational teaching behaviors. To analyze this, three categories of motivational orientations and six types of motivational teaching behaviors were examined using correlation analysis.

CHAPTER 4
RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the data analysis following the order of research questions. In addition to results of descriptive statistics, two-way MANOVA and t-tests revealed in the first two research questions, I report results of the qualitative data in the two open-ended questions following them. For the third research question, the extent to which participants perceive the importance of teaching behaviors by genders and academic tracks is reported based on the statistical analysis of two-way ANOVA. In terms of the last research question, the correlation between participants' self-reported motivational orientations and participants' perceptions on the importance of teaching behaviors is demonstrated.

BACKGROUND OF THE PARTICIPANTS

A total of 320 participants of the second year coming from eight classes (4 classes of natural science, the other 4 classes of social science) in one national high school in the northern part of Taiwan participated in the current study. After excluding the questionnaires which were incomplete, 300 (94%) datasets were valid. Among the participants, 153 participants were female (48.8%) while the other 167 participants were male (52.2%).

INVESTIGATION OF RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Research Question One: What are high school students' English learning motivational orientations? Is there any significance by genders and academic tracks?

The first research question was constructed to investigate what high school student motivational orientations were in three major categories: (1) intrinsic orientation, (2) extrinsic orientation and (3) amotivation. Based on Deci and Ryan's (1985) taxonomy of motivational orientations, 13 items regarding learners' reasons for English learning comprised the self-reported questionnaire. The mean values of each category were measured on a five point Likert Scale, ranging from 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neutral, 4=agree, to 5=strongly agree.

Table 4.1 presents the percentage distribution of agreement, means (M) and standard deviations (SD) of the participants' response to the three types of motivational orientations items, including individual items in the descending order of their means. As can be seen in Table 4.1, intrinsic orientation showed a moderately high mean (3.58). Within intrinsic orientation, Item One had the highest mean (4.04). More than two thirds of the participants (79%) reported that the reason they learned English was that they could be exposed to various cultures. Item Five had the lowest mean (3.26). Forty one percent of the participants expressed that their reason for learning English was that "it is interesting and challenging."

Among the three categories, extrinsic orientation had the highest mean (3.60). Within extrinsic orientation, Item Eleven had the highest mean (4.22) and 87 % of the participants indicated that their reason for learning English was to obtain knowledge and change their lives. Item Nine showed the lowest mean (2.71) and 50% of the participants' responses were negative about the statement, indicating that they did not completely agree with the fact that they study English merely for "school demand and pressure."

Generally speaking, participants' responses towards amotivation (1.98) were negative. Among the three items, Item Eight showed the highest mean (2.71) and 88%

of the participants disagreed with the statement "English is not applicable in life."

Contrasted to Item Eight, Item Twelve showed the lowest mean (2.03), indicating that

74% of the participants did not consider it difficult to reach the desirable goal of

grades in English.

Table 4.1

Percentage Distribution of Agreement (in %), Means, Standard Deviations of the

Motivational Orientations by All Participants (n=300)

	SD	D	N	A	SA	M	SD
Intrinsic Orientations						**3.58**	**0.73**
1. Exposed to various cultures	0	5	16	49	30	4.04	0.81
4. Watch and enjoy foreign episodes	1	7	19	48	25	3.90	0.88
3. Have a great sense of achievement	2	15	36	32	15	3.44	0.99
6. A sense of novelty and amusement	4	16	38	32	10	3.29	0.99
5. It is challenging and satisfactory	3	16	40	32	9	3.26	0.95
Extrinsic Orientations						**3.60**	**0.47**
11. Obtain knowledge & change my lives	1	1	11	49	38	4.22	0.77
2. Obtain knowledge of various fields	0	5	14	57	24	4.01	0.76
10. Get into prestigious universities	2	11	29	40	18	3.64	0.73
7. Praised and rewarded by teachers	3	12	38	32	15	3.42	1.00
9. The school demand and pressure	11	39	24	20	6	2.71	0.97
Amotivation						**1.98**	**0.74**
8. English is not applicable in everyday life	39	49	7	5	0	2.71	1.10
13. I don't want to learn English at all	26	46	20	7	1	2.14	0.96
12. I Can't reach my goal	32	42	19	5	2	2.03	0.96

In addition to the participants' response revealed in the self-reported motivational orientation items, the qualitative data in the first open-ended question was intended to elicit opinions regarding reasons why participants would like to learn English. The participants were requested to reflect on their reasons behind English learning and addressed the explanation when necessary.

Among the participants' responses, I observed that some of the participants' responses were distinct from the items covered in the self-reported questionnaire. To highlight and illuminate some of the responses, the following excerpts (direct quotes from the students) were translated into English by the researcher and one in-service English teacher, teaching for 15 years in the same high school previously mentioned.

Table 4.2 presents the categorization of student responses, Chinese and English highlighted exemplary excerpts. As Table 4.2 shows, the first category concerns greatly with how high school students consciously identified and attached values to English learning activities. In comparison, the second category is associated with the important goals students themselves would like to accomplish in the future. The previous two categories revealed the orientations involving students' integration of action and a strong sense of self to learn English. On the other hand, the third category refers to students' desires to be congruent or interact with native speakers by socializing online or conversing on the street. The last category "social comparison" refers to the fact that in Taiwan students may be likely to attend cram schools due to the social comparison. Namely, suppose one does not have the access to cram schools, he or she will be considered comparatively less advantageous in terms of English learning (see Table 4.2). In the following sections, the above-mentioned categories are described more in-depth using highlighted excerpts in a descending order by the

number of participants.

Table 4.2

Categorization of Student Responses and Exemplary Description of the Chinese and English Excerpts

	Category	Chinese (Participants' Highlighted Response)	English (Translation)
1.	Conscious Valuing of English Learning	為未來作準備吧!現在的*環境越來越重視英文*。如果英文能力夠強，越容易在社會上*找到定位跟工作*。(S9)	For the sake of the future! Nowadays, English is highly thought of, if I could master English, finding jobs would be so easier for me.
2.	Self-endorsement of Goals	我學英文的目的想要出國念書，因為可以增加我*個人的競爭力*。(S35) 我學英文可以*自己去自助旅行*，就不用導遊啦! 而且還可以去自己想去的地方。(S45)	I would like to go abroad for further studies, thus increasing my personal competiveness. I could go on a tour by myself without a tour guide.
3.	Integrative Orientation	我學英文是因為可以線上跟*外國人聊天*，在路上也可以跟*傳教士練習英文作朋友*(S27)	I think being able to communicate with foreigners online is fabulous. Also I could talk to missionaries on the street, making friends with them
4.	Social Comparison	我之前學英文也是身不由己阿!媽媽看到隔壁的小孩有補英文，我才跟著去。(S67)	I learned English despite of myself. My mom saw the kid next door go to a language school and therefore I went there, too.

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***Conscious Valuing of English Learning* (54 participants):**

Among all the responses, fifty four participants were conscious of the value and advantages of learning English well in future occupations. According to their responses, learning the language well may enable the participants to get the upper hand in their future career. This category is not only relevant with one's values attached to English learning but taking the action consciously at the same time. The following highlighted excerpts revealed the values they perceived towards learning English well in their future career paths:

(1) 我覺得學英文對我未來的工作會有相當大的幫助；所以我想學。

I study English because it is useful and advantageous to my future career.

Therefore, I have the desire to learn it.

(S7; Student # 7 in answering to Question # 1)

(2) 英文很好用！在未來選工作時也相當的有益處。

English is rather useful; learning it would be beneficial to my future

occupation.

(S11)

The two highlighted responses reflected the perceived values of English learning by high school students in Taiwan. It is suggested that some of the participants may study for the sake of their future occupation. The results of participants' responses were not found in the first part of the questionnaire and may expand our understanding of participants' motivational orientations to a greater extent.

***Self-endorsement of Goals* (45 Participants)**

Generally, numerous participants responded to this question, claiming that the reason of learning English was to further their personal education or being able to

travel independently in foreign countries, which involves an integration of self and action. There were still many other participants who considered their reason of learning English to be "going for self-tour in foreign countries," or "going for further academic studies abroad." The exemplary statements are shown as follows:

(3) 我想要去國外拓展我的視野。

I want to learn English in that I could go to foreign countries to expand my vision and broaden my horizons.

(S18)

(4) 我學英文就是想去國外自助旅行。

The reason why I learn English is that I want to go abroad for self-tour.

(S39)

(5) 我想學英文因為可以去國外拿學位。

I would like to learn English for I could get my degree abroad.

(S46)

Among these highlighted responses, it is suggested that some participants themselves recognized that English is a facilitating and powerful tool to achieve the goal of going abroad either for travelling on their own or for further studies. In Taiwan, high school students may mostly learn a foreign language in English class. This self-endorsement of goal may give them the reason to experiment with the target language by means of going abroad. With the responses mentioned, I found that there are other motivational orientations in addition to those included in the self-reported questionnaire.

Integrative Orientation (**30 Participants**)

The aforementioned excerpts revealed that participants identified the values and

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personal goals to learn English. In addition to those types of orientations, I found some other participants who commented on the first open-ended question, suggesting that they study English for the purpose of communicating with foreigners:

(6) 學英文可以讓我認識線上的外國朋友，而且也可以認識他們的文化。

Learning English enables me to chat with foreign friends online, thus expanding my understanding of the target culture.

(S69)

(7) 能跟外國人說英文很棒！

Being able to speak English with foreigner is fabulous.

(S29)

(8) 我學英文的理由就是能跟街上的外國人聊天。

My reason of learning English is to "socialize with" foreigners on the street.

(S55)

From the three responses above, I could be informed of the situation that some of the participants did not learn English merely for coping with the grades and tests. What really lied beneath their reason of learning English was the willingness to communicate freely with the native speakers in the target language. In the context of Taiwan, people may not only be driven by tests but integrative orientations to learn a foreign language. The above-mentioned examples provided some interesting findings via the qualitative analysis.

Social Comparison (24 Participants)

Generally speaking, cram schools are pervasive in EFL contexts such as Taiwan. Many high school students may seek help from these crams school for obtaining high marks in English learning. What I did not anticipate was the intriguing responses in

relation to cram school as one of the participants' motivational orientations. More specifically, I found several responses, other than the requirement from school, were related to the comparison of accessing to cram schools, the so-called "bushiban" in Taiwan. Some of the participants recalled how they were asked to enter cram schools because of the social comparison among peers. The following excerpts specifically address the details of the statements:

(9) 其實我真正開始學英文是因為到了升大補習班以後，感受到那同儕之間比較的氣氛，才開始努力學英文。

Honestly, I didn't start to learn English actively until I felt the competitive atmosphere when I went to cram schools, preparing for admission into university.

(S68)

(10) 我學英文是因為班上的同學都去補了，不去好像會落後。

Each of my classmates attends cram schools to learn English. If I don't go, I may not catch up with them.

(S78)

These excerpts seemed to indicate that social comparison may play an important role in shaping one of the participants' reasons for learning English. The reason for this phenomenon may be the unique "comparative orientation" of learning English in Taiwan. In conclusion, the aforementioned excerpts pointed out various motives that were different from the questionnaire items in the first part. With the first open-ended question, I found responses very different from what I investigated in the self-reported questionnaire, thus providing some insights into the understanding of motivational orientations in the context of Taiwan.

In summary, based on Deci and Ryan's (1985) taxonomy of motivational orientations and the results of self-reported questionnaire, I found that participants

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showed higher level of extrinsic and intrinsic orientations. Furthermore, a closer investigation of the participants' responses in the first open-ended question, more in-depth externally regulated orientations that fit into Deci and Ryan's (1985) model revealed: (1) the identified regulation (conscious valuing of English learning and self-endorsements of goals), and (2) the integrative orientation. "Social comparison" was one intriguing category that fit into the context of Taiwan. The results in the open-ended question may give us further evidence of high school students' motivational orientations that are depicted in Deci and Ryan's (1985) taxonomy of motivational orientations, thus triangulating participants' responses to the self-reported questionnaire.

Analysis by Genders and Academic Tracks

Another issue in the first research question is that whether the gender and academic track variables (independent variables) may have any effect on participants' motivational orientations (dependent variables). Table 4.3 presents the results of descriptive statistics, describing the marginal means of different types of motivational orientations for the two main effects, the cell means for the interaction, as well as the standard deviations and the number of participants.

Table 4.3

Descriptive Statistics of Learner Background Variables on Motivational Orientations

Motivational Orientations	Genders	Academic Tracks	*M*	*SD*	*n*
Intrinsic Orientations	Male	Social Science	3.61	0.82	79
		Natural Science	3.36	0.73	72
		Total	3.46	0.77	151
	Female	Social Science	3.71	0.68	65

(Table 4.3 continued)

		Natural Science	3.64	0.70	84
		Total	3.68	0.69	149
	Total	Social Science	3.68	0.73	144
		Natural Science	3.48	0.73	156
		Total	3.59	0.73	300
Extrinsic Orientations	Male	Social Science	3.54	0.51	79
		Natural Science	3.63	0.52	72
		Total	3.60	0.51	151
	Female	Social Science	3.62	0.41	65
		Natural Science	3.56	0.47	84
		Total	3.60	0.43	149
	Total	Social Science	3.60	0.44	144
		Natural Science	3.60	0.50	156
		Total	3.60	0.47	300
Amotivation	Male	Social Science	1.98	0.69	79
		Natural Science	2.36	0.90	72
		Total	2.21	0.84	151
	Female	Social Science	1.80	0.64	65
		Natural Science	1.84	0.56	84
		Total	1.81	0.61	149
	Total	Social Science	1.86	0.66	144
		Natural Science	2.13	0.81	156
		Total	1.98	0.74	300

Before the aforementioned means could be interpreted, the results of the two-way

MANOVA of learner background variables (the independent variables) on motivational orientations (the dependent variables) are displayed in Table 4.4 and Table 4.5. Table 4.4 presents the significant main effect for independent variables on dependent variables. On the other hand, Table 4.5 describes the main effects for genders and academic tracks, together with the interaction effect on the types of motivational orientations.

Table 4.4

Two-way MANOVA for Independent Variables

Effect	Wilks' Lambda	*F*	*Sig.*
Genders	.95	3.35	.020*
Academic Tracks	.98	1.23	.302
Genders * Academic Tracks	.98	1.18	.319

Note. * *p* <.05

As can be seen in Table 4.4, the results revealed a significant main effect for genders on participants' motivational orientations, Wilks' Lambda= .95, *F*= 3.35, *p* <.05. No significant main effect of "academic tracks" was found (*p* >.05) and neither was interaction effect (*p* >.05). Specifically, Table 4.5 shows the specific information on how independent variables have effect on each dependent variable.

Table 4.5

Two-way MANOVA of Between Subject Effects for the Dependent Variables

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables	*SS*	*df*	*F*	*Sig.*
Genders	Intrinsic	1.49	1	2.84	.094
	Extrinsic	0.00	1	0.01	.935
	Amotivation	5.06	1	9.97	.002*
Academic Tracks	Intrinsic	1.04	1	1.99	.161
	Extrinsic	0.01	1	0.05	.826
	Amotivation	1.83	1	3.61	.059
Genders * Academic Tracks	Intrinsic	0.31	1	0.58	.446
	Extrinsic	0.25	1	1.15	.285
	Amotivation	1.23	1	2.43	.121

Note. * *p* <.05

As can be seen in Table 4.5, there were no significant main effect for genders
and academic tracks on intrinsic and extrinsic orientations (*p* >.05). However, there
was significant main effect for genders on amotivation (*p* <.05). Furthermore, there
was no interaction effect on the three types of motivational orientations.

After providing the evidence of significant differences among various types of
motivational orientations, Table 4.6 describes the means and results of
between-subject t-tests of individual items of the motivational orientations by genders
much in detail.

Table 4.6

Descriptive Statistics of Different Motivational Orientations and Results of Between

Subject T-tests by Genders

Motivational Orientations and Question Items	Male(n=151)		Female(n=149)		
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*Sig.*
Intrinsic Orientations	**3.46**	**0.77**	**3.68**	**0.69**	**.094**
1. I could be exposed to various cultures	3.87	0.91	4.17	0.70	.067
3. I have a great sense of achievement	3.29	1.03	3.56	0.94	.118
4. I can watch and enjoy foreign episodes	3.84	0.90	3.94	0.88	.415
5. It is challenging and satisfactory	3.09	1.00	3.39	0.90	.115
6. Feel a sense of novelty and amusement	3.20	1.08	3.36	0.91	.369
Extrinsic Orientations	**3.60**	**0.51**	**3.60**	**0.43**	**.935**
2. Obtain knowledge of various fields	4.00	0.77	4.01	0.76	.796
7. Praised and rewarded by English teachers	3.28	1.08	3.53	0.92	.123
9. Mainly due to the school demand and pressure	2.91	1.05	2.56	0.90	.040*
10. Get into prestigious universities	3.69	0.78	3.59	0.69	.584
11. Obtain knowledge and change my lives	4.10	0.87	4.31	0.66	.091
Amotivation	**2.21**	**0.84**	**1.81**	**0.61**	**.002***
8. English is not applicable in everyday life	2.91	1.12	2.56	1.06	.019*
12. I Can't reach my goal, however hard I try	2.28	1.04	1.85	0.85	.015*

(Table 4.6 continued)

13. I do not want to learn English at all	2.39	1.06	1.95	0.83	.004*

Note. * *p* <.05

As revealed in Table 4.6, female and male participants showed the same level of agreement on extrinsic orientation, with the same mean (M=3.60, *p* >.05). Likewise, female and male participants showed equal level of agreement on intrinsic orientation (*p* >.05). In contrast, amotivation had the lowest means (male= 2.21, female=1.81) and the significant difference was found in amotivation (*p* <.05), which indicated that female participants had higher level of disagreement than that of male participants on amotivation (see Table 4.6).

With research question one, I found participants had the highest level of extrinsic orientation, followed by intrinsic orientation and amotivation. From the responses in the open-ended question, different categories of motivational orientations were found, thus supplementing the self-reported questionnaire. Finally, with the results of between subject t-tests, I found that genders had significant effect on amotivation, suggesting that female participants endorsed higher level of amotivation than male did.

Research Question Two: What are high school participants' perceptions on the frequency and importance of EFL teachers' teaching behaviors?

The second research question aimed to explore the frequency of teaching behaviors conducted in English classes and the importance of teaching behaviors rated by high school participants in terms of four major categories: (1) teacher

discourse (positive retrospective evaluation, role modeling, and establishing relevance), (2) activity/course design, (3) familiarizing learners with L2 related values and (4) increasing learners' goal orientedness. Twenty eight items, adapted from the studies of Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) and Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008), comprised the questionnaire of various teaching behaviors.

The mean scores of each type of behaviors regarding frequency and importance were measured on a five point Likert Scale. The mean values measuring frequency ranges from 1= never, 2= seldom, 3= sometimes, 4=often, to 5= always. On the other hand, the mean scores of importance ranges from 1= very unimportant, 2= unimportant, 3=neutral, 4=important, to 5= very important.

Table 4.6 and Table 4.7 present the percentage distribution of mean frequency and importance, means and standard deviations among various teaching behaviors. The importance means, mean differences between frequency and importance means, and results of within subject t-tests are displayed in Table 4.8.

Analysis of Frequency of Teaching Behaviors

Table 4.7 presents the mean frequency of each type of teaching behavior in a descending manner. The type of teaching behavior that had the highest mean was "activity and course design (3.25)," which suggested that teachers exercised this type of behavior more frequently than other types of behaviors. The rest of the teaching behaviors were rank-ordered based on the mean frequency: (1) familiarizing learners with L2 related cultures and values = 3.15, (2) role modeling = 3.13, (3) establishing relevance = 3.05, (4) positive retrospective evaluation = 3.02, and (5) increasing learners' goal orientedness = 2.77. In order to illuminate the whole picture of the frequency of teaching behaviors perceived by all participants, the results of frequency (in %) are summarized in Table 4.7.

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Table 4.7

Percentage Distribution of Frequency, Means, and SD of the Teaching Behavior

Items (n=300)

	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
Positive Retrospective Evaluation						**3.02**	**0.62**
6.Encourage me success of learning results from hard work	5	27	22	29	17	3.25	1.02
7.Encourage me that I will get good grades if I study hard	2	26	30	33	9	3.19	1.17
1.Focus on why I make mistakes and give me feedbacks	2	23	44	26	5	3.11	0.99
5.Give me verbal praises and recognize my effort	3	26	48	20	3	2.96	1.62
11.Encourage me meaning is more vital than grammar	10	26	32	24	8	2.92	1.05
10. Encourage me when encountering frustration	7	27	40	21	5	2.89	0.97
8.Give me positive feedbacks after presentation in English	9	22	48	18	3	2.83	1.07
Role Modeling						**3.13**	0.81
2. Show me how to use simple English to explain themes	1	23	26	33	17	3.42	0.92
3.Role model how to communicate in English fluently	2	20	37	27	14	3.30	0.97
14. Display how to express opinion related to daily lives	7	18	33	32	10	3.21	1.09
12. With simple and interesting opening to start classes	18	34	28	10	10	2.58	1.00
Establishing Relevance						**3.05**	0.71
4.Give examples to explain certain difficult grammars	1	2	17	44	36	4.13	1.09
13. Link the goal of activities with the everyday life	10	29	36	20	5	2.84	1.06
17.Provide relevant learning materials to raise interest	9	26	37	19	9	4.12	1.09
18.Incorporate the Internet and multimedia into teaching	22	45	20	8	5	2.29	0.93
Activity/Course Design						**3.25**	**0.74**
19. Different reading topics to increase the amount of reading	3	15	23	38	21	3.60	0.94

(Table 4.7 continued)

15. Extra learning materials to enhance teaching	3	10	32	38	17	3.56	1.04
9. Teach related strategies to complete activities in class	3	19	32	38	8	3.28	0.83
16.Desgn activities within my capability	7	25	31	30	7	3.04	1.07
20. Encourage me to write diary and composition in English	14	26	39	14	7	2.76	1.00
Familiarizing Learners with L2 related Cultures and Values						**3.15**	**0.56**
21. Remind me of advantages in future studies	6	6	21	38	35	4.00	1.06
22.Emphasize the function of mastering English in future career	1	7	22	40	30	3.91	0.92
23.Introduce topics related to cultures of the target language	4	17	35	34	10	3.30	0.93
24.Elaborate on the cultural aspect of the target language	8	27	34	23	8	2.96	1.12
25. Invite native speakers over to give lectures in class	61	26	8	3	2	1.60	1.12
Increasing Learners' Goal Orientedness						**2.77**	**0.89**
26.Recognize the meaning and goal of various activities	5	28	39	25	3	2.93	0.99
28. Remind me of the goal and monitor my progress in class	17	31	21	24	7	2.74	0.97
27.Help me set short-term and long-term learning goals	16	36	24	20	4	2.62	0.92

Note. a. *1*=Never, *2*=Seldom, *3*=Sometimes, *4*=Often, *5*=Always

b. The percentage has been rounded to the whole number.

As can be seen in Table 4.7, within "positive retrospective evaluation," Item Six had the highest mean (3.25) and forty-six percent of the participants observed that teachers would encourage students to work harder in English learning to be successful.

Conversely, Item Eight showed the lowest mean (2.83) and 70 % of the participants observed that teachers rarely or sometimes gave feedbacks after the presentation in English.

In terms of "role modeling," Item Two had the highest mean (3.42) and half of the participants observed teachers' "frequent demonstration on how to use English to explain various themes." On the other hand, Item Twelve had the lowest mean (2.83) and more than half of the participants (52%) rarely found English teachers starting classes with simple and interesting openings.

Within the type of "establishing relevance," Item Four had the highest mean (4.13) and 80 % of the participants perceive teachers' high frequency of "giving examples to explain certain difficult grammar." Contrasted to Item Four, Item Eighteen had the lowest mean (2.29) and 67 % of the participants were hardly aware of teachers' incorporation of multimedia and the Internet in English class.

In regard to "activity and course design," Item Nineteen had the highest mean (3.60) and 59 % of the participants detected teachers' practice of arranging different topics to increase the amount of reading, suggesting the important part reading plays in high school English. Conversely, Item Twenty showed the lowest mean (2.76) and 40 % of the participants perceived that teachers barely required them to write diary or composition, suggesting that high school English teachers may not be able to cope with assignments of more than 40 students in one class regularly.

Concerning "familiarizing learners with L2 related cultures and values," Item Twenty one revealed the highest mean (4.00) while Item Twenty five showed the lowest mean (1.50). In Item Twenty One and Twenty Five, 73 % of the participants recognized teachers' conduct of reminding them of the tangible advantages of learning English well in future studies whereas 87 % of the participants never or hardly saw English teachers invite native speaker to class to deliver a speech, perhaps due to the resource constraint. For increasing goal orientedness, all the means of the three items were low (M < 3.00), revealing teachers' lower frequency of exercising of teaching

behavior of this type.

Analysis of Importance of Teaching Behaviors

Table 4.8 reveals the percentage distribution of importance (in %), teaching behaviors, means, and standard deviations, perceived by all participants. Broadly, these types of teaching behaviors were endorsed important with a moderate high level by the participants (M>3.50). The rank-ordered means of perceived importance are presented as follows: (1) activity and course design= 3.89, (2) role modeling= 3.76, (3) familiarizing learners with L2 related cultures and values= 3.75, (4) establishing relevance= 3.75, (5) positive retrospective evaluation = 3.74 and (6) increasing learners' goal orientedness = 3.71.

Table 4.8

Percentage Distribution of Importance (in %), Means, and SD of the Teaching Behavior Items (n=300)

	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
Positive Retrospective Evaluation						3.74	0.51
1.Focus on why I make mistakes and give me feedbacks	1	3	16	58	22	3.98	0.74
10. Encourage me when encountering frustration	0	3	24	47	26	3.94	0.86
11.Encourage me meaning is more vital than grammar	0	4	29	48	19	3.83	0.76
6.Encourage me success of learning results from hard work	1	3	32	47	17	3.76	0.79
5.Give me verbal praises and recognize my effort	1	4	32	46	17	3.76	0.81
8.Give me positive feedbacks after presentation in English	2	3	40	43	12	3.61	1.57
7.Encourage me that I will get good grades if I study hard	2	12	51	29	6	3.26	0.78
Role Modeling						3.76	0.80

(Table 4.8 continued)

14. Display how to express opinion in English related to daily lives	0	3	19	53	25	4.00	0.90
2. Show me how to use simple English to explain themes	0	5	27	49	18	3.91	0.80
3.Role model how to communicate in English fluently	1	8	27	50	14	3.84	0.82
12. With simple and interesting opening to start classes	1	14	48	28	9	3.30	0.68
Establishing Relevance						**3.75**	0.55
4.Give examples to explain certain difficult grammars	0	1	8	48	43	4.32	0.81
17.Provide relevant learning materials to raise interest	1	4	26	49	20	3.82	0.83
13. Link the goal of activities with the everyday life	1	7	37	36	19	3.62	0.76
18.Incorporate the Internet and multimedia into teaching	2	14	54	21	9	3.24	0.86
Activity/Course Design						**3.89**	**0.50**
19. Different reading topics to increase the amount of reading	0	0	17	47	36	4.19	0.70
15. Extra learning materials to enhance teaching	0	3	17	55	28	4.03	0.74
20. Encourage me to write diary and composition in English	1	3	29	46	21	3.83	0.84
9. Teach related strategies to complete activities in class	1	3	28	52	16	3.81	0.84
16.Desgn activities within my capability	2	4	44	36	14	3.58	0.85
Familiarizing Learners with L2 related Cultures and Values						**3.75**	**0.56**
22.Emphasize the values of mastering English in future career	1	3	21	48	27	4.00	0.81
21. Remind me of advantages in future studies	1	3	26	44	26	3.89	0.86
23.Introduce topics related to cultures of the target language	1	6	34	45	14	3.69	0.82
24.Elaborate on the cultural aspect of the target language	1	6	37	44	12	3.63	0.80
25. Invite native speakers over to give lectures in class	2	8	40	36	14	3.54	0.90
Increasing Learners' Goal Orientedness						**3.71**	**0.63**

(Table 4.8 continued)

	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	SD
27.Help me set short-term and long-term learning goals	0	6	29	44	21	3.81	0.83
28. Remind me of the goal and monitor my progress in class	0	7	33	41	19	3.74	0.85
26.Recognize the meaning and goal of various activities	1	4	43	44	8	3.57	0.74

Note. a. *1*= Very Unimportant, *2*= Unimportant, *3*=Neutral, *4*=Important, *5*=Very Important

b. The percentage has been rounded to the whole number.

As Table 4.8 shows, it should be noted that Item Four in "establishing relevance" revealed the highest mean (4.32) and 91 % of the participants were positive about the importance of "give examples to explain certain difficult grammars." In terms of "activity and course design," Item Nineteen showed the highest mean (4.19) and 83 % of the participants considered "arranging different reading topics to increase the amount of reading" to be important to them.

In "role modeling," Item Fourteen showed the highest mean (4.00) and 78 % of the participants were positive about the importance of "display how to express opinion in English related to daily lives" on the part of English teachers. Within positive retrospective evaluation, Item One had the highest mean (3.98) and 80 % of the participants endorsed "why I make mistakes and give me feedbacks" to be most important in English learning.

With regard to "familiarizing learners with L2 related cultures and values," Item Twenty Two had the highest mean (4.00) and 75 % of the participants perceived "emphasizing the function of mastering English in future career" to be crucial for them in terms of motivational arousal. Last but not least, Item Twenty Seven in "increasing learners' goal orientedness" had the highest mean (3.81) and 65 % of the participants considered "helping me set long term and short term goal" to be important in English class.

Analysis of Mean Differences

Table 4.9 presents the means of importance, frequency, mean differences, along with the results of within subject t-tests. It should be noted that the scores of mean differences (subtract means of perceived importance from that of frequency) and significant differences between frequency and importance means highlighted if certain observed teaching behaviors were underutilized or overused relative to their perceived importance (see Table 4.9).

Table 4.9

Mean Scores of Frequency and Importance of Various Teaching Behaviors, the Mean Differences and Results of Within Subject T-test (n=300)

Frequency, Importance, M-diff and Sig. within Subjects	*M(F)*	*M(IM)*	*M-diff*	*Sig.*
Positive Retrospective Evaluation	**3.02**	**3.74**	**-0.72**	**.000**
1.Focus on why I make mistakes and give me retrospective feedbacks	3.11	3.98	-0.87	.000
5.Give me verbal praises and recognize my effort and achievement	2.96	3.76	-0.80	.004
6.Encourage me success in learning English results from hard work	3.25	3.76	-0.51	.000
7.Encourage me that I will get good grades if I study hard	3.19	3.26	-0.07	.422
8.Give me positive feedbacks after English presentation	2.83	3.61	-0.78	.000
10. Encourage me when encountering frustration	2.89	3.94	-1.05	.000
11.Encourage me meaning is more vital than grammar	2.92	3.83	-0.91	.000
Role Modeling	**3.13**	**3.76**	**-0.63**	**.000**
2. Show us how to use simple English to explain various themes	3.42	3.91	-0.49	.000
3.Role model how to communicate in English fluently	3.30	3.84	-0.54	.004
12. With simple and interesting opening to start classes	2.58	3.30	-0.72	.000

(Table 4.9 continued)

14. Display how to express opinion related to daily lives	3.21	4.00	-0.79	.000
Establishing Relevance	**3.05**	**3.75**	**-0.70**	**.000**
4.Give examples to explain certain difficult grammars	4.13	4.32	-0.19	.005
13. Link the goal of activities with the everyday life	2.84	3.62	-0.78	.000
17.Provide relevant learning materials to raise interest	4.12	3.82	0.30	.000
18.Incorporate the Internet and multimedia into teaching	2.29	3.24	-0.95	.000
Activity/Course Design	**3.25**	**3.89**	**-0.64**	.000
9. Teach related strategies to complete activities in class	3.28	3.81	-0.53	.000
15. Extra learning materials to enhance teaching	3.56	4.03	-0.47	.000
16.Desgn activities within my capability	3.04	3.58	-0.54	.000
19. Different reading topics to increase the amount of reading	3.60	4.19	-0.59	.000
20. Encourage me to write diary and composition in English	2.76	3.83	-1.07	.000
Familiarizing Learners with L2 related Cultures and Values	**3.15**	**3.75**	**-0.60**	**.000**
21. Remind me of advantages of learning English in future studies	4.00	3.89	0.11	.127
22.Emphasize the function of mastering English in future career	3.91	4.00	-0.09	.234
23.Introduce topics related to cultures of the target language	3.30	3.69	-0.39	.000
24.Elaborate on the cultural aspect of the target language	2.96	3.63	-0.67	.000
25. Invite native speakers over to give lectures in class	1.60	3.54	-1.94	.000
Increasing Learners' Goal Orientedness	**2.77**	**3.71**	**-0.94**	**.000**
26.Allow me to recognize the meaning and goal of various activities	2.93	3.57	-0.64	.000
27.Help me set short-term and long-term learning goals	2.62	3.81	-1.19	.000
28. Remind me of the learning goal and monitor my progress in class	2.74	3.74	-1.00	.000

Note. F= Frequency, IM=Importance

As Table 4.9 shows, all types of teaching behaviors showed significant differences between frequency and importance means ($p <.05$). Moreover, considering the mean differences, all types of behaviors were underutilized relative to their importance: (1) increasing learners' goal orientedness= -0.94, (2) positive retrospective evaluation= -0.72, (3) establishing relevance= -0.70, (4) activity/course design= -0.64, (5) role modeling = -0.63 and (6) familiarizing learners with L2 related cultures and values= -0.60. Nevertheless, Item Twenty One showed the positive figure of the mean difference (0.11), and no significance was found ($p > .05$), suggesting participants' observed frequency match the perceived importance. With the significant and mean differences between frequency and importance means, it is suggested that the mismatch were pervasive between the perceived importance and observed frequency in terms of teaching behaviors.

The second open-ended question aimed to elicit more perceptions from the perspectives of the participants concerning what teaching behaviors they personally think motivating to them and the reasons why they perceive so. The participants were inquired to recall the English classes they used to have in high school and the teaching behaviors English teachers once conducted (not referring to one particular English teacher).

Table 4.10 presents the categorization of student responses, Chinese highlighted excerpts (direct quotes from the participants) and English translation by the researcher and the help from one in-service English teacher in the previously mentioned high school. The first category is associated with the ideas students expressed concerning how English teachers could arrange activities of participatory nature to raise their interests in learning English. The second category concerns greatly with students' voices in regard to promoting the integrative values of English learning in class.

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Finally, the last category refers to English teachers' projection of enthusiasm towards the subject matter, which may motivate students in English learning to certain extent. After Table 4.10, the categorization of participants' responses in a descending order by the number of the participants, more highlighted excerpts and discussion are to be presented.

Table 4.10

Categorization of Student Responses and Exemplary Description of the Chinese and English Excerpts

Category	Chinese (Participants' Highlighted Response)	English (Translation)
1. Participation Structures	有趣的互動，例如比賽英文單字啊!作一些有關英文方面的小活動，穿插於教學之間，提升學習動力。 (S23)	Interesting interaction, such as English vocabulary contests in the middle of teaching and learning, which may elevate motivation of learning.
2. Promoting Integrative Values	欣賞一些有關英語的影片，吸引學生的注意力，然後可以介紹一下常被用到的英語詞彙跟相關文化背景。 （S47）	Watch some movies in English, thus attracting our attention. Then, teachers could introduce commonly used English vocabulary and its related cultural background.
3. Projection of Enthusiasm	如果英文老師在上課時能夠展現教學熱忱和熱情，我會更想要學英文，因為這些對我來說，在英語學習上都是有感染力的。 (S39)	If English teachers could show his or her enthusiasm in English teaching, I will feel more motivated. English Teachers' being enthusiastic and passionate is contagious to me in English learning.

***Participation Structure* (50 Participants)**

This category was not found in our questionnaire and many participants

indicated that teachers' different participatory nature of activities were motivating to the participants when learning English. More specifically, participants expressed that they hope to have more interactive activities either with English teachers or with fellow classmates. Activities as they claimed were "vocabulary spelling contests" and "communicative dialogues." The participants further addressed that these interactive activities could make English learning more relaxing. From the analysis of the qualitative data, I detected several responses, claiming English teachers' demonstration of the down-to-earth interactive dialogues in English would enormously enhance their learning motivation. The following examples present such responses:

(1) 我很喜歡老師能夠安排不同且有互動的對話活動來讓同學參與，尤其是可以用到課本上所學過的單字。

I love it when teachers could conduct more interactive dialogues, especially with the vocabulary I have previously learned in the textbook.

(S7)

(2) 我覺得可以在英文課上用英文跟英文老師對話，會讓我有動力學英文，且有更多的參與感。

I find it motivating to converse with English teachers in English, which gives me a sense of participation in class.

(S21)

(3) 我不懂高中英文老師為何不安排一些互動的單字競賽跟遊戲，以前國中老師都會讓學生參與這些課內活動。

Why don't high school English teachers arrange some interactive vocabulary spelling contests or games? That's how I was involved in English learning in junior high school.

(S35)

I highlighted the three exemplary statements in that there were many similar responses made like the above-mentioned responses, referring to "different forms of participation structures," as opposed to the traditional one-way delivery in English class, as motivating to high school students. In Taiwan, English teachers generally have to manage more than forty students in one class. Rarely may English teachers have deeper contact with students at a personal level. Besides, Taiwanese English teachers may usually have to teach four lessons in one month, with more than three hundred vocabulary, which may be virtually impossible for teachers to arrange this participatory kind of interactive activities frequently. For some participants, they were eager to interact with teachers so that they could be paid attention to, feeling valued by English teachers. For this reason, I speculated that if English teachers could get high school students involved in more interactive activities either within group or pair work in English class, they would feel motivated.

Promoting Integrative Values **(42 Participants)**

In terms of this category, there were several participants illustrating the motivational arousal when English teachers incorporate movies and music introducing foreign cultures into class. Furthermore, many of the participants highlighted that they could improve their listening comprehension and learn vocabulary contextually by listening to music and watching mini-series episodes in English. The pivotal statements are presented as the followings:

（4）如果英文老師能夠介紹及融入關於文化等方面歌曲，電影的話，我會比較想學英文。

I want to learn English more if teachers could incorporate the introduction of

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cultural aspect of teaching, some music, and movies into English courses.

(S92)

（5）*我喜歡英文老師上課可以適時的<u>安排熱門的電影</u>，這樣我們就可以從裡面學外國人如何用某種單字也比較容易記。*

I am more inclined to learn English when teachers could show us some current movies in class so that I could learn vocabulary more easily in contexts.

(S297)

(6) *在上課時有時因<u>無法了解背景文化</u>，就覺得沒有動力。如果可以放<u>小短片</u>幫助學習內容，我會更加有動力學習。*

I am loaded with motivation if teachers utilize some movies as explanations of background knowledge for better comprehension of the textbook.

(S126)

The majority of the participants regarded teachers' blending movies and music into English courses to be motivating. I supposed that many EFL high school teachers may be instructionally bound by the curriculum, thus having little time for such arrangement. With the qualitative data provided, more in-depth information revealed regarding motivational teaching behaviors from the participants' perspectives.

Projection of Enthusiasm **(39 Participants)**

Not only would students' attitudes influence English learning, but also teachers' enthusiasm. Some responses from the participants pointed out that they did care about if teachers were enthusiastic or passive in teaching. Some of them claimed that if teachers showed enthusiasm about the learning materials and delivered presentation passionately in class, the participants would be motivated and willing to learn. The

following excerpts highlighted the details of this category:

(7) 老師上課是否有<u>熱情</u>對我來說相當重要。這樣的話，我也會對英語學習
有動力。

I am rather concerned about whether or not English teachers are
enthusiastic about the teaching materials. If they are enthusiastic about
teaching, I would feel the same way.

(S55)

(8) 如果英文老師在上課時<u>展現熱情</u>，我就不會對這學科感到害怕。

I am more willing to learn when English teachers are passionate about
teaching English. This way, I won't feel that intimidated by the subject matter.

(S98)

With these two highlighted responses, it is suggested that teachers' projection of active attitude and passion may have a bearing on students' motivational arousal. English teachers in Taiwan may probably treat English as a subject matter and teach students many test-taking strategies and skills. Consequently, English teachers may teach English "cold" without demonstrating the active energy. From the responses in the second open-ended question, I noticed that these responses could be categorized into different types of motivational teaching behaviors that were different from the categories and items in the questionnaire survey. Furthermore, these responses could be classified into the aforementioned categories based on Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's (2008) taxonomy of motivational practice, thus triangulating and supplementing the participants' responses to the questionnaire.

Research Question Three: To what extent do high school participants with different genders and academic tracks perceive the importance of EFL teachers' teaching behaviors?

Analysis by Genders and Academic Tracks

The third research question was framed to shed light on if any significant differences may exist with regard to participants' genders and academic tracks.

Table 4.11 presents the results of descriptive statistics, describing the marginal means of overall importance of various types of teaching behaviors for the two main effects, the cell means for the interaction, as well as the standard deviations and the number of participants. Second, two-way ANOVA was performed to examine if the participants' background variables (i.e., genders and academic tracks as independent variables) had any effects on the dependent variable, the perceived importance of teaching behaviors of various types (see Table 4.12). Finally, I present the means of the perceived importance of various types of teaching behaviors and results of between subject t-tests by genders and academic tracks to see the whole picture in Table 4.13 and Table 4.14.

Table 4.11

Descriptive Statistics of Background Variables on Perceived Importance (n= 300)

Dependent Variable	Genders	Academic Tracks	*M*	*SD*	*n*
Perceived Importance	Male	Social Science	3.78	0.48	79
		Natural Science	3.75	0.38	72
		Total	3.77	0.42	151
	Female	Social Science	3.80	0.40	65
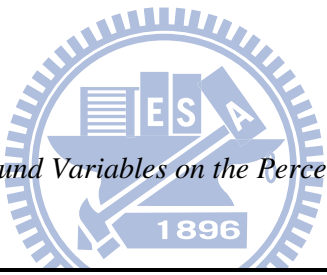
(Table 4.11 continued)

	Natural Science	3.69	0.32	84
	Total	3.76	0.37	149
Total	Social Science	3.80	0.42	144
	Natural Science	3.73	0.35	156
	Total	3.77	0.39	300

Before the aforementioned means of the perceived importance by genders and academic tracks could be interpreted, the results of two-way ANOVA were examined for the significant main effects and interaction effect for genders and academic tracks (see Table 4.12).

Table 4.12

Two-way ANOVA of Background Variables on the Perceived Importance by Genders and Academic Tracks

Independent Variables	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Genders	.020	1	.020	0.13	.721
Academic Tracks	.200	1	.200	1.30	.256
Genders * Academic Tracks	.069	1	.069	0.45	.504

*Note. * p <.05*

As revealed in Table 4.12, the results revealed no significant main effect for genders on the perceived importance of various types of teaching behaviors, F= .128, $p > 0.5$. Similarly, there were no significant main effect for academic tracks and no gender-by-academic track interaction effect on the perceived importance of teaching behaviors, as suggested in Table 4.12. Namely, regardless of varied learner backgrounds (i.e. genders and academic tracks), all participants attached the same

level of importance to teaching behaviors of various types.

Table 4.13 and Table 4.14 present the means and results of between subject t-tests further to show the detailed descriptive statistics with regard to genders and academic tracks separately.

Table 4.13

Perceived Importance by Genders and Results of Between Subject T-tests

	Male(n=151)		Female(n=149)		
Types of Teaching Behaviors	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*Sig.*
Positive Retrospective Evaluation	3.72	0.49	3.74	0.52	.807
Role Modeling	3.80	1.00	3.73	0.61	.478
Establishing Relevance	3.81	0.56	3.71	0.53	.148
Activity/Course Design	3.91	0.52	3.87	0.49	.465
Familiarizing Learners with L2 related Cultures and Values	3.64	0.59	3.83	0.52	.041*
Increasing Learners' Goal Orientedness	3.73	0.61	3.69	0.64	.583

*Note. * p* <.05

As can be seen in Table 4.13, male and females participants generally endorsed teaching behaviors of various types to be moderately important in arousing their motivation (M >3.50). Among various types of teaching behaviors, one type of teaching behavior, though, showed different levels of means between male and female participants—familiarizing learners with L2 related cultures and values (Male= 3.64, Female= 3.83, *p* < .05). Namely, female participants perceived higher level of importance of such teaching behavior.

Additionally, I computed the means of perceived importance by "academic tracks" to reveal the degree to which participants with various academic tracks held

different perspectives towards the teaching behaviors. Table 4.14 demonstrates the importance means of various types of teaching behaviors with regard to academic tracks.

Table 4.14

Perceived Importance by Academic Tracks and Results of Between Subject T-tests

Types of Teaching Behaviors	Social Science (*n*=144)		Natural Science (*n*=156)		
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*Sig.*
Positive Retrospective Evaluation	3.74	0.56	3.72	0.44	.918
Role Modeling	3.78	0.61	3.73	0.98	.623
Establishing Relevance	3.79	0.60	3.71	0.47	.229
Activity/Course Design	3.93	0.53	3.84	0.47	.254
Familiarizing Learners with L2 related Cultures and Values	3.81	0.55	3.68	0.55	.262
Increasing Learners' Goal Orientedness	3.73	0.62	3.68	0.63	.544

*Note. * p* <.05

As indicated in Table 4.14, the participants, despite of their academic tracks, generally endorsed equal level of importance in terms of various types of teaching behaviors (*p* > .05). As for the type of behavior that was highly endorsed by participants in Table 4.14, "activity and course design" had the highest means and no significant difference was found among participants with different academic tracks, thus revealing that exercising this type of behavior in classes was commonly believed to be motivating to participants regardless of their genders and academic tracks.

Research Question Four: What is the correlation between high school students' self-reported motivational orientations and their perceptions on various types of teaching behaviors?

Table 4.15 illustrates the correlation between participants' motivational orientations and perceived importance towards various teaching behaviors. The results indicated that intrinsic orientations among participants were positively correlated with most types of teaching behaviors: (1) positive retrospective evaluation = .298, (2) role modeling = .224, (3) establishing relevance = .250, (4) activity and course design = .430 and (5) familiarizing learners with L2 related values = .369.

Table 4.15

Correlation Coefficients between Motivational Orientations and Perceived Teaching Behaviors (n=300)

	Intrinsic	Extrinsic	Amotivation
	Orientations	Orientations	
Positive Retrospective Evaluation	.298*	.133	-.194*
Sig.	.000	.076	.009
Role Modeling	.224*	-.045	-.215*
Sig.	.000	.547	.003
Establishing Relevance	. 250*	.041	-.243*
Sig.	.001	.587	.001
Activity/Course Design	.430*	.039	-.325*
Sig.	.000	.600	.000
Familiarizing Learners with L2 related Values	.369*	.199*	-.378*
Sig.	.000	.007	.000
Increasing Learners' Goal Orientedness	.109	.147	-.057
Sig.	.145	.050	.045

b. Arkkelin (2007) stated that there is a general rule of thumb to indicate the strength of correlation coefficients with *r* values: (1) *r* values greater than .50 indicate a strong correlation, (2) *r* values around .30 indicate a moderate correlation and (3) *r* values less than .20 indicate a weak correlation.

As can be seen in Table 4.15, correlations between extrinsic orientations and teaching behaviors were low and some of them were negatively correlated with each other: (1) positive retrospective evaluation= .133, (2) role modeling = -045, (3) establishing relevance = .041, (4) activity and course Design = .040, (5) familiarizing learners with L2 values = .199 and (6) increasing learners' goal orientedness = .147. On the other hand, amotivation were all negatively correlated with various types of teaching behaviors perceived by the participants.

SUMMARY OF PRINCIPAL FINDINGS

In this section, the research findings are summarized below. In terms of the first research question, the results showed that the participants had different levels of agreement on the three types of motivational orientations: (1) intrinsic orientation, (2) extrinsic orientation and (3) amotivation. The participants reported that they had the highest level of extrinsic orientation (3.60), followed by intrinsic orientation (3.58), and amotivation (1.98). In the open-ended questions, more self-determined and externally regulated motivational orientations were found, thus supplementing and triangulating the self-reported questionnaire. By genders and academic tracks, the results suggested that male and female participants had the same level of agreement on extrinsic and intrinsic orientations whereas they endorsed different levels of agreement on amotivation. Female participants showed higher level of disagreement on amotivation. On the other hand, participants with different academic tracks endorsed equal level of agreement on the three types of motivational orientations.

In terms of the second research question, the results suggested that all types of observed teaching behaviors were underutilized in relation to their perceived importance. Within "familiarizing learners with L2 related cultures and values," Item 21, "reminding me of advantages of learning English in future studies" was the only item that showed no mean and significant difference, suggesting the congruence between the observed frequency and the perceived importance of such teaching behavior.

For the third research question, no significant main effects or interaction effect for genders and academic tracks on the perceived importance of various types of teaching behaviors were found.

For the last research question, the results indicated that most types of teaching behaviors in the current study were positively correlated with intrinsic orientations. In contrast, all types of teaching behaviors were negatively correlated with amotivation.
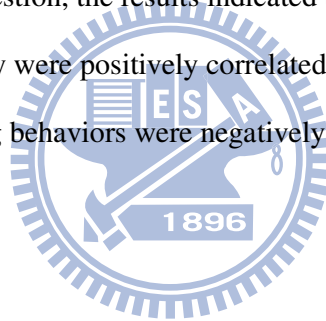
CHAPTER 5
DISCUSSION & CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of the study was to investigate high school students' motivational orientations and their perceptions towards various types of motivating teaching behaviors. In terms of teaching behaviors, I investigated the percentage distribution of agreement, frequency and importance to give the whole picture of motivational orientations self-reported as well as teaching behaviors observed and perceived by the participants. Furthermore, I examined and compared the mean and significant differences between the observed frequency and perceived importance to determine which types of teaching behavior were underutilized in relation to the perceived importance.

Finally, not only was the effect of background variables examined on the perceived importance of teaching behaviors but also the correlation was probed between students' motivational orientations and students' perceived importance of teaching behaviors.

This chapter discusses the principal findings of the current study following the order of the four research questions. Furthermore, the possible explanations, reasons and the relevant literature were reviewed and compared. Finally, the conclusion, implications, limitations and suggestions were provided for future research.

DISCUSSION OF PRINCIPAL FINDINGS

In this section, the research findings revealed in Chapter 4 were discussed based on the research questions of the current study.

Research Question One: **What are high school students' English learning motivational orientations? Is there any significance by genders and academic tracks?**

Based on the results of the 13 items comprising three types of motivational orientations (i.e., amotivation, extrinsic and intrinsic orientations) in the self-reported questionnaire, I found that the participants' motivational orientations were at the more self-determined extrinsic and most self-determined intrinsic end of the enhancing self-determination continuum depicted in Deci and Ryan's (1985) model of taxonomy of motivational orientations. In this model, "amotivation" is defined as the least self-determined orientation among the three types of orientations. On the other hand, "extrinsic orientation" is twofold and associated with being less self-determined (i.e., external and introjected regulation) and more self-determined (i.e., identification, integrative regulations) and finally to the intrinsic orientation, being the most self-determined.

Specifically, extrinsic orientation had the highest mean (3.60). Within extrinsic orientation, Item Eleven "obtain knowledge and change my lives" was endorsed by 87% of the participants for their reason of learning English. Item Nine "the school demand and pressure" was endorsed by 26 % of the participants. I speculated that the participants were more self-determined in pursuit of knowledge in English learning. Intrinsic orientation had moderately high mean (3.58). Item One "learning English is interesting because I could be exposed to various cultures" was agreed by 79 % of the participants as their reason for learning English. The aforementioned results suggested the participants in the current study showed more self-determined extrinsic orientation and the most self-determined intrinsic orientation.

Among the three types of motivational orientation, participants self-reported that they had the lowest level of amotivation orientation (M=1.98). More than seventy percent of the participants made negative responses towards this type of orientation. This phenomenon may account for the fact that the participants considered English to be applicable and acknowledged that their learning English was not merely test-oriented. Thus, these participants may endorse relatively lower level of amotivation. Considering the responses in the open-ended question, I found that high school students showed similar types of externally regulated motivational orientations with those in the self-reported questionnaire: (1) conscious valuing of English learning, (2) self-endorsement of goals, (3) integrative orientations. The categorizations, which are compatible with Deci and Ryan's (1985) taxonomy of extrinsically regulatory styles, revealed the participants' motivational orientations involving the integration of action and a strong sense of self. "Social comparison" was one socially shaped orientation that fit into the context of Taiwan

The results of two-way MANOVA and between subject t-tests implied that the participants, regardless of their academic tracks, showed equal level of agreement on all types of motivational orientations. A closer investigation of the results of MANOVA and between subject t-tests showed that there was significant main effect for genders on amotivation. In other words, female participants showed higher level of disagreement on amotivation than male participants.

These findings mentioned above are compatible with Kang's study (2000), which revealed that Korean high school students showed higher level of extrinsic and intrinsic orientations than integrative and instrumental ones. Similarly, Warden and Lin (2000) indicated that EFL learners showed higher level of extrinsic orientation than integrative one since they are not constantly exposed to the target language.

However, our results differ from that of Peng's (2001) study, suggesting high school students in Taiwan generally did not have a high level of intrinsic orientation.

Furthermore, Kang (2004), in Taiwan, suggested that female students showed slightly higher level of intrinsic orientation than male students, which contradicts the finding of the current study, suggesting male and female students endorsed equal level of agreement on intrinsic orientation. Nonetheless, Kang's (2004) study addressed elementary school, together with junior high school students, which differ from the participants in the current study. Furthermore, our results showed that high school students, in spite of their academic tracks, showed equal level of agreement on intrinsic and extrinsic orientations.

To sum up, our results of the self-reported questionnaire showed that high school students manifested moderately high level of more self-determined extrinsic and the most self-determined intrinsic orientations. In comparison, the responses in the open-ended question eliciting the reasons for high school students' learning English provided us with further evidence of what participants' motivational orientations were—identification(conscious valuing of English learning and self-endorsement of goals), integration orientations, and social comparison. Most of the aforementioned results echo Deci and Ryan's (1985) taxonomy of motivational orientations, allowing us to probe further in terms of EFL learners' motivational orientations.

Research Question Two: What are high school participants' perceptions on the frequency and importance of EFL teachers' teaching behaviors?

Observed Frequency of Teaching Behaviors

There were 28 items and six types of teaching behaviors as mentioned in the

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present study intended to elicit participant's opinion on the teaching behaviors conducted by EFL teachers. All the frequency means of the six types of teaching behaviors were not moderately high (M<3.50). The results implied that high school students observed that EFL teachers paid relatively more attention to "activity and course design," although the frequency mean was not high(3.25). Within this type of teaching behavior, fifty nine percent of the participants reported that the incorporation of "different reading topics to increase the amount of reading" was constantly practiced by English teachers in class while 40 percent of them indicated that "encouraging me to write diary and composition" was rarely practiced in English class.

On the one hand, these results suggested that English teachers in Taiwan may consider English reading skills relatively more important due to the fact that a major proportion of reading is incorporated into the content of the entrance exam of universities. On the other hand, the reason that "writing diary and composition" was practiced less frequently may be the tight curriculum EFL teachers had to follow, thereby leaving little time for students to create their own tangible products. The result of this underutilization of this teaching behavior is consistent with Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) study, indicating that EFL teachers may seldom encourage students to create tangible products such as writing diary or composition.

In addition, "increasing learners' goal orientedness" was least observed by high school students (2.77). Sixty seven percent of the participants claimed that EFL teachers sometimes or seldom helped them recognize the meaning and goal of various activities. Furthermore, fifty two percent of the participants revealed that they seldom or never saw English teachers set short-term and long-term goals for them. These results lend support to that of Oxford and Shearin's (1994) empirical study,

concluding "goal-setting can have exceptional importance in stimulating L2 learning motivation, and it is therefore shocking that so little time and energy are spent in the L2 classroom on goal-setting"(1994: 19).

To sum up, from teachers' perspectives, the result of Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) study revealed that EFL teachers themselves thought "increasing learners' goal orientedness" was commonly practiced in English class. From high school students' viewpoints, the results of the current study revealed a low frequency of such behavior, suggesting a possibility that what EFL teachers thought they did may not be in line with what EFL learners actually observed. Since the data pools for the aforementioned studies (including EFL teachers from various educational levels) varied from that of the current study (including EFL learners in one particular high school), I supposed that there is a need to probe high school students' perceptions as well. As the result of the current study revealed, EFL teachers and EFL learners, to certain extent, thought differently regarding the frequency of certain motivating teaching behaviors.

Perceived Importance of Teaching Behaviors

Among the six types of motivating teaching behaviors, the findings suggested high school students perceived English teachers' "activity and course design" to be most important in terms of motivational arousal. A closer investigation showed that more than two thirds of the participants (83%) thought "arranging different reading topics to increase the amount of reading" to be substantial. Moreover, the results also revealed that more than two thirds of the participants regarded the English teachers' providing "a wide variety of reading materials and supplementary learning strategies" to be important in English learning. This phenomenon may be probably linked with the mainstream testing method, which largely concerns high school student's reading proficiency.

This result is in line with Burden and William's (1998) notion, which suggested how English teachers arrange, present activities and design courses may be of importance to enhance learner motivation. Therefore, EFL teachers should be made aware of what kind of activities could be incorporated to raise interests and meet the needs of the target learners. Similar arguments could be found in Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) study, which indicated that the way EFL teachers arrange and present activities in class may enhance EFL learners' learning motivation.

Furthermore, the results revealed that "role modeling" was considered one of the most crucial types of teaching behavior to drive students to learn English. The results suggested that 78% of the participants considered "teachers' demonstration of how to express opinions in simple English related to daily lives" important. The result is in accord with Pintrich and Schunk's (1996) study, suggesting that establishing a personal example for learners to model has been found to be effective in arousing individual motivation.

By the same token, Dörnyei (1994a) also stated that teacher's behaviors in class may be the most powerful tool in influencing learners' motivational orientations and attitudes towards the target language. Similar results could be found in Dörnyei' and Csizer's (1998), together with Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) studies, which illustrated that "setting an example with one's behavior," may be motivating to EFL learners.

Generally speaking, human beings may be more willing to carry out tasks they perceive to be relevant. "Establishing relevance" was endorsed quite important by the students. Specifically, the results indicated that up to ninety one percent of the participants thought they would be motivated if English teachers could "explain grammar by using various examples to establish the connection" and 69 % of the participants regarded "providing relevant learning materials to raise interest" to be

significant. In Taiwan, it is generally believed that effective grammar teaching may give rise to desirable learning results since English tests for entry into colleges in Taiwan may probably be grammar-based.

Similar arguments have been found in Keller's (1987) ARCS model, which suggested that establishing relevance could function as a motivator that allows learners to sustain learning in that they perceive the relevance between the learning materials and their everyday lives. Besides, Crookes and Schmidt (1991) stated that "relevance" is a prerequisite which requires the learners' perspectives and their personal needs to be recognized and met in the learning situation.

Likewise, the participants have attached the same importance to "familiarizing learners with L2 related cultures and values" as "establishing relevance." The results revealed that more than two thirds of the participants agreed on the importance of "discussing the advantages and utility of learning English well in future studies" and 59 % of the participants thought "incorporating culturally related topics into English curriculum to be important."

The results parallel the concept that Gardner (1985) proposed, maintaining that language learners' disposition and attitudes towards the target language may be highly correlated with their achievement and motivation in learning. Brown (2001) also stated that "language is inseparable from culture," which may explain why students thought addressing cultural issues in English classes may be crucial to enhance their learning motivation.

"Positive retrospective evaluation" was considered important in English learning. The results showed that eighty percent of the high school students were concerned about whether or not English teachers would comment on their performance after every effort was made. This finding is consistent with Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007)

study, which suggested that the more English teachers positively responded to learners' efforts and gave students positive retrospective feedback for encouragement, the greater level of motivation learners had.

Increasing learners' goal orientedness was regarded to be least important, though with the mean moderately high (3.71). From the results, it is suggested that sixty percent of the participants felt motivated if English teachers had constantly exercised "goal setting," and "monitoring their progress" in class. The result differs from that of Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) study, indicating that EFL teachers may perceive little value and utility of goal setting in that EFL teachers in Taiwan may be confined to the overloading of curriculum and numerous instructional goals, thus not recognizing the importance as much as high school students do.

The Gap between Observed Frequency and Perceived Importance

As Dörnyei and Csizer pointed out (1998: 220), the measure of the mean differences may be the most meaningful one since it investigated the extent to which the observed frequency matches the perceived importance in terms of teaching behaviors. With the mean differences among each type of teaching behavior, I found that high school students responded differently to all types of teaching behaviors, which revealed the underutilization of such teaching behaviors relative to the perceived importance. In the following paragraphs, the types of behavior showing the highest and lowest mean differences were synthesized and discussed.

"Increasing goal orientedness" was most underutilized with regard to its importance. A closer investigation of the importance mean (3.71), mean difference (-0.94) and significant difference($p < .05$) revealed that the importance of this behavior was evaluated moderately high by high school students in terms of

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motivational stimulation but underutilized relative to its importance. This result differs from that of Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) study, which suggested that EFL teachers believed in the importance of goal setting and frequently conducted it in English classes while the high school students thought otherwise. Furthermore, the result of the current study parallels that of Dörnyei and Csizer's study (1998), which revealed the underutilization of goal setting practice relative to its importance in the context of Hungary.

Similarly, the finding is in line with Oxford and Shearin's empirical study (1994), revealing the underutilization of goal-setting practice in the language classroom. For the result of the current study, I speculated that EFL teachers in Taiwan may tend to be instructionally bound by the seemingly tight schedule of curriculum in that they may need to finish four English lessons within one month, which may not permit extra room to practice this teaching behavior constantly in class.
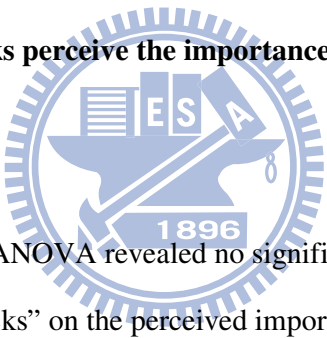
"Familiarizing learners with L2 related cultures and values" also demonstrated a mismatch between students' perceived frequency and importance (frequency mean = 3.15, importance mean= 3.75 and p <.05). The results suggested that 66% of the students perceived "elaborating on the cultural aspect of the target language" to be important in terms of motivational arousal. Nonetheless, EFL teachers did not exercise this teaching behavior frequently. The possible explanation for this may be the little time EFL teachers have to cover the seemingly overwhelming teaching load and therefore unable to make the time for further elaboration on the cultural aspect of language learning for students. Within this type, one item, "reminding me of advantages of learning English well in future studies," however, did not show mean and significant difference. I supposed that English teachers in Taiwan may recognize the values and advantages of mastering English in the near future and constantly

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remind high school students of such advantageous niche.

To sum up, the aforementioned teaching behaviors were considered important to high school students, but EFL English teachers hardly conducted them, suggesting a gap between what EFL learners thought important and what EFL teachers did in class.

Since the data pools (i.e., EFL teachers from all levels of educational settings) for the aforementioned studies (e.g., Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei & Csizer. 1998) varied from that of the current study, there appeared to be a need to investigate EFL teachers' teaching behaviors from the perspective of high school students, providing insights for the modification of English teaching materials in high schools.

Research Question Three: To what extent do high school students with different genders and academic tracks perceive the importance of EFL teachers' teaching behaviors?

The results of two-way ANOVA revealed no significant main effect for "genders" and "academic tracks" on the perceived importance of teaching behaviors and neither was significant gender-by-academic track interaction effect. Furthermore, the result of between subject t-tests also showed that high school students with different academic tracks endorsed equal level of importance towards various types of teaching behaviors. The possible explanation for this may be that English is a required subject matter as well as a mandatory test subject for students' entry into renowned universities. Therefore, participants with different genders and academic tracks may generally think of various teaching behaviors as equally motivating.

Based on the between subject t-tests, one of the exceptions of the results revealed that male and female participants endorsed different levels of importance on "familiarizing learners with L2 related cultures and values." Female participants

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attached higher degree of importance to such type of teaching behavior. I speculated

that female participants in the current study showed a higher level of agreement on the

motivational orientation item "learning English is interesting because I could be

exposed to various cultures" than male, thereby endorsing higher degree of

importance towards the aforementioned teaching behavior. This exceptional finding is

in line with Burden and William's study (1998), indicating that male and female

students may perceive teaching behaviors with different degree of importance.

In summary, the results of two-way ANOVA and between subject t-tests

suggested that high school students, regardless of their academic tracks, considered

each type of teaching behavior to be equally important in terms of motivational

arousal. However, among the six types of teaching behaviors, female students

attached higher level of importance towards "familiarizing learners with L2 related

cultures and values," which is consistent with the result of the current study that

female students showed higher level of agreement on the intrinsic orientation of

"exposed to various cultures."

**Research Question Four: What is the correlation between high school students'
self-reported motivational orientations and their perceptions on various types of
teaching behaviors?**

The results suggested that most types of teaching behaviors (except for

increasing learners' goal orientedness) were positively correlated with high school

students' intrinsic orientation. The following items present the correlation coefficients

between intrinsic orientations and various types of teaching behaviors in a descending

manner: (1) activity and course design(r = .430), (2) familiarizing learners with L2

related cultures and values (r = .369), (3) positive retrospective evaluation(r = .298), (4) establishing relevance(r =.250), (5) role modeling(r =.224), and (6) increasing learners' goal orientedness (r = .109). It should be noted that high school students with intrinsic orientations were correlated moderately high with the teaching behavior of "activity and course design"(r =.430). Namely, the higher level of intrinsic orientations students had, the greater importance students would attach to such teaching behavior.

In contrast, I found that five out of the six types of the teaching behaviors were not or lowly correlated with extrinsic orientations such as "familiarizing learners with L2 related cultures and values(r = .199)," which was lowly correlated with extrinsic orientations. Finally, I found that various types of teaching behaviors were mostly correlated with amotivation. The following items present the negative correlation coefficient in a descending order: (1) familiarizing learners with L2 related cultures and values (r = -.378), (2) activity and course design (r = -.325), (3) establishing relevance (r = -.243), (4) role modeling (r = -. 215), (5) positive retrospective evaluation (r = -.194) and (6) increasing learners' goal orientedness(r = -.057). In other words, the higher degree of amotivation orientation students possessed, the less likely high school students would attach importance to teaching behaviors of various types. I speculated that the positive and negative correlations between motivational orientations and perceived teaching behaviors may be explained by the fact that high school students had different types of motivational orientations.

In summary, I found the higher level high school students were intrinsically oriented, the more importance they would attach to teaching behaviors of various types. Conversely, it appeared no correlation between most teaching behaviors and extrinsic orientations. Finally, I found the higher degree of amotivation high school

students had, the less importance they would attach to teaching behaviors of various types.

These findings echo those of Alonso-Tapia and Pardo's (2006) study, which implied that students with intrinsic motivational disposition were positively correlated with secondary teachers' various instructional behaviors while students with amotivaion were negatively correlated with instructional behaviors. These results are also in accord with those of Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's (2008) study, suggesting EFL teachers' motivational practice may be positively correlated with EFL learners' self-reported motivational orientations.

CONCLUSION & IMPLICATIONS

In regard to motivational orientations, I found that high school students showed more self-determined extrinsic orientation and the most self-determined intrinsic one. That is to say, high school students in the present study revealed more integration of self and action in English learning. Second, there was significant difference found between female and male students' levels of agreement on amotivation, but no significant differences were found at the level of agreement on extrinsic and intrinsic orientations by genders. These findings may be of value for EFL teachers to refer to, thereby combining a variety of teaching behaviors to accommodate students with various motivational orientations. Meanwhile, EFL teachers could impart not only the content knowledge of the textbook in English but offer certain relevant materials concerning the target culture to stimulate students with various motivational orientations.

In view of the mean differences between the observed frequency and perceived importance, I also found that, from students' perspectives, all types of teaching behaviors conducted by EFL teachers were underutilized relative to the perceived

importance by EFL learners. These findings may lend support to the view that there may be a gap between what English teachers do and what students perceive to be important in English learning. Considering this, English teachers may endeavor to arrange and design a wide range of teaching activities that may tune in with the perceived needs and importance in terms of motivational stimulation in English learning.

Furthermore, this current study also found there was no interaction effect and main significant effect on the perceived importance of various teaching behaviors by genders and academic tracks. This finding implies that EFL teachers may need to conduct various types of motivational teaching behaviors and attend to what students conceive to be motivational in English classes in spite of students' academic tracks and genders.

Finally and equally important were the positive and negative correlations I found between the motivational orientations and the perceived teaching behaviors. These findings imply that EFL teachers should take student motivational orientations into account prior to arranging English classes. With this consideration, EFL teachers may effectively motivate high school students with different motivational orientations.

In conclusion, with the results of high school students' various motivational orientations and students' perceptions on various types of teaching behaviors, EFL teachers could modify their teaching behaviors and design diversifying activities to cater to students' various needs. Finally, it is hoped that EFL teachers in Taiwan may conduct teaching behaviors that are perceived to be important by EFL students.

LIMITATIONS & SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The study set out to examine high school students' motivational orientations and their perceptions towards EFL teachers' teaching behaviors via the questionnaire

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survey. Although the research questions were answered, the study was subject to the following limitations. First, in spite of a good sample size, all the participants came from one high school, which may be difficult to generalize the findings of the current study to high schools that share distant profiles from the high school in the current study. Second, the variable of the school year (i.e., from the first year to the third year) was not investigated due to the classes of varied natures among the first, second, and third year. Furthermore, it is hoped that more similar studies could be conducted at various specific levels (e.g., college, junior high and elementary school levels). Since the current study is quantitative-based, more qualitative-oriented research in this line could be considered, such as more longitudinal classroom observational studies to probe learners' motivated behaviors. Finally, future studies may also shed light on the effectiveness of incorporating various types of teaching behaviors mentioned in the current study into English teaching and whether or not motivational teaching training among EFL teachers may contribute to language learners' motivational arousal and achievement in the future research.
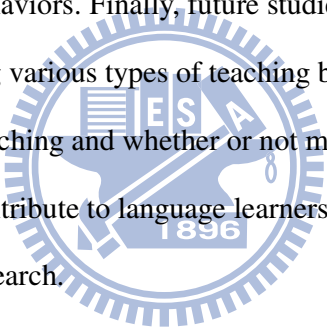
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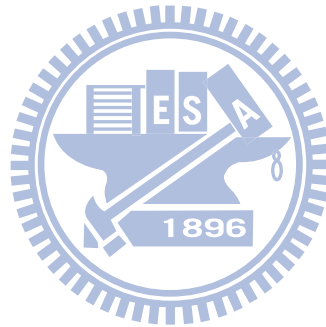
APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Questionnaire on Student Motivational Orientations and their Perceptions on Teaching Behaviors (Pilot Study)

高中生的學習動機特質

親愛的同學，您好

我是國立交通大學英語教學研究所的研究生,這是一份調查英語學習動機特質的問卷,施測對象是高中學生,基於研究需要,希望你提供寶貴的意見,經彙整分析後會將結果提交給相關教育機構,作為英語教學的參考。

本問卷結果僅供學術研究用途,且個人資料保密,請您仔細作答,感謝您寶貴的意見。

耑此 敬祝

學安
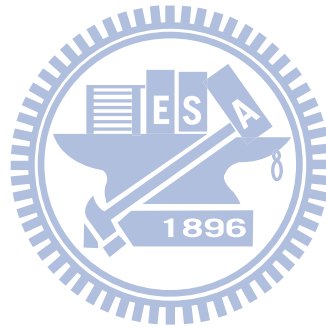
國立交通大學英語教學研究所

指導教授:黃淑真

研究生: 吳和典

姓名：_____

班級：_____

Agreement item	Agreement scale				
以下敘述你對英語學習動機特質的看法，請你圈選符合自己英語學習的選項(SD 非常不同意 D 有點不同意 N 沒意見 A 有點同意 SA 非常同意)	SD	D	N	A	SA
1. 對於英語學習我想增加不同的生活體驗	1	2	3	4	5
2. 對於英語學習我想幫助社會及他人	1	2	3	4	5
3. 對於英語學習我想增加自我競爭力	1	2	3	4	5
4. 對於英語學習我想認識不同的語言文化進而增加思考	1	2	3	4	5
5. 對於英語學習我想挑戰自己而樂於其中	1	2	3	4	5
6. 對於英語學習我想表達個人的獨特性	1	2	3	4	5
7. 對於英語學習我想要被老師認同接受及幫助	1	2	3	4	5
8. 對於英語學習我想逃避因為英語在生活中似乎沒有益處	1	2	3	4	5
9. 對於英語學習我想需要花很多力氣跟時間而想逃避	1	2	3	4	5
10. 對於英語學習我想獲得大眾認同及生涯上的成功	1	2	3	4	5
11. 對於英語學習我想得到不只學業上的知識追求且能改變生活	1	2	3	4	5
12. 對於英語學習我想我常被英語老師的沮喪情緒及態度所影響而想逃避學習英文	1	2	3	4	5
13. 對於英語學習我想要避免考試的不及格及挫折感	1	2	3	4	5

Agreement item	Agreement scale				
以下問題敘述英文老師在課室的動機行為學習及策略選項，請依據您的看法圈選你認為會引發您動機學習的選項（SD非常不同意 D 有點不同意 N 沒意見 A有點同意SA非常同意 ）	SD	D	N	A	SA
1.　英文老師會關心學生英語學習現況	1	2	3	4	5
2.　英文老師跟學生會藉由眼神接觸保持良好互動	1	2	3	4	5
3.　英文老師展現相當的教學熱誠	1	2	3	4	5
4.　英文老師會強調英語專精是不斷從錯誤中學習的過程	1	2	3	4	5
5.　英文老師在學生面前充分的展現自己使用英文的流暢度	1	2	3	4	5
6.　英文老師會以有組織及清楚的例子去解釋英文語法及概念	1	2	3	4	5
7.　英文老師會要求學生準備個人及團體的演講或話劇	1	2	3	4	5
8.　英文老師會稱讚和認同學生的努力與成就	1	2	3	4	5
9.　英文老師會關心學生的進步程度	1	2	3	4	5
10.　英文老師會提升在英語學習上長期努力的重要性	1	2	3	4	5
11.　英文老師會確定學生的努力會反映在分數上面	1	2	3	4	5
12.　英文老師會提供給學生正面的回饋及評語	1	2	3	4	5
13.　英文老師會教授學生學習英文的策略	1	2	3	4	5
14.　英文老師會鼓勵學生即使遇到挫折也要繼續努力	1	2	3	4	5
15.　英文老師會設計在學生能力範圍的活動	1	2	3	4	5
16.　英文老師會讓學生了解到在英語學習中清楚得表達意思會比是否文法完全正確還要更加重要	1	2	3	4	5
17.　英文老師會建立一個讓學生勇於發言的環境	1	2	3	4	5
18.　英文老師會避免各種語言使用在社會上的比較(例如英語比較強勢)	1	2	3	4	5
19.　英文老師會以幽默的方式進行課程	1	2	3	4	5
20.　英文老師會用簡短及有趣的開場白去開始每堂英文課	1	2	3	4	5
21.　英文老師會用自己當模範去指導及解說英語語法	1	2	3	4	5
22.　英文老師會跟學生解釋學習活動與學習活動間的關聯及意義性	1	2	3	4	5
23.　英文老師會呈現新的學習材料或更新資訊來引起學生的好奇心	1	2	3	4	5

24.	英文老師會提問跟學生生活上英語學習相關的問題及解決方案來增加好奇心	1	2	3	4	5
25.	英文老師幫助學生建立對英語學習實際的信念(例如英文是需要長期投資,不是一蹴可幾)	1	2	3	4	5
26.	英文老師會幫助學生設定短程及長程的學習目標	1	2	3	4	5
27.	英文老師會觀察學生的需求且將其需求納入課程設計及大綱	1	2	3	4	5
28.	英文老師會把學生的學習目標放在圖表且會時常檢視其目標之達成進度	1	2	3	4	5
29.	英文老師會將學習活動的具體目標作明確的說明	1	2	3	4	5
30.	英文老師會提供相關的英文閱讀材料	1	2	3	4	5
31.	英文老師會以視覺及聽覺的教學呈現方式增加學習興趣	1	2	3	4	5
32.	英文老師會使用空間的學習輔助材料(例如網路,地圖,情境等)	1	2	3	4	5
33.	英文老師會介紹不同的有趣主題	1	2	3	4	5
34.	英文老師會納入新穎及有想像力的元素來把學習活動變得更有吸引力	1	2	3	4	5
35.	英文老師會把學習活動變得有挑戰性	1	2	3	4	5
36.	英文老師鼓勵學生去用英文寫日記及創作	1	2	3	4	5
37.	英文老師會以不確定的口吻去刺激學生的思考	1	2	3	4	5
38.	英文老師會允許學生自由發問相關的問題	1	2	3	4	5
39.	英文老師會提醒學生專精英文的益處	1	2	3	4	5
40.	英文老師會提醒學生英文在未來工作的實用性	1	2	3	4	5
41.	英文老師會增加在課室裡英文的使用量	1	2	3	4	5
42.	英文老師會讓學生熟悉英文使用的文化背景	1	2	3	4	5
43.	英文老師會介紹道地的文化學習題材	1	2	3	4	5
44.	英文老師會鼓勵學生在課室外繼續練習及使用英文	1	2	3	4	5
45.	英文老師會邀請學長姐分享英語學習的經驗	1	2	3	4	5
46.	英文老師會邀請使用英文的母語人士來課室演講	1	2	3	4	5
47.	英文老師會鼓勵學生分享小組間個人的學習經驗	1	2	3	4	5
48.	英文老師允許學生藉由小組報告來互相了解組員	1	2	3	4	5
49.	英文老師會要求學生以團隊合作方式去解決問題	1	2	3	4	5
50.	英文老師會增加團體及個人報告的頻率	1	2	3	4	5
51.	英文老師會允許小組成員中互評及給予回饋	1	2	3	4	5
52.	英文老師會讓學生決定評量的方式	1	2	3	4	5
53.	英文老師會適度讓學生決定上課主題及進行方式	1	2	3	4	5

Questionnaire on Student Motivational Orientations and their Perceptions on Teaching Behaviors

高中生的學習動機特質／高中生對教師教學行為之觀感

親愛的同學，您好

我是國立交通大學英語教學研究所的研究生，這是調查您自己學英語的理由跟英語老師上課行為的問卷，施測對象是高中學生，基於研究需要，希望你提供寶貴的意見，資料經彙整分析後會將結果作為未來英語教學的參考。

本問卷結果僅供學術研究用途，且個人資料保密，請您以個人狀況及真實情境作答，感謝您寶貴的意見。

耑此　敬祝

學安

國立交通大學英語教學研究所

指導教授：黃淑真

研究生：吳和典

請翻頁填寫

1. 班級：_____
2. 姓名：_____
3. 性別：□ 男　　□ 女

第一部分：

以下選項敘述為何你學習英文理由，請你依據同意的程度圈選符合自己的選項。	非常不同意	不同意	沒意見	同意	非常同意
1. 我認為學習英語很有趣因為可以認識接觸不同文化生活。	1	2	3	4	5
2. 我認為學英文就可以獲取不同領域的知識。	1	2	3	4	5
3. 在英語學習過程中，我可以有很大的成就感。	1	2	3	4	5
4. 我覺得學英文可以讓我看懂有趣的外國影集。	1	2	3	4	5
5. 我很享受學習英文因為學習具有挑戰性及滿足感。	1	2	3	4	5
6. 學習英文我感受到許多樂趣及新鮮感。	1	2	3	4	5
7. 我學習英文很希望得到老師的稱讚及獎勵。	1	2	3	4	5
8. 我認為英語在生活上用不到，所以不想學習。	1	2	3	4	5
9. 我學習英文主要是因為學校課業的要求及壓力。	1	2	3	4	5
10. 我認為學習英文很有價值因為我可以考上好大學。	1	2	3	4	5
11. 藉著英語學習我想得到不只學業上的知識且能改變未來的生活。	1	2	3	4	5
12. 我不想學習英文因為不管我如何努力都達不成我想要的分數目標。	1	2	3	4	5
13. 如果沒有規定作業和考試，我才不想讀英文。	1	2	3	4	5

說明敘述	頻率選項					意見選項				
以下選項敘述英文老師(並不針對任一位英文老師)在教室的行為。老師這些做法是否對*你學習英文上產生動機*。就您的看法，請圈選右邊英文老師行為頻率及是否產生學習動機的意見選項。	不曾如此	很少如此	有時如此	常常如此	總是如此	非常不重要	不重要	沒意見	很重要	非常重要
1. 每當我犯錯，英文老師會專注在我為何犯錯，給我正面的評語。	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
2. 英文老師會常常在教室示範如何用簡單的英文解釋課程主題。	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3. 英文老師會在我面前示範流利的英文溝通能力。	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
4. 上課時，英文老師會舉不同的例子來說明部分困難的文法。	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
5. 英文老師會給予口頭稱讚和認同我的努力與成就。	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
6. 英文老師常在學習過程中鼓勵我英文學習的成功是長期累積得來的成果。	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
7. 老師會鼓勵我只要用功就會在英文課拿到好成績。	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
8. 老師在英語報告完會提供給我正面的回饋及評語。	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
9. 英文老師在課堂中會教我用相關英語學習策略來幫助我完成課程活動。	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
10. 在學習英文中如果遇到挫折英文老師會適當的鼓勵我。	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
11. 說完英文後，老師會鼓勵我在說英文時，意思表達清楚會比文法完全正確還重要。	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
12. 英文老師會用簡短及有趣的英文開場白進行英文課。	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
13. 英文老師會說明學習活動的目的及跟生活的關係。	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
14. 英文老師常示範如何用英文適度表達跟生活相關的議題。	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
15. 英文老師會提供課外的學習資料來增加教學多樣性。	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
16. 英文老師常設計在學生能力範圍內的活動。	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
17. 英文老師會提供相關有趣的英語輔助材料來提高學習興趣。	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
18. 英文老師會使用網路與多媒體來輔助教學。	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
19. 英文老師會安排不同的閱讀題材來增加閱讀量。	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
20. 英文老師會鼓勵我用英文寫日記及作文。	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
21.	英文老師會提醒我把英文學好在未來學業上的優勢。	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
22.	英文老師會提醒我英文在未來工作的實用性。	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
23.	英文老師會介紹跟英美文化相關的主題。	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
24.	我常聽到英文老師講解英語系國家的文化。	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
25.	英文老師會邀請使用英文的母語人士來課室演講。	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
26.	英文老師會讓我知道學習活動的目的及意義。	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
27.	英文老師會幫助我設定短程及長程的學習目標。	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
28.	英文老師會在上課時提醒我的英文學習目標且會時督促我檢視目標之達成進度。	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

第二部分:

1.從學習英文開始,你認為自己學習英文的主要理由是什麼? 為什麼?

_____

_____

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2. 在英語授課中根據你個人的學習經驗(不針對任何一位英語老師),你認為老師什麼行為會引起你學習的動機?請列舉三項行為並說明為什麼?(背面可繼續書寫)

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本卷到此結束，請檢查是否有遺漏之處。謝謝您的填答！